A Walker in. del. et Sculp.

Superent quibus hoc Neptune dedisti.

Virg: Æn: V.

A NEW

DICTIONARY

OF

TRADE and COMMERCE,

COMPILED FROM

The Information of the moſt Eminent MERCHANTS,

AND FROM

The Works of the beſt WRITERS on Commercial Subjects,

IN ALL LANGUAGES.

Containing, among other Things,

I. An Account of all the natural Productions, which are conducive to Trade, throughout the World.

II. The different Manufactures eſtabliſhed in each particular Country.

III. Explanations of all the Terms uſed in Commerce.

IV. Explanations of the principal Terms of Geography, Aſtronomy, and Navigation, ſo far as they are connected with Trade.

V. An exact Account of the Coins, Weights, and Meaſures in uſe throughout the World, reduced to the Engliſh Standard.

VI. A Deſcription of the Eſtabliſhed Banks, Trading Companies, and Staple Commodities, of different Countries.

VII. The State of the Britiſh Trade, National Debt, Funds, Cuſtoms, Exciſe, and other Taxes.

VIII. The Laws relative to Trade and Commerce.

For the Uſe of the

MERCHANTS and TRADESMEN of GREAT BRITAIN,

as well as of private Gentlemen.

By Mr. ROLT,

With the Aſſiſtance of ſeveral eminent Merchants.

LONDON:

Printed for T. OSBORNE and J. SHIPTON; J. HODGES; J. NEWBERY; G. KEITH; and B. COLLINS.

MDCCLVI.

BRITISH MUSEUM

To the RIGHT HONOURABLE

GEORGE Lord ANSON,

First Lord Commiſſioner for executing the Office of Lord High Admiral of GREAT BRITAIN.

My LORD,

TRADE and Commerce always fly for protection to the Great and Good. And COLBERT, by giving them encouragement in FRANCE, obtained as much permanent honour and glory, as MÆCENAS by his patroniſing the Muſes in ROME.

IT is with the utmoſt gratitude that I make uſe of your LORDSHIP's permiſſion in prefixing your name to this work, which I hope will merit your LORDSHIP's approbation. The ſubject-matter of it certainly deſerves the public attention; more eſpecially at this time, when our moſt formidable and moſt inſidious enemy is endeavouring, by every method and artifice, to extend her commerce, and to encroach on our colonies, in defiance of the moſt ſolemn treaties.

FRANCE, it is well known, has long aſpired at univerſal monarchy. And of late we have ſeen her armed with potent fleets, audaciouſly bidding defiance even to the BRITISH flag. But we ſeem at length to be ſufficiently rouſed, and are become duly ſenſible of the growth of her power, and the extent of her commerce. Nor need we dread either her ſtrength or her ſtratagems, whilſt our naval force is ſo glorioufly exerted, for the honour of our moſt gracious Sovereign, and the protection of his people.

BUT though the FRENCH have, for ſeveral years paſt, been very aſſiduous in cultivating every branch of their commerce; whereby they have increaſed it to a degree, that ought to alarm us, and induce us to guard againſt their incroachments: yet it is very evident that Monſ. SAVARY, in his DICTIONARY, in order to animate his fellow-ſubjects to proſecute their commercial intereſts with the greater vigour, endeavours to perſuade them that their trade is already much more extenſive than it really is; and to impoſe upon the credulity of other nations alſo, by giving a very exaggerated repreſentation of the nature and extent of their exports and imports; many branches of which, though enumerated by him with great oſtentation, either never exiſted at all, or in a degree greatly inferior to what he would make us believe. But my buſineſs, as a BRITISH writer, was of a very different kind. And I have throughout the whole of this performance paid due deference to the inſtructions I was honoured with from your truly noble

noble and illuſtrious friend the Earl of GRANVILLE. Such inſtructions I ſhall ever be ambitious of purſuing, when they come from ſo diſtinguiſhed a perſonage, and are calculated for ſuch noble purpoſes.

Your LORDSHIP's love to your country, and your generous and unwearied endeavours to protect and extend her commerce, are univerſally acknowledged. Great reaſon have we therefore to adore the Divine Providence, which preſerved you, amidſt the moſt imminent dangers, and affords you an opportunity, at this critical conjuncture, of again exerting that valour, ſteadineſs, and conduct, which raiſed you to that high and important ſtation, the duties whereof you ſo worthily diſcharge.

MAY your LORDSHIP long remain the ornament of your country, and dignify thoſe honours the FATHER OF HIS PEOPLE has ſo deſervedly beſtowed on you! We may then reſt aſſured that our naval power will be properly ſupported, our foreign trade fully protected, and our enemies be obliged to tremble at the formidable appearance of the BRITISH flag.

I AM, with that veneration and eſteem, which your ſingular and exalted merit commands from every true BRITON,

My LORD,

Your LORDSHIP's much obliged

and moſt obedient humble ſervant,

1 JY 64

December 24. 1755.

RICHARD ROLT.

THE PREFACE.

NO expectation is more fallacious than that which authors form of the reception which their labours will find among mankind. Scarcely any man publiſhes a book, whatever it be, without believing that he has caught the moment when the publick attention is vacant to his call, and the world is diſpoſed in a particular manner to learn the art which he undertakes to teach.

THE writers of this volume are not ſo far exempt from epidemical prejudices, but that they likewiſe pleaſe themſelves with imagining, that they have reſerved their labours to a propitious conjuncture, and that this is the proper time for the publication of a DICTIONARY OF COMMERCE.

THE predictions of an author are very far from infallibility; but in juſtification of ſome degree of confidence it may be properly obſerved, that there was never from the earlieſt ages a time in which trade ſo much engaged the attention of mankind, or commercial gain was ſought with ſuch general emulation. Nations which have hitherto cultivated no art but that of war, nor conceived any means of encreaſing riches but by plunder, are awakened to more inoffenſive induſtry. Thoſe whom the poſſeſſion of ſubterraneous treaſures have long diſpoſed to accommodate themſelves by foreign induſtry, are at laſt convinced that idleneſs never will be rich. The merchant is now invited to every port, manufactures are eſtabliſhed in all cities, and princes who juſt can view the ſea from ſome ſingle corner of their dominions, are enlarging harbours, erecting mercantile companies, and preparing to traffick in the remoteſt countries.

NOR is the form of this work leſs popular than the ſubject. It has lately been the practice of the learned to range knowledge by the alphabet, and publiſh dictionaries of every kind of literature. This practice has perhaps been carried too far by the force of faſhion. Sciences, in themſelves ſyſtematical and coherent, are not very properly broken into ſuch fortuitous diſtributions. A dictionary of Arithmetick or Geometry can ſerve only to confound. But commerce, conſidered in its whole extent, ſeems to refuſe any other method of arrangement, as it compriſes innumerable particulars unconnected with each other, among which there is no reaſon why any ſhould be firſt or laſt, better than is furniſhed by the letters that compoſe their names.

WE cannot indeed boaſt ourſelves the inventors of a ſcheme ſo commodious and comprehenſive. The French, among innumerable projects for the promotion of traffick, have taken care to ſupply their merchants with a *Dictionaire de Commerce*, collected with great induſtry and exactneſs, but too large for common uſe, and adapted to their own trade. This book, as well as others, has been carefully conſulted, that our merchants may not be ignorant of any thing known by their enemies or rivals.

SUCH indeed is the extent of our undertaking, that it was neceſſary to ſolicite every information, to conſult the living and the dead. The great qualification of him that attempts a work thus general is diligence of enquiry. No man has opportunity or ability to acquaint himſelf with all the ſubjects of a commercial dictionary, ſo as to deſcribe from his own knowledge, or aſſert on his own experience. He muſt therefore often depend upon the veracity of others, as every man depends in common life, and have no other ſkill to boaſt than that of ſelecting judiciouſly, and arranging properly.

BUT to him who conſiders the extent of our ſubject, limited only by the bounds of nature and of art, the taſk of ſelection and method will appear ſufficient to overburthen induſtry and diſtract attention. Many branches of commerce are ſubdivided into ſmaller and ſmaller parts, till at laſt they become ſo minute as not eaſily to be noted by obſervation. Many intereſts are ſo woven among each other as not to be diſentangled without long enquiry; many arts are induſtriouſly kept ſecret, and many practices neceſſary to be known are carried on in parts too remote for intelligence.

BUT the knowledge of trade is of ſo much importance to a maritime nation, that no labour can be thought great by which information may be obtained; and therefore we hope the reader will not have reaſon to complain, that, of what he might juſtly expect to find, any thing is omited.

To give a detail or analyſis of our work is very difficult; a volume intended to contain whatever is requiſite to be known by every trader, neceſſarily becomes ſo miſcellaneous and unconnected as not to be eaſily reducible to heads; yet, ſince we pretend in ſome meaſure to treat of traffick as a ſcience, and to make that regular and ſyſtematical which has hitherto been to a great degree fortuitous and conjectural, and has often ſucceeded by chance rather than by conduct, it will be proper to ſhew that a diſtribution of parts has been attempted, which though rude and inadequate will at leaſt preſerve ſome order, and enable the mind to take a methodical and ſucceſſive view of this deſign.

IN the dictionary which we here offer to the publick we propoſe to exhibit the *materials*, the *places*, and the *means* of traffick.

THE materials or ſubjects of traffick are *whatever is bought and ſold*, and include therefore every manufacture of art, and almoſt every production of nature.

IN giving an account of the commodities of nature, whether thoſe which are to be uſed in their original ſtate, as drugs and ſpices, or thoſe which become uſeful when they receive a new form from human art, as flax, cotton, and metals, we ſhall ſhew the places of their production, the manner in which they grow, the art of cultivating or collecting them, their diſcriminations and varieties, by which the beſt ſorts are known from the worſe, and genuine from fictitious, the arts by which they are counterfeited, the caſualties by which they are impaired, and the practices by which the damage is palliated or concealed. We ſhall likewiſe ſhew their virtues and uſes, and trace them through all the changes which they undergo.

THE hiſtory of manufactures is likewiſe delivered. Of every artificial commodity the manner in which it is made is in ſome meaſure deſcribed, though it muſt be remembred, that manual operations are ſcarce to be conveyed by any words to him that has not ſeen them. Some general notions may however be afforded; it is eaſy to comprehend, that plates of iron are formed by the preſſure of rollers, and bars by the ſtrokes of a hammer, that a cannon is caſt, and that an anvil is forged. But as it is to moſt traders of more uſe to know when their goods are well wrought, than by what means, care has been taken to name the places where every manufacture has been carried furtheſt, and the marks by which its excellency may be aſcertained.

BY the *places of trade* are underſtood all ports, cities, or towns where ſtaples are eſtabliſhed, manufactures are wrought, or any commodities are bought and ſold advantageouſly. This part of our work includes an enumeration of almoſt all the remarkable places in the world, with ſuch an account of their ſituation, cuſtoms, and products, as the merchant would require who being to begin a new trade in any foreign country, was yet ignorant of the commodities of the place, and the manners of the inhabitants.

But the chief attention of the merchant, and conſequently of the author who writes for merchants, ought to be employed upon the *means* of trade, which include all the knowledge and practice neceſſary to the ſkilful and ſucceſsful conduct of commerce.

The firſt of the *means* of trade is proper education, which may confer a competent ſkill in numbers; to be afterwards completed in the counting-houſe, by obſervation of the manner of ſtating accompts, and regulating books, which is one of the few arts which having been ſtudied in proportion to its importance, is carried as far as life can require. The counting-houſe of an accompliſhed merchant is a ſchool of method, where the great ſcience may be learned of ranging particulars under generals, of bringing the different parts of a tranſaction together, and of ſhewing at one view a long ſeries of dealing and exchange. Let no man venture into large buſineſs while he is ignorant of the method of regulating books; never let him imagine that any degree of natural abilities will enable him to ſupply this deficience, or preſerve multiplicity of affairs from inextricable confuſion.

This is the ſtudy, without which all other ſtudies will be of little avail; but this alone is not ſufficient. It will be neceſſary to learn many other things, which however may be eaſily included in the preparatory inſtitutions, ſuch as an exact knowledge of the *Weights* and *Meaſures* of different countries, and ſome ſkill in geography and navigation, with which this book may perhaps ſufficiently ſupply him.

In navigation, conſidered as part of the ſkill of a merchant, is included not ſo much the art of ſteering a ſhip, as the knowledge of the ſea coaſt, and of the different parts to which his cargoes are ſent, the cuſtoms to be paid, the paſſes, permiſſions, or certificates, to be procured, the hazards of every voyage, and the true rate of inſurances. To this muſt be added, an acquaintance with the policies and arts of other nations, as well thoſe to whom the commodities are ſold, as of thoſe who carry goods of the ſame kind to the ſame market, and who are therefore to be watched as rivals endeavouring to take advantage of every error, miſcarriage, or debate.

The chief of the *means* of trade is *Money*, of which our late refinements in traffick have made the knowledge extremely difficult. The merchant muſt not only inform himſelf of the various denominations and value of foreign coins, together with their method of counting and reducing; ſuch as the millereis of Portugal, and the livres of France; but he muſt learn what is of more difficult attainment, the diſcount of exchanges, the nature of current paper, the principles upon which the ſeveral banks of Europe are eſtabliſhed, the real value of funds, the true credit of trading companies, with all the ſources of profit, and poſſibilities of loſs.

All this he muſt learn merely as a private dealer attentive only to his own advantage; but as every man ought to conſider himſelf as part of the community to which he belongs, and while he proſecutes his own intereſt to promote likewiſe that of his country, it is neceſſary for the trader to look abroad upon mankind, and ſtudy many queſtions which are perhaps more properly political than mercantile.

He ought therefore to conſider very accurately the balance of trade, or the proportion between things exported and imported; to examine what kinds of commerce are unlawful, either as being expreſsly prohibited, becauſe detrimental to the manufactures or other intereſt of his country, as the exportation of ſilver to the Eaſt Indies, and the introduction of French commodities; or unlawful in itſelf, as the traffick for Negroes. He ought to be able to ſtate with accuracy, the benefits and miſchiefs of monopolies, and excluſive companies; to enquire into the arts which have been practiſed by them to make themſelves neceſſary, or by their opponents to make them odious. He ſhould inform himſelf what trades are declining, and what are improveable; when the advantage is on our ſide, and when on that of our rivals.

PREFACE.

THE ſtate of our *Colonies* is always to be diligently ſurveyed, that no advantage may be loſt which they can afford, and that every opportunity may be improved of increaſing their wealth and power, or of making them uſeful to their mother country.

THERE is no knowledge of more frequent uſe than that of duties and impoſts, whether cuſtoms paid at the ports, or exciſes levied upon the manufacturer. Much of the proſperity of a trading nation depends upon duties properly apportioned; ſo that what is neceſſary may continue cheap, and what is of uſe only to luxury may in ſome meaſure attone to the publick for the miſchief done to individuals. Duties may often be ſo regulated as to become uſeful even to thoſe that pay them; and they may be likewiſe ſo unequally impoſed as to diſcourage honeſty, and depreſs induſtry, and give temptation to fraud and unlawful practices.

To teach all this is the deſign of the Commercial Dictionary, which though immediately and primarily written for the merchants, will be of uſe to every man of buſineſs or curioſity. There is no man who is not in ſome degree a merchant, who has not ſomething to buy and ſomething to ſell, and who does not therefore want ſuch inſtructions as may teach him the true value of poſſeſſions or commodities.

THE deſcriptions of the productions of the earth and water, which this volume will contain, may be equally pleaſing and uſeful to the ſpeculatiſt with any other natural hiſtory; and the accounts of various manufactures will conſtitute no contemptible body of experimental philoſophy. The deſcriptions of ports and cities may inſtruct the geographer as well as if they were found in books appropriated only to his own ſcience; and the doctrines of funds, inſurances, currency, monopolies, exchanges, and duties, is ſo neceſſary to the politician that without it he can be of no uſe either in the council or the ſenate, nor can ſpeak or think juſtly either on war or trade.

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1 JY 64

A NEW ENGLISH DICTIONARY OF TRADE and COMMERCE.

A B A

A, The firſt letter of the Engliſh alphabet; as it is alſo in that of moſt other languages.

Merchants, bankers, and book-keepers, uſe it, either alone, or followed by ſome other initial letters, for abridging certain terms of trade, ſaving time, and rejecting ſuperfluous words in their journals, and other books of accompt.

A, B, C, and the other alphabetical letters, are diſtinguiſhing characteriſtics of mercantile ſetts of accompt; anſwering the end of the numbers 1, 2, 3, and the reſt of the numerical figures, that proper references may be made from the new ſetts to the old ones.

AA. A river of the French Netherlands, riſing in Picardy, and running N. E. acroſs Artois; then, paſſing by St. Omers, continues its courſe N. to Gravelin in Flanders; below which it falls into the Engliſh channel.

AAGI-DOGH. A Perſian word, ſignifying, in Engliſh, *a bitter mountain*; having this denomination, becauſe it is reputed a very dangerous paſſage for the caravans from Conſtantinople to Iſpahan; and is ſituated near Chaouqueu, about a day's journey from Louri.

As ſoon as the caravans arrive at the paſs of this mountain, all the camels and horſes are numbered: when the caravan-bachi exacts a duty for each of them; partly towards the payment of the ſoldiers who guard the caravan, and partly for the defraying of other ſmall charges; tho' not without a reſervation of the moſt conſiderable ſhare for himſelf.

AAM. See *Awm*.

ABACA. A kind of flax, or hemp, of the growth of ſome of the Philippine iſlands; of which there are two ſorts, the white, and the grey. It is ſuppoſed to be a ſpecies of Indian plantane, ſown annually; and, when gathered, ſteeped like real hemp. Very fine linen is made of the *white* abaca; but the *grey* is only uſed for cordage. See *Hemp*.

ABAGI. A coin current in Perſia, and in all the ſtates dependent on that monarchy.

The abagi is worth in Teflis, and all Georgia, about 1 s. 6 d. ſterling; 4 chaouris, called alſo ſains, make 1 abagi; an uſaltou is worth half an abagi, or 2 chaouris; 40 aſpers, or carbequis, make 1 abagi.

ABAFT, in the ſea-language, is uſed in ſpeaking of things placed or done toward the ſtern, or hinder-part of a veſſel; called alſo *aft*, and ſtands oppoſed to *fore*. Thus mariners ſay a thing is *abaft* the fore maſt, when it is behind it, or nearer the ſtern than the fore-maſt; and the poſt of the maſter, captain, and other officers, is *abaft* the main-maſt: for the ſtern, ſtrictly ſpeaking, is only the outſide; but *abaft* includes both inſide and out. See *Stern*.

ABAS. A Perſian weight for pearls, being one eighth part lighter than the European carat. See *Carat*.

ABASSI. A Perſian ſilver coin, deriving its name from

A B E

Shah-Abas II. who ordered its coinage; having the Mahommeddan profeſſion of faith, on the one ſide, for a legend; and, on the reverſe, the name *Abas*, with the town where it was coined. It has an extraordinary currency in Perſia; being worth 2 mamoudis, or about 1 s. 4½ d. ſterling.

There are alſo pieces of five, and of two abaſſis; but theſe are generally accounted a ſort of pocket-pieces, and of no conſequence in commerce. The traders at Iſpahan, and throughout the reſt of the Perſian dominions, paſs ſilver coins by weight, and not by tale; the bags being of 50 tomans, which make 2500 abaſſis, and are weighed by weights of 1 toman each, or 50 abaſſis: but if the abaſſis are ſuſpected to be light, or counterfeit, the fraud may be diſcovered by weighing 25 of them againſt 25, and ſo on.

ABATELEMENT. A term uſed among the French in the ports of the Levant, ſignifying a ſentence of the conſul, prohibiting all commerce to ſuch of the merchants of this nation, who either diſavow their bargains, or refuſe to pay their debts. And this prohibition is attended with ſuch ſeverity, that thoſe againſt whom it is pronounced, are not even allowed to ſue any perſon for the payment of their debts, till they have made ample ſatisfaction purſuant to the conſular ſentence, and annulled the abatelement, by paying and executing all therein contained.

ABATEMENT. See *Rebate*.

ABB, among clothiers, ſignifies the yarn of a weaver's warp; and abb-wool is alſo uſed in the ſame ſenſe.

ABBEVILLE. A large city of France, in the Lower Picardy, capital of the county of Ponthieu, and ſituated 15 miles E. of the Britiſh channel; being ſo conſiderable for its woollen trade, that the manufacture eſtabliſhed there is reputed to rival that of any town in England. See *France*.

ABEL-MOSC, or *Ambrette*, is the ſeed of a plant growing in Egypt and the Antilles iſlands; whoſe leaves are greeniſh, and velveted, much reſembling thoſe of marſh-mallows; and therefore called, by our modern botaniſts, the velvet marſh-mallows of the Indies.

This ſeed is ſcarce bigger than the head of a very large pin, in form like a little kidney; greyiſh, and, as it were, ſhagreened on the upper part, with a ſmell partaking both of amber and muſk. It is principally uſed as a compoſition in ſome perfumes, wherein none but experienced perſons know how to employ it. Italian perfumers make great uſe of it; and, in France, the nuns, and dealers in paternoſters, make beads of it.

That of Martinico is the moſt preferable of all; which ſhould be choſen new, plump, dry, clean, and of a good ſcent. See *Ambrette*.

ABENATIS. A people of Canada. See *Indian America*.

ABERDEEN. A city of Scotland, in the county of Mar or Aberdeen, ſituated in 1 deg. 45 min. of W. longi-

PREFACE.

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A NEW ENGLISH DICTIONARY OF TRADE and COMMERCE.

A, The firſt letter of the Engliſh alphabet; as it is alſo in that of moſt other languages.

Merchants, bankers, and book-keepers, uſe it, either alone, or followed by ſome other initial letters, for abridging certain terms of trade, ſaving time, and rejecting ſuperfluous words in their journals, and other books of accompt.

A, B, C, and the other alphabetical letters, are diſtinguiſhing characteriſtics of mercantile ſetts of accompt; anſwering the end of the numbers 1, 2, 3, and the reſt of the numerical figures, that proper references may be made from the new ſetts to the old ones.

AA. A river of the French Netherlands, riſing in Picardy, and running N. E. acroſs Artois; then, paſſing by St. Omers, continues its courſe N. to Gravelin in Flanders; below which it falls into the Engliſh channel.

AAGI-DOGII. A Perſian word, ſignifying, in Engliſh, *a bitter mountain*; having this denomination, becauſe it is reputed a very dangerous paſſage for the caravans from Conſtantinople to Iſpahan; and is ſituated near Chaouqueu, about a day's journey from Louri.

As ſoon as the caravans arrive at the paſs of this mountain, all the camels and horſes are numbered: when the caravan-bachi exacts a duty for each of them; partly towards the payment of the ſoldiers who guard the caravan, and partly for the defraying of other ſmall charges; tho' not without a reſervation of the moſt conſiderable ſhare for himſelf.

AAM. See *Awm*.

ABACA. A kind of flax, or hemp, of the growth of ſome of the Philippine iſlands; of which there are two ſorts, the white, and the grey. It is ſuppoſed to be a ſpecies of Indian plantane, ſown annually; and, when gathered, ſteeped like real hemp. Very fine linen is made of the *white* abaca; but the *grey* is only uſed for cordage. See *Hemp*.

ABAGI. A coin current in Perſia, and in all the ſtates dependent on that monarchy.

The abagi is worth in Teflis, and all Georgia, about 1 s. 6 d. ſterling; 4 chaouris, called alſo ſains, make 1 abagi; an uſaltou is worth half an abagi, or 2 chaouris; 40 aſpers, or carbequis, make 1 abagi.

ABAFT, in the ſea-language, is uſed in ſpeaking of things placed or done toward the ſtern, or hinder-part of a veſſel; called alſo *aft*, and ſtands oppoſed to *fore*. Thus mariners ſay a thing is *abaft* the fore maſt, when it is behind it, or nearer the ſtern than the fore-maſt; and the poſt of the maſter, captain, and other officers, is *abaft* the main-maſt: for the ſtern, ſtrictly ſpeaking, is only the outſide; but *abaft* includes both inſide and out. See *Stern*.

ABAS. A Perſian weight for pearls, being one eighth part lighter than the European carat. See *Carat*.

ABASSI. A Perſian ſilver coin, deriving its name from Shah-Abas II. who ordered its coinage; having the Mahommeddan profeſſion of faith, on the one ſide, for a legend; and, on the reverſe, the name *Abas*, with the town where it was coined. It has an extraordinary currency in Perſia; being worth 2 mamoudis, or about 1 s. 4½ d. ſterling.

There are alſo pieces of five, and of two abaſſis; but theſe are generally accounted a ſort of pocket-pieces, and of no conſequence in commerce. The traders at Iſpahan, and throughout the reſt of the Perſian dominions, paſs ſilver coins by weight, and not by tale; the bags being of 50 tomans, which make 2500 abaſſis, and are weighed by weights of 1 toman each, or 50 abaſſis: but if the abaſſis are ſuſpected to be light, or counterfeit, the fraud may be diſcovered by weighing 25 of them againſt 25, and ſo on.

ABATELEMENT. A term uſed among the French in the ports of the Levant, ſignifying a ſentence of the conſul, prohibiting all commerce to ſuch of the merchants of this nation, who either diſavow their bargains, or refuſe to pay their debts. And this prohibition is attended with ſuch ſeverity, that thoſe againſt whom it is pronounced, are not even allowed to ſue any perſon for the payment of their debts, till they have made ample ſatisfaction purſuant to the conſular ſentence, and annulled the abatelement, by paying and executing all therein contained.

ABATEMENT. See *Rebate*.

ABB, among clothiers, ſignifies the yarn of a weaver's warp; and abb-wool is alſo uſed in the ſame ſenſe.

ABBEVILLE. A large city of France, in the Lower Picardy, capital of the county of Ponthieu, and ſituated 15 miles E. of the Britiſh channel; being ſo conſiderable for its woollen trade, that the manufacture eſtabliſhed there is reputed to rival that of any town in England. See *France*.

ABEL-MOSC, or *Ambrette*, is the ſeed of a plant growing in Egypt and the Antilles iſlands; whoſe leaves are greeniſh, and velveted, much reſembling thoſe of marſh-mallows; and therefore called, by our modern botaniſts, the velvet marſh-mallows of the Indies.

This ſeed is ſcarce bigger than the head of a very large pin, in form like a little kidney; greyiſh, and, as it were, ſhagreened on the upper part, with a ſmell partaking both of amber and muſk. It is principally uſed as a compoſition in ſome perfumes, wherein none but experienced perſons know how to employ it. Italian perfumers make great uſe of it; and, in France, the nuns, and dealers in paternoſters, make beads of it.

That of Martinico is the moſt preferable of all; which ſhould be choſen new, plump, dry, clean, and of a good ſcent. See *Ambrette*.

ABENATIS. A people of Canada. See *Indian America*.

ABERDEEN. A city of Scotland, in the county of Mar or Aberdeen, ſituated in 1 deg. 45 min. of W. longi-

tude, and 57 deg. 12 min. of N. latitude; being divided into the new and old town; the old ſituated at the mouth of the river Don; and the new at the mouth of the river Dee, upon the German ocean, with a good harbour. See *Great Britain.*

ABEX. A country of Africa, S. of Egypt, lying along the weſt coaſt of the Red ſea, and ſubject to the Turks. See *Ethiopia.*

ABLAQUE. A ſilk; the ſame with the ardaſſine; being brought from Perſia, by the way of Smyrna. See *Ardaſſine.*

ABO. A city and port of Sweden, capital of the province of Finland, ſituated at the mouth of the river Aurojoki, on the Bothnic gulph, in 21 deg. 30 min. of E. longitude, and 60 deg. 30 min. of N. latitude, being 240 min. N. E. of Stockholm. See *Sweden.*

ABOUCOUCHOU. A kind of woollen cloth manufactured in France; particularly in Provence, Languedoc, and Dauphiné; whoſe deſtination is for Egypt.

ABRA. A Poliſh ſilver coin, worth 1 s. halfpenny ſterling, being current in Conſtantinople, and all the ſtates of the Grand Signior; where it is received upon the footing of one fourth of the aſlani, or Dutch dollar. See *Aſlani.*

ABROCHMENT, or *Abrocamentum*, formerly denoted the act of ingroſſing or buying up commodities by wholeſale, before they were publickly expoſed in the market-place, in order to be ſold by retail, which at preſent goes under the denomination of *foreſtalling*. See *Foreſtalling.*

ABROHANI, or *Mullmull.* A muſlin, or white, clear, fine cotton cloth, brought from the Eaſt Indies, eſpecially Bengal; the piece being from 20 to 21 yards long, and from four-fourths to ſix-fourths wide.

ABUCCO, *Abocco*, or *Abocchi.* A weight uſed in the kingdom of Pegu in India; one abucco being worth 12 teccalis and a half; 2 make an agiro, called alſo *giro*; 2 giri make a half biza; and the biza weighs 100 teccalis, or about 3 lb. 8 oz.

ABUKESB. The ſame with aſlani, or Dutch dollar; which is called in the Turkiſh language *aſlani*, from the lion it has impreſſed on each ſide, and to which the Arabs give the name of *abukesb*, by miſtaking the lion for a dog.

At Cairo it is worth from 33 to 38 meidins in exchange, and ſometimes more in ſpecie; the meidin being valued at $1\frac{1}{3}$ d. ſterling, or 3 aſpers Turkiſh money; and it is received upon the ſame footing, not only at Conſtantinople, but through all the reſt of the Turkiſh empire.

ABYSSINIA. See *Ethiopia.*

ACACIA *vera.* An inſpiſſated juice of a ſhrub of the thorn-kind, growing in Egypt and Arabia, of a tan colour, ſmooth, ſhining, and of a diſagreeable taſte; brought from the Levant in round balls of different ſizes, in fine bladders. But this juice is counterfeited by the German acacia; which is only the juice of immature ſloes, boiled to a ſolid conſiſtence, and put up in bladders like the former: tho' the counterfeit is eaſily diſtinguiſhed by its colour, which is equally black with the Spaniſh liquorice; nevertheleſs it is frequently ſubſtituted for the true acacia.

But, for the duties of importation in Great Britain, recourſe muſt be had to the general book of rates, under the article *Rate*; which is likewiſe to be particularly obſerved with regard to the duties, either on importation or exportation of any commodities into Great Britain.

ACADIA, or *Nova Scotia.* See *Britiſh and French America.*

ACADIA *company.* See *Hudſon's bay company.*

ACAJOU. The fruit, or rather ſeed, of a tree growing in the iſlands of the Antilles, and in ſeveral places on the ſouthern continent of America, eſpecially Braſil: of which there are three different kinds; but one only productive of the fruit, which has the form of a longiſh apple, covered with a ſkin of a fine lively red colour, crowned with an olive-coloured tuft, full of ſpongy filaments, yielding a juice of a complicated taſte of ſweet and acid, eſteemed an excellent ſtomachic; and, though a little binding, an admirable provocative of urine.

It ſhould be choſen new, plump, and of an olive colour. The oil extracted from it is uſed for extirpating corns, and embelliſhing the complexion. And from the tree of the acajou oozes, by inciſion, a clear tranſparent gum, not unlike the gum arabic.

ACANTHUS. A plant of the thiſtle kind, uſed in medicine, called by Latin botaniſts *branca urſina*, or *bear's breech*; of which there are two kinds; one growing wild, and full of prickles; the other growing in gardens without prickles, and is therefore called by Virgil *mollis*; this being the moſt dented, and much reſembling parſley or ſmallage.

ACAPALTI. A plant of Mexico, or New Spain, productive of the long pepper.

The fruit is two or three inches long, of a pretty red colour, as it borders upon maturity, which it cannot fully acquire on the plant; and therefore muſt be plucked as ſoon as it begins to redden, that the ripeneſs may be completed in the ſun.

This pepper is equally uſed green or dry; and both ways gives a high reliſh to meat. See *Pepper.*

ACAPULCO. A port-town of N. America, ſituated in the province of Mexico, in 102 deg. W. long. and 17 deg. 30 min. N. lat. on a fine bay of the South-ſea. See *Spaniſh America.*

ACCEPT. }
ACCEPTANCE. } See *Bill of Exchange.*
ACCEPTER. }

ACCEPTILATION. An acquittance given without receiving any money; or a declaration of the creditor in favour of the debtor, ſignifying that he is ſatisfied for his debt, and relinquiſhes all further claim or demand, tho' in reality no payment has been made.

ACCOMPT, or *Account.* A mercantile term for a collection of ſeveral particular ſums ready caſt up; whereby the profit or loſs upon any particular commodity, or the balance due from a perſon, may be evidently and truly diſcovered. The inhabitants of every commercial country have adapted different methods of accompt, for facilitating their complicated buſineſs, peculiar to their natural genius and diſpoſition; though the moſt excellent way of aſcertaining the property of merchants, was originally invented in Italy, which is now generally practiſed by the moſt eminent part of the European merchants; who, for expediting their tranſactions, have eſtabliſhed an imaginary ſort of ſpecies: but, for a more explicit relation of their values and denominations, ſee *Money of accompt.*

Three kinds of accompts are abſolutely neceſſary for cloſing books of double entries: ſuch are, the accompts of ſtock, of loſs and gain, and of ballance. The accompt of ſtock is, a particular accompt opened on the debtor and creditor ſide of the ledger, containing all the effects of a trader; that is, his ready money, his merchandiſe, bills, promiſſory notes, obligations, bonds, ſtipulated contracts, real and perſonal eſtate, and, generally ſpeaking, all that might peculiarly belong to him, free and clear of all debts and mortgages. This kind of accompt is ſometimes cloſed on the debit, and ſometimes on the credit part of the accompt of loſs and gain: on the debit, when the loſs exceeds the gain; and on the credit, when the gain is more than the loſs.

The accompt of loſs and gain is opened on the ledger, and conſiſts of all the gains and loſſes of a merchant in his trade; the loſſes being couched on the credit-ſide, and the gain on the debit. But this kind of accompt is ballanced annually, or when two things offer; the firſt, when the books are to be cloſed for new ones; the ſecond, when the trader deſigns to leave off buſineſs.

The accompt of ballance is only opened in the ledger for the cloſing of the books: and when the books are to be peremptorily cloſed, it is called *accompt of the final ballance:* but when new books are required, it is called *accompt of ballance of entry*, or *ballance carried over.*

Merchants who keep books by double entries, have one in particular, called *the book of current accompts*; wherein they write copies of all ſtated accompts, and ſend them to their correſpondents for recourſe, in caſe of difficulty.

M. Savary, in his *Parfait Negotiant*, or *Perfect Merchant, book* 3. *chap.* 2. *part* 2. lays down the following excellent rules for the apprentices, factors, or agents of merchants, or wholeſale dealers, with regard to the manner of ſtating accompts with retailers.

1. The clerks, factors, or agents of merchants, ſhould ſettle

ſettle accompts with retailers as ſoon as poſſible; that the difficulties ariſing about price and meaſure might be timely adjuſted.

2. In ſettling accompts, they ſhould take care not to allow tare on pieces of goods they have not meaſured themſelves; but ſhould examine whether they be right, and not wrong their maſters out of complaiſance to others.

3. To produce a regular accompt, they ſhould make an extract from the day-book of the number of pieces, containing the numbers, the meaſure, and the price of the goods ſold.

4. *Laſtly*, To execute the accompt properly, the extract ſhould be compared with the bill given upon the delivery of the goods, in order to ſee its conformity; and, upon each article, the tare, if any, and the amount of the ſum, ſhould be marked; and, upon returning to the warehouſe, it will not be amiſs to enter it in the book itſelf, that an exact agreement may appear between the maſter's book, and that of the perſon with whom the accompt is ſettled.

To open an accompt, is to enter it for the firſt time in the ledger; and merchants who are in open accompt, ſhould acquit the bills of exchange they draw upon each other.

To poſt a ſum to accompt, is to enter in the ledger, either on the credit or debit part, the ſeveral articles wherein perſons become debtors or creditors.

To point the parts of an accompt, is to place a point to the ſide of each article; which the book-keeper verifies, to ſhew that all is juſt.

Order of accompt, is its diviſion into the three principal articles of receipt, expence, and defalcation or deduction.

To examine an accompt, is to read it exactly, point the articles, and verify the calculation.

To ſettle an accompt, is to calculate, regulate, ſtate, and ballance it.

To place, or paſs an accompt, is to be accountable to a perſon for a ſum received, either for or from him.

Ballance of accompt, is the ſum wherein the debit exceeds the credit, or the credit the debit, when the accompt is well adjuſted, and the ballance made.

Accompt in bank, is a fund which merchants, traders, bankers, and ſome others, if they pleaſe, depoſite in the common caſh of a bank; to ſerve in the payment of bills of exchange, promiſſory notes, bonds, acquiſitions of funds, and other debts, either in trade, or otherwiſe contracted.

To affirm an accompt, is to declare, and make oath, that it is true.

To diſpute, or debate an accompt, is to make remarks upon the ſeveral articles of an accompt, either to augment the receipt, or diminiſh the expence.

To note an accompt, is to place in the margin of each article, certain terms which ſpecify that there is no exception made; or, if there be, the reaſons of the exceptions, and the conditions whereby they paſs.

Accompt in company or partnerſhip, is a kind of accompt ſtipulated between two merchants or traders, in conſequence of a kind of partnerſhip between them.

Accompt of ſales, is when a merchant or trader employs an agent or factor to ſell his goods; of which they give him an account as ſoon as poſſible after they are vended, with the parcels and perſons to whom ſold, the price, and the conditions; which are all entered upon the credit-ſide of the accompt; as all the charges, commiſſion for agency, or brokerage, premiums, proviſion, or allowance for the ſale, are on the debit-ſide.

Accompt current, is the clear, nett, running accompt of bills drawn, or caſh remitted between merchant and merchant.

Accompt of time and *ready money*, is frequently practiſed by merchants, who deal conſiderably by commiſſion, or are factors to other merchants: in which caſe the factor, when he diſburſes any ſums of money for his employer, or accepts and pays the bills drawn by him upon the factor before the goods are ſold, or the money received, charges his employer common intereſt for ſuch ſums, and for ſuch times, as the factor is in advance for the employer, and no longer; and this accompt may be credited by the accompt of ready money, as the factor receives it: all which charges, as well as intereſt, muſt be deducted before the proceed is carried to the accompt current.

Accompts concerning the royal revenue, for cuſtoms, exciſe, and other public branches, are entered in the remembrancer's office in the exchequer; from whence, as ſoon as they are paſſed, they are brought to the office belonging to the clerk of the pipe.

Impreſt, or the great accompts, are thoſe of the mint, wardrobe, army, navy, tenths, and other public accompts.

ACCOMPTANT. A perſon, or officer, appointed to keep or make the accompts of a company, merchant, office, or court.

ACCOMPTANTSHIP. The knowledge of figures, or arithmetic, whereby to regulate accompts.

ACCOMPTING-HOUSE, or *Compting-houſe*. A place which merchants, and other traders, particularly make uſe of, to tranſact their buſineſs, and keep their books of accompts.

ACHEN. A conſiderable port town, ſituated in 93 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 5 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. being the capital of the kingdom of Achen, and of the iſland of Sumatra, in the Eaſt Indies, in Aſia; lying on the north part of the iſland, 1000 m. S. E. of Fort St. George, in India, and 450 m. N. W. of the city of Malacca. See *Sunda iſlands*.

ACHIA. A ſort of cane produced in the Eaſt Indies, where it is pickled green by the natives, with ſtrong vinegar, pepper, ſpices, and other ingredients; after which it is vended to the Europeans; who introduce it into their reſpective countries, in earthen jars about a foot in height, and as much in thickneſs, the mouth being pretty narrow, and cloſely ſtopped. The pieces of cane are about an inch and half in diameter, and a little above two inches long; of a ſimilar conſiſtence to the ſmall cucumber pickled in England, eating as criſp, and cutting as firm. They have no pith; but are of a compacted texture of fibres, like that in the common cane, when the outſide is peeled: and the Dutch, who import the greateſt quantities, commonly eat it after dinner or ſupper to quicken the appetite.

ACHIOTL. A name given by the Braſilians to a dying ſtuff, more uſually denominated *rocou*. See *Rocu*.

ACHTENDEELEN, or *Aftheling*. A meaſure for grain, uſed in ſome parts of Holland, containing about 533 pounds.

ACICOCA. An herb growing in Peru, and ſometimes ſubſtituted for the herb *paraguay*, being reported to have all the properties of that herb.

Great quantities of it are annually tranſported from Lima, and the other ports of Peru, to the city of Avira; whence it is brought to Potoſi, eſpecially when the paraguay is ſcarce there, and conſequently dear. See *Paraguay*.

ACORI, or *Blue coral*. The genuine acori is exceeding ſcarce: however it is fiſhed for on ſome of the African coaſts, particularly from Rio-del-Re to the river of the Camarones; this being the coral which makes part of the commodities the Dutch trade for with the Camarones; and that of the kingdom of Benin is alſo much eſteemed, growing in the form of a tree, on a rocky bottom. See *Coral*.

ACORUS. A medicinal plant, of the ruſh or flag kind; the produce of Lithuania and Tartary; frequently confounded by apothecaries with the *calamus odoratus*. There are two ſpecies of the acorus, the *verus*, and the *falſe*; which are eaſily diſtinguiſhed, by obſerving, that from the middle of the *verus* there ariſes a longiſh cluſter of an infinity of ſmall flowers, the thickneſs of the little finger, and reſembling *macropiper*, or long pepper; whereas the *falſe* acorus is only the common ſword-graſs. It is only the root of the former that has any medicinal quality, and is uſually called the acorus; being knotty, reddiſh without, and white within, as thick as the little finger, and half a foot long; of which the moſt valuable ſort ſhould be new, well cleaned from its filaments, hard to break, of a four taſte, accompanied with an agreeable bitterneſs, and of a ſweet aromatic ſcent.

The acorus is of ſome uſe in medicine, being one of the ingredients that enter the compoſition of Venice treacle; and perfumers alſo make much uſe of it.

Among the acoruſſes are enranked the great and ſmall galanga; tho' perhaps improperly, as they are very different from the acorus.

The great galanga has leaves reſembling thoſe of the iris; and

and the ſmall is a reddiſh root, both inſide and out, of a very poignant and aromatic taſte. Theſe two galangas come from the Indies and China, eſpecially from the iſland of Java; both being of uſe in the making of vinegar; but chiefly the ſmall kind, which is likewiſe of ſome uſe in medicine.

ACQUITTANCE is a diſcharge, or releaſe, in writing, from a creditor to a debtor, commonly called a *receipt*; or it is an exoneration from any duty or obligation whatſoever.

ACRA. A town of Africa, on the coaſt of Guinea; where there is a Britiſh fort and factory. See *Guinea*.

ACRE. A port-town of Paleſtine, in Aſiatic Turkey, ſituated in 35 deg. of E. long. and 33 deg. 35 min. N. lat. on the Levant ſea, S. of Tyre, now a ſmall village, ſtanding on the ruins of the ancient Ptolemais.

ACRE. A money of accompt in ſome places of the Eaſt Indies, but more uſually called *lack*, or *lacre*. See *Lacre*.

ACRE, called more generally *Rotte*, is a weight uſed in ſeveral ports of the Levant. See *Rotte*.

ACRE, formerly an uncertain meaſure of land, but now fixed by the ſtatute of 31 Edward I. to be 40 poles or perches in length, and 4 in breadth, or 160 ſquare poles, containing 4840 ſquare yards, or 43,560 ſquare feet. England is computed to contain 39,038,500 ſquare ſtatute acres.

ACREMENS is a word uſed at Conſtantinople for a kind of ox-hides, brought there from the Black ſea.

ACTION, in commercial affairs, or action of a company, is a part or ſhare in the ſtock or capital of the company, conſiſting of a number of ſuch actions; which, in France, and the United Provinces, is only a different denomination for ſhares or ſubſcriptions in England: ſo that an action in the Miſſiſippi ſtock anſwers to a part of the South-ſea ſtock. See *Stock*.

ACTS *of parliament*. The ſtatute-laws of Great Britain.

ADAMANT. See *Diamond*.

ADARME. A ſmall Spaniſh weight; uſed alſo in Buenos-Ayres, and throughout all parts of Spaniſh America, being about the 16th part of an ounce.

ADATAYS. A muſlin, or cotton-cloth, which comes from ſeveral parts of the Eaſt Indies; but the fineſt ſort is made at Bengal, the piece being about 13 yards long, and 1 yard broad.

ADDA. A river of Italy, riſing in the province of Bormio; which, paſſing through the Valteline, runs through the lake De Como, and the Milaneſe, falling into the Po near Cremona. See *Po*.

ADEN. A port-town of Arabia Felix, in Aſia, ſituated in 16 deg. of E. lon. and in 12 deg. of N. lat. a little to the eaſtward to the Straits of Babel-Mandel; being 600 m. S. of Mecca, and 60 m. E. of Moco, ſubject to an Arabian prince. See *Arabia*.

ADENOS. A cotton, otherwiſe called *marine cotton*, which is brought from Aleppo, in Turky.

ADIGE. A great river in Italy, which riſes in Tyrol, runs S. by Trent, then E. by Verona, in the territory of Venice, and falls into the gulph of Venice N. of the mouth of the Po.

ADIT. A paſſage, or entry; a term principally uſed in mining; in which it ſignifies the ſough, or level, made to carry off the water.

ADMINISTRATION. A term whereby the Peruvian Spaniards call the ſtaple-warehouſe of Callao; which is a ſmall town on the South-ſea, ſerving Lima in quality of a port. It is at this adminiſtration that foreign ſhips, permitted to trade along theſe coaſts, are obliged to unload the European merchandiſe wherewith they are freighted; paying 13 *per cent.* of the price of the vent, if the cargo be entire, and 16 if not; beſides 3 *per* 1000 for conſulſhip, and other ſmall royal duties.

ADMIRAL. An eminent officer appointed to command the naval forces of a kingdom or ſtate, who takes cogniſance, by himſelf, or officers nominated by him, of all maritime cauſes. Authors are divided about the origin and denomination of this important officer; an officer eſtabliſhed with ſome variation in moſt of the principal maritime dominions. And it is certain that there are no inſtances of admirals in theſe European parts before the year 1284; when Philip of France, who attended St. Louis to the wars againſt the Saracens, created an admiral; which office was not introduced into England till the reign of Edward I. However, Du Cange aſſures us that the Sicilians were the firſt who gave the denomination of *admiral* to the commanders of their naval armaments; who took it from the Saracen or Arabic *amirr*, a general name for any commanding officer.

The office of great, high, or firſt admiral, has been always one of the moſt conſiderable and important poſts in all kingdoms and ſovereignties bordering upon the ſea; being ſeldom conferred on any but princes, or others of the moſt eminent ſubjects. In England, James Duke of York, afterwards James II. was inveſted with the dignity of Lord High Admiral during the war againſt the States-General; as alſo was Prince George of Denmark, conſort to Q. Anne, in that war againſt the French, which was productive of the treaty of Utrecht. But this office has been ſince held by commiſſion; becauſe the prerogatives and privileges annexed to it, are too extraordinary for the enjoyment and emolument of a private perſon; tho' theſe commiſſioners are ſtyled *Lords of the admiralty*, being ſeven in number, and the ſenior commiſſioner acting as a ſort of preſident.

In France the admiral is one of the principal officers of the crown, the chief of the marine, and of the naval forces of the kingdom. It is from him that the commanders of ſhips, having taken in their lading, muſt obtain permiſſion to ſail, with paſſports, ſafe conducts, and commiſſions. The tenths of all the prizes taken at ſea, or on the maritime coaſts, under the commiſſion and flag of France, belong to him, as well as the tenths of ranſoms, the whole of the fines within the particular juriſdiction of the admiralty, and half of thoſe ſpecified on the marble tables. He is alſo intitled to the duties for anchorage, tuns, and ſea-marks; likewiſe to a third part of the effects recovered from the bottom of the ſea, or which have been caſt on ſhore by the waves; the whole conformable to the ordinance of marine of 1681.

The admiralty of the States-General of the United Provinces is divided into the five colleges of Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Hoorn, Middleburg, and Harlingen; where each college has its peculiar officers, as a fiſcal, advocate, receiver-general, commiſſioner-general, ſeveral ſecretaries, regiſter, maſter of the houſhold, commiſſary of ſales, paymaſter, treaſurer, grand provoſt, and ſeveral commiſſaries, for the inſpection of paſſports, and the reception of duties. The college of Amſterdam conſiſts of twelve noblemen, who have the title of *counſellors of the admiralty*. One of theſe repreſents the nobility of Holland, one the city of Amſterdam, one that of Leyden, one of Harlem, one of Goude, and one of Edam, all theſe places being within the province of Holland; and the other ſix are repreſentatives of the ſix other provinces, where every thing is conducted in the ſame manner as in the admiralty of the province of Holland; from which courts paſſports muſt be taken, and where all the duties of importation and exportation are to be paid.

The Spaniards, Portugueſe, Danes, Swedes, and Ruſſians, have alſo their ſeveral departments for the regulation of their marine.

But there are ſeveral ſubordinations of admirals, or commanders of a maritime force, acting under the direction of the high admiral, or commiſſioner delegated for the execution of that important truſt; though theſe are more properly under the denomination of flag-officers: of which there are three different ranks, under three diſtinct diviſions, belonging to the crown of Great Britain; being the admiral, the vice-admiral, and rear-admiral of the white, blue, and red diviſions of the fleet.

The court of admiralty in England was firſt erected in 1357, by King Edward III. when a lord high admiral was appointed, who was judge or preſident of the court of admiralty. He took cogniſance, by himſelf, his lieutenants, and deputies, of all crimes committed on the ſea, or the coaſt adjacent, as well as of all the civil and marine tranſactions relating thereto, as alſo of what was tranſacted in all ſhips riding in any principal river beneath its bridges of the neareſt proximity to the ſea.

The

The proceedings in the Britiſh court of admiralty are principally according to the civil law; becauſe the ſea is extrajudicial of the common law, and under the juriſdiction of the admiral. To the civil law, firſt inſtituted by the founder, were afterwards added by his ſucceſſors, particularly Richard I. the laws of Oleron; together with the marine uſes and conſtitutions of ſeveral people; as thoſe of Genoa, Piſa, Marſeilles, Meſſina, &c. but more particularly the ancient laws of the Rhodians. Richard II. limited the juriſdiction of the admiralty court, by a ſtatute enacted in the 15th year of his reign; whereby it was declared, that the court of admiralty ſhould not have cogniſance of contracts or other things ariſing within the borders of counties, as well by ſea as by water, nor wreck of the ſea. That of the death of a man, and of a maim done in great ſhips hovering in the main ſtream of great rivers, beneath the ports, near the ſea, and in no other places of the ſame rivers, the admiral ſhould have cogniſance; as alſo to arreſt ſhips in great fleets for the great voyages of the king and kingdom; and ſhould alſo have juriſdiction in ſuch fleets during ſuch voyages; ſaving to the king his forfeitures, and to lords, cities, and boroughs, their liberties and franchiſes. Which ſtatute was confirmed by another enacted in the 2d year of the reign of Henry IV. with this addition, that the party grieved againſt the form of the former ſtatute, ſhould, by action upon his caſe, recover double damages againſt the proſecutor in the admiralty, and the proſecutor ſhould alſo forfeit ten pounds to the king.

By a ſtatute of 8th Eliſabeth, it was enacted, that a ſentence definitive in a civil and marine cauſe by delegates appointed by commiſſion, upon an appeal made in chancery, ſhould be final.

By a ſtatute 2d William and Mary, it is declared, that all juriſdictions and powers inveſted in the lord high admiral, have always appertained to commiſſioners of the admiralty, as if they were lord high admiral.

By a ſtatute 13th George II. proper methods are directed for the judge of any court of admiralty in Great Britain, or elſewhere, to expedite adjudging of captures taken from the enemy. See *Capture*, *Court-martial*, *Navy*, *Piracy*.

Between the courts of admiralty and common law, there ſeems to be a divided power; for the ſea, ſo far as the low-water mark, is accounted within the body of the county, and the cauſes thence ariſing are determinable by the common law; yet, when the ſea is full, the admiral has likewiſe juriſdictions there, during the continuance of the floods, over matters tranſacted between the low-water mark and the ſhore.

The principal court of admiralty belonging to the Britiſh crown, is at Doctors Commons, in the city of London; but there are courts of vice admiralty in Ireland, and all the principal colonies abroad; though I have been informed by the regiſter of the vice-admiralty court in Dublin, that the civilians there were of opinion their court was original, and acted by no ſort of deputation. All proceſſes and proceedings in the court of admiralty are not iſſuable under the royal direction, but run in the name of the lord high admiral, or commiſſioners, whoſe deputy is called *judge of the admiralty*, and is commonly an eminent civilian, to whom appeals may be made from any court of vice-admiralty, except from the cinque ports, where the lord warden hath an exempt juriſdiction from the admiralty of England: though the deciſion of the judge of the admiralty is not always concluſive; becauſe a court of delegates has been frequently appointed, particularly during the laſt war, conſiſting of ſeveral of the principal nobility, privy counſellors, and judges, whoſe delegation authoriſes them to redreſs any grievances, or revert any ſentence given in the admiralty court in ſuits, civil and marine, by order of the civil law.

Though the admiralty-court has a power to determine all maritime cauſes, or cauſes ariſing wholly upon the ſea, out of the juriſdiction of any country; yet this court is not allowed to be a court of record, becauſe the proceedings are by the civil law; and the judge hath no authority to take ſuch recogniſance as a court of record may; though he may puniſh thoſe by fine and impriſonment who reſiſt the proceſs of the admiralty-court. The admiralty hath

juriſdiction where the common law can give no remedy, and of all contracts made upon the high ſea. It has alſo been held, that this court hath juriſdiction in caſes of freight, mariners wages, or for breach of charter-parties, although made within the realm, ſo as the penalty is not demanded; as alſo in caſes of building, mending, ſaving, or victualing ſhips, if the ſuit be againſt the ſhip, and not againſt the parties. Beſides, this court has a juriſdiction to redreſs annoyances and obſtructions in rivers, which may hinder navigation to and from the ſea However, the admiralty can hold no plea of any contract but ſuch as ariſeth upon the ſea; not though it riſe upon any continent, or in any port or haven out of the Britiſh dominions, for the juriſdiction of the admiralty is limited to the ſeas only; the admiral being for the ſea, and the court for maritime cauſes.

It has alſo been agreed by the judges in England, that where ſentence is obtained in a foreign admiralty, a party may libel for execution thereof in England; becauſe all the courts of admiralty in Europe are governed by the civil law, and are to be aſſiſtant one to another, though the matter were not originally determinable in England.

ARDOUR. A river of France, riſing in the Pyrenean mountains, which runs north by Tarbes, through Gaſcony; then turning eaſt, paſſes by Dax, and falls into the bay of Biſcay below Bayonne.

ADRAGANTH. See *Tragacanth*.

ADRIANOPLE is the ſecond city of conſequence in the Turkiſh empire, ſituate in 26 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 42 deg. of S. lat.

ADRIATIC *Iſlands*. See *Italian* and *Turkiſh iſlands*.

ADRIATIC *ſea*, or *Gulph of Venice*, formerly called *Mare Ionium*, *Auſonium*, and *Siculum*, which ſeparates Dalmatia from Venice and the eaſtern coaſt of Italy. The Adriatic extends from Saint Maria de Leuca, the eaſtern boundary of Naples, to Trieſte in Iſtria; containing Venice, Cherſo, Vegia, Arle, Oſero, Pago, Zara, Braſſa, Leſina, Curzola, Raguſa, and ſome other inconſiderable iſlands appertaining to the ſigniory of the Venetians, who were formerly the moſt formidable maritime power in Europe; which character they glorioufly ſupported by their ſituation at the top of the Adriatic. See *Venice*.

ADVANCE, is an anticipation of time; for to pay off a bill by way of advance, is to pay it before the term of its date is expired, for which a diſcount is uſually taken. But *advance* alſo imports a loan of money, or a ſupplying with merchandiſe. With regard to bills of exchange, it is ſaid, *advance for the drawer*, when, upon a negotiated bill, he who has negotiated it receives more than the par, that is, more than the ſum ſpecified by the bill: but, on the contrary, it is ſaid, *advance for the payer*, and loſs for the drawer, when, by the negotiation, he to whom the bill belongs does not receive its entire value.

Advance, in another ſenſe, is to defray the expences of an enterpriſe before the time of reimburſement arrives.

ADVENTURE, or *Venture*. Any parcel of goods allowed for the officers and crew of a trading ſhip, to carry abroad for their own private advantage.

ADVENTURER, is applied to any veſſel that attempts to carry on a prohibited trade; but is now particularly applied to thoſe enterpriſing freebooters, who aſſociate themſelves together againſt the Spaniards in the Weſt Indies. See *Buccaneers*.

ADVENTURERS. The company of merchant-adventurers was the firſt ſociety of merchants in England, eſtabliſhed by letters patent granted by King Edward I. in the 13th year of his reign; whereby they became incorporated, and intitled to ſeveral excluſive privileges, for the maintenance, inlarging, and better carrying on of the moſt conſiderable trades to foreign parts. Theſe merchants were originally called *The Brotherhood of St. Thomas a Becket of Canterbury*, and obtained ſeveral privileges from John Duke of Brabant, which were confirmed by King Edward III. Henry IV. and their ſucceſſors, down to Henry VII. who gave them the name of *merchant-adventurers*. After him, theſe privileges were confirmed by Henry VIII. Edward VI. Queen Eliſabeth, and James I. though not without incurring many enemies; who charged them to be monopolies, and unprofitable to the kingdom, becauſe theſe merchants had

the ſole privilege of trading to the Netherlands; whereupon their patent had temporary ſuſpenſions, which was afterwards confirmed again by royal proclamation; but their excluſive privilege of trade was afterwards aboliſhed. See *Hamburg company*, and *North companies*.

In France thoſe perſons are denominated *adventurers*, who become ſubſcribers, or actionaries, in the companies formed for the eſtabliſhment of the American colonies; by which they are diſtinguiſhed from the planters, or thoſe inhabitants intitled only to plantations, who are employed in cultivating and planting the land; for which the former are adventuring their money, in expectation of receiving an adequate recompence from the profits ariſing by the dividends of the company. The charters granted in England for eſtabliſhing the colonies of America alſo make a ſimilar diſtinction between planters and adventurers.

ADVICE. See *Letters of advice*.

ADVOCATE. A term generally applied to ſuch counſel who plead and defend cauſes, in thoſe countries and courts where the civil law is predominant, and takes cogniſance of all maritime affairs.

ADULTERATION. This, in a general ſenſe, implies the act of corrupting or debaſing a thing that was pure, by improper admixture. The Britiſh laws are very provident againſt the adulteration of coffee, tea, tobacco, ſnuff, wine, wax, hair-powder, and other mercantile commodities; but more eſpecially againſt debaſing or adulterating the current coin, which, by a ſtatute made in the 3d year of the reign of Henry V. was adjudged reaſon. See *Coin*.

AEM, AM, AME. A liquid meaſure, uſed almoſt throughout all Germany, containing about 42 wine gallons.

ÆGYPTIACUM, is a name given to ſeveral medicinal unguents of the detergent or corroſive kind: but the *ſimple ægyptiacum* is the medicine generally found in our ſhops, which is a compoſition of verdigreaſe, vinegar, and honey, boiled to a conſiſtence, ſuppoſed to be denominated from its duſky colour, wherein it reſembles the native hue of the Ægyptians.

ÆRUGO. See *Verdigreaſe*.

ÆSTUARY. An arm of the ſea, running a conſiderable way into the land, like Briſtol channel, and ſeveral of the friths of Scotland.

ÆS-USTUM, or burnt copper. A chemical preparation extracted from thin plates of copper, by the force of a crucible, of a ſimilar quality to the ægyptiacum. The goodneſs of it lies in its conſiſtence, which muſt be middling, and in its colour, which muſt be of an iron grey on the ſurface, reddiſh towards the inward part, and of a cinnabar colour, when two pieces are rubbed againſt one another.

The beſt æs-uſtum comes from Holland; which phyſicians uſed in ſome of their remedies, but with great precaution, its greateſt uſe being for chirurgical operations, in which it is applied for the eating and conſuming of fleſh, and excreſcences in the cure of wounds.

ÆTHIOPIA. See *Ethiopia*.

ÆTHIOPS *mineral*. A preparation of crude mercury and flower of ſulphur, blended till they become incorporated into a black powder.

AFFA. A weight uſed on the gold coaſt of Guinea, equal to an ounce, the half whereof goes under the denomination of *eggeba*.

AFFREIGHTMENT. See *Freight*.

AFRICA, one of the four principal diviſions of the world, and the third in degree, is a peninſula joined to Aſia by the narrow iſthmus of Suez, which lies between the Mediterranean and the Red ſea. This country is ſituated between 18 deg. W. and 50 E. long. and between 37 N. and 35 S. lat. bounded by the Mediterranean ſea, which divides it from Europe, on the north; by the iſthmus of Suez, the Red ſea, and the Indian ocean, on the eaſt; by the ſouthern ocean, on the ſouth; and by the Atlantic ocean, on the weſt; being 4320 miles long, and 4200 broad. This ſituation occaſions it to have very extenſive coaſts, where the Europeans carry on a beneficial commerce; but the interior parts of the continent are little underſtood, by reaſon of the ſterility of the ſoil, the inſupportable heat of the climates, or the ferocity of the inhabitants. However, a ſufficient knowledge of the country has been acquired, to give us information of the grand diviſions and ſub-diviſions of this prodigious tract; the former having been thrown into the ten grand diviſions following. 1. Egypt, 2. Æthiopia ſuperior. 3. Zanquebar; all which form the eaſtern part of Africa. 4. Monoemugis, Monomotapa, and Caffaria, or Lower Æthiopia, which lie on the ſouth. 5. Congo, Angola, Guinea. 6. Nigritia, or Negroland, which lies in the middle of Africa, extending almoſt through the country from eaſt to weſt, on both ſides the river Niger. 7. Zaara, or the deſert, to the northward of Nigritia. 8. Biledulgerid, the ancient Numidia, to the northward of Zaara. 9. Morocco, and Fez, containing the N. W. part of Barbary. And, 10. The coaſt of Barbary, on the north, containing the countries of Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, and Barca, all which are eaſtward of the African iſlands. But theſe ten diviſions are particularly deſcribed under the ſeveral articles of Egypt, Æthiopia ſuperior, and Æthiopia inferior, Zanquebar, Guinea, Nigritia, Zaara, Biledulgerid, Morocco, and Barbary. The African iſlands are alſo diſtinguiſhed by the names of Zocotora, Babelmandel, and the iſlands in the Red ſea, being the N. E. diviſion; Madagaſcar, Comora iſlands, Bourbon, and Mauritias, being the S. E. diviſion; St. Helena, St. Thomas, Aſcenſion, Anaboa, Prince's iſland, Fernandopo, and St. Matthew, being the S. W. diviſion; Cape Verd iſlands, Canary iſlands, Maderas, being the N. W. diviſion, and the Azores, or weſtern iſlands, which are particularly deſcribed under thoſe ſeveral articles.

This quarter of the world once contained ſeveral kingdoms and ſtates eminent for the liberal arts, for wealth, power, and the moſt extenſive commerce; though, at this day, there is ſcarce one ſingle nation left upon that continent worthy of notice. Africa could formerly boaſt the celebrated kingdoms of Egypt and Æthiopia, with the rich and formidable Carthaginian republic, to which the kingdoms of Numidia and Mauritania were ſubject. At that time almoſt all the northern parts of Africa were full of inhabitants, from the Red ſea to the Atlantic ocean; and Carthage extended her commerce to every part of the known world. Even the Britiſh ſhores were viſited by her fleets; until John, King of Mauritania, and tributary to Carthage, unhappily called in the Romans, who, by the aſſiſtance of the Mauritanians, ſubdued Carthage, and ſubjected all the kingdoms and ſtates in Africa to the dominion of Rome. After this ſubjection, the natives neglected their trade, and even the cultivation of the ſoil. They became provincial tributaries to Rome, liable to be plundered and impoveriſhed by rapacious viceroys and governors ſent from that capital: whereupon their traffic, in a ſhort time dwindled to nothing, and they cultivated no more of their lands than what might ſerve for their ſubſiſtence. Upon the declenſion of the Roman empire, in the 5th century, the north of Africa was over-run by the Vandals, who contributed ſtill more to the deſtruction of arts and ſciences; and, to add to their misfortune, the Saracens made a ſudden conqueſt of all the coaſts of Egypt and Barbary, in the ſeventh century. Theſe were afterwards ſucceeded by the Turks; and both being of the Mahomedan religion, whoſe diſciples carry ruin and devaſtation along with them where-ever they come, the ruin of that once flouriſhing part of the world was thereby completed; though the ſoil of the northern ſhore of Africa is ſtill the ſame, and capable of producing almoſt every thing deſireable in life, but poſſeſſed by a wretched abandoned people, entirely addicted to robbery and rapine, and chiefly ſubſiſting by their piracies at ſea on the European powers. See *Barbary*.

From the diſcoveries that have been made in Africa of late years, it is found to be a more fertil country than was formerly repreſented; for not only the northern part of it is generally fruitful where it is cultivated, but the ſouth alſo produces corn and wine. There numerous herds of fine cattle are to be ſeen; and, even between the tropics, there are multitudes of people, noble rivers, and a rich ſoil, capable of the greateſt improvements. The cinnamon-tree actually grows there, and it is apprehended that other ſpices might be raiſed in thoſe latitudes. Here is plenty of the beſt gold and ivory; and from hence the Europeans export upwards of 200,000 Negro ſlaves annually to America; which

which ſhews, that Africa, between the tropics, muſt be vaſtly populous, though the ancients held that the torrid zone was not habitable.

This continent is inhabited by three different people, Pagans, Mahomedans, and Chriſtians. The firſt are the moſt numerous, poſſeſſing the greateſt part of the country from the tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope; and theſe are generally black: the Mahomedans, who are of a tawny complexion, poſſeſs almoſt all the northern ſhores of Africa: the people of Abyſſinia, or Upper Æthiopia, are denominated Chriſtians, but retain abundance of rites belonging to Judaiſm and Paganiſm; and there are ſome Chriſtians on the ſea-coaſts on almoſt every ſide of Africa; but theſe are an inconſiderable number, compared either with the Pagans or Mahomedans. There are alſo ſome Jews in the north of Africa, who manage all the remaining trade of that country. But it is remarkable, that though the Carthaginians, who inhabited Barbary, had greater fleets, and a more extended commerce, than any other nation, or than all the people upon the face of the earth, when that republic flouriſhed, and that though Africa is better ſituated for a foreign trade, than any other quarter of the world, the natives have ſcarce a ſingle mercantile veſſel belonging to them, and no other warlike ſhips, than what Sallee, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, ſet out for piracy, which are too inconſiderable to reſiſt any European ſquadron of force. Though it is pretended, that the ancients diſcovered the Canary iſland, whoſe ſituation is but little diſtant from the coaſt of Morocco; it is certain, that, before the 15th century, Africa was but very inconſiderably known, except the Egyptian territories, and the coaſts bordering upon the Mediterranean. The ſucceſsful voyage of the Portugueſe, who doubled Cape Eſperance, or the Cape of Good Hope, in 1487, and afterwards diſcovered all the African coaſt as far as the Red ſea, gave the Europeans an opportunity of augmenting their diſcoveries, by eſtabliſhing a commerce with the inhabitants, and erecting ſettlements in the country.

The Engliſh, French, Portugueſe, Danes, and Hollanders, have ſeveral ſettlements in different parts of the African coaſt; but the moſt conſiderable are on the coaſt of Guinea, where they proſecute their advantageous commerce for ivory, gold-duſt, and ſlaves. But, for a particular deſcription of the various kingdoms and ſtates, their reſpective commodities, as well as the different way of merchandiſing, and the ſeveral European ſettlements, throughout the African territories, both on the continent and in the iſlands, reference muſt be had to the ſeparate articles of the ten grand diviſions above mentioned, where they are particularly deſcribed.

AFRICA, is alſo a port-town of Tunis, ſituated on the coaſt of Barbary, in 8 deg 20 min. of E. lon. and 36. deg. of N. lat. being 70 m. S. of Tunis.

Britiſh AFRICAN *companies*. In the 14th year of King Charles II. the royal adventurers of England, trading into Africa, had their charter granted them, which was afterwards ſurrendered to the ſame monarch; who, in conſideration thereof, by his royal charter or letters-patent, dated the 27th of September, in the 24th year of his reign, granted the company, all the regions, countries, dominions, teritories, continents, coaſts, and places, lying between the port of Sally in South Barbary, incluſive; and extending from thence to Cape de bona Eſperanza, incluſive, with all the iſlands near adjoining to thoſe coaſts, and comprehended within thoſe limits, which had been heretofore called by the name of *South Barbary*, *Guinny*, *Binny*, or *Angola*; and all ports, harbours, creeks, iſlands, lakes, and places in the parts of Africa to any of them belonging, or being under the obedience of any king, ſtate, or potentate within thoſe limits, *to hold* for the term of 1000 years, ſubject to ſuch conditions and reſervations as therein mentioned, and incorporating the ſeveral perſons therein named by the name of *The Royal African Company of England.*

But the more particular eſtabliſhment of this company was made by an act of parliament paſſed in the 7th year of King William III. whereby it was enacted, That the leaſt ſubſcription ſhould be 100 l. and the greateſt 3000 l. that the company ſhould be impowered to equip, freight, and navigate their ſhips to any part of Africa; to plant colonies, build cities, towns, or forts, in or upon the places not inhabited, or in or upon any other place, by conſent of the natives and inhabitants thereof, and not poſſeſſed by any European power, and to provide magazines for defending ſuch places; as alſo to make repriſals, and to ſeek reparation for damage by ſea or land, and to conclude treaties of peace and commerce with the ſovereigns and proprietors of land in Africa; provided that ſuch ſhips employed by the company ſhould return to Great Britain with their effects, under pain of confiſcation: that all the reſt of the Britiſh ſubjects ſhould be precluded from trading to Africa, under forfeiture of the third part of the ſhip and cargo: that the company ſhould have the abſolute property of all their poſſeſſions to be made in Africa, to be held in ſovereignty from his Majeſty and his ſucceſſors, under an acknowledgment of one hogſhead of tobacco annually, with a right to impoſe ſuch cuſtoms and duties as they ſhould think proper for the maintenance of their poſſeſſions; and that all perſons concerned in the company ſhould be free denizens of Great Britain.

By the ſtatute 9th and 10th William III. it was enacted, That the Royal African company ſhould maintain and defend all the forts and caſtles in their poſſeſſion: that any of the ſubjects of Great Britain might trade from England, or any of the Britiſh plantations in America, to the coaſt of Africa, between Cape Mount and the Cape of Good Hope, the ſaid company, and all others, anſwering a duty of 10 *per cent.* for the goods and merchandiſes exported thither from England, or the plantations, for maintaining the caſtles and forts, and preſerving the African trade: that they might alſo trade between Cape Blanco and Cape Mount, paying the ſame duty, and a further ſum of 10 *per cent.* at the place of importation, except for redwood and negroes; the former of which was only to pay half the additional duty, and the latter to be entirely excluded from it; that ſuch perſons ſhould have the ſame protections as the company, might ſettle factories in any of the ſaid limits, and ſhould be free from all impoſitions from the company: and that all the duties ariſing by this act ſhould be appropriated wholly to the maintenance of the forts and caſtles belonging to the company.

By the ſtatute 10th Anne, it was enacted, That, in conſideration of the loſſes and diſappointments the company had ſuſtained, two third parts, or more, in number and value, of all their creditors, were to allow the company time for diſcharging their debts.

By ſeveral ſubſequent ſtatutes for appropriating the public money, 10,000 l. a-year was applied towards maintenance of the forts and ſettlements belonging to the company.

But as the company have been incapacitated from proſecuting the trade under their preſent circumſtances, another act for *extending* and *improving* their trade to Africa was paſſed 23d George II. reciting, that the trade to and from Africa being very advantageous to Great Britain, and neceſſary for the ſupplying the plantations, and colonies belonging thereto, with a ſufficient number of negroes at reaſonable rates, ought for that purpoſe to be free and open to all his Majeſty's ſubjects; it was therefore enacted, That it ſhould be lawful for all the Britiſh ſubjects to trade to and from any place in Africa, between the port of Sally in South Barbary, and the Cape of Good Hope, without any reſtraint whatſoever, ſave as therein after expreſſed: that ſuch perſons who ſhould trade to and from Africa, between Cape Blanco and the Cape of Good Hope, ſhould be deemed a body corporate and politic, by the name of *The Company of Merchants trading to Africa*: that all the Britiſh forts and poſſeſſions on the coaſt of Africa, claimed by or in poſſeſſion of *The Royal African Company of England*, ſhould, from the paſſing of an act for diveſting the African company of their charter, be abſolutely veſted in the new company, and their ſucceſſors, to the intent that ſuch forts and ſettlements ſhould be employed only for the protection, encouragement, and defence of the African trade: that the company eſtabliſhed by this act ſhould not trade to or from Africa in their corporate or joint capacity; nor ſhould they have any joint or transferable ſtock; nor ſhould they borrow money on their common ſeal: that the direction and management of the affairs of the new company ſhould be by a committee of nine perſons, to be choſen annually, who, or the

the majority, ſhould have full power to make orders for the governing and improving the forts and factories, and to appoint governors, and other officers, both civil and military, ſo as no orders or regulations made by the committee ſhould lay any reſtraint on the trade or traders, contrary to the intent of this act: that the traders, or perſons intending to trade to or from Africa, being inhabitants of London, Briſtol, or Liverpool, on paying 40s. each for their admittance into the freedom of the ſaid company, ſhould annually chuſe three perſons from each of the ſaid places for the committee; which election ſhould be on the 3d of July yearly; but, in caſe of an equality of votes at any election, the lord mayor of London, the mayor of Briſtol, and the mayor of Liverpool, reſpectively, ſhould determine which of ſuch perſons ſhould be the committee-man: that a chairman ſhould be choſen by the committee: that no perſon ſhould be capable of being choſen or acting as a committe-man above three years ſucceſſively: that the commiſſioners of trade and plantations might remove any of the committee-men, or officers or ſervants appointed by theſe, who ſhould be guilty of any miſbehaviour: that the committee ſhould render an account of their tranſactions once a-year to the commiſſioners for trade and plantations: that the committee, out of the monies they ſhould receive, might deduct annually 800 l. for expences of clerks, agents, and other contingencies; but the reſt of the monies ſhould be employed wholly to the maintenance and improvement of the forts and ſettlements; an account of which money the committee ſhould annually exhibit, upon oath, before the curſitor baron of the exchequer, who ſhould audite and paſs the ſame; and the committee ſhould lay before the parliament, every ſeſſion, a copy of ſuch annual account, and of all their orders and regulations: that the forts, warehouſes, and buildings belonging to the company, ſhould at all times be free and open to all his Majeſty's ſubjects, to be uſed as warehouſes for depoſiting gun-powder, gold, elephant's teeth, wax, gums, and drugs, but no other goods: that if the commander of any veſſel trading to Africa, ſhould, by any indirect practice, carry away any negro, or native of the country, or commit any violence on the natives, to the prejudice of the trade, he ſhould forfeit 100 l. that the accomptant-general, and two maſters of the court of chancery, ſhould be commiſſioners for examining into the claims of the creditors of the Royal African company; who were to lay an account of ſuch claims before the parliament with all convenient ſpeed.

In purſuance of this laſt mentioned act, another was paſſed in the 25th year of King George II. intitled, "An act for "the application of a ſum of money therein mentioned, "granted to his Majeſty, for making compenſation and "ſatisfaction to the Royal African company of England, "for their charter, lands, forts, caſtles, ſlaves, military "ſtores, and all other their effects whatſoever; and to "veſt the lands, forts, caſtles, ſlaves, and military ſtores, "and all other their effects, in the company of mer-"chants trading to Africa, and for other purpoſes in the "act mentioned;" wherein it was declared, That Capt. Thomas Pye, in purſuance of directions from the lords of the admiralty, in the year 1749, took a ſurvey of the forts and caſtles of the ſaid Royal African company of England on the coaſt of Africa, and of the quantity, number, and quality of cannon, and their military ſtores, canoe-men, caſtle-ſlaves, canoes, and veſſels, then at each reſpective port, belonging to the company; and that the company were willing to ſurrender the ſame, together with their charter, books of accompt, papers, contracts, and agreements for ſuch compenſation and ſatisfaction, and to be applied in ſuch manner as therein was expreſſed and directed. It was therefore enacted, That the Royal African company of England, after the 10th of April 1752, ſhould be diveſted of their ſaid charter, poſſeſſions, and effects whatſoever; which ſhould be veſted in the new corporation of *The Company of Merchants trading to Africa*, and their ſucceſſors, freed from all claims and demands of the ſaid *Royal African Company of England*, and their creditors: that the new company, with the conſent of the commiſſioners for trade and plantations, might impower proper perſons to raiſe and arm ſuch military forces as they ſhould think neceſſary, and ſubject them to their diſcipline; and to execute within their ſettlements ſuch regularities for their defence, and for the puniſhment of offences committed there, as ſhould be given them by the company, or their committee, with ſuch conſent and approbation as aforeſaid, ſo as ſuch puniſhment ſhould not extend to the loſs or deprivation of life or limb: that, for the more effectual encouragement of merchants trading or reſiding there, the company might, with the conſent and approbation of the commiſſioners for trade and plantations, eſtabliſh courts of judicature at ſuch places upon the coaſt as the company ſhould direct, for hearing and determining all cauſes ariſing there on account of mercantile or maritime bargains, buying, ſelling, or bartering of wares, or bills, bonds, or promiſe of payment of money, or mercantile or trading contracts, made upon the coaſt concerning any perſon reſiding there. But it was provided, that the crown might at pleaſure revoke any of the before mentioned powers, and eſtabliſh other regulations, and courts of juſtice: that all former contracts with any of the kings, princes, or natives of any countries on the coaſt, as alſo all deeds and accompts, ſhould be delivered over from the old to the new company: that 112,142 l. 3s. 3d. ſhould be applied out of the parliamentary ſupplies, as a full ſatisfaction to the old company for being diveſted of their charter and poſſeſſions; of which 1695 l. 3s. was to be paid to the three commiſſioners appointed by parliament to ſtate the claims of the creditors of the ſaid company; 84,652 l. 12s. 7 d. to the ſeveral creditors mentioned in the ſecond ſchedule; and 23,688 l. 15s. 5d. to the perſons named in the third ſchedule, theſe laſt being ſuch of the proprietors of African transferable ſtock as were poſſeſſed of the ſame on the 31ſt of December 1748, the ſame being computed at 10 *per cent.* on the ſaid ſtock ſo poſſeſſed by them at that time; and the remaining 2105 l. 12s. 3d. was to be paid the perſons named in the fourth ſchedule, being ſuch of the proprietors of African tranſferable ſtock as were poſſeſſed of the ſame ſince the ſaid 31ſt of December 1748, computed at 5 *per cent.* on the ſtock ſo poſſeſſed by them: that, after the 10th of April 1752, the old company ſhould ceaſe to be a corporation; and that the effects of the old company ſhould be ſold, and the amount of the ſales laid before parliament.

According to the ſurvey delivered in by Capt. Pye, it appears the company had ſeven forts in Africa: that at the firſt, being Cape Coaſt caſtle, they had 367 ſlaves, ſeveral pieces of artillery, ſome ammunition and military ſtores, with a ſchooner, a launch, and 5 canoes: that at Commenda, being the ſecond fort, they had 22 ſlaves, ſeveral cannon, ſome military ſtores, and 4 canoes: that at Succondee, the third fort, they had 10 ſlaves, ſeveral cannon, ſome military ſtores, and 2 canoes: that at Dick's Cove, being the fourth fort, they had 60 ſlaves, ſeveral cannon, ſome military ſtores, and 9 canoes: that at Tantumquerry, the fifth fort, they had 10 ſlaves, ſeveral cannon, and ſome military ſtores: that at Winnebah, the ſixth fort, they had 13 ſlaves, and ſeveral cannon: and that at Accra, the ſeventh fort, they had 32 ſlaves, ſeveral cannon, and 3 canoes.

Towards the end of the 17th century, an African company was formed in Scotland; which became very remarkable in 1699, upon account of the eſtabliſhment attempted in the iſthmus of Darien, that ſeparates South from North America: but the Engliſh government not judging it adviſable either to acknowledge or ſupport the firſt ſucceſs of this company, which had alarmed the jealouſy of Spain, the new Scots colony was diſtreſſed by the Spaniards in 1700; and one of the fineſt projects as yet formed for diſputing with the Spaniſh nation the entire poſſeſſion of theſe rich countries, proved abortive. But this company was alſo incorporated with the Engliſh company.

French AFRICAN *Companies.* — *Company of Senegal.* The company formed in France under this name, was at firſt only a ſimple aſſociation of ſome Dieppe merchants, who, without letters-patent from the King, undertook the trade of the African coaſts; where they eſtabliſhed themſelves in a ſmall iſle of the Niger, or river of Senegal, which they called *Iſlette St. Louis.*

They were ſucceeded by the Rouen merchants, who yielded, in 1644, their eſtabliſhment to the new Weſt

Indian company; which, among its conceſſions, had obtained the excluſive privilege of the whole African trade, from Cape Blanc to the Cape of Good Hope.

About ten years after, the revoking of the letters-patent of the great Weſt Indian company being judged neceſſary for the French trade, and this company being allowed to diſpoſe of its dependencies upon the African coaſt; a company was formed by the name of that of Senegal, which undertook the eſtabliſhing and ſupporting the trade of that immenſe conceſſion of the Weſt Indian company, purchaſed at 78,000 livres; this treaty being of the 8th November 1673, with a privilege of excluſive commerce during the term of thirty years, and all other exemptions and privileges of the Weſt Indian company.

This company having gone through ſeveral revolutions, at laſt gave up its privileges to a new company, formed by the moſt opulent merchants of Rouen, which was incorporated in 1718 with the great Indian company.

Guinea company. The French monarch having judged it neceſſary to divide into two companies the conceſſion he had made in favour of the company of Senegal, gave his letters-patent, towards the end of January 1685, for a company intitled *The Guinea company*, with the excluſive privilege of trading to the African coaſts, from the river Sierra Leon incluſively to the Cape of Good Hope.

This company was to enjoy all the exemptions and immunities granted the Weſt Indian company, and afterwards that of Senegal; under the obligation, notwithſtanding, of tranſporting yearly into the French American colonies 1000 Guinea negroes, and likewiſe 1200 marcs of gold-duſt into the kingdom of France.

The Guinea company ſubſiſted upon this footing till 1701; when, not ſatisfying their conditions, eight others were ſubſtituted in their place, with the ſame privileges, but bound to furniſh the American colonies with 3000 negroes. This company, which expired not till 1705, was the only one that made an advantage of the war commenced upon account of the Spaniſh ſucceſſion, becauſe it treated, with the royal permiſſion, for ſupplying the Spaniſh colonies with negroes, and continued to 1713 under the name of the *Aſſiento company*. The trade of the Guinea company was entirely the ſame with that of Senegal. But the peace of Utrecht between France and Spain put an end to this company, which continued to 1713; and, by a ſecret article, the tranſportation of negroes was given up to the Engliſh.

Lewis XV. in the firſt year of his reign, obſerving it to be more adviſable to allow all his ſubjects the liberty of commerce on the coaſts of Africa, according to the conceſſion of this company, than to conſent to the eſtabliſhment of a new one; accordingly the King granted, by his letters-patent of the 16th January 1716, a general leave to all his trading ſubjects to carry on the commerce of negroes and gold-duſt, from the river of Sierra-Leon incluſively to the Cape of Good Hope, upon condition of fitting out their ſhips in the ports of Rouen, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, and Nantes, except the merchants of St. Malo, who were at liberty to do what was neceſſary for this purpoſe in their own ports.

Cape-Verd company, is properly that of Senegal, under another denomination, being formed before the eſtabliſhment of the company of the Weſt, erected in 1664; but the coaſt of Africa being comprehended in the conceſſion of this laſt, there was no longer any mention made of that of the Cape, till, in 1673, it appeared under the title of that of Senegal.

Company of the Baſtion of France. Two merchants of Marſeilles, Thomas Linché and Carlin Didier, were the firſt who entered into an aſſociation, in the 15th century, for the coral fiſhery in the gulph of Stora Courcoury, upon the coaſts of Barbary, at the extremity of the kingdom of Algiers, and frontiers of that of Tunis.

Having obtained from the Port, towards the end of the reign of Solyman II. a conſent for eſtabliſhing themſelves therein, and having treated with the Checqs, or Mooriſh princes of the country, they began, in 1651, this little fortreſs called the *Baſtion of France*, whereof the French are yet in poſſeſſion.

The Sieur Moiſſac deſigning to continue this eſtabliſhment, which proved unſucceſsful with his two townſmen, obtained a conceſſion from Mahommed III. by the means of the French ambaſſador then reſiding at Conſtantinople; which M. Savary de Breves, who ſucceeded him, had likewiſe renewed by Achmet I. ſon and ſucceſſor of Mahommed.

Moiſſac and his company were ſcarce more happy than the firſt undertakers: ſo that it was to the Sieur Sanſon Napollon, who went there in 1628 in the name of the new aſſociates, that the baſtion owed its perfection, and the fiſhery and commerce the beſt ſtate they were ever in, either before or after.

This governor being killed at Tabarque, a town of the kingdom of Tunis, in the month of May 1633, his colony, which he had extended to upwards of 800 French inhabitants, was ſo diſſipated, that in leſs than a year afterwards, there remained not above one half.

Other companies ſtrove afterward, but to no purpoſe, to re-eſtabliſh the coral fiſhery. But there was one in 1673, which might have flattered itſelf with ſucceſs, if the war againſt the Dutch begun a year before, and thoſe which almoſt continued to the end of the reign of Lewis XIV. had not impeded this eſtabliſhment, and made the aſſociates ſuſtain ſeveral heavy loſſes.

The conceſſion of this company is not only for the coral fiſhery, carried on at the Baſtion of France, but alſo for all the commerce of this coaſt as far as Gigery, comprehending La Calle, Cape Roſe, Bonne, and Colle; whoſe commerce, excluſive of all others, is granted to this company by the royal letters-patent.

This commerce of the Baſtion of France is conſiderable, eſpecially for ox, cows, and goat ſkins; of which there are had, from all theſe places, 100,000 hides annually; and for wheat, and other grain, as alſo for legumes, imported to Italy, and even to France, in time of ſcarcity; beſides wax, wool, tallow, and ſome other commodities brought from thence.

Italian AFRICAN *company.—Company de Grilles.* An aſſociation of Genoeſe merchants for the traffic of negroes in Spaniſh America; which, for a conſiderable time, was the only company that carried on this commerce, furniſhing all thoſe that were neceſſary for Peru; where they were ſent from Porto-Bello. But at preſent the Genoeſe have entirely loſt this trade; the Engliſh and Dutch having engroſſed to themſelves the traffic of theſe ſlaves; the one at Porto-Bello, and Buenos-Ayres; the other at Carthagena, and Venuezella.

Portugueſe AFRICAN *company.* The Portugueſe have alſo an African company, for furniſhing of negroes to the colonies of Brazil; which was eſtabliſhed in 1724, by letters-patent granted by his Portugueſe Majeſty on the following reſtrictions. 1. That the new company ſhould build a fortreſs at the mouth of the river Angre, over againſt the iſland of Corſico, in 1 deg. 30 min. N. lat. 2. That it ſhall ſupply the Portugueſe plantations in America with as many negroes as ſhall be requiſite. 3. That no Portugueſe, nor even foreign ſhips, ſhall be permitted to trade upon that coaſt, under the penalty of confiſcation. After the publication of this grant, the new company advertiſed the conditions of intereſt, the funds, and the value of actions; whereby the fund was to conſiſt of one million of cruſades, and each action was declared to be worth 1000 cruſades, each cruſade being about 2 s. 8½ d. ſterling. The Portugueſe had alſo another African company, eſtabliſhed in 1696, for the commerce of Guinea, and the Indies, being formed at Liſbon, under the denomination of the *Carcheo company*; which treated with the King of Spain for the permiſſion of introducing, during the term of five years, 5000 negroes annually, into the ports of Spaniſh America upon diverſe conditions, equally advantageous to his Catholic Majeſty and this company.

The firſt ſubſcription amounted to upwards of 100,000 l. ſterling; and his Portugueſe Majeſty intereſted himſelf therein for two thirds of the capital fund. But the conceſſion having expired about the time of the war for the Spaniſh ſucceſſion, and the King of Portugal having declared againſt Philip V. the Portugueſe could not conve-

the majority, ſhould have full power to make orders for the governing and improving the forts and factories, and to appoint governors, and other officers, both civil and military, ſo as no orders or regulations made by the committee ſhould lay any reſtraint on the trade or traders, contrary to the intent of this act: that the traders, or perſons intending to trade to or from Africa, being inhabitants of London, Briſtol, or Liverpool, on paying 40s. each for their admittance into the freedom of the ſaid company, ſhould annually chuſe three perſons from each of the ſaid places for the committee; which election ſhould be on the 3d of July yearly; but, in caſe of an equality of votes at any election, the lord mayor of London, the mayor of Briſtol, and the mayor of Liverpool, reſpectively, ſhould determine which of ſuch perſons ſhould be the committee-man: that a chairman ſhould be choſen by the committee: that no perſon ſhould be capable of being choſen or acting as a committe-man above three years ſucceſſively: that the commiſſioners of trade and plantations might remove any of the committee-men, or officers or ſervants appointed by theſe, who ſhould be guilty of any miſbehaviour: that the committee ſhould render an account of their tranſactions once a-year to the commiſſioners for trade and plantations: that the committee, out of the monies they ſhould receive, might deduct annually 800 l. for expences of clerks, agents, and other contingencies; but the reſt of the monies ſhould be employed wholly to the maintenance and improvement of the forts and ſettlements; an account of which money the committee ſhould annually exhibit, upon oath, before the curſitor baron of the exchequer, who ſhould audite and paſs the ſame; and the committee ſhould lay before the parliament, every ſeſſion, a copy of ſuch annual account, and of all their orders and regulations: that the forts, warehouſes, and buildings belonging to the company, ſhould at all times be free and open to all his Majeſty's ſubjects, to be uſed as warehouſes for depoſiting gun-powder, gold, elephant's teeth, wax, gums, and drugs, but no other goods: that if the commander of any veſſel trading to Africa, ſhould, by any indirect practice, carry away any negro, or native of the country, or commit any violence on the natives, to the prejudice of the trade, he ſhould forfeit 100 l. that the accomptant-general, and two maſters of the court of chancery, ſhould be commiſſioners for examining into the claims of the creditors of the Royal African company; who were to lay an account of ſuch claims before the parliament with all convenient ſpeed.

In purſuance of this laſt mentioned act, another was paſſed in the 25th year of King George II. intitled, "An act for "the application of a ſum of money therein mentioned, "granted to his Majeſty, for making compenſation and "ſatisfaction to the Royal African company of England, "for their charter, lands, forts, caſtles, ſlaves, military "ſtores, and all other their effects whatſoever; and to "veſt the lands, forts, caſtles, ſlaves, and military ſtores, "and all other their effects, in the company of mer-"chants trading to Africa, and for other purpoſes in the "act mentioned;" wherein it was declared, That Capt. Thomas Pye, in purſuance of directions from the lords of the admiralty, in the year 1749, took a ſurvey of the forts and caſtles of the ſaid Royal African company of England on the coaſt of Africa, and of the quantity, number, and quality of cannon, and their military ſtores, canoe-men, caſtle-ſlaves, canoes, and veſſels, then at each reſpective port, belonging to the company; and that the company were willing to ſurrender the ſame, together with their charter, books of accompt, papers, contracts, and agreements for ſuch compenſation and ſatisfaction, and to be applied in ſuch manner as therein was expreſſed and directed. It was therefore enacted, That the Royal African company of England, after the 10th of April 1752, ſhould be diveſted of their ſaid charter, poſſeſſions, and effects whatſoever; which ſhould be veſted in the new corporation of *The Company of Merchants trading to Africa*, and their ſucceſſors, freed from all claims and demands of the ſaid *Royal African Company of England*, and their creditors: that the new company, with the conſent of the commiſſioners for trade and plantations, might impower proper perſons to raiſe and arm ſuch military forces as they ſhould think neceſſary, and ſubject them to their diſcipline; and to execute within their ſettlements ſuch regularities for their defence, and for the puniſhment of offences committed there, as ſhould be given them by the company, or their committee, with ſuch conſent and approbation as aforeſaid, ſo as ſuch puniſhment ſhould not extend to the loſs or deprivation of life or limb: that, for the more effectual encouragement of merchants trading or reſiding there, the company might, with the conſent and approbation of the commiſſioners for trade and plantations, eſtabliſh courts of judicature at ſuch places upon the coaſt as the company ſhould direct, for hearing and determining all cauſes ariſing there on account of mercantile or maritime bargains, buying, ſelling, or bartering of wares, or bills, bonds, or promiſe of payment of money, or mercantile or trading contracts, made upon the coaſt concerning any perſon reſiding there. But it was provided, that the crown might at pleaſure revoke any of the before mentioned powers, and eſtabliſh other regulations, and courts of juſtice: that all former contracts with any of the kings, princes, or natives of any countries on the coaſt, as alſo all deeds and accompts, ſhould be delivered over from the old to the new company: that 112,142 l. 3s. 3d. ſhould be applied out of the parliamentary ſupplies, as a full ſatisfaction to the old company for being diveſted of their charter and poſſeſſions; of which 1695 l. 3s. was to be paid to the three commiſſioners appointed by parliament to ſtate the claims of the creditors of the ſaid company; 84,652 l. 12s. 7d. to the ſeveral creditors mentioned in the ſecond ſchedule; and 23,688 l. 15s. 5d. to the perſons named in the third ſchedule, theſe laſt being ſuch of the proprietors of African transferable ſtock as were poſſeſſed of the ſame on the 31ſt of December 1748, the ſame being computed at 10 *per cent.* on the ſaid ſtock ſo poſſeſſed by them at that time; and the remaining 2105 l. 12s. 3d. was to be paid the perſons named in the fourth ſchedule, being ſuch of the proprietors of African transferable ſtock as were poſſeſſed of the ſame ſince the ſaid 31ſt of December 1748, computed at 5 *per cent.* on the ſtock ſo poſſeſſed by them: that, after the 10th of April 1752, the old company ſhould ceaſe to be a corporation; and that the effects of the old company ſhould be ſold, and the amount of the ſales laid before parliament.

According to the ſurvey delivered in by Capt. Pye, it appears the company had ſeven forts in Africa: that at the firſt, being Cape Coaſt caſtle, they had 367 ſlaves, ſeveral pieces of artillery, ſome ammunition and military ſtores, with a ſchooner, a launch, and 5 canoes: that at Commenda, being the ſecond fort, they had 22 ſlaves, ſeveral cannon, ſome military ſtores, and 4 canoes: that at Succondee, the third fort, they had 10 ſlaves, ſeveral cannon, ſome military ſtores, and 2 canoes: that at Dick's Cove, being the fourth fort, they had 60 ſlaves, ſeveral cannon, ſome military ſtores, and 9 canoes: that at Tantumquerry, the fifth fort, they had 10 ſlaves, ſeveral cannon, and ſome military ſtores: that at Winnebah, the ſixth fort, they had 13 ſlaves, and ſeveral cannon: and that at Accra, the ſeventh fort, they had 32 ſlaves, ſeveral cannon, and 3 canoes.

Towards the end of the 17th century, an African company was formed in Scotland; which became very remarkable in 1699, upon account of the eſtabliſhment attempted in the iſthmus of Darien, that ſeparates South from North America: but the Engliſh government not judging it adviſable either to acknowledge or ſupport the firſt ſucceſs of this company, which had alarmed the jealouſy of Spain, the new Scots colony was diſtreſſed by the Spaniards in 1700; and one of the fineſt projects as yet formed for diſputing with the Spaniſh nation the entire poſſeſſion of theſe rich countries, proved abortive. But this company was alſo incorporated with the Engliſh company.

French AFRICAN *Companies.* — *Company of Senegal.* The company formed in France under this name, was at firſt only a ſimple aſſociation of ſome Dieppe merchants, who, without letters-patent from the King, undertook the trade of the African coaſts; where they eſtabliſhed themſelves in a ſmall iſle of the Niger, or river of Senegal, which they called *Iſlette St. Louis.*

They were ſucceeded by the Rouen merchants, who yielded, in 1644, their eſtabliſhment to the new Weſt

Indian company; which, among its conceſſions, had obtained the excluſive privilege of the whole African trade, from Cape Blanc to the Cape of Good Hope.

About ten years after, the revoking of the letters-patent of the great Weſt Indian company being judged neceſſary for the French trade, and this company being allowed to diſpoſe of its dependencies upon the African coaſt; a company was formed by the name of that of Senegal, which undertook the eſtabliſhing and ſupporting the trade of that immenſe conceſſion of the Weſt Indian company, purchaſed at 78,000 livres; this treaty being of the 8th November 1673, with a privilege of excluſive commerce during the term of thirty years, and all other exemptions and privileges of the Weſt Indian company.

This company having gone through ſeveral revolutions, at laſt gave up its privileges to a new company, formed by the moſt opulent merchants of Rouen, which was incorporated in 1718 with the great Indian company.

Guinea company. The French monarch having judged it neceſſary to divide into two companies the conceſſion he had made in favour of the company of Senegal, gave his letters-patent, towards the end of January 1685, for a company intitled *The Guinea company*, with the excluſive privilege of trading to the African coaſts, from the river Sierra Leon incluſively to the Cape of Good Hope.

This company was to enjoy all the exemptions and immunities granted the Weſt Indian company, and afterwards that of Senegal; under the obligation, notwithſtanding, of tranſporting yearly into the French American colonies 1000 Guinea negroes, and likewiſe 1200 marcs of gold-duſt into the kingdom of France.

The Guinea company ſubſiſted upon this footing till 1701; when, not ſatisfying their conditions, eight others were ſubſtituted in their place, with the ſame privileges, but bound to furniſh the American colonies with 3000 negroes.

This company, which expired not till 1705, was the only one that made an advantage of the war commenced upon account of the Spaniſh ſucceſſion, becauſe it treated, with the royal permiſſion, for ſupplying the Spaniſh colonies with negroes, and continued to 1713 under the name of the *Aſſiento company*. The trade of the Guinea company was entirely the ſame with that of Senegal. But the peace of Utrecht between France and Spain put an end to this company, which continued to 1713; and, by a ſecret article, the tranſportation of negroes was given up to the Engliſh.

Lewis XV. in the firſt year of his reign, obſerving it to be more adviſable to allow all his ſubjects the liberty of commerce on the coaſts of Africa, according to the conceſſion of this company, than to conſent to the eſtabliſhment of a new one; accordingly the King granted, by his letters-patent of the 16th January 1716, a general leave to all his trading ſubjects to carry on the commerce of negroes and gold-duſt, from the river of Sierra-Leon incluſively to the Cape of Good Hope, upon condition of fitting out their ſhips in the ports of Rouen, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, and Nantes, except the merchants of St. Malo, who were at liberty to do what was neceſſary for this purpoſe in their own ports.

Cape-Verd company, is properly that of Senegal, under another denomination, being formed before the eſtabliſhment of the company of the Weſt, erected in 1664; but the coaſt of Africa being comprehended in the conceſſion of this laſt, there was no longer any mention made of that of the Cape, till, in 1673, it appeared under the title of that of Senegal.

Company of the Baſtion of France. Two merchants of Marſeilles, Thomas Linché and Carlin Didier, were the firſt who entered into an aſſociation, in the 15th century, for the coral fiſhery in the gulph of Stora Courcoury, upon the coaſts of Barbary, at the extremity of the kingdom of Algiers, and frontiers of that of Tunis.

Having obtained from the Port, towards the end of the reign of Solyman II. a conſent for eſtabliſhing themſelves therein, and having treated with the Checqs, or Mooriſh princes of the country, they began, in 1651, this little fortreſs called the *Baſtion of France*, whereof the French are yet in poſſeſſion.

The Sieur Moiſſac deſigning to continue this eſtabliſhment, which proved unſucceſsful with his two townſmen, obtained a conceſſion from Mahommed III. by the means of the French ambaſſador then reſiding at Conſtantinople; which M. Savary de Breves, who ſucceeded him, had likewiſe renewed by Achmet I. ſon and ſucceſſor of Mahommed.

Moiſſac and his company were ſcarce more happy than the firſt undertakers: ſo that it was to the Sieur Sanſon Napollon, who went there in 1628 in the name of the new aſſociates, that the baſtion owed its perfection, and the fiſhery and commerce the beſt ſtate they were ever in, either before or after.

This governor being killed at Tabarque, a town of the kingdom of Tunis, in the month of May 1633, his colony, which he had extended to upwards of 800 French inhabitants, was ſo diſſipated, that in leſs than a year afterwards, there remained not above one half.

Other companies ſtrove afterward, but to no purpoſe, to re-eſtabliſh the coral fiſhery. But there was one in 1673, which might have flattered itſelf with ſucceſs, if the war againſt the Dutch begun a year before, and thoſe which almoſt continued to the end of the reign of Lewis XIV. had not impeded this eſtabliſhment, and made the aſſociates ſuſtain ſeveral heavy loſſes.

The conceſſion of this company is not only for the coral fiſhery, carried on at the Baſtion of France, but alſo for all the commerce of this coaſt as far as Gigery, comprehending La Calle, Cape Roſe, Bonne, and Colle; whoſe commerce, excluſive of all others, is granted to this company by the royal letters-patent.

This commerce of the Baſtion of France is conſiderable, eſpecially for ox, cows, and goat ſkins; of which there are had, from all theſe places, 100,000 hides annually; and for wheat, and other grain, as alſo for legumes, imported to Italy, and even to France, in time of ſcarcity; beſides wax, wool, tallow, and ſome other commodities brought from thence.

Italian AFRICAN *company.—Company de Grilles.* An aſſociation of Genoeſe merchants for the traffic of negroes in Spaniſh America; which, for a conſiderable time, was the only company that carried on this commerce, furniſhing all thoſe that were neceſſary for Peru; where they were ſent from Porto-Bello. But at preſent the Genoeſe have entirely loſt this trade; the Engliſh and Dutch having engroſſed to themſelves the traffic of theſe ſlaves; the one at Porto-Bello, and Buenos-Ayres; the other at Carthagena, and Venuezella.

Portugueſe AFRICAN *company.* The Portugueſe have alſo an African company, for furniſhing of negroes to the colonies of Brazil; which was eſtabliſhed in 1724, by letters-patent granted by his Portugueſe Majeſty on the following reſtrictions. 1. That the new company ſhould build a fortreſs at the mouth of the river Angre, over againſt the iſland of Corſico, in 1 deg. 30 min. N. lat. 2. That it ſhall ſupply the Portugueſe plantations in America with as many negroes as ſhall be requiſite. 3. That no Portugueſe, nor even foreign ſhips, ſhall be permitted to trade upon that coaſt, under the penalty of confiſcation. After the publication of this grant, the new company advertiſed the conditions of intereſt, the funds, and the value of actions; whereby the fund was to conſiſt of one million of cruſades, and each action was declared to be worth 1000 cruſades, each cruſade being about 2 s. 8½ d. ſterling. The Portugueſe had alſo another African company, eſtabliſhed in 1696, for the commerce of Guinea, and the Indies, being formed at Liſbon, under the denomination of the *Carcheo company*; which treated with the King of Spain for the permiſſion of introducing, during the term of five years, 5000 negroes annually, into the ports of Spaniſh America upon diverſe conditions, equally advantageous to his Catholic Majeſty and this company.

The firſt ſubſcription amounted to upwards of 100,000 l. ſterling; and his Portugueſe Majeſty intereſted himſelf therein for two thirds of the capital fund. But the conceſſion having expired about the time of the war for the Spaniſh ſucceſſion, and the King of Portugal having declared againſt Philip V. the Portugueſe could not conve-

niently demand its continuation; whereby the ſupplying of negroes during the war came into the hands of the French; and, by the treaty of Utrecht, paſſed from them to the Engliſh.

AFT. The ſame with abaft. See *Abaft*.

AGAI. See *Agio*.

AGALLOCHIUM. A ſort of wood, brought from the Eaſt Indies, of the ſpecies of the aloes; having a thin tender bark, ſpotted with a variety of colours, of a tart taſte, and odoriferous ſcent; the juice of which is reckoned among the beſt cordials. See *Alces*.

AGARIC. A kind of fungous excreſcence, growing on the trunks and large branches of ſeveral trees, particularly the larch-tree, in Muſcovy and Tartary; though an inferior ſort alſo grows on the Alps, the mountains of Dauphine, and in the Trentine. Agaric was formerly eſteemed of great utility in pharmacy, and, among phyſicians, called *fungus agarici*, by way of contradiſtinction from the mineral agaric. It has alſo been denominated the *female agaric*; being white, light, tender, ſmooth, brittle, of a bitter taſte, pungent, and a little ſtyptic: becauſe there is another called the *male agaric*, generally uſed in dying; which is uſually rough, yelloviſh, and woody.

The mineral agaric is an earthy concretion, of the colour and conſiſtence of coagulated milk; which, by drying, forms a white, light, friable maſs, not unlike the vegetable agaric; and is found in the clefts of rocks in different parts of Germany.

AGATE. A precious ſtone; differently denominated, according to its different colours; ſome being tranſparent, ſome opaque, and ſome partly tranſparent and opaque.

The agates called *ſardian* are red; and the moſt valuable of that kind are the fleſh-coloured, mixed with brown; the leſs valuable are thoſe whoſe red borders upon a yellow.

The onyx is entirely opaque, and of a whitiſh and black colour.

The ſardonyx participates of the nature of the onyx and ſardian; and is the moſt precious of all kinds of agate.

There are likewiſe the Calcedonic agate, the Egyptian, and the Roman; as alſo the ſacred, or the Candian, which is as red as coral, and ſpotted with gold, mentioned by the ancients; but now no where to be met with.

The agate is uſed in making cups, rings, ſeals, handles for knives and forks, hilts for ſwords and hangers, ſnuff-boxes, and abundance of toys.

AGENT, in the common acceptation of the word, ſignifies a perſon intruſted with the management of the affairs of a corporation, or private perſon; in which ſenſe, the word coincides with deputy, procurator, commiſſioner, factor, and broker. See *Factor*, and *Broker*.

AGGA, or *Agonna*. A Britiſh ſettlement on the gold-coaſt of Guinea. See *Guinea*.

AGGOUED-BUND. The beſt of the ſix ſorts of ſilk gathered in the territories of the Great Mogul. See *Silk*.

AGGREGATE, is the total, or whole maſs of particulars, added or collected together: thus, in the Britiſh revenues, ſeveral duties are collected to form what is called the *aggregate* fund. See *Aggregate Fund*.

AGIO. An Italian word ſignifying eaſe, or conveniency, and adapted as a mercantile term in ſuch foreign cities of commerce, where publick banks are eſtabliſhed; in which caſe the word carries an implication of the exchange, or difference, between the money or ſtock of the bank, and the current money, or caſh; ſo that the agio, or advance in favour of the bank, is ſubſtituted as a ſynonymous term for premium, reward, or valuable conſideration; and is ſo variable, that, at Amſterdam, it is uſually between 3 and 4 *per cent*; at Rome, near 25 for 1500; at Venice, conſtantly 20 *per cent*. and at Genoa from 25 to 16 *per cent*.

AGIRO, called alſo *Giro*. A ſmall weight uſed in the kingdom of Pegu; 2 of which make a half biza, and the biza weighs 100 teccalis, or about 3 lb. 8 oz.

AGNES, St. One of the Scilly iſlands off the coaſt of Cornwall in England, otherwiſe called the *light-houſe iſland*, by whoſe light ſhips going out of, or coming into the Britiſh or Briſtol channels, avoid falling in with the rocks,

which lie thicker about St. Agnes than any other of the Scilly iſlands. See *Britiſh* iſlands.

AGNUS-CASTUS, called alſo by ſome *Vitex*. A plant or ſhrub, ſometimes riſing to the height of a middling tree, and delighting in the banks of rivers, rugged and rocky places, though it might likewiſe be cultivated in gardens. Its leaves reſemble thoſe of the olive-tree, but are much ſofter and longer; its bloſſoms are of a purple hue, and ſometimes white; its ſeed, or rather fruit, is firſt white, then reddens gradually, and is of a ſharp aromatic taſte; chiefly uſed for venereal injuries.

The beſt ſeed of the *agnus-caſtus*, is that which is new, large, plump, and comes from hot countries.

AGRA. A city of India, ſituated in 79 deg. of E. lon. and in 26 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. being the capital, and center of the commerce of the Moguliſtan empire. See *India*.

AGRA. A kind of ſweet-ſcented wood, found in the iſland of Haynan, belonging to China; of which there are three kinds: the fineſt is generally bought at 80 taels *per* foot in Haynan, and is ſold at Canton for 90; the ſecond kind is bought for 70 taels, and ſold for 80; the laſt for 45, and ſold for 60: a tael being about 6s. 8d. Sterling.

AGRA-CARAMBA. Another kind of ſweet-ſcented wood, brought alſo from the iſland of Haynan; which coſts there 60 taels the cati, and is ſold at Canton from 80 to 85. The cati is about 13 lb. 4$\frac{3}{4}$. oz. averdupois. This wood being eſteemed good for the purging of women, the Japaneſe ſet a great value upon it, and the Chineſe ſend it them in great quantities.

AGREEMENT, is the ſettling the conditions of a contract or bargain, a reconciling of diſputes, or arbitrating differences.

AGRICULTURE, or *Huſbandry*. The art of tilling, or cultivating the earth, in order to render it fertile, and make it bear plants, trees, and fruits.

The principal and moſt general operations in agriculture, are manuring, ploughing, fallowing, ſowing, harrowing, reaping, and mowing.

To theſe operations alſo belong the management of the productions of particular countries; as hops, hemp, vines, tobacco, ſaffron, liquorice, madder, and woad. To the ſame art belong planting, tranſplanting, pruning, ingrafting, the culture of foreſts, timber, and copſes.

Even gardening, or horticulture itſelf, is only a branch of agriculture; which was formerly of ſuch conſequence that it was cultivated by ſeveral perſons of the greateſt diſtinction among the ancients; as emperors, dictators, and conſuls; and has been treated of by ſome of their moſt celebrated authors.

Agriculture, in the primeval ages, was the common parent of traffic; as the opulence of mankind, at that time, conſiſted in cattle, and the product of tillage; which are now very eſſential for the promotion of trade in general, but more particularly ſo to ſuch nations as are moſt abundant in cattle, corn, and fruits; as beef, goats, ſheep, rabbits, horſes, and other animals, whoſe fleſh or ſkins are either of uſe for the ſupport of mankind, or neceſſary in their different manufactures. See *Butter*, *Cattle*, *Corn*, *Flax*, *Hemp*, *Hops*, *Linen*, *Saffron*, *Tobacco*, *Timber*, *Wines*, and *Wool*.

AGUILLES. Cotton-cloths of the manufacture of Aleppo.

AHUYS. A port-town of Sweden, ſituated in the 14 deg. of E. long. and 56 of N. lat. See *Sweden*.

AJAN. See *Anian*.

AJAZZO. A port town of the iſland of Corſica, in the Mediterranean, ſituated in 9 deg. of E. long. and 41 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. See *Italian* iſlands.

AJAZZO. A port town of the Leſſer Aſia, in the province of Caramania, ſituated on the coaſt of the Mediterranean, in 37 deg. of E. long. and 37 of N. lat. See *Turky*.

AIGRIS, is a greeniſh-blue coloured ſtone, found in the kingdom of Iſſonois, on the coaſt of Guinea in Africa; where it is cut in little pieces, called *beliquets*, which paſs as current coin, two of theſe *beliquets* being worth about 1d. ſterling.

AIRE, a port-town of Scotland, in Aireſhire or Kyle, ſituated at the mouth of the river Aire, near the Frith, or ſea of Clyde, in 4 deg. 40. min. of W. long. and 55 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. See *Great-Britain.*

AIX-LA-CHAPELLE, an imperial city of Germany, ſituated in 5 deg. 50 min. of E. long. and 50 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. See *Germany.*

AKOND. An officer of juſtice in Perſia, who takes cognizance of all mercantile contracts, and other civil concerns.

ALABASTER. A kind of ſtone ſofter than marble, yet harder than p'aiſter of Paris; uſed for the making of figures and other ornaments of ſculpture; the greateſt quantities of which are found in the neighbourhood of Coblentz in Germany, in ſome places of Lorrain, at Clugny in France, and about Rome in Italy; but the moſt valuable ſort is produced in the papal territories, eſpecially at Montaia, where the alabaſter is in the higheſt eſtimation for its beautiful whiteneſs and admirable magnitude; ſome quarries affording the ſtatuary an opportunity of exerting all the art of Phidias, in the repreſentation of a human figure, as big as the life, entirely formed from a ſingle block.

Alabaſter is found of all colours; ſome extremely white and ſhining; ſome red, like coral; others called *onyx* from its dark horny colour, reſembling that of the onyx; and another ſort of a yellowiſh colour, like honey, variegated with ſpecks and little veins; but the white is now generally uſed, though formerly in the leaſt eſteem.

ALAMODE, a thin, light, gloſſy, black ſilk, neither quilted nor croſſed; generally uſed for the hoods of women, and mourning ſcarves for men.

ALANA, or *Tripoli*, a kind of chalk, or ſoft ſtone, ſomewhat inclining to a reddiſh colour.

ALAND, one of the Swediſh iſlands in the Baltic ſea, ſituated at the entrance of the Bothnic gulph, between 18 and 20. deg. of E. long. and 50 and 61 of N. lat. See *Swediſh* iſlands.

ALAOU, one of the Dutch factories in the iſland of Sumatra. See *Sunda* iſlands.

ALATAMAHA, a large river of North America, riſing in the Apalachian mountains, which runs S. E. through the province of Georgia, and falls into the Atlantic ocean, below the new town of Frederica.

ALAUTA, a river of Tranſilvania, riſing in the N. E. part of that province; which, running S. forms part of the boundary between Chriſtendom and Turky; and, containing its courſe farther through Walachia, diſcharges itſelf into the Danube, almoſt oppoſite to Nicopolis in Bulgaria.

ALBANY, a town of North America, in the province of New York, ſituated on Hudſon's river, 150 miles N. of the city of New York, in 74 deg. of W. long. and 43 of N. lat.

ALBAZARIN, or *Albaroſin*, a kind of Spaniſh wool.

ALBENGA. A port-town of Italy, in the territory of Genoa, ſituated in 8 deg. 40 min. of E. long. and in 44 deg. 15. min of N. lat.

ALBERNUS, a kind of camblet, or barracan, brought from the Levant.

ALBERTUS. A gold coin ſtruck in Flanders, during the government of Albert, arch-duke of Auſtria, which weighs 4 penny-weights; its ſtandard being 21 carats $\frac{3}{4}$, and of the value of 14 s. 3d. ſterling.

ALBOURG. A port-town of Denmark, ſituated on the gulph of Limburg, in the province of Jutland, in 10 deg. of E. long. and 57 deg. of N. lat.

ALBREDA. A French ſettlement on the river Gambia, in Africa.

ALBE. A ſmall German coin, worth 8 fenins, or one penny ſterling.

ALBUS. A ſmall coin of Cologne, worth about $\frac{1}{2}$d. ſterling.

ALCAIDE, among the Moors, is the governor of a city, or caſtle, whoſe juriſdiction is ſovereign, both in civil and criminal concerns; particularly in the empire of Morocco.

ALCALDE, in the Spaniſh policy, is a judge, or miniſter of juſtice, anſwering to a provoſt among the French.

ALCANNA, by the Turks called *knah*, and by botaniſts *liguſtrum ægyptiacum*, is a coſmetic powder, generally

uſed in the Levant, extracted from the leaf of a ſpecies of liguſtrum, frequent in Barbary. The alcanna is red or yellow, according to its preparation; of the former colour when ſteeped in water, and of the latter by an infuſion with vinegar, lemon, or allum-water, with which the Turkiſh and Jewiſh women are accuſtomed to dye the nails of their fingers and toes, as alſo their hair; but Europeans uſe the drug only in the myſtery of dying.

An oil is extracted from the berries of the alcanna, of a very agreeable ſmell, and of uſe in ſome medicinal preparations, which frequently paſſes under the denomination of the oil of cyprus.

ALCMAER. A town of the United Provinces, remarkable for the great quantities of butter and cheeſe made there; ſituated in 4 deg. 30 min. of E. long. and 52 deg. 40 min. of N. lat.

ALDBOROUGH. A port-town of Suffolk, ſituated in 1 deg. 40 min. of E. long. and 52 deg. 28 min. of N. lat.

ALDER, a tall ſtraight tree, generally found in damp and marſhy places, which affords wood of great uſe among turners, for houſhold furniture, and its bark is alſo uſed by dyers.

ALDERNEY. An iſland in the Britiſh channel. See *Britiſh Iſlands.*

ALE, is a malt-liquor very common in England, and differs from Beer only by having a leſſer quantity of malt and hops, and by being drawn at a leſſer age. See *Beer.*

ALECONNERS. Four officers of the city of London, elected by the common-hall of the city, whoſe buſineſs is to inſpect the meaſures of the public houſes.

ALEGAR, ſour ale, uſed by the makers of white-lead, and dyers, inſtead of vinegar.

ALE-SILVER, a rent, or tribute, annually paid to the lord mayor of London, by retailers of ale, within the privileges of the city.

ALE-TASTER, is an officer appointed, and ſworn, in every court leet, to look that there are a due aſſe, and goodneſs, of bread, ale and beer, ſold within the juriſdiction of the leet.

ALEPPO. A city of Aſiatic Turky, ſituated in 37 deg. and 40 min. of E. long. and 36 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

ALESSIO. A town of European Turky, ſituated in 20 deg. of E. long. and 42 of N. lat. See *Turky.*

ALEXANDRIA. A great city, and port-town of the Lower Egypt, in Africa, ſituated in 31 deg. 15 min. of E. long. and 30 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. being 14 miles W. of the moſt weſterly branch of the river Nile, and 120 miles N. W. of the city of Grand Cairo. See *Egypt.*

ALEXANDRETTA. See *Scanderoon.*

ALFANDIGA, is an appellation generally given to the cuſtom-houſe of Liſbon, the capital city in Portugal, where, as in all other cuſtom houſes, are paid the duties of imports and exports. But perhaps it will not be amiſs to obſerve, for the inſtruction of thoſe who may trade there, that all gold or ſilver lace, fringe, brocades, with gold and ſilver ribbons, are confiſcated as contraband goods; no one in Portugal being permitted to wear cloaths or furniture wove with gold or ſilver.

ALGATRANE. A kind of pitch found in the bay formed by the point of the Cape of St. Helena, on the S. of the iſland of Plata, in the Pacific ocean, which is a bituminous matter bubling out of a hole, four or five paces from the high-water mark, being firſt liquid like tar, but, by much boiling, receives the conſiſtence of pitch, and may be uſed in all caſes in which that is employed.

ALGIER. See *Barbary.*

ALLIBALLIES. A muſlin brought from the Eaſt Indies; the piece being about 20 yards in length, and one in breadth.

ALICANT. A large ſea-port town, in the province of Valencia, in Spain, ſituated in 30 deg. of W. long. and 38 deg. 35 min. of N. lat. See *Spain.*

ALICONDE. A tree growing in ſome parts of the Lower Ethiopia, whoſe fruit reſembles that of the cocoa nut, but not good for eating; though by breaking the rind, a kind of flax is produced, which makes a beautiful cloth, equal to that made of hemp.

ALIEN, in law, a ſtranger, or perſon born out of the allegiance of the king, or under the juriſdiction of ſome other ſovereign, and not naturalized, or made a deniſen; whereby he is incapable, according to the laws of England, to purchaſe, or inherit, lands, or freeholds; though they are permitted to buy houſes, or ware-houſes, as an accommodation for merchant ſtrangers. See *Naturalization*.

A man born out of the land, ſo it be within the limits of the King's obedience beyond the ſeas, or of Engliſh parents out of the King's obedience, ſo the parents at the time of the birth be of ſuch obedience, is no alien, but ordained to be a ſubject of the King, by a ſtatute of 25th Edward III. commonly called the ſtatute *de natis ultra mare*. Beſides, if a perſon, born out of the King's allegiance, come and dwell in England, his children, begotten here, are not aliens, but denizens; whereby they are enabled, in many reſpects, to act as native ſubjects; as in purchaſing and poſſeſſing of lands, as alſo in holding any office or dignity. However, denizenſhip is a right inferior to naturalization by parliament; for a ſtranger naturaliſed may inherit lands by deſcent, which a denizen is incapable of doing. See *Denizen*.

Scavage, package, and balli ge, payable to the city of London, are properly aliens duties: but for an information on what reſtrictions aliens are permitted to import foreign commodities into Great Britain, ſee *Navigation*.

By the ſtatutes of the 1ſt and 11th of Henry VII. and the 22d of Henry VIII. it was enacted, That aliens born, tho' made denizens, ſhould pay ſuch duties as they did before they were made denizens.

By the ſtatutes of the 9th of Henry III. and the 5th of Henry IV. it was enacted, That merchants ſtrangers ſhould be uſed in this realm, as merchant denizens were in other countries.

By the ſtatutes of the 4th and 5th of Henry IV. the 27th Henry VI. the 17th of Edward IV. and the 3d of Henry VII. it was enacted, That merchants ſtrangers bringing in goods, ſhould give ſecurity to the King's cuſtomer and comptroller, to employ the money upon the commodities of the realm, or to put it in due payment here, their reaſonable coſts excepted; and ſhould not export the money received for the ſame, upon forfeiture of all their goods, and to ſuffer a year's impriſonment.

By the ſtatutes of the 14th and 15th of Henry VIII. it was enacted, That a Britiſh man, ſworn to be ſubject to a foreign prince or ſtate, ſhould pay ſtrangers cuſtoms: but if he ſhould return to Great Britain, and there inhabit, he ſhould pay only Britiſh duties, and have a writ out of chancery for the ſame.

By the ſtatute of 7th of Jac. I. it was enacted, That the naturalizing of them ſhould be only to thoſe of the religion eſtabliſhed in England, and not, if of the age of eighteen years or above, till they had received the ſacrament, and taken the oaths of allegiance and ſupremacy.

By the ſtatute of the 12th of Car. II. it was enacted, That aliens and denizens coming into this kingdom, ſhould be well and honeſtly entreated with reſpect to the payment of duties: as alſo, that aliens and their ſons, unfreemen, ſhould pay the duties of ſcavage, &c. in the port of London.

By the ſtatute of the 13th and 14th of Car. II. it was enacted, That the children of aliens, under twenty-one years of age, ſhould not trade nor make entries.

By the ſtatute of the 13th of Geor. II. it was enacted, That foreign mariners, who had ſerved during the then preſent war, or that ſhould, in purſuance of his Majeſty's royal proclamation, in any future war, ſerve two years aboard Britiſh ſhips, ſhould be deemed natural-born ſubjects.—That foreigners who ſhould reſide ſeven years or more in any of his Majeſty's colonies in America, and ſhould not have been abſent more than two months at any one time during the ſaid ſeven years, and ſhould take and ſubſcribe the proper oaths before the judge of the colony, and, not being Jews or Quakers, receive the ſacrament in ſome proteſtant congregation in Great Britain, or ſome of the ſaid colonies in America, ſhould be deemed his Majeſty's natural-born ſubjects.

ALIPOW *Montis Cette*. A ſpecies of white turbith, of a powerful purgative quality, found in ſeveral places of Languedoc in France, particularly near Cette.

ALIZEES. A term for a particular wind in the Caribbee iſlands, ſetting from eaſt to weſt, very regular and periodical; which alſo blows at certain times of the year in different parts of the Atlantic, Ethiopic, Indian, and Pacific oceans.

ALKALI. A name originally given by the Arabians to a ſalt extracted from the aſhes of a plant by them called *kali*, and by us glaſſwort, or ſaltwort, which is one of the principal ingredients in making glaſs. See *Kali*.

ALKEKENGI. A medicinal fruit, produced by a plant of the ſame denomination, more properly called *winter-cherry*.

ALKERMES. An Arabian term in medicine, denoting a celebrated remedy, of the form and conſiſtence of a confection; whereof the kermes-berries are the baſis, incorporated with pippin-cyder, roſe-water, ſugar, amber-greaſe, muſk, cinnamon, aloes wood, pearls, and leaf-gold; but the ſweets are uſually omitted. See *Kermes*.

The *confectio alkermes* is chiefly made at Montpelier in France, from whence the greateſt part of Europe is ſupplied with this commodity.

ALLAY. See *Alloy*.

ALLEGEAS. A ſtuff manufactured in the Eaſt Indies; of which there are two kinds, ſome of cotton, and ſome of ſeveral kinds of herbs, ſpun like flax and hemp; their lengths and breadths being of eight ells by five, ſix, or ſeven eighths, and of twelve ells by three quarters, or five eighths.

ALLER. A river in Germany, riſing in the duchy of Magdeburg, and running N. W. through the duchy of Lunenburg in Lower Saxony, paſſes by the city of Zell; after which it continues its courſe N. till it falls into the river Weſer, a little below Verden.

ALLEUVRE. The ſmalleſt copper-coin ſtruck in Sweden, being worth about the twenty-fourth part of a penny.

ALLIGATION, in arithmetic, is a rule or operation whereby queſtions are reſolved, relating to the mixture of divers commodities or ingredients, together with the value and effect thereof; being of two kinds, medial, and alternate.

Alligation medial ſhews what the mean price of a pound, ounce, *&c.* is worth, when ſeveral quantities of ſeveral values are mixed together.

Alligation alternate ſhews how much of various kinds of ſimples may be taken to make up any aſſigned quantity of a compound, which ſhall be worth a price propoſed.

ALLOCATION. The admitting or allowing of an article in an accompt.

ALLOTTING, or *Allotment of goods*, is when ſeveral perſons purchaſe a cargo or quantity of goods jointly, which are divided into as many parcels or lots; then the names of all the purchaſers are wrote on a diſtinct piece of paper, and applied by any indifferent perſon to the ſeveral lots; by which means the lots, or ſeveral parcels of goods, are divided without any partiality, and every purchaſer has the lot where his name is affixed.

ALL SAINTS *bay*, or *Baiha de Todos Sanctos*, a ſpacious harbour, ſituated in 40 deg. of W. lon. and 12 deg. of S. lat. near St. Salvador in Braſil, in South America, on the Atlantic ocean.

ALLOWANCES, is a term uſed at the cuſtomhouſe; under which may be included the drawbacks, bounties, and premiums; but it is more particularly applied to the allowances of draught and tare to ſuch goods as are rated by weight, and alſo of meaſure to ſuch as are rated by meaſure.

All goods and merchandiſes imported into Great Britain pay duties, and are to be delivered either by tale, weight, meaſure, or gauge. At landing the goods, the weigher is to call out the full and true groſs weights in the ſcale, which the land-waiters are to enter in their books; and, from the total of the ſaid groſs weight, there is to be deducted an allowance in conſideration of draught, according to the following reſpective weights.

Goods weighing from	under 1 C.	1 lb.	allowances for draughts.
	1 to 2 C.	2	
	2 to 3	3	
	3 to 10	4	
	10 to 18	7	
	18 to 30 or upwards	9	

Except tobacco of the Britiſh plantations, which is to be allowed 8 lb. draught, only for every hogſhead of 350 lb. or upwards, purſuant to the 9th of Geo. II. but it is now the practice in the port of London, to give no allowance for draughts when the goods are leſs than a quarter of a hundred weight.

Theſe allowances for draughts, the land-waiters may, when they are very different, inſert in their books, oppoſite to each reſpective draught; or, when they are not very different, compute the ſame, by counting the number of the draughts at each ſeparate allowance, as is the practice in London.

The allowance for draught being deducted out of the remaining weight, there is, in moſt caſes, to be a further allowance called *tare*, being in conſideration of the outſide package that contains ſuch goods, which cannot be unpacked without detriment; or for the papers, threads, bands, and other things that bind or incloſe any goods which are imported looſe; or, though imported in caſks, cheſts, or the like, yet can be unpacked and weighed neat. Several ſorts of goods had their tares aſcertained by the farmers of the cuſtoms, in the year 1667, a table whereof was then publiſhed by their order, ſubſcribed with the hand of Samuel Whittell their ſecretary: which tares having been been approved, have continued in uſe ever ſince, and are not to be altered or deviated from in any caſe within the port of London, unleſs the merchant, thinking himſelf, or the officers of the crown, to be prejudiced by ſuch tares, ſhall deſire that the goods may be unpacked, and the neat weight taken; which may be done, either by weighing the goods in each reſpective caſk, or other packages; or, as is particularly practiſed in Eaſt India goods, by picking out ſeveral caſks, or other packages, of each ſize, and making an average, and ſo compute the reſt accordingly. But this muſt not be done without the conſent of two land-ſurveyors, atteſted by their hands in the land-waiters books, and in the out-ports not without the conſent of the collector and ſurveyor. And as to thoſe goods which have not their tares aſcertained, two land-ſurveyors in London, and the collector and ſurveyor in the out-ports, are to adjuſt and allow the ſame in the like manner. See *Tare*, and *Package*.

But it is to be obſerved, that ſometimes the caſks, or other packages, are weighed beyond ſea before the goods are put in, and the weight of each reſpective caſk, or other packages, marked thereon, as is uſual for moſt goods imported from the Britiſh plantations, or elſe inſerted in the invoice: in which caſe, if the real invoice be produced, and the officers have ſatisfied themſelves, by unpacking and weighing ſome of them, that thoſe weights are juſt and true, they then, after having reduced them to Britiſh weight, if not ſo before, eſteem them to be the real tares, and paſs them accordingly; tho' ſometimes the tares on the caſk, or other packages, are wholly diſregarded, and the real tares taken.

But the unpacking the goods, and taking the neat weight, being the moſt juſt method, as well for the crown as the merchant, it is uſually practiſed in the port of London, in all caſes where it can be done with conveniency, and without detriment to the merchants goods.

The tares being known, the following directions may be taken from the operation.

1. When the tare is ſo much *per* hundred weight, take the aliquot parts of an hundred weight; as,

For 24 *per cent.*	take $\frac{1}{4}$ of the groſs weight,	leſs $\frac{1}{7}$
21	$\frac{1}{4}$	leſs $\frac{1}{4}$
20	$\frac{1}{5}$	more $\frac{1}{4}$
18	$\frac{1}{5}$	more $\frac{1}{5}$
16	$\frac{1}{7}$	
14	$\frac{1}{8}$	
12	$\frac{1}{8}$	leſs $\frac{1}{7}$

For 10 *per cent.*	take $\frac{1}{14}$ of the groſs weight,	more $\frac{1}{4}$
8	$\frac{1}{14}$, or $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{1}{7}$	
7	$\frac{1}{16}$, or $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{1}{8}$	
6	$\frac{1}{16}$	leſs $\frac{1}{7}$
4	$\frac{1}{4}$ of $\frac{1}{7}$	
2	$\frac{2}{8}$ of $\frac{1}{7}$	

Or the hundreds weight may be multiplied by the tare *per cent.* adding to the product a proportionable part for the quarters and pounds, if any, and the total being divided by 112, will give the tare required.

2. When the tare is ſo much *per* hundred pounds, reduce the given weight into pounds, if not ſo before, and then take the aliquot parts of an hundred pounds; as,

For 24 lb. *per* 100 lb.	take $\frac{1}{5}$ of the groſs weight,	more $\frac{1}{5}$
21	$\frac{1}{5}$	more $\frac{1}{20}$
20	$\frac{1}{5}$	
18	$\frac{1}{5}$	leſs $\frac{1}{10}$
16	$\frac{1}{5}$	leſs $\frac{1}{5}$
14	$\frac{1}{10}$	more $\frac{2}{5}$
12	$\frac{1}{10}$	more $\frac{1}{5}$
11	$\frac{1}{10}$	more $\frac{1}{10}$
10	$\frac{1}{10}$	
8	$\frac{1}{10}$	leſs $\frac{1}{5}$
7	$\frac{1}{20}$	more $\frac{2}{5}$
6	$\frac{1}{20}$	more $\frac{1}{5}$
5	$\frac{1}{20}$	
4	$\frac{1}{20}$	leſs $\frac{1}{5}$
2	$\frac{1}{5}$ of $\frac{1}{10}$	

Or the ſuttle pounds may be multiplied by the tare *per* hundred pounds; and the two right-hand figures of the product being cut off, the remainder will be the tare required.

3. When the tare is by the bag, caſk, or other packages, multiply the number of bags, or other packages, and tare, together, and the product will be the total tare.

4. When the tare is not aſcertained, but marked on each caſk, or other packages, it muſt be ſet down oppoſite to the groſs weight; and, being added up, the total will be the tare allowed.

The ſeveral tares being found and deducted from the groſs weight, after the allowance for draught, the remainder is neat weight, for which his Majeſty's duties are to be paid; and if in hundreds weight, and the nature of goods requires it, may be reduced to pounds.

Goods delivered by meaſure, are under three different regulations.

1. Such as linens particularly, which are meaſured by running meaſure, being no more than taking the piece from one end to the other.

And as in Hollands, Flanders, and ſome ſorts of German linens, the contents in Britiſh ells are often annexed to, or marked on each piece, and likewiſe inſerted in the invoice; therefore there will not be any difficulty in making a perfect entry; ſo that no poſt-entry muſt be admitted of in this caſe.

Goods delivered by gauge, are wines, and exciſable liquors; whoſe quantity to be entered may be pretty nearly determined, by conſidering the ſize of the caſks, and what accidental leakage or other diminution may have happened during the voyage.

ALLOY, or *Allay*. A mixture of different metals, or of ſeveral portions of the ſame metal of different fineneſs. See *Coining*.

Gold and ſilver are never coined without alloy, which is of copper mixed with theſe two metals, purſuant to certain proportions regulated by the ſtates wherein they are coined; and braſs-coin has alſo an alloy of copper mixed with a few parts of fine ſilver.

Gold-ſmiths, gold-wire drawers, gold-beaters, and jewellers, are alſo obliged to uſe alloy in the gold and ſilver which they manufacture, but leſs in quantity than that of coin, to prevent their melting it, which is unlawful.

Braſs-founders have alſo their alloy of copper, pewter, and tin; yet different according to what they deſign to caſt, as ſtatues, cannons, or bells.

Laſtly, pewterers uſe an alloy of red copper, regulus of antimony, and ſome other minerals.

There are two ſorts of alloy uſed in the coinage of money; the one, when uncoined gold and ſilver are employed; the other, when different kinds of coin, or ingots of different fineneſs, are melted together to make a new coin.

The eſtimation, or rather the proportion, of the alloy with the finer metal, is eaſy in the firſt caſe; becauſe when the fineneſs of the metal is known by refining, the allowed quantity of copper alloy is only to be added, to reduce it to the legal ſtandard.

In the other caſe, the operation has more difficulty; yet the knowledge thereof is of vaſt importance to mint-maſters, and all workers of gold and ſilver, to prevent miſtakes in the alloy neceſſary for gold and ſilver of different fineneſs.

All the authors on coinage have given tables for this reduction; and arithmeticians have their rule of alligation, which may be alſo uſed; but the anonymous author of a ſmall treatiſe found annexed to that of M. Boiſard's edition in 1711, has given the eaſieſt method of putting this rule into practice.

As this method may be uſed indifferently for gold and ſilver coin, one example will ſuffice: yet it ſhould be obſerved, that the calculation for the alloy of gold is made by the 32 parts, which come ſhort of, or exceed the ſtandard in the metals to be uſed; and that, for ſilver, the calculation is by grains of fine metal.

When this kind of alloy is to be performed, or rather the eſtimation of the alloy, for adding or diminiſhing what is wanting, or too much, in the fineneſs, a table of the metals to be melted muſt be drawn forth, containing their quality, weight, and fineneſs; which table is divided afterwards into two other; whereof one comprehends all the metals that are above, and the other all that are below, the requiſite fineneſs.

Each table being calculated ſeparately, by the firſt is ſeen what metals exceeding the ſtandard, are above the ſtandard; and by the ſecond, in what thoſe coming ſhort of the ſtandard are deficient; ſo that the two products being compared, a ſubſtraction will make known what quantity of fine or alloy muſt be added, to reduce all the metals to the requiſite ſtandard for the new melting: and the following is the example given by the anonymous author.

Numb.	mks.	oz.		Carats.
1	1	4	Jacobuſſes at	21 19/32
2	2	6	Ingots at	20 1/2
3	1	4	Ingots at	18 3/4
4	3	6	Ducats at	23 21/32
5	1	4	Nobles at	23 1/4 1/2
6	1	4	Italian piſt. at	21 1/2
	12	4		

There are then 12 marks 4 ounces of gold of different fineneſs to be brought to the ſtandard of 21 carats 3-4ths. In the ſix articles compoſing the firſt table, there are three, which are the 1ſt, 4th, and 5th, above the requiſite ſtandard; and three others, the 2d, 3th, and 6th, which are below it: ſo that they muſt be ſeparated, and drawn out into two tables.

HIGH GOLD.

Numb.	mks.	oz.			
1	1	4	Good	9	32ds
4	3	6	Ditto	210	32ds
5	1	4	Ditto	96	32ds
Sum remaining good in theſe three articles				315	32ds

LOW GOLD.

Numb.	mks.	oz.			
2	2	6	Wanting	110	32ds
3	1	4	Ditto	144	32ds
6	1	4	Ditto	12	32ds
Sum of what is wanting in theſe three art.				266	32ds

The two products compared, Good 315
Wanting 266

Remains good 49-32ds; for which there muſt be 4 drams and an half of copper, and then the ſtandard will be 20 carats 3-4ths; the weight of the metals being conſequently augmented to 12 marks 4 ounces exactly, upon account of the augmentation of the alloy.

There remains only to know, how the proportion between 49-32ds of fine gold, and 4 drams and an half of copper, may be calculated; but the operation is eaſy to one acquainted with the firſt principles of arithmetic, and who is not ignorant that 696-32ds good, are equivalent to a mark of copper, that is, 64 drams; and that, upon this footing, 5-32ds, and 5-8ths, are worth a dram.

The example which is for the exceſs of the ſtandard, may alſo ſerve for its deficiency; but in ſuch caſe ſo many 32ds ſhould be added as are found wanting.

The principal reaſons alledged by authors for the alloy of coin, are, 1. The mixture of metals, which, as coming from the mine, are not perfectly pure; 2. The ſaving of the expence, in caſe of refinement; 3. The neceſſity of making them harder, by a portion of ſome other metal, to prevent the diminution of weight, which might enſue from their being rubbed and handled; 4. The melting of foreign coins which are alloyed; 5. The charges of coinage to be deducted from the money coined; and, 6. The duty belonging to the ſovereign, upon account of his power of cauſing money to be coined in his dominions.

The alloy of copper for ſtatues, guns, or bells, has alſo its proportions; but as they are arbitrary, and depend abſolutely on the taſte and experience of founders, it is ſcarce poſſible to lay down certain rules for it. But M. Feliban pretends, that the good alloy for braſs ſtatues ſhould be compoſed, the one half of roſe or red copper, and the other of yellow copper, or common braſs: tho' others, and particularly M. de St. Remy, ſay there ſhould be 4 pounds of tin, and 8 of braſs, for each 100 weight of red copper. And which of theſe two opinions is beſt, muſt be left to the deciſion of thoſe experienced in the art.

To make an alloy for cannon, mortars, and other pieces of braſs artillery, the beſt and ſofteſt tin of Cornwall ſhould be uſed: 6, 7, and 8 pounds *per* hundred of copper are alſo required, but more or leſs according as the copper is either of a good or bad quality.

The uſual alloy for bells, is 20 pounds of the hardeſt tin to 100 pounds of roſe copper; and the alloy for different kinds of pewter veſſels and utenſils, is red copper, regulus of antimony, biſmuth, or lead. See *Coin*, *Copper*, *Gold*, *Silver*, *Lead*, *Tin*, *Pewter*, and *Plate*.

ALLUM, *Allom*, or *Alom*, is a white mineral ſalt, dug out of the earth, calcined, and waſhed in ſeveral pits of water. It is afterwards boiled, when the impurities ſubſide, leaving a tranſparent liquor; which being removed into a cooler, and ſome urine added to it, begins to gather into a maſs, that is then taken out, waſhed, and melted over again, when it is fit for uſe.

England, Italy, Flanders, and Sweden, are the countries chiefly productive of allum, which occaſions the ſeveral appellations of Engliſh allum, otherwiſe called rock, white, or ice allum, Roman allum, or allum of Civita Vecchia, allum of Liege, and of Meziers, and Swediſh allum; though there is a conſiderable quantity made at Cypſella in Thrace.

The beſt Engliſh allum produced in the hills of Yorkſhire and Lancaſhire, is extremely white, clear, and tranſparent, of an acid taſte, leaving in the mouth a ſenſe of ſweetneſs, accompanied with a conſiderable degree of aſtringency. Roman allum is alſo of an acid; but diſagreeable taſte. Allum of Liege and Meziers is much of the ſame quality as that of England, only fatter, and conſequently leſs proper for dyers. Allum is of ſome uſe in medicine as an abſorbent: but its principal uſe is in dying and colouring; where it is ſo material an ingredient, that without it neither of theſe can be tolerably executed, the allum being as ſerviceable in binding the colour upon the ſtuffs, as gum-water and glutinous oil are in painting.

Beſides theſe mineral ſpecies of allum, there are the ſaccharine allum, burnt allum, and plumoſe allum, ſold by druggiſts and chymiſts; the two former being compoſitions of allum with other ingredients, and the latter being a mineral ſimilar to Venetian talc, except that, inſtead of ſcales,

ſcales, it riſes in threads or fibres, reſembling thoſe of a feather.

ALMACARRON. A port-town of Spain, ſituated in the province of Murcia, at the mouth of the river Guadalantin, near the Mediterranean, in 10 deg. 15 min. W. lon. and 37 deg. 40 min. N. lat. being 18 m. S. W. of Carthagena. See *Spain*.

ALMADY is a veſſel, or boat, of great uſe to the mercantile inhabitants of India, being frequently 80 feet long, and 6 or 7 wide; wherein the moſt opulent natives of the country carry on a very conſiderable trade, either on their own account, or by freighting theſe veſſels to Europeans. *Almady* is alſo a ſmall canoe, generally uſed by the African negroes.

ALMENE. A weight of two pounds, uſed for the weighing of ſaffron in ſeveral parts of the Eaſt Indies.

ALMENDINE, or *Albandine*. A ſpecies of ruby, but ſofter and lighter than the oriental ſtone, with a colour more like the granate than the red of the ruby. See *Ruby*.

ALMOND, or *Almuda*. A meaſure for oil among the Portugueſe, who ſell their oil of olives by almonds, the almond being 4½ gallons of Wincheſter meaſure.

ALMOND, or *Amydala*. A kind of medicinal fruit, incloſed in a thick ſtone, and under a thin ſkin, the whole being contained under a thick, pulpy, oily huſk. The almond is the produce of a pretty tall tree, reſembling a peach-tree, very common in France, particularly in Provence, Languedoc, Touraine, and the Venaiſin. It is alſo commonly produced in Italy and Spain; nor is it leſs frequently brought over as a commodity of Barbary.

Almonds are of two kinds, the ſweet and the bitter: the former are of a ſoft, grateful taſte, and are reputed cooling, emollient, and nutritive; the latter are held aperient, deterſive, and diuretic; both of which give the denomination to a great number of preparations in confectionary and cookery.

Almonds are a very conſiderable part of the French commerce, on account of the oils extracted from them, as alſo by the prodigious conſumption of this fruit in lent. The beſt almonds are thoſe of the Venaiſin, the worſt thoſe of Barbary and Touraine: but to diſtinguiſh the good from the bad, an examination ſhould be made whether they are every where even, this commodity being frequently pared, to give it a more extraordinary vent. See *Oil*.

Almonds is likewiſe a fruit, ſerving inſtead of ſmall money in ſeveral parts of the Eaſt Indies, eſpecially where the *couris*, or ſmall ſhells which come from the Maldives, are not current.

Theſe almonds grow in the deſerts of the kingdom of Lar, otherwiſe in Caramania deſerta; whence they are tranſported to Ormus, an iſland of the Perſian gulph formerly poſſeſſed by the Portugueſe, which the Perſians, aſſiſted by the Engliſh, took from them about the middle of the 17th century; and it is from Ormus that theſe almonds are diſperſed over a great part of the Indies.

The good or bad crop of this fruit, raiſes or lowers its value: but, one year with another, 40 or 44 are given for a pecha, a ſmall copper coin, which is worth about a farthing.

ALMOXARIFARGO, is a duty in ſome ports of Spaniſh America, eſpecially at Buenos Ayres, of 2½ *per cent.* on the real value of bulls hides, paid to the King of Spain for the exportation of hides on board European veſſels; and, beſides this duty, there is alſo another called *quint* or *quinto*, but only at 4 reals for each hide.

This is alſo an old duty paid upon the Britiſh woollen manufactures in Old Spain, being 11 *per cent.* on ſome, on others not above 5 *per cent.*

ALMUCANTARS, in aſtronomy, are circles parallel to the horizon, imagined to paſs through all the degrees of the meridian, ſerving to ſhew the altitude of the ſun and ſtars.

ALMUCANTAR's ſtaff, is an inſtrument uſually made of pear-tree or box, having an arch of 15 degrees; uſed to take obſervations in the ſun, about the time of its riſing and ſetting, in order to find the amplitude, and conſequently the variation of the compaſs.

ALMUDA. See *Almond*.

ALMUNECAR. A port-town of the province of Granada, in Spain, ſituated on the Mediterranean, in 30 deg. 45 min. of W. long. and 36 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. See *Spain*.

ALNAGE, or *Aulnage*, the meaſuring of woollen manufactures with an ell, and the other functions of the alnager.

ALNAGER. An officer formerly appointed under the Engliſh government, before the making of cloth in England, to meaſure and try the foreign cloths; to ſee all cloths of aſſize marked, and to take thoſe that were defective into his cuſtody, as a forfeiture to the King; for which the alnager had an allowance from the lord treaſurer, and barons of the exchequer.

Upon the introduction of the woollen manufacture among the Engliſh artizans, the office of alnager was occaſionally varied, who was ſworn, by himſelf or deputy, to look to the aſſize of woollen cloth made through the land, and to the ſeals ordained to be affixed to ſuch cloth as were found of ſufficient length, width, and work; beſides, he was collector of the duty impoſed on woollen cloths, and had the general direction of the whole. However, the alnager was afterwards abridged of his meaſuring and ſearching, whereby the office became ſeparated in three diviſions, having their particular names of ſearcher, meaſurer, and alnager; ſo that there is now a peculiar meaſurer, diſtinct from the alnager, or collector, for allowing the ſize of the length and breadth of every cloth made in England and Wales. But this office is ſo much degenerated from its original intention, of inſpecting the goodneſs of the commodity, and ſupporting the credit of the Engliſh manufactures, that the ingenious Sir Joſiah Child, in his diſcourſe on trade, has made an obſervation, "That all the attempts which our fore-fathers made, for regulating of manufactures, when left to the execution of any particular officer, in a ſhort time reſolved but into a tax on the commodity, without reſpect to the goodneſs thereof: as was moſt notorious in the caſe of alnage, which was intended for a proof of the goodneſs of the commodity; and to that purpoſe a ſeal was invented, as a ſignal that the commodity was made according to the ſtatute; which ſeals, it is ſaid, may now be bought by thouſands, and put on what the buyers pleaſe." See *Woollen* cloth.

ALOES, in medicine and pharmacy, is the inſpiſſated juice of a plant of the ſame name, much uſed as a purgative remedy. The aloe plant is produced in ſeveral parts of the Eaſt and Weſt Indies; and it is alſo found in ſome European countries, particularly the mountains of Sierra Morena, in the province of Andaluſia in Spain.

Ancient naturaliſts ſeem to have been acquainted with only one particular ſort of aloe, but the moderns have diſcovered above forty other kinds; however, among this number, there are not above twelve that yield the purgative juice, which is uſually diſtinguiſhed into three ſorts, the firſt being called *ſuccotrine*, becauſe it is the produce of Succotra, or Zocotora, an iſland in the Indian ocean; which is the pureſt and moſt tranſparent, being friable, of no ſmell, black in the lump, but of a beautiful yellow colour when broken; and this is brought in ſkins from the Levant and the Eaſt Indies. The ſecond is called *hepatic*, becauſe of its liver-colour, which is reſinous, ſmells like myrrh, has a yellow colour when pounded, and is chiefly brought from China; though it alſo grows in Perſia, Egypt, and Arabia, from whence it is brought in gourds of different weights, from 2 to 100 pounds. The third is called *caballine*, or horſe-aloes, being the moſt impure, the blackeſt, and the ſtrongeſt of all; it is prepared in Jamaica and Barbadoes, and brought over in large gourds from theſe iſlands, where the Americans formerly uſed to pitch their veſſels; but it is of little uſe among Europeans, excepting for horſes and cattle, from whence it is denominated; though ſome confound this with the hepatic, but, in effect, that and the *ſuccotrine*, are the only two ſorts commonly known in our ſhops; the former being preferable for internal uſes, the other for external, and both are extremely bitter.

Aloe roſata is a preparation of the aloes juice with roſe-water.

Aloes, alſo gives the denomination to a kind of Indian wood

wood of a delicate fragrancy, much uſed in the Eaſt as a perfume, and ſo called for its exceeding bitterneſs, which reſembles that of the aloes juice: the tree grows in China, and Cochinchina; it affords three different ſorts of wood, but the calambo is only known to Europeans, which is of a tan colour, light, and veiny, reſembling rotten wood; the beſt ſort is of a blackiſh purple colour, and ſo light as to ſwim on water; as it is hot and drying, it is eſteemed a great ſtrengthener of the nerves, and is brought over in ſmall flat bits of a very fragrant ſcent, eſpecially when caſt on the fire, where it melts like wax.

ALOFT, on high, far above reach, a word common with ſeamen, by whom it is principally uſed.

ALOOF, a ſea term, ſignifying as much as keep your luff; being a word of command from that him conns, to the man at the helm, to keep the ſhip near the wind, when ſhe ſails upon a quarter-wind.

ALOSE. A fiſh, reſembling the pilchard, but much larger, and is of the number of thoſe called ſeaſon, or paſſage-fiſhes, becauſe it never comes up rivers but in the ſpring.

The roes of the aloſe, are as much eſteemed in the Eaſt Indies, as thoſe of the ſturgeon in Muſcovy; and the commerce thereof is not leſs conſiderable, as ſeveral ſhip loads are uſually conſumed there.

ALOUCHI. A ſweet-ſcented gum, oozing from the tree that produces the white cinnamon.

ALOWAY. A port-town of Scotland, ſituated on the river Forth, in 3 deg. 45 min. of W. lon. and 56 deg. 10 min. N. lat. being 5 m. E. of Stirling, and remarkable for the coal mines adjacent to it.

ALPAGNA, an animal much reſembling the lamas, and vigognas, except that it has ſhorter legs, a flatter muzzle, and having ſome ſimilitude to the human viſage. The inhabitants of Peru reckon it among their beaſts of burden, and generally make it carry about a hundred weight: of its wool they make ſtuffs, cords, and bags; of its bones, inſtruments for weavers; and they even make an advantage of its dung, uſing it for fuel, both in their chambers and kitchen.

The wool of the alpagna paſſes eaſily for that of the vigogna; and is generally mixed with the latter, which comes from Peru into Spain.

ALPHABET, in a mercantile ſenſe, ſignifies the 24 letters, which ſerve either as an index to contain the names of correſpondents and cuſtomers, with references to the ledger, or to particularize the reſpective books of account.

ALPHÆNIX, white barley-ſugar, or twiſted-ſugar; to which this extraordinary name is given to make it the more valuable.

ALPISTE or *Alpia*, a ſort of ſeed, ſold by corn-chandlers, for feeding birds, eſpecially in the time of breeding; which is of an oval figure, of a pale-yellow, bordering upon the iſabel-colour, and ſomewhat bright and gloſſy.

ALQUIER. A liquid meaſure uſed in Portugal for oil, containing ſix cavadas, or 2 gallons $\frac{1}{4}$ Wincheſter meaſure.

ALQUIER, is alſo a meaſure for grain at Liſbon, 60 of which make a muid, or 3 Engliſh quarters; 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ alquiers being one Engliſh buſhel.

The alquier is alſo uſed in other ſtates of the kingdom of Portugal, particularly in the Azores and the iſland of St. Michaels, where it is the ſame as in Lisbon: but in Oporto it is 20 *per cent.* more.

ALQUIFOUX, or *Arquifou*. A kind of mineral lead, very heavy, eaſily reduced to powder, and hard to be melted; but when broke it appears in ſhining ſcales of a whitiſh colour, ſomewhat ſimilar to that of the needles of antimony; and, as potters uſe it to give their works a green varniſh, it is generally called potter's ore in England. Alquifoux is exported from England in pigs of different ſize and weight; which ſhould be choſen in large pieces, very heavy, the ſcales ſhining, and reſembling tin-glaſs.

ALSEN. An iſland in the Leſſer Belt, at the entrance of the Baltic ſea, ſituated in 10 deg. of E. long. and 55 deg. 12 min. of N. lat. between Sleſwic and Funen, 100 m. W. of Copenhagen. See *Denmark*.

ALTEA. A port-town of the province of Valencia, in Spain, ſituated on the Mediterranean, in 15 deg. of W. lon. and 30 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. See *Spain*.

ALTENA. A port-town of the dutchy of Holſtein, in Germany, ſituated on the river Elbe, in 10 deg of E. lon. and 53 deg. 51 min. N. lat. being a modern town, built by the Danes to rival Hamburgh in trade, and made the mart for the ſale of the merchandiſe brought from the Indies by the Dutch Eaſt-India company. See *Denmark*.

ALTIN. A Ruſſian money of accompt, worth 3 copees, 100 of which make a ruble, or 4s. 6d. ſterling.

ALTOM. A name given in ſeveral ſtates of the Grand ſignior, as alſo in Hungary, to what Europeans commonly call a *ſequin*; however this name is ſeldom given but to thoſe coins which have the ſtamp of the Turkiſh Emperor. See *Sequin*.

ALUM. See *Allum*.

AMADABAT. The capital of the province of Guzurat, or Cambay, in the Eaſt Indies, ſituated in 72 deg. of E. long. and 23 deg. 40 min of N. lat. where the Engliſh, and other Europeans, have their reſpective factors, and purchaſe fine chints, calicoes, and other Indian merchandize. See *India*.

AMADOW. A kind of black match, or tinder, brought from Germany, and made of the fungous excreſcencies growing uſually out of old trees, particularly oak, aſh, and fir: to which ſome ſome give the name of pyrotechnical ſpunge, upon account of its readineſs in taking fire.

AMADOWRIC, is a ſort of cotton generally brought from Alexandria, in Egypt.

AMAIN, in the ſea language, ſignifies yielding, ſubmitting, or ſtriking the top-ſail.

AMAK, or *Amaka*, a Daniſh iſland in the ſound, on the coaſt of Zealand, ſituated in 13 deg. 5 min. of E. long. and 55 deg. 29 min. of N. lat. See *Denmark*.

AMALGAMA, or *Amalgam*, is a chemical preparation, of a maſs of mercury incorporated with ſome metal; and, when united with lead, is of a ſoft, friable ſubſtance, of a ſilver colour.

AMAN, a Levantine cotton cloth, of a blueiſh colour, brought by the way of Aleppo.

AMANTEA. A port-town of Naples, ſituated near the bay of Euſemia, in 16 deg. 20 min. of E. long. and 39 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. See *Italy*.

AMAPALLA. A port-town of N. America, in the province of Guatimala, ſituated on the gulph of Amapalla, in the Pacific ocean, in 93 deg. of W. long. and 12 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. See *Spaniſh America*.

AMAZON, a river riſing in Peru, in S. America, which, running a courſe of 3000 miles and upwards, within 4 deg. of the equator, falls into the Atlantic ocean by ſeveral channels, giving the country through which it paſſes the name of Amazonia: it overflows annually, like others, between the tropics, when it is 150 miles broad at the mouth; and, conſidering the length of its courſe, or the depth of its water, appears to be the greateſt river in the world.

AMBAMARJAM, or *Ambara*, the capital of Abyſſinia, ſituated in 35 deg. of E. long. and 13 deg. of N. lat. on the E. ſide of a lake, out of which the river Nile riſes. See *Ethiopia*.

AMBASSADOR. See *Embaſſador*.

AMBER, *Succinum*, or *Carabe*, is a yellow tranſparent ſubſtance, of a gummy or bituminous form, or conſiſtence, but of a reſinous taſte like oil of turpentine, chiefly found in the Baltic ſea, particularly along the coaſt of Pruſſia; it is alſo found in Sileſia, Bohemia, Jutland, Holſtein, Denmark, and Samogitia, being of great utility in medicine and other arts.

Naturaliſts are infinitely divided as to the origin of amber, and what claſs of bodies it is appurtenant to; ſome referring it to the vegetable, others to the mineral, and ſome even to the animal oeconomy: but the moſt probable opinion is, that this gum is a vegetable, formed on the poplar and fir trees, of which there are extenſive foreſts on the coaſt of Sweden, from whence it is blown into the ſea by the impetuoſity of the ſtrong northern winds, where it is perfected by the ſaline quality of the ſea, and afterwards caſt upon the adjacent ſhores, by which the King of Pruſſia obtains a conſiderable revenue.

The moſt remarkable property of amber is, that, when rubbed, it attracts other bodies to it; by friction it is

brought to yield light pretty copiouſly in the dark, and is reputed of ſome medicinal efficacy.

Amber is diſtinguiſhed, with regard to its colours, into yellow, white, brown and black; the two latter are ſuppoſed of a different nature and denomination; the one called jet, and the other ambergreaſe; the yellow is generally prized by thoſe who work it into beads, and other toys, on account of its tranſparency; though it is now much degenerated in value; but the white is principally valued for medicinal uſes, as being beſt digeſted, of the moſt odoriferous ſmell, and containing the greateſt quantity of volatile ſalt.

Spirit of Amber, is an acid liquor, procured from the gum, by pulveriſing and diſtilling it in a ſand-heat.

Oil of amber, is a fine, tranſparent, ponderous, yellow oil, procured after the ſpirit, by increaſing the degree of fire.

Volatile ſalt of amber, is the principal chemical production of amber, being a peculiar white, tranſparent, acid ſalt, which riſes after the oil; but the great conſumption of this medicine, and the ſmall proportion that amber yields of it, occaſions it to be frequently adulterated with ſal armoniac, nitre, cream of tartar, ſalt of coral, and other ingredients.

Tincture of amber, is procured by digeſtion in ſpirit of wine, with a ſand heat.

Black amber, ſee *Jet*: and *powder of amber*, ſee *Carabe*.

Liquid amber, is a kind of balſam, or reſin, like turpentine, clear, reddiſh, or yellowiſh, of a pleaſant ſmell, almoſt like ambergreaſe; it flows liquid, from an inciſion made in the bark of a fine large tree in New Spain, called by the natives *oloſol*; but it hardens, as it grows older, into a ſolid form, and is brought to Europe in barrels, where it is reputed an excellent balſam againſt the ſciatica, and weakneſs of nerves.

AMBERADA, or *Ambreada* is the factitious amber-bead uſed in trading for ſlaves on ſome of the African coaſts, particularly at Senegal. There are ſome large and red pieces of it, whereof the thouſand, conſiſting of twenty ſtrings, weigh three pounds; and there are others of a ſmaller ſize, and alſo red, which weigh but two pounds and a half.

AMBERGREASE, *Ambergris*, or *Ambra griſia*, is a fragrant gum that melts almoſt like wax, uſed both as a perfume, and as a cordial; but with regard to its origin and production, there is a greater variety of opinions among naturaliſts, than there is colours of the drug, which is whitiſh, browniſh, blackiſh, and ſtreaked with yellow, though more commonly of a greyiſh or aſh-colour; however, the moſt probable account of its formation is held to be the honey-combs falling into the ſea from the rocks or trees where the wild bees build their apiaries.

It is found on the maritime coaſts of ſeveral countries, particularly along the ſouthern and eaſtern parts of Africa, Madagaſcar, the Maldives, ſome parts of the Mediterranean, and in the Weſt Indies, about the iſlands of Bermudas and Jamaica; as alſo on the coaſts of Carolina. The pieces frequently ſeem compoſed of ſeveral ſtrata, laid one over another, with ſtones and other bodies cloſed therein, and the ſtrata are ſometimes full of little ſhells of a ſimilar ſpecies to the *concha anatifera*; whence it may be conjectured, that the ambergreaſe has originally been in a fluid ſtate, or at leaſt that it has been melted and formed itſelf afreſh, inveloping ſuch bodies as happened to be in its way.

Ambergreaſe muſt be choſen in large pieces, of an agreeable odour, whoſe colour ſhould be entirely grey on the outſide, and of a grey with little black ſpots within: though the purchaſer ſhould be extremely cautious of a deceit, for ambergreaſe is eaſily counterfeited with gums and other drugs.

There are 9 ſorts of ambergreaſe; namely, 1ſt, Aſhcoulered; 2d, whitiſh; 3d, yellowiſh; 4th, blackiſh; 5th, ſleek or ſmooth, as though it was covered with a ſkin; 6th, all brown; 7th, ſtriped; 8th, marbled, and 9th all black.

There is ambergreaſe that never was ſwallowed by animals, and ſome that is, and afterwards caſt up into the ſea, or found in their bowels. This laſt ſort is the worſt of all,

and retains ſome bad ſmell from the place where it has been lodged; for which reaſon it is eaſily diſtinguiſhed from the pure. That which is either all black or all white, is alſo good for nothing; as likewiſe that which is ſmooth, uniform, and too pure, which is commonly falſified, or entirely factitious.

On the contrary, that which is of a grey aſh-colour, ſtriped and marbled with blackiſh, whitiſh, or yellowiſh ſpots, is the beſt.

It is even ſometimes covered with a cruſt, black on the outſide, wherein are found birds bills, bits of bones of cuttle-fiſh, and ſuch like things.

AMBER-*ſeed*, or *Muſk-ſeed*, is the ſeed of a plant, which grows in the Weſt Indies, and in Egypt, being ſomewhat like the millet, of a bitteriſh taſte, and brought dry into Europe, where it is uſed by perfumers.

AMBLETEUSE, is a little port-town of France, in Picardy, ſituated in 1 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 49 deg. of N. lat. See *France*.

AMBOINA. An Indian iſland, ſubject to the Dutch, ſituated in 126 deg. of E. lon. and 3 deg. 40 min. of S. lat. See *Molucca iſlands*.

AMBRETTE. See *Abel-moſc*.

AMELCORN. French rice, or grain, of which ſtarch is frequently made.

AMERICA, or the *Weſtern Continent*, frequently denominated the *New World*, is the largeſt of the four diviſions of the terreſtrial globe, and is ſituated between 35 and 145 deg. of W. lon. and between 80 deg. N. and 58 deg. of S. lat. bounded by the lands and ſeas about the Arctic pole, on the N.; by the Atlantic ocean, which ſeparates it from the Eaſtern continent, or old world, on the E.; by the vaſt Southern or Pacific ocean, which divides it from Aſia on the S. and W. being between 8 and 9000 miles in length, from N. to S. and its greateſt breadth about 3500 miles.

This extenſive continent is divided into two great parts, in the form of peninſulas, which are joined by an iſthmus about 60 miles over.

The ſituation of theſe two parts has given them their denomination; that to the north being called *North America*; and that to the ſouth *South America*; the latter being alſo called *Peruvian*, and the former *Mexican*; the one from Peru, the other from Mexico, the two greateſt empires conquered by the Spaniards in theſe new diſcovered countries.

North America comprehends Saguenai, Cacoucas, Canada, Etechemers, Acadia, New England, New York, Virginia, Florida, Louiſiana, or Miſſiſſipi, Old Mexico, or New Spain. This laſt, called alſo the kingdom of Mexico, comprehends all that lies between Florida, New Mexico, and the iſthmus of Panama, and is divided into ſeveral large provinces.

South America comprehends Panama, or the kingdom of Terra Firma, New Andaluſia, the new kingdom of Granada, Pepayan, Guiana, Peru, Chili, Paraguay, Braſil, and Magellanica.

America is almoſt entirely ſurrounded by the ocean, which is called either the *North* or *South ſea*, according as the coaſts it waſhes are ſituated towards one or other of theſe two points of the world; the South ſea being alſo called the *Pacific ocean*.

In both ſeas, which join by the Straits of Magellan, Le Maire, and Browerts, are ſeveral iſlands; but by far more numerous in the North, than in the South ſea, which has but one conſiderable iſland called California, and a few others along the coaſts.

The iſlands of the North ſea are, the Bermudas, the Lucayes, and the Antilles; the great iſlands, as Cuba, St. Domingo, or Hiſpaniola, Jamaica, Porto-Rico, Newfoundland, Cape Breton, or Louiſburg, and ſome others of leſs importance.

The diviſion of America between the ſeveral nations of Europe.

The Spaniards, who were the firſt conquerors of America, are the beſt eſtabliſhed there, both on the continent, and in the iſlands.

On the continent they poſſeſs all South America, except Brazil, upon the weſtern ocean, which belongs to the Portugueſe,

tu ueſe; and alſo except ſome parts of Chili, Magellanica, and the iſthmus of Darien, whoſe inhabitants they have not yet ſubjected to their yoke, and therefore call them *Indos bravos*, or brave Indians; as likewiſe except the great country of the Amazons, and almoſt the whole country of Guiana, where the French and Dutch have ſome ſettlements.

Spain is alſo in poſſeſſion of the richeſt and beſt part of North America, as far as Miſſiſſipi, California, and Florida. their dominions extending on the South ſea, from 40 deg. N. to 45 deg. S. latitude.

The iſlands belonging to the Spaniards are Hiſpaniola, otherwiſe called St. Domingo, enjoyed at preſent by the French, in conjunction with them; Cuba, Porto-Rico, St. Margaret, and ſome others leſs conſiderable, which the Spaniards ſometimes viſit, but where they have no colonies.

Next to the Spaniards, the Engliſh have the moſt flouriſhing colonies in America; whereof thoſe on the continent are New Britain, or Eſkimaux; Britiſh Canada, or the coaſt of Hudſon's bay; and Nova Scotia; which compoſe the north diviſion of the Britiſh territories: New England, New York, the Jerſeys, Penſylvania, and Maryland, which compoſe the middle diviſion: North Carolina, Virginia, South Carolina, and Georgia, which compoſe the ſouth diviſion.

The iſlands belonging to the crown of Great Britain, are St. Chriſtophers, Barbadoes, Barbuda, Anguilla, Antigua, Montſerat, Nevis, and Dominica, all of them being among the Antilles; Providence, and other places in the Lucayas, or Bahama iſlands. But their moſt remarkable iſlands, where they are beſt eſtabliſhed, Barbadoes excepted, are the Bermudas, and Jamaica; and, beſides theſe, they have the iſland of Newfoundland, remarkable for its cod-fiſhery on the grand bank not far from that iſland.

The French poſſeſſions on the continent are Canada, comprehending Quebec, Mount Real, Port Royal, Richelieu, and Frontenac; Miſſiſſipi, or Louiſiana, with Cayenne, and ſome lands upon the river of Surinam.

Their iſlands are Deſirada, Granada, Martinico, Mariagalante, Guardeloupe, St. Bartholomew, Santa Cruz, and St. Martin, where the Dutch have alſo ſome plantations, all theſe being among the Antilles.

The French are alſo in poſſeſſion of the ſouth part of St. Domingo, and the ſmall adjacent iſland of Tortuga, with Louiſburg, or Cape Breton, on the coaſt of Canada. Before the war for the ſucceſſion of Spain, the French alſo poſſeſſed Acadia on the continent, Placentia in Newfoundland, and part of St. Chriſtophers, one of the moſt conſiderable of the Antilles. But all theſe were ceded to the Britiſh crown by the treaty of Utrecht; and the right to the four neutral iſlands among the Caribbees is yet undetermined between the crowns of Great Britain and France.

The only poſſeſſion in America belonging to the Portugueſe, is the coaſt of Brazil, which extends from the river of the Amazons to that of St. Gabriel, near the river de la Plata; this coaſt having fourteen diviſions, whereof the moſt remarkable among the Europeans are Fernambuco, or Pernambuco, the Bay of Todos los Santos, or All Saints, and Rio-Janeiro.

The Dutch, ſo well ſettled in the Eaſt Indies, have but an inconſiderable acquiſition in the weſt, where all their colonies amount only to the iſlands of Saba, St. Euſtatia, and the half of St. Martins, which are the ſmalleſt, and leaſt conſiderable of the Antilles: but, by way of ſome equivalent, they have Bonaires, Aruba, and Curaſſo; which being ſituated at no great diſtance from Carthagena and Porto-Bello, afford the Dutch frequent occaſions of carrying on a rich contraband trade, under the very eyes of the Spaniſh governors, who uſually wink at their illicit proceedings.

Surinam, at the mouth of the river of the ſame name, upon the coaſts of Guiana, is a colony belonging to the Dutch, as alſo Bamron, Aprouvace, and Berbice; all which are on the continent, and are in a manner ſeparated by Cayenne, belonging to the French.

Laſtly, The Danes are eſtabliſhed in the little iſland of St. Thomas, where the Hamburghers have alſo a factory, which is not far from Porto-Rico; and the Danes have alſo another among the Virgin iſlands.

It is true, that the Duke of Courland, with his Germans, as alſo the Swedes, made ſome attempts to obtain acquiſitions in this new world of opulence, the former in ſome of the Antilles, and the latter in North America; but their projects being unſucceſsful, they cannot be numbered among the European nations, who diſpute the entire poſſeſſion of America with the Spaniards.

The ſame may be obſerved of the Scots; who having eſtabliſhed themſelves in the Iſthmus, and on the river of Darien, at the beginning of the 17th century, were ſoon expelled by the Spaniards, through a neglect of the new coloniſts by the Britiſh government.

But for a more particular deſcription of the reſpective countries in poſſeſſion of the ſeveral European powers, and of the territories ſtill uncultivated in America, ſee *Britiſh* America, *Daniſh* America, *Dutch* America, *French* America, *Portugueſe* America, *Spaniſh* America, and *Indian* America.

As the diſcovery of America was made in the year 1492 by Chriſtopher Columbus, a Genoeſe, at the expence of Ferdinand King of Caſtile and Arragon, the Spaniards, under that diſcovery, and a grant from the pope, have always pretended an excluſive right to this part of the world, in prejudice to all other nations. But the other Europeans have diſregarded ſuch frivolous pretenſions, and taken poſſeſſion of ſuch parts of America as were moſt ſuitable for carrying on a beneficial commerce: ſo that at preſent the Portugueſe have almoſt a moiety of South America; and the Engliſh, French, Dutch, and Danes, are in poſſeſſion of the greateſt part of the northern continent.

The principal commodities of the ſouthern part of America, are gold and ſilver: the gold is of three ſorts, ingots, grains, and duſt; and the ſilver of two kind, bars and piſtoles. The chief merchandiſe of the northern parts, are ſkins and furs, of caſtors, otters, elks, lynxes, deer, and ſome other beaſts. The pearls are either the produce of Margaretta in the north ſea, or the Iſlands de les Perlas in the ſouth ſea: and the emeralds are produced from a mine near Saint Foy de Bogotta, in New Granada. The other leſs valuable commodities are ſugar, tobacco, ginger, indigo, caſſia, maſtic, aloes, cotton, tortoiſe-ſhells, vigoanes wool, the hides of bulls, cows, and goats, thoſe of goats being tanned, the others undreſſed; quinquina, cacao, vanilla; various ſorts of wood, uſed in dying, inlaying, and in medicine, as campeachy or log-wood, yellow ſanders, ſaſſafras, brazil, guaiac, cinnamon, roſe-wood, fuſtic, Indian-wood, green ebony, ſaſſaparilla; three ſorts of balſams, Toku, Copa, and Peru; occidental bezoar, cochineal, roſin, ambergreaſe, gum copal, quickſilver, ſea-ſalt, ſal-gem, and ſalt of ſulphur; ananas, candied lemons and oranges, and ſyrups of the ſame; wax, honey, jalap, mecoacham, pitch, and tar; olives, oil of olives, and oil extracted from fiſh; rice, wheat, flower, and all ſorts of dried pulſe; brandy drawn from molaſſes, and other ſtrong waters; horſes, mules, and all ſorts of cattle; woollen cloths, flannel, and bags of Peru; beſides a fabrication of linen cloth, generally called *tocuyo*, and by the Spaniards Lienza de la Terra, to diſtinguiſh it from foreign linen. But thoſe commodities are not to be commonly found in all parts of America alike; ſome being the product of one place, others of another, according as the ſun or climates are proper for their production and culture; ſo that the mountains and rivers of Chili and Potoſi are more redundant in gold and ſilver, than any other parts of America. Sugar, tobacco, indigo, and ginger, are found in greater quantities in the Caribbee iſlands, and the greater iſlands adjacent, than any where elſe. The richeſt furs are the ſingular commodities of Canada, Acadia or Nova Scotia, Miſſiſſipi, and New England; while Buenos Ayres, Hiſpaniola, and Cuba, yield the moſt profitable hides, and the coaſt of Florida the moſt excellent tobacco; all of which drugs and merchandiſes are explicated under their reſpective heads.

AMERICAN *ocean.* See *Ocean.*

AMETHYST. A precious ſtone, of a violet colour, inclining to a purple, and found in ſeveral parts of the world.

The oriental *amethyſts* are the moſt eſteemed, thoſe of Madagaſcar the leaſt, and thoſe of Carthagena and Germany are a medium between both. There are alſo ſome in Auvergne in France; but they are as little prized as the factitious. The manner of cutting them adds to the beauty of the colour, and of conſequence to the value of the ſtone, which is counterfeited with glaſs.

AMIANTHUS. A ſtone ſcarce known but nominally; yet remarkable for the virtues aſcribed to it by Pliny, and ſeveral antients, who ſuppoſed it capable of being ſpun into an incombuſtible thread.

Some confound it with *plume-allum*, which has downy particles, but not reducible to thread, and otherwiſe conſumable by fire; others pretend that it is burnt plaſter, baked glaſs, or the ſpeculary ſtone, otherwiſe called *talc*; and others think that it is a tree, to the bark of which, when beaten, and ſpun, they attribute the ſame virtue as to the amianthus of the antients.

AMIENS. The capital city of the province of Picardy in France, remarkable for its woollen and linen manufactures; tho' not equal to thoſe of Abbeville. See *France*.

AMIERTIES. Cotton cloths brought from the Eaſt Indies.

AMMI, or *Semen Ammeos*. A kind of aromatic ſeed brought from the Levant, and uſed as a compoſition in Venice treacle, being the produce of a plant of the ſame name, called in Engliſh *Biſhops-weed*, whoſe ſeed is much like grains of ſand, round, ſmall, and of a greyiſh colour. It is alſo called *ammi Creticum*, or *Æthiopicum*, to diſtinguiſh it from the vulgar ammi, or common Biſhops-weed; and it is ſometimes alſo denominated *cuminum Æthiopicum*.

The ammi is reckoned inciſive and aperitive, and excellent againſt the bite of ſerpents: it ſhould be freſh, ſomewhat of a bitter taſte, and of an odoriferous ſmell.

AMMONIAC, or as it is ſometimes, though improperly, called *Armoniac*, is a kind of gum, of uſe in ſeveral medicinal compoſitions, brought from the Eaſt Indies, where it is ſuppoſed to ooze from an umbelliferous plant. It is alſo diſtilled in white drops, after an inciſion, from the branches and roots of a ſpecies of ferula growing frequently on the Lybian ſands, eſpecially about the places where it is imagined the temple of Jupiter Ammon formerly ſtood; whence it is pretended the name has its derivation.

This gum is brought to Europe in drops, or in great lumps: that in drops ought to be white within, and externally yellow, eaſily fuſible, reſinous, ſomewhat bitter, and of a very ſharp taſte and ſmell like garlic; that in lumps is loaded with drops, and free from any ſcrapings of wood, ſtone, or ſand, which is a denotation of the beſt quality.

Lac ammoniacum is a diſſolution of the gum in vinegar.

Sal Ammoniac is a kind of ſalt, more uſually wrote *armoniac*.

AMMUNITION, in general, ſignifies all ſorts of military ſtores and proviſions; but more eſpecially powder and ball; which, by the ſtatute of the 12th of Cha. II. might be prohibited to be exported at the royal pleaſure; and, by the 1ſt of James II. if imported without licence from his Majeſty, they are to be forfeited, with treble the value

AMOMI. A name given by the Dutch to Jamaica pepper.

AMOMUM, *Amomum vulgare*, or *Amomum officinarum*, is a fruit brought from the Eaſt Indies, of a hot, ſpicy taſte and ſmell, reſembling the muſcadine grape: it is about the bigneſs of a chick-pea, round, membraneous, and divided into three cells, which contain ſeveral brown angular grains, of great uſe in the compoſition of Venice treacle, and ſomewhat like the Engliſh baſtard ſtone-parſley. The neweſt amomum is always the beſt, eſpecially when the ſhells are round, light-coloured, heavy, and well filled; but that ſort whoſe pods are light, with black ſeeds, and ſhrivelled, is of no value: however, ſeveral people confound the amomum with the great cardamomum, tho' they have no manner of reſemblance.

AMORGO. An iſland of the Archipelago, ſituated in 26 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 37 deg. of N. lat. See *Turkiſh iſlands*.

AMOUNT. A term uſed in arithmetic and book-keeping, ſignifying the total, which ſeveral ſums added together produce.

AMOUR. A river whoſe ſource is in Siberia; it runs E. through Chineſian Tartary, and falls into the bay of Corea, in the Pacific ocean.

AMOUSES. Counterfeit gems, or artificial precious ſtones.

AMOY. An iſland belonging to China, ſituated in 118 deg. of E. lon. and 25 deg. of N. lat. See *China*.

AMPHORA. The largeſt liquid meaſure uſed at Venice, containing four bigorza's, each bigorza being four quarts, or an Engliſh gallon.

AMSTERDAM. The capital city of the province of Holland, ſituated in 4 deg. 30 min. of E. lon, and 52 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. See *United Provinces*.

ANABOA. or *Annabon*. See *Annaboa*.

ANACARDAS. A ſort of beans brought from the Eaſt Indies, reſembling the great beans produced in England. They are of ſome uſe in medicine; their goodneſs conſiſts in their magnitude, newneſs, and dryneſs, and the whiteneſs of the bean when peeled; from which anacardine honey is extracted.

ANACOSTE. A kind of woollen diaper ſtuff, manufactured at Leyden in Holland, and ſome towns of the Auſtrian and French Netherlands; which is uſually ſent black and white into Spain, where there is a great demand for it, the piece being about an ell broad, and 20 ells long.

ANAGROS. A meaſure for corn uſed in ſome towns of Spain, particularly at Seville, containing about ſix buſhels Wincheſter meaſure.

ANANAS, *Nanas*, *Jayama*, or the *Pine-apple*, is a fine fruit, of the produce of the Antilles iſlands in America, and alſo of the coaſt of Guinea in Africa, adorned on the top with a little crown, and a bunch of red leaves reſembling a fire. It is generally allowed, both for its delicious flavour, and beautiful colour, to be the king of fruits; for tho' the pulp is fibrous, it diſſolves in the mouth with the rich complicated taſte of the peach, the quince, and the muſcadine grape altogether.

This fruit is uſually about the ſize of an apple, and ſometimes as big as the melon; but there are three different ſorts, diſtinguiſhed by their colour, form, and taſte; being the white ananas, the pointed, and the pippin; all of which produce an excellent liquid confection, ſent from the Antilles iſlands; the ananas is alſo uſed in phyſic: but they are principally uſed in making the ananas wine, which is almoſt equal to malmſey ſack, and will intoxicate as ſpeedily. In about three weeks it generally turns, and three weeks afterwards becomes far ſuperior to what it was before, only it is more fumy and inebriating.

ANATA, *Anotto*, or *Attola*. A kind of red dye brought from the Weſt Indies, made of a red flower that grows on ſhrubs ſeven or eight feet high. It is caſt, like indigo, into ciſterns, or tubs, full of water, with this difference, that the flower is only uſed, whereof the leaves are taken aſunder; and, when rotten, they are reduced, by much ſtirring, into a thick and liquid ſubſtance, which is put to dry before the ſun, and afterwards formed into rolls or cakes.

The Spaniards are the only perſons who cultivate and prepare the anotto. the plantation which the Engliſh had at St Angelo in Jamaica being quite ruined. Engliſh dyers make more account of this drug than of indigo; for which reaſon the merchants of Jamaica, who have it from Porto Rico, purchaſe it one fourth dearer, giving about 1 s. 6 d. per lb. for indigo, and 2 s. for anotto. At preſent the Europeans, who trade in this drug, have the greateſt part from the bay of Honduras, where it ſells extremely well; and there is always between 50 and 60 *per cent.* profit, when bought at the firſt hand.

ANATOCISM, the uſe, intereſt, or increaſe of money, paid by a borrower to a lender; which is more properly applied to an accumulation of intereſt, extorſion, or uſury. See *Uſury*.

ANATRON, or *Natron*, is a kind of native ſalt-petre, or nitre, found in Egypt. See *Salt-petre*.

ANCHOR. A large, ſtrong, inſtrument of iron, crooked at one end, and formed into two barbs, reſembling a hook; faſtened at the other end by a cable, of the utmoſt utility at ſea, and in navigable rivers, to retain, and faſten veſſels of burden. Travellers tell us of people in the Indies, who make uſe of wooden anchors in their navigation; but the inhabitants in the iſle of Ceylon, in lieu of anchors, uſe ponderous round ſtones; and in ſome places a kind of wooden machinery is uſed, loaden with ſtones.

The parts of an anchor are, firſt, the ring, into which the cable is faſtened; 2d, the beam, or ſhank, which is the longeſt part of the inſtrument; 3d, the arm, which runs down into the ground; at the end of which is the 4th, the fluke, or palm, being that broad and picked part, with its barbs like an arrow head, which faſtens into the ground; 5th, the ſtock, a piece of wood faſtened to the beam, near the ring, ſerving to guide the fluke, ſo that it may fall right, and fix into the ground; though nothing in the whole inſtrument is moveable except the ring.

There are ſeveral kinds of anchors: 1. The largeſt is called the ſheet anchor, and is never uſed but in violent ſtorms, to prevent the ſhip from driving aſhore. 2. The two bow anchors, or bowers; called the firſt and ſecond bower, or beſt and ſmall bower, which are leſs than the ſheet anchor, being uſed for ſhips to ride in a road or harbour. 3. The kedger, or redger, which is a ſmall anchor, with a hauſer faſtened to it from the ſhip, dropped in the middle of the current of a river, by which means her head is winded about. 4. The grapnel, uſed for a ſmall ſhip, boat, or galley, without ſtocks, and having 4 hooks, or hold-faſts. 5. The ſtream-anchor, which is a ſmall one, faſtened to a ſtream-cable, for a ſhip to ride in gentle ſtreams, and in fair weather.

The goodneſs of the anchor is a point of the greateſt importance, the ſafety and conſervation of the veſſel depending principally upon its utility: the metal ſhould be neither too ſoft nor too brittle; for which reaſon, it is ſaid, that, to ſucceed in the fabrication, there ſhould be a compound of both kinds of iron; particularly the Spaniſh and Swediſh iron, becauſe the former is ſoft, and the latter brittle; but if the brittle is uſed alone, the anchor is liable to break, and the ſoft is too apt to ſtraiten.

The anchor of a large heavy ſhip ſhould be leſs, in proportion, than that of a ſmall light one, according to Aubin, in his dictionary of Marine, printed at Amſterdam in 1702; becauſe the ſmall veſſel, upon account of its levity, has not an equal ſtrength of reſiſtance with the large one; the defect whereof ought to be ſupplied by the weight of the anchor.

This author alſo exhibits a table, extracted from a Flemiſh writer, ſhewing how the weight and make of an anchor ſhould be regulated, according to the inner breadth of the ſhip; by which it is apparent, the beam or yard of an anchor ſhould be in length two fifths of the breadth of the veſſel; which he particulariſes from a ſhip 8 foot broad, proceeding, from foot to foot, to one 45 in breadth, according to the following table.

Breadth of the veſſel.	Length of the anchor.	Weight.
Feet.	Feet.	lb.
8	3 $\frac{1}{5}$	32
9	3 $\frac{3}{5}$	47
10	4	64
11	4 $\frac{2}{5}$	84
12	4 $\frac{4}{5}$	110
13	5 $\frac{1}{5}$	140
14	5 $\frac{3}{5}$	175
15	6	216
16	6 $\frac{2}{5}$	262
17	6 $\frac{4}{5}$	314
18	7 $\frac{2}{5}$	373
19	7 $\frac{3}{5}$	439
20	8	512
21	8 $\frac{2}{5}$	592
22	8 $\frac{4}{5}$	681
23	9 $\frac{1}{5}$	778
24	9 $\frac{3}{5}$	884
25	10	1000
26	10 $\frac{2}{5}$	1124
27	10 $\frac{4}{5}$	1259
28	11 $\frac{1}{5}$	1405
29	11 $\frac{3}{5}$	1562
30	12	1728
31	12 $\frac{2}{5}$	1906
32	12 $\frac{4}{5}$	2097
33	13 $\frac{1}{5}$	2300
34	13 $\frac{3}{5}$	2515
35	14	2742
36	14 $\frac{2}{5}$	2986
37	14 $\frac{4}{5}$	3242
38	15 $\frac{1}{5}$	3512
39	15 $\frac{3}{5}$	3796
40	16	4096
41	16 $\frac{2}{5}$	4426
42	16 $\frac{4}{5}$	4742
43	17 $\frac{1}{5}$	5088
44	17 $\frac{3}{5}$	5451
45	18	5832

Weighing ANCHOR, is the drawing up the anchor out of the ground it had been caſt into, in order to ſet ſail, or quit a port, road, or the like; which is uſually done by means of the capſtan, and ſometimes by a windlaſs.

ANCHORAGE, or anchoring ground, is a place fit to hold the anchor of a ſhip, ſo that ſhe may ride in ſecurity: the beſt ground for a ſhip to anchor in is ſtiff clay, or hard ſand; and the beſt riding at anchor is, when a ſhip is land-locked, and out of the tide.

Anchorage alſo denotes a duty taken of mercantile veſſels for the pool of the haven where they caſt anchor; becauſe, the ground in all ports and havens belonging to the ſovereign of the country, no man can let an anchor fall in any port without paying for it to the delegated officer. See *Port*.

This duty is paid in France by the captains, and maſters of merchant-ſhips, to the king, or admiral, for permiſſion to enter the ports and harbours of the coaſt of France; but this duty has no interference with average; nor is it binding to inſurers, being only to be paid by the maſter of the ſhip, purſuant to the ordonance of marine of 1681.

ANCHOVY, a little ſea-fiſh, generally uſed in ſauce. See *Anchovy Fiſhery*.

ANCIENT, or *Enſign*, is the flag, or ſtreamer, borne in the ſtern of a ſhip.

ANCOBER, or *Rio Cober*, a river on the coaſt of Guinea, in Africa.

ANCONA. A port-town in Italy, under the dominion of the Pope, ſituated in 15 deg. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. See *Italy*.

ANCONY, in the iron mines, a bloom wrought into the figure of a flat iron bar, about three foot long, with a ſquare rough knob at each end.

ANDAMAON, or *Andoman* iſlands, otherwiſe called the *Archipelago* of Andamaon, are Indian iſlands ſituated in the bay of Bengal, in E. lon. 94 deg. and between 10 and 15 deg. N. lat. comprehending the iſlands of Andamaon proper, Low iſland, Cocos, Marcondao, High iſland, Iſle de Torre, Crita iſle, Carnicular, and Poſſa, with ſeveral other inferior iſlands on the coaſts of Martaban and the Siameſe. Such places as are inhabited in this archipelago, are in the poſſeſſion of a harmleſs inoffenſive people, living principally on rice, fruits, roots, and herbs, with which they furniſh the European ſhipping; as alſo with ſome groceries, as ginger, pepper, benjoin, and other drugs; but theſe people have been fabulouſly repreſented, by voyage writers, as cannibals; and even Monſieur Savary, through this uncharitable credulity, does not ſcruple to call them a race of the Anthropophagi, terming them ſavages only becauſe they are unacquainted with the luxury and depravity of Europeans,

and taxing them with treachery who have little opportunity of exhibiting a breach of fiducial truſt. See *India*.

ANDERO, St. A port-town in the province of Biſcay, in Spain, ſituated in 4 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 43 deg. 20 min. of N. lat.

ANDES *mountains*, run almoſt the whole length of South America, through the countries of Peru and Chili; being parallel to, and but a little diſtance from the Pacific ocean, and eſteemed the higheſt land in the world. See *Spaniſh America*.

ANDROS. An iſland of the Turkiſh archipelago. See *Turkiſh Iſlands*.

ANEE, or *Aſnée*. A corn meaſure uſed in ſome provinces of France, particularly in the Lyonnois, and Macconnois; and contains ſix buſhels; 14 $1\frac{8}{1}$ aneés, being one laſt, or ten quarters Engliſh meaſure.

ANEGADA. One of the Caribbee iſlands in America, ſituated in 63 deg. 5 min. of W. lon. and 18 deg. of N. lat.

ANGEIOGRAPHIA, is the knowledge, or deſcription, of all kinds of ancient inſtruments, veſſels, and utenſils, both domeſtic, military, and nautical; as alſo the conſideration of the different coins, weights, and meaſures, of the ſeveral nations.

ANGEL. A gold coin formerly current in England for 10 s. but now out of uſe, having its name from an angel repreſented on it; being 23 carats $\frac{3}{4}$ fine, and weighing 4 penny weights; of which there were alſo ſome coined in France, while the Engliſh were in poſſeſſion of Paris, in the reigns of Ch. VI. and Ch. VII. of France.

ANGELICA, called alſo *archangelica*, and *radix ſiriaca*, a medicinal plant, and one of the ingredients in Venice treacle. It is moſt frequently found in the mountainous parts of Bohemia, and the root is in moſt eſtimation, though the leaves are often uſed, which are of a darkiſh green, long, and indented; and the angelica ſeed is alſo of uſe, which is flat, like a lentile ſeed. The beſt angelica roots are large, long, and white within; they ſhould not be worm-eaten, and ſhould have a little bitterneſs of taſte. The angelica ſeed is uſed to make ſugar-plumbs, and the roots and branches are generally candied by confectioners.

Angelica water, is a compound water extracted from angelica roots.

ANGELO, St. A port-town of Apulia, in Naples, ſituated on the gulph of Venice, in 16 deg. 25 min. of E. lon. and 41 deg. 20 min. of N. lat.

ANGLESEA. A county of N. Wales. See *Britiſh Iſlands*.

ANGOLA. See *Guinea*.

ANGOURA, or *Ancyra*, a city of Aſiatic Turky, in the province of Natolia, ſituated in 33 deg. of E. lon. and 41 deg. 5 min. of N. lat. 150 m. E. of Conſtantinople. See *Turky*.

ANGUILLA, one of the Caribbee iſlands, ſubject to his Britannic majeſty. See *Britiſh America*.

ANHOUT, one of the Daniſh iſlands. See *Denmark*.

ANIAN, or *Ajan*, a ſtreight, ſuppoſed to lie between the N. E. of Aſia, and N. W. of America.

ANIAN. A country on the eaſtern coaſt of Africa. See *Ethiopia Superior*.

ANIAN, is alſo an iſland belonging to China. See *Chineſe Iſlands*.

ANJENGO, or *Anjingo*, a ſmall town, and factory, on the Malabar coaſt, and hither peninſula of India, belonging to the Engliſh Eaſt India company, and ſubordinate to the government of Bombay; whence their merchandiſe conſiſts principally in pepper and callicoes; the town being ſituated in 76 deg. of E. lon. and 7 deg. of N. lat. See *India*.

ANIL. The ſhrub from whoſe leaves and ſtalks indigo is prepared. See *Indigo*.

ANIME, or *gum animæ*, is a kind of gum, or reſin, uſed in perfumes, diſtinguiſhed by the names of the eaſtern and the weſtern: the latter diſtils on an inciſion made in a tree called *courbat*, frequently found in the Spaniſh provinces of America, which is tranſparent, of a very agreeable ſmell, and of a colour like frankincenſe: the former has three diſtinctions, the white ſort, a blackiſh kind like myrrh, and a pale ſort, which is dry and reſinous. This gum is alſo of uſe in pharmacy, but the apothecaries uſually ſell bdellium for gum animæ. See *Bdellium*.

ANNINGA. A root growing in the iſlands of the Antilles, of uſe in refining ſugar.

ANISE, or *Anil*, a greyiſh wood brought from the Eaſt Indies in thick logs, and called *aniſe* upon account of its ſcent, which is like that of the plant of the ſame name.

The aniſe-wood is not only uſed in inlaid works and turnery ware, but druggiſts ſell the ſeed, which they diſguiſe under different names, calling it ſometimes aniſe of China, Siberia, the Philippine iſlands, and the Indies; and, to give it more reputation, they moſt commonly call it the ſeed of *badian*, or *zingi*. This ſeed, which is incloſed within a very hard and very thick ſmall pod, reſembles that of the coloquintida, except only that it is of a tanned and ſhining colour, and of a pretty good ſcent. See *Coloquintida*.

The Chineſe uſe it to prepare their tea; and the Dutch, in imitation of them, put ſome into that liquor; as alſo into their ſherbet, pretending that it gives a more agreeable flavour.

ANISEED, or *Aniſe-ſeed*, a medicinal ſeed, or grain, produced by an umbiliferous plant of the ſame name, common in gardens; where the good aniſe-ſeed ſhould be new, large, clean, of a good ſmell, a poignant and aromatic taſte, and without bitterneſs.

The ſeed yields by diſtillation a white cordial oil, called *eſſence of anniſeed*, of a very ſtrong penetrating ſmell; and by the ſame diſtillation is procured a limpid water called *aniſeed water*.

ANKER. A liquid meaſure chiefly uſed at Amſterdam, being the fourth part of the aem, and containing 2 ſtekans; and each ſtekan making 16 mingles; ſo that the anker contains about 32 gallons Wincheſter meaſure.

ANNABASSES. A kind of covering, made at Roan in France, and in Holland, of $\frac{3}{4}$ and $\frac{1}{2}$ in length, and $\frac{3}{4}$ in breadth, ſtriped equally with blue and white, about an inch in breadth; which is one of the beſt commodities for the French Guinea trade, eſpecially on the coaſt of Angola.

ANNABOA, or *Annabon*, is a mountainous iſland near the coaſt of Guinea, ſituated in 2 deg. of S. lat. and 200 m. to the weſtward of Congo; having a convenient road for ſhips on the lee-ſide of the iſland, which is about 10 leagues in circumference, and abounds in cattle, hogs, poultry, oranges, cocoa-nuts, and ſuch other fruits as are uſually found in hot countries, with Indian corn and rice. The name of *Annabon*, or happy year, was given it by the Portugueſe, who diſcovered it on new years-day 1571, and who have ſtill the government and propriety of the iſland; but moſt of the inhabitants are negroes, brought hither from the continent of Africa, and their deſcendents; though there are alſo a mixed breed of mulattoes, and ſome Portugueſe. See the iſland of *St. Matthew*.

ANNAMABOE, an Engliſh factory, on the gold coaſt of Guinea, in Africa. See *Guinea*.

ANNAPOLIS. The capital of Maryland, in N. America, ſituated in 78 deg. of W. lon. and 39 deg. 25 min. of N. lat. See *Britiſh America*.

ANNAPOLIS. A town of Nova Scotia, ſituated in 64 deg. of W. lon. and 45 deg. of N. lat. See *Britiſh America*.

ANNEALING, the art of painting, or ſtaining, glaſs.

ANNUITY, a yearly rent, or revenue, paid either for term of life, or of years, or in fee, or for ever: the computation of its value belonging to political arithmetic.

Dr. *Halley*, in his obſervations on the Breſlau bills of mortality, ſhews, that it is 80 to 1 a perſon of 25 years of age, does not die in a year; that it is 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1, a man of 40 lives 7 years; and that one of 30 may reaſonably expect to live 27 or 28 years: ſo great a difference is there between the life of man at different ages, that it is 100 to 1, 1 of 20 lives out a year, and but 38 to 1, that 1 of 50 lives 10. Whence, and from ſome other obſervations, he conſtructed the following table, ſhewing the value of annuities for every 5th year of life to the 70th.

Age.	Years purchaſe.	Age.	Years purchaſe.
1 — —	10,28	40 — —	10,57
5 — —	13,40	45 — —	9,91
10 — —	13,44	50 — —	9,21
15 — —	13,33	55 — —	8,51
20 — —	12,78	60 — —	7,60
25 — —	12,27	65 — —	6,54
30 — —	11,72	70 — —	5,32
35 — —	11,12		

Annuities, at this time, compoſe a conſiderable part of the national debt, and are now carried on as a kind of trading buſineſs. The firſt introduction of annuities in Great Britain, was owing to the exigences of the war carried on againſt France, ſoon after the revolution; when the government, in 1692, returned again to the practice of raiſing money for the current ſervice of the year, by mortgaging the public revenue for a term of years; and in this way they went further than any ſeſſion had done before; for, by this act, they charged beer, ale, and other liquors, with an additional exciſe for a term of 99 years, from the 25th of January 1692, and mortgaged it as ſecurity for the payment of 10 l. *per cent. per annum*, until the year 1700, and 7 l. *per cent.* afterwards, with the benefit of ſurvivorſhip, for the lives of the nominees, or 14 l. *per cent. per ann.* for a ſingle life to any natives or foreigners, that ſhould become contributors towards advancing the ſum of one million to the government before the 1ſt day of May 1693. As intereſt may be called the price of ready money, and as that price muſt always be higher in time of war than in time of peace, becauſe of the increaſed demand, it is ſurpriſing how miniſters that had any conſideration, could think of ſuch a method as this for raiſing money; for let the intereſt be ever ſo high, if a power of redemption be reſerved, it may be reduced as ſoon as peace is reſtored; but, by this irredeemable method, a high price is fixed upon the nation for a long term of years. A nation ſelling annuities at ſuch a time, is, like a gentleman ſelling his eſtate for half price, rather than to pay a little more than common intereſt upon a mortgage for a few years; yet this method was more obſtinately inſiſted on than any other; and it has been ſince continued ſo far as to become the principal part of the national debt; for the capital ſum on which annuities were granted by the government for ſeveral loans, chargeable upon the different branches of the revenue, and transferable at the bank of England, amounted, in 1751, to 18,402,472 l. 10 d. the capital for the old and new ſouth ſea annuities amounted to 27,302,203 l. 5 s. 6 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. and the capital on annuities, payable at the exchequer, amounted to 312,000 l. but, on the reduction of the national intereſt, ſeveral of theſe annuities were paid off. See *Fund*, *Bank*, *Eaſt India Company*, *South Sea Company*, *National Debt*, *Exchequer*, and *Lottery*.

As there were ſubſiſting a great number of different funds for annuities, eſtabliſhed at different times, and by different acts, which made it neceſſary to keep many different accounts, and, conſequently, was both troubleſome and expenſive; an act was paſſed, in the year 1752, intitled, An act for converting the ſeveral annuities therein mentioned, into ſeveral joint ſtocks of annuities, transferable at the bank of England, to be charged on the ſinking fund, and for other purpoſes therein mentioned; by which act, eight different ſtocks of annuities, amounting in the whole to 9,137,821 l. 5 s. 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. principal money, at 3 l. *per cent.* were, by ſubſcription, to be erected into one joint ſtock, from the 24th of June in the ſame year, and the annuities made payable out of the ſinking fund, and tranſferable at the bank. And, moreover, by the ſaid act, other ſix different ſtocks of annuities, amounting to 17,701,323 l. 18 s. 9 d. principal money, at 3 l. 10 s. *per cent.* until the 5th of January 1756, or the 7th of January 1758, and 3 l. *per cent.* afterwards were by ſubſcription to be erected into two joint ſtocks of annuities from the 10th of October 1752, and the annuities made payable out of the ſinking fund, and transferable at the bank; which two joint ſtocks laſt mentioned, were, after the 5th of April 1758 to be conſolidated into one, and the annuities to be payable and transferable as before: and for anſwering the ſaid annuities, all the taxes, or funds, formerly appropriated to their payment, were, from the ſaid 25th of June 1752, and the 10th of October enſuing, appropriated to, and made part of, the ſinking fund, after reſerving ſufficient to pay the annuities for lives at the exchequer, and other charges and incumbrances charged on theſe funds.

And, by two clauſes at the end of this act, it was provided, that the firſt and laſt ſubſcribed old ſouth-ſea annuities ſhould, after the ſaid 5th of April 1758, be conſolidated into one joint ſtock; and that, after the ſaid day, the firſt and laſt ſubſcribed new ſouth-ſea annuities ſhould be conſolidated into another joint ſtock: ſo that, from henceforth, the parliament will not be ſo much troubled with providing for deficiencies of old funds; and it is to be hoped, this will be a foundation for uniting all the taxes appropriated to the payment of the public debts, or to the civil liſt, into one fund, and directing the ſeveral payments to be made out of the ſame, which would render the buſineſs of the exchequer much leſs expenſive, leſs myſterious, and conſequently leſs liable to frauds and miſtakes; but this cannot be expected, whilſt the crown has the ſurplus of the duties appropriated to the civil liſt, over and above 800,000 l. *per annum*; becauſe that ſurplus would then go towards paying off ſo much of the public debt yearly.

ANODYNE *mineral*, or *mineral anodyne*. See *Cryſtal mineral*.

ANSEL. See *Auncel*.

ANSLO. A port-town of Norway, ſituated in 10 deg. 12 min. of E. lon. and 59 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on a bay of the ſea in the province of Aggerhuys, 100 m. N. of Gottenburg, ſubject to Denmark.

ANTALIUM. A ſhell, in the form of a tube, an inch and a half long, and of the thickneſs of a quill, hollow within, furrowed with ſmall lines, larger at one end than the other, ſometimes whitiſh, ſometimes greeniſh, and incloſing a ſmall ſea-worm: but there is another kind of antalium, compoſed of ſeveral ſmall tubes joined together. Both are of the number of alcalies; and as ſuch, apothecaries uſe them in ſeveral galenical compoſitions.

ANTARCTIC, denotes the ſouth; ſo that the antarctic pole, is the ſouthern pole.

ANTARCTIC *circle*, is one of the leſſer circles of the ſphere, parallel to the equator, at the diſtance of 23 deg. 30 min. from the ſouth pole.

ANTEDATE, a fictitious date of a writing, or inſtrument, prior to the true date.

ANTHORA, a medicinal plant of the aconite kind, growing chiefly on the mountainous parts of Switzerland and Savoy, the root of which is reputed a cardiac.

ANTIBES. A port-town of Provence, in France, ſituated on the Mediterranean, in 7 deg. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 40 min. of N. lat.

ANTICHREIS, a pledge, mortgage, or pawn: in the civil law it is a covenant between the debtor and creditor, relating to the intereſt or loan of money, upon a mortgage or pawn.

ANTICHTHONES, in geography, are thoſe people who inhabit countries diametrically oppoſite to each other, in which ſenſe it amounts to much the ſame as Antipodes.

ANTICIPATION, the doing a thing before the limited time, by which a debt is ſaid to be anticipated, if diſcharged before the time of payment.

ANTICOSTE, an iſland lying before the mouth of the river St. Lawrence, in N. America, in 64 deg. of W. lon. and between 49 deg. and 52 min. of N. lat. ſubject to the French, but a barren country. See *French America*.

ANTIGUA, one of the Caribbee iſlands. See *Britiſh America*, under *Great Britain*.

ANTILLES iſlands, are the ſame as the Caribbees. See *Caribbee Iſlands*.

ANTIMONY. A mineral ſubſtance, or a metalline quality, having all the apparent characters of a real metal, excepting malleability. It is found in mines of all metal, but principally thoſe of ſilver and lead; though when found in gold mines it is of the higheſt eſtimation: it has alſo its own mines, particularly in Hungary, Tranſylvania, Germany, and ſeveral provinces of France.

The texture of antimony is ſomewhat peculiar, being full of

of little ſhining veins, or threads, like needles, and brittle as glaſs; though ſometimes there are veins of a red or golden colour intermixed, which is called *male* antimony, that without them being denominated *female*: but both ſorts are of general uſe in the diſſolution of metals, eſpecially in caſting of cannon balls; and it has alſo many medicinal virtues.

The common, or crude, antimony of the ſhops, is extracted by large crucibles from the mineral as dug out of the earth. Butter of antimony, is a white, gummous liquor, otherwiſe called *icy oil of antimony*, which is uſually prepared of crude antimony, and corroſive ſublimate: this butter may be converted into an oil, called alſo *rectified butter of antimony*; it alſo produces a white, ponderous powder, called *mercurius vitæ*, and powder of algarot: of butter of antimony is alſo prepared the bezoar mineral. There are alſo ſeveral other ſorts of prepared antimony; as the ceruſs, or calx of antimony; cinnabar of antimony; clyſſus of antimony; crocus, or liver of antimony; diaphoretic antimony; diaphoretic nitre of antimony; flower of antimony; glaſs of antimony; magiſtry of antimony; regulus of antimony; golden ſulphur of antimony; prepared antimony; and revivified antimony; all of which are produced, by different proceſſes, from the mineral.

ANTIPAROS, an iſland of the Turkiſh archipelago. See *Turkiſh Iſlands*.

ANTIPATHES, a name given to black coral. See *Coral*.

ANTIPODES, in geography, a relative term, underſtood of ſuch inhabitants of the earth as live diametrically oppoſite to one another; being thoſe who live in parallels of latitude equally diſtant from the equator, the one toward the north, the other to the ſouth, and under the ſame meridian, though 180 degrees, or juſt half of that meridian, diſtant from one another: ſo that they have the ſame degree of heat and cold, the ſame length of night and day, but at contrary times; it being midnight with one, when it is noon with the other, and the longeſt day with one when ſhorteſt with the other.

ANTISCII, in geopraphy, the people who inhabit different ſides of the equator; and who, of conſequence, at noon, have their ſhadows projected oppoſite ways.

Thus the people of the north are antiſcii to thoſe of the ſouth; the one projecting their ſhadows at noon towards the north pole, and the other towards the ſouth pole.

Antiſcii are frequently confounded with antoeci, who inhabiting oppoſite ſides of the equator, have the ſame elevation of the pole; and the antiſcii alſo ſtand contradiſtinguiſhed from periſcii.

ANTIVARI. A port-town of Albania, ſituated on a rock near the gulph of Venice, in 19 deg. 40 min of E. lon. and 42 deg. 10 min. of N. lat. ſubject to the Turks. See *Turky*.

ANTOECI, in geography, thoſe inhabitants of the earth who live under the ſame meridian, and at the ſame diſtance from the equator; the one towards the north, and the other to the ſouth: they have the ſame latitude and longitude, only of a different denomination; and they live in the ſame ſemicircle of the meridian, but in oppoſite parallels: ſo that they have preciſely the ſame hours of the day and night, but oppoſite ſeaſons; for when it is noon in the longeſt ſummer day with one, it is alſo noon of the ſhorteſt winter's day with the other.

ANTOLFLE of cloves, are ſuch as remain by chance on the trees, after the cloves have been gathered. The fruit thus left on the tree continue to grow, and become an inch thick; and with them a hard and black gum is found of an agreeable ſcent, and very aromatic taſte; for which reaſon the Dutch call them the *matrix cloves*, or *mother of cloves*. They are pretty much uſed in medicine; but apothecaries frequently ſubſtitute in their place the ordinary cloves; tho' the virtues, and ſcent, are very different. See *Cloves*.

ANTONIO, one of the Cape Verd iſlands, ſituated in 26 deg. of E. lon. and 18 deg. of N. lat. See *Cape Verd Iſlands*.

ANTWERP. A city of the Auſtrian Netherlands, ſituated in 4 deg of E. lon. and 51 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. See *Auſtrian Netherlands*.

APENRADE. A town of Jutland, ſituated in a bay of the Baltic ſea, in 10 deg. of E. lon. and 55 of N. lat. ſubject to Denmark. See *Denmark*.

APHRONITRE. A kind of natural ſaltpetre, commonly called *rock ſaltpetre*. See *Saltpetre*.

APIARY, a place where bees are kept.

APOTHECARY, a perſon who profeſſes the practice of pharmacy; or that part of phyſic which conſiſts in the preparation and compoſition of medicines.

There are reputed to be about 1300 apothecaries in and about London; but theſe, as well as all the apothecaries in England, are obliged to make up their medicines according to the formulas preſcribed in the college diſpenſatory: beſides, their ſhops are ſubject to the viſitation of the collegiate cenſors, who are empowered to deſtroy ſuch medicines as they diſapprove.

Apothecaries company of London, was incorporated with that of the grocers, by James the Firſt, the 9th of April 1606; but, this not anſwering their expectation, they were ſeparated; and the apothecaries, by letters patent of the ſaid king, the 6th of December 1617, were incorporated by the appellation of *The maſter, wardens, and ſociety of the art or myſtery of apothecaries of the city of London*. At which time the maſters or ſhopkeepers of the trade, within the city and ſuburbs, only amounted to 104. The members of this company, who, by ſeveral acts of parliament, are exempt from ward and pariſh offices, are governed by a maſter, two wardens, and 21 aſſiſtants, with a livery of 144 members, whoſe fine is 16 l. and who have a beautiful hall in Black fryars, where they diſpatch their affairs. In this hall are contained two large laboratories; one for chemical, the other for galenical preparations. Here are likewiſe prepared vaſt quantities of the beſt medicines; not only for the uſe of the faculty, but likewiſe for others; eſpecially for ſurgeons of the navy, whoſe cheſts are furniſhed here with all uſeful and neceſſary medicines.

To this corporation belongs a ſpacious and beautiful phyſic garden at Chelſea, inriched with a great variety of plants, both domeſtic and exotic, which were firſt planted in the reign of King Charles the Second. For Charles Cheyne, eſq; then lord of the manor of that village, in the year 1673 demiſed to the company a ſpot of ground, containing 3 acres, one rood, and 35 perches, upon leaſe, for the term of 61 years, at the yearly rent of 5 l. which leaſe being to expire in 1734, Sir Hans Sloane, baronet, the lord of the manor, in the year 1721, granted the ſaid ſpot of ground for ever to the ſaid company, upon the conſiderations following: 1ſt, That the ſaid company ſhould pay a quit-rent of 5 l. *per annum* for the ſaid piece or parcel of ground, and for ever employ the ſame for a phyſic garden.

2dly, That the company ſhould annually deliver to the preſident and fellows of the royal ſociety, at one of their public meetings, 50 ſpecimens or ſamples of different ſorts of plants, well cured, and of the growth of the ſaid phyſic garden, till the number of ſuch ſpecimens amount to 2000. But, in caſe of non-performance, the ſaid parcel of ground or garden ſhould go to the preſident and fellows aforeſaid, to be held by them upon the ſame conditions; other than that the ſociety ſhould deliver the above-mentioned number of ſpecimens of plants, to the preſident and commonalty of the faculty of phyſic, of the city of London. And in caſe of non-performance of the ſaid conditions by the royal ſociety, then the ſaid ſpot of ground garden or ſhould devolve to the faculty of phyſic aforeſaid.

APPAREL. The habit or cloathing worn by any particular people or nation.

APPIOS, the ſeed of a plant brought from the Levant, particularly the iſland of Candia, whoſe ſtalks are very ſlender and reddiſh, and its bloſſoms are not unlike thoſe of rue; the ſeed, which is very ſmall, being of the number of the commodities ſold by wholeſale grocers.

APPLES, are ſeveral kinds of fruits, common in England, of which cyder is made. The cuſtom-houſe rate upon apples imported into Great Britain, are 4 d. the buſhel; 1 s. the barrel, containing 3 buſhels, and 3 s. the barrel for pippins or runnits. And, by the ſtatute of the 10th of Geo. II. an additional duty of 2 s. for every buſhel is to be paid by the importers before landing.

APPRAISER. A perſon who is a competent judge of appraiſing, or rating, valuing, and ſetting a price upon goods, for which they are properly authoriſed; and are ſometimes called ſworn-appraiſers, for their taking an oath to do juſtice between party and party.

APPRENTICE. One bound by covenant to ſerve a merchant, tradeſman, or artificer, a certain time, uſually ſeven years, upon condition of a ſufficient inſtruction from the maſter in the art or myſtery which he exerciſes.

Sir Thomas Smith ſays, that apprentices are a kind of bond-men, or ſlaves; differing only in this, that they are ſervants by covenant, and for a time.

By the ſtatute of 7th Ja. I. proper regulations are made for placing out apprentices by pariſh-officers.

By the ſtatute of the 2d and 3d of Q. Anne, it was enacted, That boys above ten years of age, chargeable to any pariſh, might, by the juſtices, mayors, and church-wardens, be bound apprentice to maſters of ſhips, till the age of twenty-one years; and that their ages ſhould be inſerted in their indentures. That the indentures ſhould be ſent to the collector of the cuſtoms at the port to which the maſter belonged, who ſhould regiſter and indorſe the ſame, on forfeiture of 5 l. and that the ſaid collector ſhould tranſmit certificates of their names, ages, and to what ſhip belonging, to the admiralty. That pariſh-boys bound apprentice, might, by conſent of the juſtices, be turned over to the ſea-ſervice for the remaining time; but that their indentures of aſſignment ſhould be regiſtered. That the counterpart of their indentures ſhould be ſealed and executed in the preſence of, and atteſted by, the collector and the officer who brought them; which officer ſhould tranſmit ſuch counterpart to the church-wardens. That ſuch boys ſhould not be impreſſed, nor liſted into her Majeſty's ſervice, till they were eighteen years of age. That ſhips from 30 to 50 tons ſhould take one ſuch apprentice, from 50 to 100 tons two ſuch, and one other for every 100 tons more. That the maſters refuſing to take them accordingly, ſhould forfeit 10 l. That the maſters, after their arrival, and before clearing, ſhould certify to the collector the number of ſuch apprentices aboard. That the collectors ſhould tranſmit an account of all ſuch apprentices to the quarter-ſeſſions, when required, on forfeiture of 5 l. That the collectors ſhould inſert at the bottom of the cocket, the number of men and boys on board each ſhip, deſcribing ſuch apprentices; particularly their names, ages, and dates of their indentures; and that perſons voluntarily binding themſelves to the ſea-ſervice, ſhould not be impreſſed for three years, and have protections accordingly.

By an act paſſed in the 8th year of Queen Anne, it was enacted, That there ſhall be paid the duty of 6 d. upon every pound of every ſum of 50 l. or under, and 12 d. for every 20 s. of every ſum more than 50 l. which for five years ſhall be paid or agreed for, in the putting out any clerk, apprentice, or ſervant, to learn any profeſſion, trade, or employment, and proportionally for greater or leſſer ſums, to be paid by the maſter or miſtreſs; which duties ſhall be tranſmitted into the hands of the receiver-general of the duties on ſtamps. That the full ſum given, or agreed to be given, with an apprentice, ſhall be written in words at length in the indenture, which muſt bear date on the day it was executed; upon pain that every maſter or miſtreſs offending in thoſe particulars, ſhall, for every offence, forfeit double the ſum given, or agreed to be given; one moiety to the crown; the other, with coſts, to ſuch perſon who will ſue within one year after the time limited for ſuch clerk or apprentice to ſerve his apprenticeſhip is expired. That, over and above the ſtamps requiſite for the indenture, another eighteen-penny ſtamp ſhall be provided; and all indentures executed within the bills of mortality, ſhall be brought to the ſtamp-office, where the duties are paid to the receiver-general; and, upon payment thereof, every indenture ſhall be ſtamped within a month after it is dated. But all ſuch indentures which ſhall be executed in any other part of Great Britain, are allowed two months for the ſtamp-duties; and, if the payment is made to a collector in the country, he ſhall endorſe a receipt of the money paid to him, and ſubſcribe his name; though every ſuch indenture ſo endorſed, if it be executed within fifty miles of London, ſhall, within three months after date, be brought to the head ſtamp-office, where it ſhall be ſtamped: but if it is executed at a greater diſtance from London, then ſix months are allowed for bringing it to the ſtamp-office. That indentures wherein the full ſum agreed on ſhall not be inſerted, or the duties not paid, or not ſtamped, or tendered to be ſtamped, ſhall be void; and the clerk, or apprentice, ſhall have no privilege of freedom, or uſing his trade. That money given to put out apprentices, either by pariſhes or public charities, ſhall not pay any duty. That forging theſe ſtamps, or any receipt for monies payable by this act, ſhall be felony without benefit of clergy. That where any thing ſhall be given to a maſter, not being money, the duty ſhall be paid for the full value thereof.

The above act was made perpetual by another paſſed the ſame year, and appropriated to the South Sea company as part of their fund: to which there was an additional clauſe, that if any maſter or miſtreſs ſhould neglect to pay the duties according to the rate impoſed on the apprentice-fee, ſuch perſon ſhould forfeit 50 l. one moiety to her Majeſty, and the other to the proſecutor. See *Stamp-duties*.

AQUA-*fortis*. A corroſive liquor, extracted from ſalt-petre, mixed with ſand, allom, or vitriol, which is uſed as a menſtruum to diſſolve ſilver, and is commonly held to have been invented about the year 1300; being of a variety of uſes among refiners, dyers, moſaic workers, colourers of ivory, book-binders, diamond-cutters, and engravers.

AQUA *marina*, a gem, or precious ſtone, of a ſea-green colour, from whence it has this denomination; which is found along the ſea-coaſts; is ſaid to vie with the amethyſt in hardneſs; and ſeveral of the lapidaries take it for the beryl. See *Amethyſt*, and *Beryl*.

AQUA *omnium florum*, in pharmacy, ſignifies the diſtilled water of cows-dung, when they are at graſs.

AQUA *regia*, or *aqua regalis*, an acid, corroſive ſpirit of water, ſerving as a menſtruum in the diſſolution of gold, from whence it is thus denominated, becauſe gold is vulgarly eſteemed the king of metals; but it is ſometimes called *aqua chryſulca*, and *ſtygia*. The baſis, or eſſential ingredient in *aqua regia*, is common or ſea ſalt, which is the only ſalt in nature that will operate on gold; and there are ſeveral ways of preparing it; for, in effect, the ſalt will not fail in its end, in what form ſoever applied: but the moſt general way is by mixing common ſalt, or ſal armoniac, or the ſpirit thereof with ſpirit of nitre, or with common aqua fortis, which is made of nitre and vitriol.

AQUA *vitæ* is commonly underſtood of what is otherwiſe called *brandy*, or ſpirit of wine, either ſimple, or prepared with aromatics, differently according to the different intentions: however, a diſtinction has been made between them, by appropriating the term brandy to what is procured from wine, or the grape, and aqua vitæ to that extracted after the ſame manner from malt.

ARABIA. That part of Aſia called *Arabia* is very extenſive, lying between 35 and 60 degrees of E. lon. and between 11 and 30 degrees of N. lat ſo that it lies between the 5th and the 14th N. climate, ſtretching itſelf from the N. W. to the S. E. and is ſaid to reſemble the head of an ax, being much broader on the S. E. than it is on the N. W.

This country is bounded by Paleſtine, Syria, and Diarbeck, or Meſopotamia, towards the north; by Eyrack Arabick, formerly Chaldea or Babylonia, and the gulph of Perſia, towards the eaſt; by the ocean towards the ſouth; and by the Red ſea, and the iſthmus which divides Aſia from Africa, towards the weſt; being 1200 miles long, and between 8 and 900 broad in the wideſt part, but ſcarce half ſo much in the narroweſt part towards the north. It is uſually divided into three parts, according to the nature of the reſpective ſoils: 1. Arabia Felix; 2. Arabia Deſerta; 3. Arabia Petrea. Arabia Felix, the S. E. part of it, contains at leaſt four parts in five of the whole; Arabia Deſerta, which lies to the northward, is the next in extent; and Arabia Petrea, which lies to the N. W.

N. W. on the iſthmus that divides Aſia from Africa, is much the leaſt. But the boundaries are very uncertain, or rather there are no bounds at all; becauſe the inland country is under the government of abundance of little emirs, or Arabian princes, who march from place to place, and encamp according as they find water and paſture for their cattle; nor is it eaſy to ſay which part of the country belongs to one of theſe diviſions, and which to another; tho', as to thoſe princes who live in maritime towns, their dominions may be ſet out with a greater degree of certainty.

There are but few ſprings, and ſcarce any conſiderable river in all Arabia, unleſs part of the Euphrates is included here, which divides Arabia Deſerta from Diarbeck or Meſopotamia; and the ſeas which encompaſs it on three ſides, are the Perſian gulph, the Indian or Ethiopic ocean, and the Red-ſea. As to the ocean which lies to the S. E. of Arabia, it is obſervable that there are no regular tides in it, and the current uſually ſets as the wind blows, except on the full or the change of the moon, and then for three or four days together it will ſet directly againſt the wind; and at thoſe times the water riſes eight feet perpendicularly upon the coaſt.

The wind blows on this coaſt from the S. W. and S.S.W. and ſo continues variable to the weſt, with hard guſts, and ſometimes rain, from the beginning of April to the middle or latter end of Auguſt; when it turns about to the eaſtward, blowing gently from that quarter until the latter end of March, with ſometimes land and ſea breezes, tho' very faint. But there is no bearing this coaſt from the beginning of April till the latter end of July; for then the wind blows hard from the S. S. W. to which all the harbours upon the coaſt are expoſed, and no ſoundings to be had ſix miles off the ſhore in many places.

The Red ſea lies to the weſtward of Arabia; at the entrance upon which from Egypt ſtands the town of Suez. Tor is the next port-town to the ſouthward, being about 140 miles diſtant from Cairo. Moubelen, Madian, Carzoka, and Aouz, are the next places to the ſouthward; but they are not ſo conſiderable as Jamboe, which lies in 25 deg. N. lat. in Arabia Deſerta, where there is a tolerable good harbour; but the entrance is very dangerous on account of the ſands; tho' it is now the port-town to Medina, being diſtant from it about four days journey.

Arabia Felix is almoſt as extenſive as the two others, and alſo equally ſurpaſſes them in opulence, the number of inhabitants, and degree of commerce, which is one of the moſt conſiderable in the eaſt. Its principal towns, and thoſe of greateſt repute for traffic in this diviſion, are Mocha, Aden, Chichiri, and Muſcat; together with Boſſora, at the head of this gulph: however, there are ſeveral other mercantile towns, to which may be added Mecca and Medina, places celebrated for their ſanctity by the Mahometans, and remarkable for their opulence; but the entrance of theſe two towns being prohibited to all profeſſors of Chriſtianity, under the penalty of death, of conſequence the Europeans are ignorant of their trade; it being proſecuted only by the Mahometan nations of India and Africa, by the way of Ziden, which is properly the port of Mecca, tho' 25 leagues diſtant from it; and by Mocha, which may be denominated *the Staple*.

Mocha, or Moco, is ſituated at the entrance of the Red ſea, in 45 deg. of E. lon. and 13 deg. 18 min. of N. lat. which is a town of the greateſt commerce in Arabia Felix, the trade of Aden being transferred hither about the middle of the 16th century, when the Turks made themſelves maſters of a conſiderable part of the coaſt adjacent to the Red ſea; an alteration which happened, as well upon account of the conveniency of the ſituation of Mocha, as upon account of the royal ſhip, which coming down annually from Suez, laden with valuable commodities for the Arabian traffic, ran too great a riſk in the Straits of Babel-mandel, through which there was a neceſſity of paſſing for Aden, formerly the port of its deſtination.

There is ſcarce a company of maritime commerce, either of Aſia, Europe, or Africa, but has ſome ſhipping at Mocha; from whence the general part of the coffee is brought for the conſumption of Europeans.

Beſides this maritime commerce, there is a very rich one carried on alſo by land with the caravans from Aleppo and Suez, which arrive there in the month of March. Theſe caravans, which are uſually two months on the road, and join at entering Arabia, make a part of thoſe that conduct the Mahometan pilgrims to Mecca and Medina; but then are compoſed only of merchants and merchandiſes. About a thouſand camels are employed for the carriage of theſe merchandiſes, with the proviſions and other neceſſaries of the merchants and troops, that march to defend them from the Arabians: but the riches of theſe caravans are not to be underſtood only of what the merchants make a declaration of at the cuſtom-houſe; becauſe almoſt as great a ſum is fraudulently concealed to avoid the duty, which is pretty conſiderable; for the merchandiſes of theſe caravans are velvets, ſatins, gold ſtuffs, woollen cloth, ſaffron, mercury, and vermilion.

The royal veſſel of Suez generally imports the ſame wares, beſides a conſiderable quantity of Ruſſia leathers: but as to its cargo in ſpecie, it has always a more conſiderable quantity of ſilver than what comes by land; tho' it is leſs rich in gold, bringing, one year with another, to the amount of 70,000 l. ſterling in ſilver, and only about 8000 l. in gold.

The merchandiſes which the caravans, the royal veſſel, and other foreign ſhips load at Mocha for their return, are partly the natural productions of Arabia, or the manufactures of the Arabs, and partly what came in ſhips from India, Africa, and Europe.

The Arabian manufactures afford but few conſiderable ſtuffs, and among them ſome cottons, for the moſt part pretty coarſe. Of the growth of Arabia, ſeveral perfumes are exported; as frank-incenſe, myrrh, and ambergreaſe; precious ſtones, eſpecially Baharan pearls, and cornelians; aloes, balſam, cinnamon, caſſia, dragon's blood, gum arabic, coral, ſeveral plants, either medicinal or odoriferous, and coffee, of which there is annually conſumed in India and Aſiatic Turky almoſt as great a quantity as is exported into Europe.

The coffee growing in the neighbourhood of Mecca is eſteemed ſome of the beſt in Arabia; and it is conveyed from thence to Mocha, by the port of Ziden; tho' there is an opinion, that the Arabs alter the ſeed of coffee by fire, to hinder its production in other places.

The commerce of Mocha, and other towns of Arabia, paſſes through the hands of the Jews and Banians, who are generally bankers, merchants, or at leaſt brokers.

The veſſels uſually ſeen in the harbour, are thoſe of India and the Perſian gulph; beſides a great number of European veſſels, from France, England, Holland, Denmark, and Portugal; as alſo merchants from Barbary, Egypt, Turky, and all Arabia.

The ſale of all kinds of merchandiſe is diſpatched there with great facility. The Europeans formerly paid *3 per cent.* for all they bought and ſold, and were privileged to ſtore them in private houſes without being obliged to carry them to the cuſtom-houſe. Other merchants paid *5 per cent.* beſides being ſubject to have their merchandiſe inſpected. But the immunities granted the Europeans turned afterwards to their prejudice; for perſons were appointed to make a report to the governor, of the quality of their merchandiſe, and to make them pay a duty according to their ſale.

The coins which are current at Mocha, are dollars of all kinds; but they abate *5 per cent.* on the pillar dollars, becauſe they are reckoned not to be of the pureſt ſilver; and the dollar-weight with them is 17 drams 14 grains. All their coins are taken by weight, and valued according to their fineneſs. The gold coins current here, are ducats of Venice, Germany, Turky, and Egypt. The comaſſees are a ſmall coin, which are taken at ſuch a price as the government ſets upon them; and they keep their accounts in an imaginary coin of cabeers, of which 20 are about 12 d. ſterling.

Their weights are the bahar, which is 420 lb. Engliſh; the faſſel, or 28 lb. whereof 15 go to a bahar; the maund, of which 10 go to a fraſſel; the fakea, of which 40 go to a maund; and the coffila, of which 10 go to a fakea.—Their dry meaſures are the madeeda, which is 3 pints

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Engliſh; and they meaſure cloth and ſilk by the cubit, which is 24 inches.

The veſſels that go from Surat to the Red ſea, depart uſually about the month of March, and arrive at Mocha towards the end of April, or at leaſt before the 20th of the month of May; otherwiſe they cannot arrive there the ſame year, upon account of the high winds obſtructing the entrance of the ſea; when they muſt paſs the iſle of Socatora, and ſhelter themſelves at the Cape of Guardifeu, to avoid the impetuoſity of the currents all along the coaſts of Arabia.

Aden is ſituated in 46 deg. of E. long. and 12 deg. of N. lat. a little to the eaſtward of the Straits of Babelmandel, 600 miles S. of Mecca, and 60 miles E. of Mocha, having formerly all the advantages of commerce which Mocha enjoys at preſent. Both theſe towns belong to the Turks, who poſſeſſed themſelves of the firſt in 1538, ſome time after the great Albuquerque, ſo famous for the conqueſts the Portugueſe made under his command in India, had unſucceſsfully attacked it, tho' with a conſiderable army. It is the only port the Grand Signior has on the Arabian ſea, and the largeſt and beſt fortified town he poſſeſſes in Arabia; the ſituation being adjacent to the mouth of the Red ſea, makes it a common harbour to the two ſeas, which is what affords it a tolerable commerce, tho' much inferior to that of Mocha.

Chichiri, ſituated in 14 deg. 50 min. N. lat. and nearer the Perſian gulph than Aden, is the firſt town of Arabia Felix wherein the Dutch have carried on a trade, having viſited this place before they went to Aden. The town of Chichiri has an emir, or Arabian ſultan, for its ſovereign, who pays the Grand Signior a kind of annual tribute of about 700 l. ſterling, and 20 lb. of ambergreaſe.

This port is generally reſorted to by veſſels from India, Perſia, Ethiopia, the Comorra iſlands, Madagaſcar, and Melinda. The Portugueſe were alſo formerly eſteemed there, and carried on a good trade; tho' now they are ſcarcely known.

The commodities for this place are much the ſame as thoſe at Aden; tho' it ſhould be obſerved, in general, that ſpices are the moſt profitable commodities in the Arabian trade; becauſe the Arabs, who are extremely fond of them, ſeaſon every thing they eat very high.

The towns of Shahar, Haſwel, Dofar, Mirabat, Haſen, Harmin, and Coucreki, have ſome trade; but there is nothing conſiderable in the northern part of Arabia Felix, till you come to the Muſcat, or Maſcat, which is ſituated in the gulph of Ormus, under the tropic of cancer, and has the greateſt commerce of all the towns adjacent to the gulph; where the ſole fiſhery of pearls, in the months of June, July, and Auguſt, would be ſufficient to enrich it: beſides, it is the repoſitory of all the Arabian drugs and merchandiſe, which are tranſported from hence into Perſia, Egypt, Syria, India, and Europe. But no perſons are allowed to go aſhore, nor to paſs from one veſſel to another, after ſun ſet, and before ſun riſe, the better to prevent any clandeſtine traffic.

M. Lockhart, who was at Muſcat, ſays that the current coins were budgerooks and mamoodas; that the budgerooks are a mixed metal, not unlike iron, with a croſs on one ſide, and were coined by the Portugueſe when they were in poſſeſſion of Muſcat; tho' thirty of theſe budgerooks make but a ſilver mamooda of 8 d. value: Surat rupees go for three mamoodas and a half, and Spaniſh dollars at 7 mamoodas and a half: Venetians, Ibrahims, and other pieces of gold, are alſo current at Muſcat, where goods are commonly weighed by the maund, which is $8\frac{1}{2}$ lb. Engliſh weight; and the merchants in the town ſometimes weigh by the fraſſel and bahar, but moſt by the maund, which is different from that of Mocha; as are their weights for gold and ſilver, and fine goods.

Sor, or Sohar, is a town ſituated ſomewhat higher than Muſcat, on the gulph of Ormus, having a conſiderable trade; the inhabitants careſſing ſtrangers, and the harbour being very convenient; by which inducements ſeveral veſſels are ſeen there, eſpecially from Muſcat, Gombroon, Surat, and ſome places of the Ethiopian coaſt; the commodities being butter, myrrh, oliban, aloes, and all other Arabian drugs.

Julphar and Elcatif are places of ſome trade; but there is nothing remarkable on the gulph of Boſſora, till we come to the city of Boſſora, which is ſituated in 4 degrees of E. longitude, and 30 degrees of N. latitude, in the province of Eyraca Arabic, upon a river called by the Arabs Schat-el Arab, about 40 miles N. W. of the gulph of Perſia. This city is about 12 miles in circumference, and on account of its riches and commerce was for a long time diſputed by the Arabs, Perſians, and Turks; by which laſt it was conquered, in 1668, whilſt Perſia was engaged in a war with the Mogul: ſo that now it has a free port, governed by an Arabian prince, who is tributary to the Grand Signior. Boſſora has reaped an advantage, as well as Bander Abaſſi, from the deſtruction of Ormus, and at preſent ſhips from all the nations of Aſia and Europe are ſeen there, eſpecially of the latter, the Engliſh and Dutch having conſiderable factories there eſtabliſhed by their two India companies, either for their traffic, or for the more ſpeedy diſpatching letters by land to England and Holland, which they do by the way of Damaſcus and Aleppo, employing for this purpoſe Arabs, who are generally very light, and expeditious couriers on foot.

The Portugueſe have alſo a factory here, but with little or no buſineſs to tranſact; for the principal commerce paſſes almoſt entirely thro' the hands of the Indians, Perſians, and Armenians.

Beſides the trade of Boſſora with Bander-Abaſſi, and that with the Indians, Moors, and Europeans, it has a conſiderable one with Bagdat, not very far from it, which enjoys the conveniency of the Tigris for receiving the goods of Boſſora, as alſo with Aleppo, and the reſt of the Turkiſh Aſiatic empire, from whence caravans come, whereof a part is deſtined for Boſſora.

Among the things which make its commerce flouriſhing, may alſo be reckoned the paſſage of Perſian pilgrims to Mecca, who uſually take this route; wherein they not only pay great duties to the Turkiſh baſha, but alſo leave, either by exchange or ſale, ſeveral parcels of goods, wherewith their little caravans are moſt commonly loaded.

Laſtly, Boſſora is enriched, and receives no ſmall advantage from the frauds committed in Perſia with regard to foreign coins; which, being of a better alloy than thoſe ſtruck in the country, are ſent to Boſſora by the connivance of the ſultan or baſha of Gombroon, who has his ſhare in this contraband commerce.

The Arabs who live in towns, are a very inconſiderable number, compared with thoſe that live in tents, who are called *Bedouins*, being a people of no fixed habitation, but poſſeſſed of large flocks and herds of camels, ſheep, and goats, with which they rove from one part of the country to another, where they can find paſture and water for their cattle; and, when they have deſtroyed all the forage, they load their goods and baggage on their camels, with their wives and children, and march on in ſearch of freſh paſture.

Whether the Arabs are naturally inclined to that roving ſort of life they have always been remarkable for; or whether the nature of their country requiring frequent removals, on account of its ſterility, and the ſcarcity of water in the deſerts, puts them under a neceſſity of wandering from place to place, is not very material to inquire: but as they have lived in this manner for ſo many ages, it is probably as agreeable to them as a more ſettled life is to the reſt of the world. But theſe people are not more remarkable for rambling, than they are for thieving, both by ſea and land; and that not in ſmall parties, but by public authority, in a manner, with their princes at the head of them. They have taken ſeveral Engliſh veſſels which they found weakly manned at ſea. They have even cut them out of the very road at Gombroon, on the coaſt of Perſia, in the night-time; and have, more than once, defrauded and robbed the Engliſh merchants of their goods, who came to trade with them at Muſcat.

It is very rare that any caravan of merchants paſſes over the deſerts, but they loſe part of their goods: for the Arabian emirs, and princes themſelves, extort money from them; tho' they do not take all, and ſo may be deemed to have more juſtice than other robbers. And indeed there is ſomething to be ſaid for thoſe Arabian princes; becauſe

because the country belonging to them, they might refuse to let the caravans pass through their territories at all, and possibly take what they impose upon caravans, by way of duty or toll; which seems probable, as the sums are not very large; tho', if they were, it would discourage the caravans from coming that way; and as to private robberies, no country can be answerable for them. However, their depredations at sea seem most inexcusable, where nothing but a superior force can protect European merchants against them.

There are no roads laid out in Arabia; but the caravans travel over sandy deserts, where there is no manner of track, guiding themselves by a compass, as at sea, or else by the stars; for they travel chiefly in the night, on account of the heats; and people chuse to travel with the caravans, in which are frequently 2 or 300 men, and perhaps 1000 beasts of all kinds, in order to secure themselves from the thievish Arabs.

Before a caravan sets out, the merchants elect among themselves a caravan-basha, or captain; who appoints the order of the march, and the places they are to lodge at; and, with the principal men in the caravan, adjusts any differences that arise in the way. But it is an employment, it seems, that no honest man is fond of; for being impowered to pay and compound for several small duties in the countries through which they pass, their fidelity is generally suspected. The merchants usually ride upon horses or mules, and those who cannot be at that expence, on asses; it being very tiresome riding upon a camel when he goes a foot-pace, but pleasant enough when he is put into a trot, which is a pace the caravans seldom go, because the camels are heavy loaden.

The Arabians of the inland country are divided into tribes, and their tribes into families; every tribe having its sheik, and every family its sheik or captain. The sheik el kebir is the prince or monarch of the tribe, and invested with a supreme civil authority. The offices of the sheiks are hereditary; but when a sheik of a family dies without children, the family chuses another, with the leave of the sheik el kebir or sovereign.

The Arabian kingdoms which lie upon the coasts, some of whose boundaries appear to be of a very large extent, have their monarchs, styled xerifs, as the xerif of Mecca, others called iman; but both signify the office of a priest as well as king; as the caliphs of the Saracens, the successors of Mahomet, were, till conquered by the Turks.

As to the form of the Arabian government and laws, their monarchs are absolute, both in spirituals and temporals, and their succession hereditary; but they have no other laws than what are to be found in the alcoran, and the comments upon it.

They have no regular militia by land; but the kings command both the purses and persons of their subjects, whenever they see fit. The most potent monarch by sea, is the king of Oman or Muscat, who is become very formidable, not only to the Asiaticks, but to the Europeans themselves. They are always at war with the Portuguese and Danes; and if an English vessel comes in their way, if she is not a ship of force, they will not scruple making a prize of her. Mr. Lockhart informs us, there were no less than fourteen sail of men of war in the mole at Muscat when he was there, besides twenty merchantmen; that one of their men of war carried 70 guns, and none of them less than 20; but the biggest of them would not have made an English fourth rate, their ports being as close as they can well set their guns by one another. There were at the same time fifteen or sixteen sail of their men of war cruising abroad, which were expected home in the S. W. monson, when it usually blows hard; for tho' they are always full of men, they cannot endure bad weather. Their colours are red, which they display in streamers and pendants at every yard-arm and mast-head, and other remarkable parts of the ship, which make their fleets look exceeding fine. But they have scarce any timber of their own growth fit for shipping; so that their ships are built at Surat, or at the mouth of the river Indus; and many of them are prizes taken from other nations.

ARABIAN *gulph*. See *Red sea*.

ARABIC *gum*, or *Gum Arabic*, called also Thebaic, Saracenaic, Babylonic, and Acanthine, from the places or trees which produce it, is the juice of a little tree growing in Egypt, of the cassia kind, called in Latin *acacia vera*. It is very transparent, glutinous upon the tongue, almost insipid to the taste, and twisted somewhat in manner of a worm; being a gum of much estimation to stop the pores, blunt the points of too pungent medicines, and temper the acrimony of the trachea in coughs; but the druggists frequently sell gum senega for the gum arabic. See *Acacia*, and *Senega*.

ARACAN. The capital city of a small kingdom, situated in 93 deg. of E. lon. and 20 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the N. E. part of the bay of Bengal, in India, beyond the Ganges. See *India*.

ARACK, *Arrac*, or *Rack*. A spirituous liquor, imported from the East Indies, procured, by distillation, from a vegetable juice called *toddy*, which flows, by incision, out of the cocoa-nut tree.

Goa and Batavia are the principal places for arack. At Goa there are several kinds, single, double, and treble distilled. The double distilled, which is that commonly sent abroad, is but a weak spirit in comparison with Batavia arack; yet, on account of its peculiar and agreeable flavour, it is preferable to all the other aracks of India; and this is attributed to the earthen vessels used at Goa to draw the spirit; whereas they use copper-stills at Batavia.

The Parier arack made at Madras, as well as the Columbo and Quilone arack made at other places, being fiery hot spirits, are little valued by Europeans, and therefore seldom imported, tho' in much esteem among the natives.

There is another kind of arack made in Tartary, from the milk of mares, of an excessive inebriating quality. See *Spirituous Liquors*.

ARAINS. Striped or checked armorines, or taffetas, brought from the East Indies.

ARANNEA. A silver ore, found only in the mines of Potosi, or confined to that of Catamito. Its name is owing to the resemblance it bears to a spider's web, called in Latin *aranea*, and is composed of threads of pure silver, which appear to the sight as silver-lace burnt for separating the silk, being the richest of all silver ores.

ARARES. A name given by the Indians to that kind of fruit called in Europe *citrinæ mirobolans*; thought proper for purging the gall.

ARATE. A Portuguese weight, in use also at Goa and Brasil: but it is frequently called arobe, the name it bears in Spain; being much heavier than the Spanish arobe, which weighs but 25 lb. whereas this weighs 30 lb. See *Arobe*.

ARBE. An island in the gulph of Venice, situated in 16 deg. of E. lon. and 45 deg. of N. lat. subject to the Venetians. See *Italian islands*.

ARBITRATION, *Arbitrage*, or *Arbitrement*. The referring of a cause or quarrel to the decision of indifferent persons, under the quality and denomination of arbiters or arbitrators. This is a very laudable practice among the mercantile part of the British nation; for, in any dispute, two arbitrators are usually nominated by the contending parties; and, in case they cannot agree, a third is added, called an umpire, in whose decision both sides are obliged to acquiesce.

Such an amicable determination of mercantile controversies has been found so salutary in supporting the fiducial credit of this most valuable part of the community, that it has attracted the observation of the British legislature; and, by a statute 9th and 10th William III. it was enacted, That all merchants and others, desiring to end any controversy, for which there is no remedy but by personal action, or suit in equity, by arbitration, may agree that their submission of the suit to the award or umpirage of any persons shall be made a rule of any of the courts of record which the parties shall chuse; and a rule of court shall be thereupon made, that the parties shall submit to, and be finally concluded by, such arbitration or umpirage; and, in case of disobedience thereto, the party neglecting or refusing shall be subject to all the penalties of contemning a rule of court, and process shall issue accordingly; which shall not be stopped or delayed by any order of any other court, unless it appear on oath, that the arbitrators

or umpire misbehaved themselves, and that such award was corruptly or unjustly procured. That any arbitration, or umpirage, procured by corruption or under-means, shall be void, and set aside by any court of law or equity; so as such corruption or undue practice be complained of in the court where the rule is made for such arbitration, before the last day of the next term after such arbitration made and published to the parties.

ARBITRATION *of exchange.* See *Arbitration of Exchange.*

ARCADIA. A port-town of European Turky, situated on the W. coast of the Morea, in the Mediteranean, in 22 deg of E. lon. and 37 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. See *Turky.*

ARCANCON, or *dry tar*, a kind of resinous pitch, made of speckled incense, or liquor that issues from the pine-tree, by roasting it over a fire till it is almost burnt.

It should be dry, transparent, and deep in colour: black pitch is made with it; and some, but improperly, confound it with colophonia.

ARCANNE. A mineral, or kind of red chalk, called in Latin *rubrica fabrilles*, because carpenters use it to stain their lines for the marking of their timber: but there is a factitious arcanne made of burnt oker.

ARCANUM, literally signifies a secret; but there are standing officinal compositions in medicine, such as arcanum corallinum, which is a powder made from a preparation of red precipitate, by distilling it with spirit of nitre; arcanum duplicatum, which is extracted from the caput mortuum of aqua fortis; and the arcanum joviale, made of an amalgama of mercury and tin, digested in spirit of nitre.

ARCASSOUL. A medicinal drug found in China, and sent in great quantities to Batavia.

ARCHANGEL. A port-town of the province of Dwina, in Russia, situated in 40 deg. 12 min. of E. lon. and 64 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

ARCHES, a name given by seamen to the Turkish Achipelago.

ARCHETYPE, coincides with original, or prototype; so, among minters, archetype is peculiarly used for the standard, or original weight, by which the other weights are to be adjusted and examined.

ARCHIPELAGO signifies a sea interrupted by a great num- of small islands; but is more commonly adapted to that part of the Mediterranean which formerly went by the denomination of the Egean sea, and is now generally called the *Arches* among mariners; though these islands of the Grecian archipelago are now in the possession of the Turks. See *Turkish Islands.*

The ancients were acquainted with no more than the archipelago of the Egean sea, which lies between Asia, Macedon, and Greece: but the voyages of the moderns to the East Indies, by the cape of Good Hope, and the discovery of America, gave them the knowledge of several others; as the archipelago of St. Lazarus, the Maldives, the Moluccas, the Philippine islands, the Marian islands, those of Mexico, and some others, which are treated of under their respective heads; as the archipelago of the Mediterranean is under the articles of *Turkish* and *Venetian Islands.*

ARCHITECT, a person skilled in architecture, or the art of building; who makes plans and designs of edifices, conducts the work, and directs the masons and other artificers employed therein.

The most celebrated architects are Vitruvius, Palladio, Scamozzi, Serlio, Vignola, Barbaro, Cataneo, Alberti, Viola, Inigo Jones, Bullant, and De Lorme.

Vitruvius reckons twelve qualities requisite to an architect; that he be docile and ingenious; literate; skilled in designing, geometry, optics, arithmetic, history, philosophy, music, medicine, law, and astrology.

ARCHITECTURE, the art of building, or of erecting edifices, proper either for habitation or defence; which is usually divided, with respect to its objects, into three branches, civil, military, and naval.

Civil architecture, called also absolutely, and by way of eminence, *architecture*, is the art of contriving and executing commodious buildings for the uses of civil life; as houses, temples, theatres, halls, bridges, colleges, portiicoes, and other buildings both of utility and ornament.

Architecture is scarce inferior to any of the arts in point of antiquity; for nature, and necessity, taught the primitive inhabitants of the earth to build themselves huts, tents, and cottages; from which, in course of time, they gradually advanced to more regular and stately habitations, with variety of ornaments.

The ancient writers represent the Tyrians as the first among whom architecture was carried to any considerable pitch, which they afterwards communicated to the Egyptians; these to the Grecians; and these again to the Romans; from whom, after several vicissitudes of fortune, in the declension of the arts, and the ravages of the Visigoths, it has, at last, descended to the politer part of the European nations, in all that beauty to which it arrived under the care of Vitruvius, in the reign of the emperor Augustus; and all that delicacy it received from the labours of Apollodorus, who erected the remarkable Trajan column, subsisting to this day: so that, by the improvement of the moderns, architecture is brought into the form of a mathematical art.

There are several arts subservient to architecture; as carpentry, masonry, paving, joinery, smithry, glaziery, plumbery, plastering, gilding, and painting; in which there are a great consumption of timber, stone, brick, tile, lime, lead, glass, iron, and other commodities.

Military architecture, or *fortification*, is the art of strengthening and fortifying places, to screen them from the insults of enemies, and the violence of arms; such as the erecting of forts, castles, and other fortresses, with ramparts, bastions, and other defensible compartments.

Naval architecture, or ship-building, is that which teaches the construction of ships, galleys, and other floating vessels for the water; with ports, moles, and docks, on the shore.

ARCTIC denotes the north; so that the arctic pole is the north pole.

ARDASSES, and *Ardassettes*, the coarsest of all Persian silks, being the refuse of each kind: in which sense are said the legis, the houssets, the chouss, and the payas ardassus, to denote the worst of these four sorts of Persian silks.

ARDASSINES, are very beautiful Persian silks, not inferior in fineness to the cherbaffis.

ARDRA, or *Ardres*, the capital of a country on the slave coast of Guinea, in Africa, situated in 4 deg. of E. lon. and 5 deg. of N. lat. near the river Lagos. See *Guinea.*

AREB, a money of accompt, used in the states of the Grand Mogul, especially at Amadabat, 4 of which make a crou; a crou is worth 100 lacs, and a lac 100000 rupees, or 12,500 l. sterl. so that the areb is about 5 s. sterling.

AREBON. A town situated in 5 deg. of E. lon. and 5 deg. of N. lat. on the slave coast, at the mouth of the river Formosa, in Guinea. See *Guinea.*

ARECA, or *Areck.* A remarkable fruit in the East Indies, whose trade and consumption is incredible; as being equally used by the rich and poor.

The tree that bears it is tall, straight, slender, and round; and the shell which incloses the fruit is smooth on the outside, but rough within, not unlike the shell of the coco: the kernel is about the bigness of a nutmeg, and when ripe is yellowish, and always very bitter, but never unpalatable.

The greatest use of the areca is to chew it with the leaves of beetle, mixed up with a red paste of sea-shells; for the juice of the areca is esteemed good for fortifying the stomach, and destroying the scurvy in the gums.

AREQUIPPA, a city of Peru, in S. America, situated in 73 deg. of W. lon. and 17 deg. of S. lat. See *Spanish America.*

ARGENTIERE. A small island in the Turkish archipelago, situated in 25 deg. of E. lon. and 37 deg. of N. lat. 60 m. E. of the Morea. See *Turkish Islands.*

ARGIL, or *Potters earth*, a fat viscous earth used by potters, sculptors, and silver-smiths; its colour being commonly grey, and sometimes red.

ARGOS. A port-town of European Turky, in the province of the Morea, situated on the bay of Napoli de Romania, in 23 deg. of E. lon. and 37 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. See *Turky.*

ARGOUDAN. A kind of cotton gathered in ſeveral parts of China, conſtituting part of the trade between the Chineſe of Canton, and the inhabitants of the iſland of Haynan.

ARGUN. A river of Tartary, in Aſia, which divides the Ruſſian and Chineſian empires.

ARICA. A port-town, ſituated in the province of Les Charcas in Peru, in 70 deg. 20 min. of W. lon. and 18 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. See *Spaniſh America*.

ARIDAS. A kind of taffety, manufactured in the E. Indies, from a kind of ſilk, or gloſſy thread, taken from ſome herbs, and plants, and therefore called *herb-aridas*.

ARINDRATO. A tree growing in ſeveral parts of the iſland of Madagaſcar, whoſe wood, when rotten, and put in the fire, exhales with a very agreeable ſmell.

ARISH. A Perſian long meaſure, containing 3197 Engliſh feet.

ARISTOLOCHIA, or *Birth-wort*, a plant whoſe root is of a medicinal quality, and is alſo uſed as an ingredient in Venice treacle. There are four kinds of ariſtolochia; the round, long, rampant or creeping, and the ſlender; but only the two former are uſed, which are both generally found in Languedoc in France, Spain, and Italy.

Beſides theſe, there are ſeveral other kinds of ariſtolochia in America, particularly one kind in Virginia, called *viperinum virginiæ* from its alexipharmachic quality, the roots of it being an antidote againſt the bites of venomous animals; though it is alſo uſed in malignant fevers, and the ſmall-pox.

Good ariſtolochium ſhould be dry and plump, without being wrinkled or withered, heavy, yellow within, and grey without.

ARITHMETIC, is the art of numeration, by which mercantile accompts are calculated with great exactneſs and facility.

The origin of this valuable art is very uncertain; hiſtory giving us no information of the author, or the period of its invention: but, in all probability, it muſt have taken its riſe from the introduction of commerce, and conſequently be invented among the Tyrians. Abraham, according to Joſephus, introduced the art of arithmetic from the Aſiatics among the Egyptians, who cultivated and improved it in ſo conſiderable a degree, that a great part of their philoſophy and theology ſeemed to have much dependence upon numbers. From Egypt arithmetic was tranſmitted to the Greeks, who handed it forwards, with great improvements, to the Romans, to whom the reſt of the Europeans are principally indebted for their information in this beautiful and beneficial art.

However excellent the ancient arithmetic may have been, it was much inferior to that of the moderns, for the ancients only conſidered the various diviſions of numbers; as is evident from the treatiſes of Nicomathus and Boethus; but arithmetic, under its preſent ſtate, is variouſly divided into different kinds, as theoretical, practical, inſtrumental, logarithmical, numerous, ſpecious, decimal, dynamical, tetractical, duodecimal, ſexageſimal, and others.

Political ARITHMETICK. See *Political Arithmetic*.

ARKLOW. A port-town of Ireland, in the county of Wicklow, and province of Leinſter, ſituated in 6 deg. 20 min. of W. lon. and 52 deg 55 min. of N. lat.

ARLET. A kind of cumin, which makes a pretty briſk trade in the Eaſt Indies, particularly at Surat, where it is of three kinds; the white, ſold for 8 mamoudis, the black for 3, and the ſmall arlet for the ſame price with the black; each mamoudi being 8 d. ſterling. See *Cumin*.

ARM, in geography, a branch of a ſea, or river; ſuch as the ſtraight of Meſſina, between Sicily and Naples; the Thracian Boſphorus, or ſtraight of Conſtantinople, which divides Europe from Aſia; and the Menai, which ſeparates the iſle of Angleſea from Carnarvonſhire. See *Æſtuary*.

ARM, in the ſea language, is underſtood of a ſhip that ſhe is armed, when fitted out and provided in all reſpects for war.

ARMADA, in Spain, ſignifies a fleet, or ſquadron, of capital ſhips of war; being a term given to the numerous, and ſtrong fleet, which, by the direction of Philip II, was fitted out in the ports of Spain, and, on the 19th of May 1588, ſet ſail from Liſbon to invade England: but though this naval armament conſiſted of 135 large ſhips, including as well the gallies and galleaſſes, as the ſquare built ſhips of the uſual burden, and galleons, four of which were larger than the reſt; and alſo comprehending forty ſmaller veſſels, for the moſt part tranſports and ſtoreſhips: on board of which were five regiments, containing 18857 ſoldiers, together with 7449 ſailors and other ſea-faring people, 220 Spaniſh noblemen, 350 volunteers with their ſervants, and 620 eccleſiaſticks, with attendants on the ſick, and other officers; the whole number of people on board this fleet, amounting to 28,293 men: yet, what the Spaniards oſtentatiouſly deemed invincible, was entirely ſubjugated and deſtroyed, by the bravery of Britiſh ſeamen.

ARMADILLA, is the denomination of a ſquadron of Spaniſh men of war in America, commonly conſiſting of 6 or 8 ſhips, mounting from 24 guns to 50, which are kept there by his moſt catholic majeſty, to prevent foreigners from negotiating with the Spaniards and Indians, both in time of peace and war: the commanders of theſe ſhips being not only empowered to take all the mercantile veſſels belonging to the ſubjects of Spain, as are found trading upon the coaſt without royal permiſſion, but alſo to ſeize and confiſcate ſuch veſſels belonging to the ſubjects of other powers, as ſhall be detected in carrying on the ſame illicit commerce. There is an armadilla in the ſouth-ſea as well as in the north-ſea; the former being generally ſtationed at Calao, the port of Lima, and the latter at Carthagena. See *Guarda Coſta*.

ARMAMENT, is ſometimes uſed for the place where arms and proviſions are laid up for a navy, and ſometimes for the navy itſelf.

ARMENIA, conſiſts of the modern Turcomania, and part of Perſia; having Georgia on the north; Curdiſtan, the ancient Aſſyria, on the ſouth; and Natolia, or the Leſſer Aſia, on the weſt, being ſubject to Turky and Perſia: but for its trade, ſee *Turky* and *Perſia*.

ARMENIAN *bole*, *Bolus Armenus*, or *Bole armoniac*, is a fatty medicinal earth, brought from Arabia, of a pale reddiſh colour. See *Bole*.

ARMENIANS, in reſpect of religion, a ſect, or diviſion, among the oriental chriſtians; thus called from Armenia, the country which they formerly inhabited.

The Armenians, ſince the ſubjugation of their country, by Schah Abas king of Perſia, have had no ſettled place of reſidence, but are diſperſed in ſeveral parts of Perſia, Turky, and Tartary; their migration has even extended through India, and in ſome parts of Europe, particularly Poland, where their principal employment is merchandize, in which they are more excellent negotiators than their fellow wanderers the Jews; and it is reported that Cardinal de Richlieu had a deſign to make an eſtabliſhment of them in France, for promoting the commerce of that country.

ARMENIAN *ſtone*, a kind of precious ſtone mingled with green, but without a gold vein, which is found in Tirol, Hungary, and Tranſilvania; where, on account of its colour, it is ſtiled *green of azure*, being uſed in inlaid work, and is ſuppoſed to be of ſome uſe in medicine.

ARMINGS, in a ſhip, are the ſame with waſte-clothes, being red clothes hung about the out-ſides of her upper-works, fore and aft, and before the cubbridge heads: there are ſome alſo hung round the tops, called the *top-armings*.

ARMIRO. A port-town of European Turky, in the province of Theſſaly, ſituated at the bottom of the gulph de Velo, in 23 deg. 30 min. of E. lon.

ARMOISIN. A kind of taffety, or ſilk ſtuff, of an indifferent quality, manufactured at Lyons in France, and ſeveral parts of Italy. There are half armoiſins made at Avignon, of a leſs price, and of an inferior quality, than the others: ſome are made of three threads; and ſome of all colours are brought from the Eaſt Indies, particularly from Caſſumbazar, by the way of Bengal.

'Tis pretended that the word has its derivation from the Italian *armerino*; or that the ſtuff has been ſo called, be-

cauſe coats of arms have been impreſſed upon the cloth in which they were folded.

ARMOISIN *of the Indies*, a taffety manufactured in the Eaſt Indies, but ſlighter, and of an inferior quality, than thoſe made in Europe: their colours, eſpecially the crimſon, and red, being uſually falſe, with little or no gloſs.

There are two ſorts of them; the arains, which are either ſtriped, or checked taffeties; and the damavars, which are flowered. Their length is from 7 ells to 24; the breadth being from ſeven ſixteenths to five ſixths.

ARMONIAC, or *Ammoniac*, a kind of volatile ſalt, of which there are two ſorts, the native and factitious; being of a different figure, but of ſimilar properties. The native ſal armoniac is ſubdivided into two other ſorts; but the beſt is only the urine of camels cryſtalized, and reduced into a white maſs, by the heat of the ſun on the burning ſands of Arabia, and ſeveral other dry and deſart places in Aſia and Africa, where theſe animals make their extenſive journies with caravans. It is white, and nearly reſembles common ſalt in taſte: it is very ſcarce; but when it is genuine ſome particles of the ſand, in which it was ſublimated by the heat of the ſun, may be diſtinguiſhed in it. The other ſal armoniac, which is not much more plentiful than the real ſort, is a kind of earth, or ſalt ſkum, prepared after the manner of ſalt-petre, and is found in ſome parts of the Eaſt Indies, particularly in old caverns and clefts of rocks, between Lahor and Trerbint.

Theſe two ſalts being ſo extremely ſcarce, and the neceſſity there is for them in many works, have occaſioned the chemiſts to counterfeit the native ſal armoniac; and it is of this artificial ſalt-petre that there is made ſo great a conſumption. This factitious kind is obtained from the urine of men and beaſts, by means of ſublimating veſſels, and is commonly brought from the Levant, Venice, and Holland, in pieces of different ſizes, and colours, but generally in form of the cover of a pot, weighing about 14 pounds; though the Engliſh chemiſts have ſeveral ways of preparing a ſal armoniac in imitation of this.

The beſt ſal armoniac is white, tranſparent, and free from filth. It has various uſes in medicine, and the diſſolution of metals; as alſo in dying: but there are ſeveral preparations of this ſalt in the modern pharmacy; as ſublimate of ſal armoniac, volatile ſal armoniac, flowers of ſal armoniac, martial flowers of ſal armoniac, and ſpirit of ſal armoniac, of ſeveral kinds.

ARMOURY, or *Armory*, a ſtore-houſe of arms, or a place wherein military habiliments are kept, to be ready for uſe. Of which there are armories in the tower of London, and all arſenals, citadels, and caſtles. See *Arms*.

ARMOURER. A manufacturer of military arms. See *Arms*.

ARMOURERS *company of the city of London*, were not only incorporated by Henry the Sixth, about the year 1423, by the ſtile or title of the maſter and wardens, brothers and ſiſters, of the fraternity or guild of St. George, of the men of the myſtery of armourers of the city of London; but he likewiſe greatly honoured them by becoming one of their members.

To this company is united that of the braſiers, who are jointly governed by a maſter, 2 wardens and 21 aſſiſtants; together with a livery of 80 members, whoſe fine is 15 l. and to whom belongs a convenient hall in Coleman-ſtreet, where they tranſact their affairs.

ARMS, are all manner of military weapons, offenſive and defenſive; the exportation of which are generally prohibited in trading countries, particularly in France: but the Dutch poſſeſs a conſiderable traffic from the purchaſe and ſale of arms, ammunition, and other warlike ſtores, which they import from Sweden, and ſell in vaſt quantities to moſt other nations; even to their neighbours, without any dread of their turning them againſt Holland; becauſe they are ſenſible, that were they not to receive them from Holland, they might be ſupplied elſewhere, and the Dutch diſappointed of the profits ariſing from this traffic.

ARMUYDEN. A port-town of the United Provinces, ſituated in the iſland of Zealand, at the mouth of the canal of Middleburg, in 3 deg. 35 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

ARNO. A river riſing on the eaſtern confines of Tuſcany, which runs W. quite acroſs that duchy; and, having paſt by Florence, falls into the Tuſcan ſea, below Piſa.

AROMATIC, is underſtood of a drug, or plant, yielding a briſk, fragrant ſmell, and a warm ſpicy taſte; all of which have a tendency towards ſtrengthening the ſtomach and head.

ARON. A village of Perſia, remarkable for its ſilk ſtuffs. See *Perſia*.

ARRACAN. A ſmall kingdom of India. See *India*.

ARRAN. An iſland of Scotland, in the Firth of Clyde, between Cantyre and Cuningham.

ARRAS, formerly *Araxes*, a river which riſes in Georgia, in Aſia, and running S. E. joins the river Kur or Cyrus, the united ſtream diſcharging itſelf into the Caſpian ſea, between the province of Shirvan and Aderbeitzan in Perſia.

ARRAS. The beſt, or richeſt tapeſtry; ſo denominated from Arras, a town in Flanders, the place where it was originally made.

ARREST. The ſtopping or detaining of a perſon, by illegal proceſs, in order to make him pay, or be ſecurity for, a debt; in which ſenſe 'tis alſo applied to the detention of a ſhip.

ARRET. A proclamation, or law, which, among the French, is the ſame with an act of parliament in England.

ARRIVAL, the making of a port by a ſhip.

ARROBE, or *Arobe*, a weight uſed in Spain, Portugal, Goa, and in all parts of Spaniſh America. The Portugueſe uſe it alſo at Brazil, where, as well as at Goa, it is ſometimes called *arate:* but though all theſe arobes are alike in name, they are very different in weight.

The arrobe of Madrid, and of almoſt all the reſt of Spain, excepting Seville, and Cadiz, is 25 Spaniſh pounds; ſo that the common quintal of 4 arrobes, makes about 97 lb. Engliſh weight.

The arrobe of Peru, Chili, and other parts of Spaniſh America, is the ſame with the Spaniſh arrobe of 25 pounds, being uſed for weighing of the herb paraguay, whereof there is ſuch a conſumption, that Peru alone requires 75000 arrobes *per annum*.

The arrobe of Portugal is 32 pounds of Liſbon, and 4 arobes is a quintal, or about 98 lb. Engliſh weight.

ARROE. An iſland of Denmark, ſituated in the Baltic ſea, in 10 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 55 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. a little S. of the iſland of Funen. See *Denmark*.

ARROUGHCAN. An animal, found in Virginia, reſembling the caſtor, except that it feeds, and leaps on trees, like the ſquirrel.

The Engliſh ſet ſome value on its fur, which makes a part of their trade with the neighbouring Indians of this colony.

ARSCHIN. A long meaſure, uſed in China for ſtuffs; being 1 $\frac{5}{8}$ ell Engliſh.

ARSENAL, the public ſtore-houſe for arms and ammunition belonging to the crown, or government, of any fortified town, or city.

ARSENIC. A ponderous mineral ſubſtance, ranked in the claſs of ſulphurs, volatile and uninflammable; which gives a whiteneſs to metals in fuſion, and proves extremely cauſtic, or corroſive, to animals, ſo as to become a violent poiſon: of which there are divers kinds, as yellow or native; red; and cryſtalline or white.

Native, or yellow Arſenic, is of a yellow or orange colour, whence it is alſo denominated auripigmentum, or orpiment, chiefly found in copper mines, in a ſort of glebes, or ſtones, of different figures and ſizes; but the colour, though always yellow, admits of ſeveral ſhades and mixtures, as, a golden yellow, reddiſh yellow, and green yellow. See *Orpiment*.

Red Arſenic, is a preparation of the white, or cryſtalline, made by adding to it a mineral ſulphur, or ſulphurous ſcoria.

White, or cryſtalline Arſenic, is uſually drawn from the native yellow kind, by ſubliming it with a proportion of ſea-ſalt; being the ſpecies chiefly in uſe for real arſenic, which, according to report, is found native in ſome mines in Germany; but white and yellow arſenic are procurable from cobalt, and is practiſed in Hungary.

The

The ſmalleſt quantity of cryſtalline arſenic being mixed with any metal, renders it friable, and abſolutely deſtroys its malleability. Hence the refiners dread nothing ſo much as arſenic in metals; nor could any thing be ſo advantageous to them, were ſuch a thing to be had, as a menſtruum that would abſorb, or act on arſenic alone; for then their metals would be readily purified, without flying off or evaporating.

A ſingle grain of arſenic willl turn a pound of copper into a beautiful ſeeming ſilver; which hint many perſons have endeavoured to improve on for making of ſilver, but in vain, as it could never be brought to ſuſtain the hammer. The chemiſts furniſh ſeveral preparations of arſenic, which all turn, on repeated ablutions and ſublimations, to blunt the corroſive ſalts thereof, and change them into a ſafe medicine, after the manner of ſublimate: ſuch are ruby of arſenic, and the reſt; but it ſcarce appears worth the pains.

Regulus of arſenic is the moſt fixed and compact part thereof, prepared by mixing it with pot-aſhes and ſoap, diſſolving the whole, and caſting it into a mortar, upon which the heavieſt part falls to the bottom.

Cauſtic oil of arſenic is a liquor, like butter of antimony, prepared of arſenic, and corroſive ſublimate, which ſerves to eat off fungous fleſh, and cleanſe carious bones.

ARSENICAL *Magnet.* A preparation of antimony, with ſulphur and white arſenic.

ART. The ſkill or knowledge of doing or performing any thing regularly by proper inſtruments; and differs from a ſcience, which properly is the contemplation of the theory, or abſtracted relation that one thing bears to another; tho' theſe terms are frequently confounded.

ARTA, or *Larta.* A port-town of Epirus in European Turky, ſituated in 22 deg. of E. lon. and 39 deg. of N. lat. on a bay of the Mediterranean, 60 m. N. of Lepanto.

ARTIFICER. A worker at any handicraft-trade, or the practitioner of any mechanic buſineſs.

ARTILLERY. All ſorts of large fire arms, as mortars, cannons, bombs, petards, carbines, and muſquets, both for the military and naval ſervice. See *Ammunition*, *Arms*, and *Founder*.

ARTISAN, or *Artiſt.* One well ſkilled in any art, or a curious workman.

ARUBA. An iſland near the continent of Terra firma in America, ſituated in 69 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 12 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. ſubject to the Dutch. See *Dutch America*, under *United Provinces*.

ARZILLA. A port-town of the empire of Morocco, ſituated in 5 deg. 40 min. of W. lon. and 35 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. being 120 m. N. W. of Fez, and 15 m. S. of Tangier. See *Morocco*.

AS, at Amſterdam, denotes one of the diviſions of the pound advoirdupois weight; 32 aſes make 1 engel, 10 engels make 1 loot, and 32 loots 1 lb.; 100 lb. of Amſterdam being equal to 109½ lb. in London.

ASBESTINE. Aſbeſtine paper, or cloth, reſiſts the conſumption of fire, and receives a purification from it, being made out of the aſbeſtos, or lapis amianthus.

ASBESTOS, or *Lapis Amianthus.* An incombuſtible matter, ſuppoſed to be a kind of flax of the growth of the Pyreneans; which is alſo called *linum vivum*, *linum incombuſtibile.*

The aſbeſtos is, in reality, a kind of native foſſile, capable of being ſeparated into very fine filaments, brittle, yet ſomewhat ſupple; ſilky, and of a greyiſh ſilver colour, not unlike Venice talc; of which filaments may be had of different lengths, from one inch to ten. The ſtone is found within the incloſure of other hard ſtones, and is brought from the Archipelago, the Pyreneans, and Montauban in France; tho' it is alſo produced in Wales and Scotland.

Works of aſbeſtos were formerly highly prized, and of an equal value with thoſe of gold; none but ſovereign monarchs having napkins of this manufacture.

ASCENSION. An African iſland in the Atlantic ocean, ſituated in 17 deg. of W. lon. and 7 deg. of S. lat. lying almoſt in the mid-way between Africa, and Braſil in South

America, and, tho' uninhabited, is of great uſe to the Eaſt India traders that touch here; where they have a commodious harbour, and furniſh themſelves with tortoiſe or turtle on their return from India. See *St. Helena.*

ASCII. A geographical name given to thoſe people who live in the torrid zone, and, at certain times in the year, have no ſhadow, the ſun being vertical to them.

ASCLEPIAS, or white *Contrayerva*, is what botaniſts call hirundinaria, a plant very common in France; the root of it, to which are attributed the ſame virtues of the *contrayerva* of New Spain, is very ſmall, whitiſh, and ſomewhat reſembling that of the *azarum*; but that which is new and plump, with a poignant aromatic taſte, is beſt. See *Contrayerva.*

ASHES. The duſt or powder of wood, coals, or other combuſtible matter, which remains after the primary body is conſumed, by burning, or at leaſt diſſolved in its form, by violently looſening the coheſion of the parts together. They are properly the earth, and fixed ſalts of the fuel, which the fire cannot raiſe; all the other principles being evaporated in ſmoke, and are by the chemiſts denominated *calx.* But there are ſeveral ſorts of aſhes, as pot-aſhes, pearl-aſhes, wood or ſoap aſhes, weed-aſhes, and white-aſhes.

The aſhes of kali and fern are principal ingredients in making glaſs, and teſts for refiners. However, aſhes of other kinds are abundantly uſeful in phyſic, bleaching, and ſugar-works; but particularly in agriculture, making an excellent manure for cold and wet grounds.

Pot-aſhes are properly the lixivious aſhes of certain vegetables, uſed in the making of glaſs and ſoap; ſuch are the herb kali, called alſo ſalt-wort, or glaſs-weed, from its great uſe in glaſs-making. But pot-aſhes are alſo called cineres clavellati, making the baſis of ſalt of tartar, and moſt of the lixivial draughts, as chemiſts of late manage them for cheapneſs. Pot-aſhes is alſo a denomination popularly applied to all kinds of wood-aſhes, mixed together, for the manufacturing of green glaſs: but the beſt Engliſh pot-aſhes are thoſe made of the ſmaller common high-way thiſtle, tho' all thiſtles are good; and fern alſo makes excellent pot-aſhes. The aſhes of the Levant are generally uſed in making of ſoap and cryſtal, being produced from the burning of the rocket, an herb growing about St. John d'Acre and Tripoli in Syria; the former, which is in the greateſt eſtimation, is packed up in grey bags, and thoſe of Tripoli in blue.

The Engliſh and Dutch alſo make a conſiderable commerce of pot-aſhes, which they bring from about the Baltic ſea, uſing great quantities thereof in the preparation of their cloths, for the ſcouring of which thoſe aſhes are found very excellent; but aſhes are alſo reckoned among the commodities of Perſia, Barbary, and Italy.

By the ſtatute of the 2d and 3d of Edw. VI. white-aſhes are prohibited exportation from England, upon forfeiture of 6 s. 8 d. *per* buſhel, on account of their neceſſary uſe in the making of ſoap and ſalt-petre, and the dying and ſcouring of woollen cloth.

The quantity of foreign pot-aſhes annually conſumed in the making of ſoft ſoap in London is about 1400 tons, the value amounting to about 70,000 l. which is paid for in ſpecie; for which reaſon this ſhould have before awakened the attention of the Britiſh legiſlature, in encouraging the manufactory of pot-aſhes in the Britiſh plantations in America, where ſuch an undertaking may be effectually accompliſhed, provided there was no duty on the importation. And this ſeems the more reaſonable, when it is conſidered, that the clearing of lands in America will be a means of rendering it fitter for cultivation; employ a number of ſhips and ſeamen as carriers of this commodity; and it may be reaſonably expected, that, in return, the coloniſts will take off great quantities of the Britiſh manufactures; beſides, by this means Great Britain might reduce the ballance formed againſt her trade with the northern crowns.

For which purpoſe an act of parliament was paſſed in the year 1751, reciting, That the making of pot and pearl aſhes in the Britiſh plantations in America, would be advantageous to the trade of the nation, as great quantities

thereof

thereof were uſed in the making of ſoap, and other manufactures of the kingdom; which being chiefly furniſhed from foreign parts, the ſupply thereof was uncertain, and the price often exorbitant; it was therefore enacted, That the duties payable on pot or pearl aſhes made in and imported from the Britiſh colonies in America, into Great Britain, ſhould ceaſe. That if any perſon ſhould make an entry of any foreign pot or pearl aſhes, as of the product or manufacture of any of the Britiſh colonies or plantations in America, or ſhould mix any foreign pot or pearl aſhes with thoſe of the product or manufacture of the ſaid Britiſh colonies, with intent to evade the duties, he ſhould forfeit 5 l. for every ſuch offence, and all ſuch aſhes; and, in caſe of any mixture, the quantity mixed, both of foreign and Britiſh plantation product, or the value thereof, together with the caſks, or other packages, ſhould be forfeited, and might be ſeized and proſecuted, or the value thereof ſued for by any officer of the cuſtoms.

ASHLAR. A term among builders; by which they mean common or free ſtones, as they come out of the quarry, of different lengths and thickneſſes.

ASIA. One of the four principal diviſions of the terreſtrial globe, and the ſecond in eſtimation, is the moſt extenſive and moſt opulent of the three that compoſed the ancient continent; having its ſituation between 25 and 148 deg. of eaſtern lon. and between the equator and 72 deg. of N. lat. being 4800 miles long, and 4300 broad; bounded by the frozen ocean, or the ſea of Tartary, on the N.; by the Pacific ocean, on the E.; by the Indian ocean, on the S.; and on the W. by the Red ſea, the iſthmus of Suez, the Mediterranean, the Euxine ſea, the Palus Mæotis, the river Don, and a line drawn from that river to the river Tobol, and from thence to the river Oby, which falls into the frozen ocean.

The grand diviſions of Aſia, are, 1. Turky in Aſia; 2. Arabia; 3. Perſia, including part of Armenia, Circaſſia, Mengrelia, and Uſbec Tartary; 4. India within the Ganges, or the Mogulian empire; 5. India beyond the Ganges, comprehending the kingdoms of Acham, Ava, Arracan, Pegu, Siam, Malacca, Laos, Cambodia, Chiampa, Tonquin, and Cochin China; 6. China; 7. Tartary; 8. The Aſiatic iſlands, conſiſting of thoſe iſlands in the Archipelago and Levant, particularly deſcribed under the denomination of the Turkiſh and Venetian iſlands; beſides the oriental iſlands of the Indian ocean, of which the Marian or Ladrone, thoſe of Japan, Formoſa, the Philippines, Moluccos, Banda, Celebes, Sunda, Andoman, Nicobar, Maldivy, Ceylon, and Bombay, are the moſt remarkable; all of which are particularly deſcribed under their reſpective denominations.

Several of the inhabitants of this extenſive continent, eſpecially thoſe inhabiting the interior parts, and thoſe bordering upon the Tartarian ocean, are very imperfectly known to Europeans; the ſubjects of the Czarina being the only people, in theſe uncultivated tracks, acquainted with the nature of the commercial nations, and the advantages of a regulated ſociety; in which they have been receiving continual improvements, ſince the eſtabliſhment of the Ruſſian caravans from Peterſburg to China, by the great Czar Peter Alexowitz, who regulated the progreſs of theſe carriages ſo as to paſs regularly every year through a conſiderable part of thoſe dominions inhabited by a multitude of his rude, ignorant, and unciviliſed ſubjects.

The Europeans carry on a very opulent and advantageous commerce through the more civiliſed and frequented parts of the Aſiatic territories; which commerce was formerly engroſſed by the Venetians, Genoeſe, and other maritime powers in the Mediterranean, who purchaſed the merchandiſe of the eaſt at Alexandria, and the ports of Turky in the Levant, from whence they were diſperſed among the Europeans, by which thoſe maritime powers grew immenſely rich, and amazingly formidable. But the Portugueſe, in the year 1498, having diſcovered the way to India by the Cape of Good Hope, they immediately ſupplanted the commerce of the Venetians, and enjoyed this conſiderable traffic of the Indian continent till the year 1600, when the Engliſh and Dutch began their eſtabliſhments. Theſe three nations, the French, Spaniards, Danes, and Swedes, have ſeveral ſettlements and factories in different parts of the Aſiatic dominions; where they carry on ſuch a beneficial commerce, as ſerves to enrich all their private companies, and to convey many emoluments among the whole communities of their reſpective countries.

The principal commodities of Aſia are diamonds, and other precious ſtones, pearls, gold and ſilver, amber, gum, ſpices, drugs, fruits, grain, oil, arrack, opium, manufactures of ſilk and cotton, woollen and linen, wrought ſilk, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, raw ſilk, ſkins, and furs, China and Japan ware, carpets, camblets, muſlin, and calicoes. See *Eaſt India company*, and *Turky company*.

ASLANI, called alſo, but ſomewhat improperly, *aſſelani*, is the dollar, or Dutch piaſter, of great currency in all the ports of the Levant; for the Turks, who call a lion aſlani, give it this name upon account of its having a lion impreſſed on both ſides.

There are two ſorts of aſlani, that of Holland, and that ſtruck at Inſpruck. The Dutch piaſter is not only of a worſe ſtandard than that of Inſpruck, but if Sir John Chardin, ſo remarkable for his travels, and the agreeable and exact relations he has given of them is to be credited, the coin brought by the Dutch to the Levant has a conſiderable mixture of falſe pieces; and eſpecially their quarter-piaſters are wholly ſpurious, or have only one half of fine ſilver. But the Arabs, who take the lion for a dog, call them abukeſb; and the aſlani is worth about 120 aſpers, or 5 s. ſterling.

ASOPH. A city of Coban Tartary in Aſia, ſituated in 44 deg. of E. lon. and 47 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. near the mouth of the river Don.

ASPALATH, is the wood of a tree uſed in pharmacy; of which there are three ſorts; the firſt is blackiſh, and thought, with ſome foundation, to be nothing elſe than eagle-wood, whoſe ſcent is exceeding ſtrong. The ſecond is the wood of a ſmall thorny tree, heavy, and oleaginous; in taſte, ſharp and bitter; in ſmell, ſomewhat aromatic; in colour, purpled and variegated; it borders upon the virtues, ſmell, taſte, weight, and figure of aloes wood, and in the compoſition of medicaments they are frequently ſubſtituted for one another. The third is roſe-wood, which ſome confound with cypreſs.

Some naturaliſts add a fourth kind of aſpalath, whoſe bark is aſh-coloured, and the wood red: its ſcent, which is extremely ſtrong, affects the ſmell like caſtoreum; it ſhoots like the vine, and is ſomewhat prickly.

Several plants go under the ſame denomination, tho' they are a ſpecies of what is called *geniſta ſpartium*.

ASPER. A ſmall ſilver coin, current in all the ſtates of the Grand Signior, and worth about a halfpenny ſterling.

ASPHALTUM, or *Jewiſh Bitumen*, is ſo called from the lake Aſphaltites, or Dead ſea, in Judea; which riſes up in the nature of a liquid pitch, and floats upon the ſurface of the water like other oleaginous bodies, and is condenſed by degrees through the heat of the ſun, and its own ſalt.

The Jews formerly uſed it to embalm their dead; the Arabs gather it for pitching their ſhips; but Europeans uſe it in ſeveral medicinal compoſitions, eſpecially in Theriaca or Venice treacle; as alſo for a fine black varniſh, in imitation of that of China.

Aſphaltum is of a ſhining black, and ſo like the black pitch of Stockholm, that nothing but the bad ſmell of this pitch, and the hardneſs of aſphaltum, can ſhew the difference. It is adulterated ſometimes by a mixture of pitch, and this is what is called artificial piſaſphaltum: but it is alſo by the ſtench, and naſty blackneſs of this drug, that its cheat is diſcovered.

ASPHALTUM is likewiſe a kind of ſtone, or mineral matter, found in the valley of Lydim in Aſia, near the antient Babylon; and it has been lately diſcovered in the county of Neufchatel in Switzerland.

This mineral has ſeveral properties: mixed with other matters, it makes an excellent cement, incorruptible by air, and impenetrable by water; and from it an oil may be extracted, which preſerves ſhips from the detriment of water or worms, and much better than the ordinary compoſition.

ASPIC. A plant of the growth of Languedoc, Provence, and

and especially of the mountain of St. Baume in France, resembling garden lavender, and is called by botanists *lavendula mas*, *Spica nardi*, *Nardus Italica*, or *Pseudonardus*.

Oil of aspic extracted from the leaves and flowers of this plant, is inflammable, and chiefly in use among painters and farriers.

The true oil of aspics is white, and of an aromatic smell. It is the best dissolvent of sandarach; and thus it is easily distinguished from the counterfeit, which is only oil of turpentine, mixed with a small quantity of oil of petrol.

ASSA *dulcis*. A name sometimes given to benjoyn, or benzoin. See *Benzoin*.

ASSA-*fœtida*. A gum that filtrates, in the heat of summer, from a little shrub growing in India, Persia, Media, Assyria, and Arabia: tho' naturalists say, that the Persian distills from a tree which has leaves similar to those of a raddish.

This gum is first of a whitish colour, inclining to yellow, afterwards to red, and finally to violet. The offensive smell of it occasioned it to be called by the name of devil's dung. It is generally in lumps, and its goodness is discoverable from its colour and smell: a supportable smell and clear colour are the marks of its good qualities; but a black hue, and strong stench, denote the reverse.

Its chief use is amongst farriers; tho' it may likewise be of service in uterine disorders, and other medicinal cases.

ASSARABACCA. A plant whose leaves were formerly used as an emetic and cathartic; but its chief use is now to make snuff.

ASSAY. To examine, prove, or try a matter very exactly; as to assay silver or gold, is to melt a part of the whole mass or ingot in a very strong fire; which being weighed before put into the copple or melting-pot very exactly, and also after it comes out, the fineness of the whole is judged by this assay; for what is lost by this part so tried, is proportioned to the whole, which is accordingly pronounced more or less fine, as it loses more or less in the assay.

The assay of weights and measures is an examination of them by a proper officer called the *clerk of the market*, by weighing or measuring them with such as are very nicely adjusted, according to the custom of the place or standard appointed by statute. See *Coining*; as also *Gold* and *Silver*.

ASSAYER. An officer of the mint, established for the trial of gold and silver.

ASSESSMENT. A taxation, rating, or proportioning.

ASSETS. The effects of a deceased person, wherewith the heir or executor is to satisfy his debts.

ASSIENTIST. One that had a part in the stock of the Assiento company.

ASSIENTO. By this word is understood a company of commerce established for furnishing the Spanish dominions in America with negro-slaves, the word being originally Spanish, and signifying a farm. The first Assiento was a treaty, or contract, between the King of Spain, and the French Guinea company, whereby the latter were put in possession of this privilege, in consideration of a certain duty they were to pay his most Catholic Majesty for every negro thus furnished.

This contract of the French company, consisting of 34 articles, was signed the first of December 1702, and was to continue ten years; but with this clause, that the Assientists should be allowed two years more for the entire execution of what was stipulated for.

Among these articles, there were two principal ones; the first regarded the necessary complement of slaves, the second the duty to be paid to the King of Spain during the time of the Assiento; the complement of negroes was to be 3800 yearly, during the continuance of the war about the Spanish succession, and 4800 in time of peace; the duty was fixed at 33 piasters, and one third for every negro; of which the company previously advanced the greater part.

The peace of Utrecht, whereby Philip V. was acknowledged King of Spain, having terminated the war, and one of the articles of the treaty between France and England being the cession of the Assiento in favour of the latter, the Spaniards treated with the English for the furnishing of negroes.

This treaty, which was in several articles similar to that of the French company, but in several others much more to the advantage of the English Assientists, was to commence the 1st of May 1713, and terminate the 1st of May 1743.

The South Sea company undertook to supply Spanish America with negroes. The number the company was to send yearly was fixed to the amount of 4800, for which the same duty was to be paid as had been settled with the French, unless more than the stipulated number was imported, and then during the 25 first years, only half the duty was to be paid for the surplus.

The 42d article of this treaty, which was the last and most considerable of all, was not included in the treaty with the French; for this article permitted the English Assientists to send into the ports of Spanish America, every year the treaty was to subsist, a ship of 500 tons, laden with the same commodities the Spaniards usually send there, with a licence to vend the same conjointly with them at the fairs of Porto-Bello and Vera Cruz; which was a concession diametrically opposite to the antient policy, and usual jealousy, of the Spaniards, with regard to their American commerce.

Five new articles were afterwards added to this treaty of the English Assiento, for an explanation of some of the old ones. The first imported, that the execution of the treaty should not be reckoned to commence till the year 1714; the second, that the English should be allowed to send their ship yearly, though the Flota, or the Spanish galleons, should not sail for America; the third, that the ten first years this vessel might carry 650 tons; the two last, that the commodities that might remain after the sale of the negroes should be sent to Europe, after the slaves had been landed at Buenos Ayres; and, if their destination was for Porto-Bello, Vera Cruz, Carthagena, and other ports of Spanish America, they should be transmitted to the Antilles, and none of them to the South Sea.

However, on the commencement of the last war with Spain, the English Assientists were deprived of four years enjoyment of their trade, which was afterwards entirely relinquished, in prejudice of the company, by a convention between the two crowns subsequent to the definitive treaty of peace, on condition that the Spanish monarch should pay what was due to the Assientists on account of the detention of their ship in the year 1726. See *Treaty*.

ASSIGNEE. A person to whom any thing is transferred, which may be either by deed, or by law; by deed, when the lessee of a term sells, or assigns, by deed, his right or interest in an estate; and in law, an executor is called the assignee of the deceased. In cases of bankruptcy, assignees are persons chosen from among the principal creditors of the bankrupt, to take care of his estate, effects, and debts, and to see them disposed of to the best advantage, for the common interest of all concerned. See *Bankrupt*.

ASSIGNMENT. A transferring, or making over any thing that is the property of one person, to the use, benefit, and property of another.

ASSISTANT. One who aids, encourages, or any way promotes the doing of a thing. In civil affairs, particularly in the management of public companies, there are commonly a governor, deputy-governor, and more or less assistants, according to the charter of the company, who ordinarily have the whole power of managing all affairs belonging to the common concerns of the company; but are, for the most part, to lay all extraordinary matters before a general meeting of the proprietors, commonly called a general court, for their consent and approbation.

ASSISE. An ordinance, or statute, regulating the weight, size, or dimensions of certain commodities. Thus the antient statute of bread and ale, is termed the assize of bread and ale; but assise is further used for the scantling, or quantity, prescribed by the statute; as when wheat is of such or such a price, bread shall be of such an assise.

ASSISER of weights and measures, is an officer who inspects into these matters.

ASSOCIATION. A treaty, or contract, whereby two or more perſons unite together to act in common, and put themſelves in a condition to carry on a more extenſive commerce. See *Partnerſhip*.

ASSORA-BUND. One of the ſix ſorts of ſilks, manufactured in the ſtates of the Mogul.

ASSOROU, is the name whereby the Indians call the wood known in Europe by the name of Indian wood.

ASSOS. A port-town of Natolia in the Leſſer Aſia, ſituated on a bay of the Egean ſea, in 27 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 38 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. See *Turky*.

ASSUMPSIT, in law, a voluntary promiſe to do or pay a thing to or for another.

ASSURANCE. A ſecurity, or poſitive promiſe, or engagement. See *Inſurance*.

ASSYRIA. See *Perſia*, and *Aſiatic Turky*.

ASTRACAN. A good ſea-port, and capital of the kingdom of Aſtracan, ſituated in 52 deg. of E. lon. and 47 deg. of N. lat. on the eaſtern ſhore of the river Volga, 80 m. N. of the Caſpian ſea. See *Ruſſia*.

ASTROLABE. An inſtrument to take the altitude, or heighth of the ſun or ſtars.

ASTRONOMY. A ſcience that teaches the motions, diſtances, magnitudes, periods, and eclipſes, of the celeſtial bodies.

ATCHE. The ſmalleſt coin that is ſtruck and current in the ſtates of the Grand Signior, being of ſilver, and worth about $\frac{2}{7}$ of a farthing.

Theſe atches, or ſmall aſpers, as ſome call them, reſemble pretty much the ſpangles of tinſel, uſed formerly to ſet off gold, and ſilver embroidery; but they are ſomewhat ſtronger and longer, and are marked as the para with Arabian characters, three or four of them being uſually given for a para.

ATLANTIC, or *Weſtern Ocean*, is that which paſſes between Africa and America, dividing the eaſtern and weſtern continents, ſo denominated from Mount Atlas, and is 3000 miles wide. See *Ocean*.

ATLAS. A ſilk ſatin manufactured in the Eaſt Indies; whereof ſome are plain, ſtriped, and flowered; the flowers being either of gold, or ſilk only, and others of all ſorts of colours; but for the general part falſe, eſpecially the red and crimſon.

It muſt be confeſſed that the manufacture is admirable and ſingular, particularly in the flowered atlaſſes, the gold and ſilk being employed therein after a manner inimitable by Europeans, yet far ſhort of the fine gloſs and luſtre the Engliſh and French know to give their ſilk ſtuffs.

Among the different kinds of atlaſſes, the moſt conſiderable are the cotonis, the cancanias, the calquiers, the cotonis bouilles, and the bouilles chaſmay, or carmay. The cotonis atlaſſes are ſo called, becauſe the ground is cotton, and the reſt ſilk; the cancanias are ſtriped ſatins; thoſe that appear moſt ſilky are called quemkas; the calquiers are ſatins after the Turkiſh manner, or Hungary point; the bouilles cotonis, and bouilles charmay, are ſilk ſtuffs, like the partridge-eye-coloured grograms made at Tours.

There are atlaſſes of different lengths and breadths, being from 4 ells $\frac{1}{8}$ long and $\frac{2}{3}$ broad, to 14 ells long and $\frac{9}{16}$ broad: but thoſe that come near the half of the uſual lengths, are called half pieces.

ATTEST. To witneſs, vouch, or certify in writing to the due execution of any inſtrument in writing.

ATTORNEY. A perſon authoriſed by another to do ſome legal act in his ſtead; ſuch as to give ſeiſin of lands, receive debts, to ſue a third perſon, and ſeveral other particulars. See *Letter of attorney*.

ATTORNEY *at law*, is conſidered as a gentleman, whoſe buſineſs conſiſts in drawing and preparing all inſtruments and deeds in writing, regarding the ſecurity of private property; as alſo in tranſacting and conducting all proceedings in the ſeveral courts of judicature.

AVA. A kingdom of India, beyond the Ganges, ſituated on the N. E. part of the bay of Bengal. See *India*.

AVARIA, in the Turkiſh and Perſian dominions, is a ſum of money exacted from chriſtians or Europeans, to be quit of ſome falſe accuſation, framed on purpoſe for extortion.

AVAST. A ſea-term, ſignifying ſtay, or hold ſtill.

AUCTION. A public ſale, where goods are put up at a certain price, for which the purchaſers bid according to the conditions of ſale, and in which the higheſt bidder is the buyer.

AUCTIONEER. The manager of the ſale and goods at an auction.

AUDE. A river of France riſing in the Pyrennees; which running N. of Alet in Rouſſillon, viſits Carcaſſone; and running from thence W. through Languedoc, falls into the Mediterranean, a little N. E. of Narbonne.

AUDIT. A regular hearing and examining of an accompt by officers appointed for that purpoſe.

AUDITOR, in the above ſenſe, is a name given to ſeveral officers, appointed to audit accounts and pleadings: but anciently the word auditor was uſed for judge; it was even uſed for an inquiſitor, appointed by judges to examine and find out the truth of ſome matter in conteſt; and notaries are alſo frequently called auditors.

AUDITOR, in the Engliſh law, is an officer of the king, or ſome other great perſon, who yearly, by examining the accounts of under officers accountable, makes up a general book, with the difference between the receipts and charge, and their allowances or allocations.

AUDITORS *of the revenue*, or of the exchequer, are officers who take the accounts of ſuch as collect the revenues, and taxes, raiſed by parliament; as alſo of the ſheriffs, eſcheators, collectors, tenants, and cuſtomers, and ſet them down, and perfect them. See *Exchequer*.

AUDITORS *of the preſt*, or impreſt, are officers in the exchequer, who take and make up the great accounts of Ireland, Berwick, the mint, cuſtoms, wardrobe, firſt fruits, naval and military expences, and all monies impreſſed to any man for the king's ſervice.

AUDITOR *of the receipts*, is an officer of the exchequer, who files the tellers bills, and makes an entry of them, and gives the lords of the treaſury a certificate of the money received the week before, who preſent the eſtimate or balance to the king: he alſo makes debentures to every teller, before they receive any money, and takes their accompts; he keeps the black book of receipts, and the treaſurer's key of the treaſury, where the ancient leagues of the realm, and many records of the king's bench and common pleas are repoſited; and he ſees the money belonging to every teller locked up in the royal treaſury.

AVEIRO. A port-town of Portugal, ſituated at the mouth of the river Vouga, in 9 deg. 2 min of W. lon. and 40 deg. 32 min. of N. lat. See *Portugal*.

AVERAGE, or *Averidge*, a term in navigation and commerce, for the damage which ſhips or their cargoes ſuſtain, from the time of their departure to their return; as alſo for the charge, or contributions, raiſed on the proprietors towards defraying ſuch damages.

Average is either ſimple or private, and groſs or common: to the firſt, the particular things which ſuffer alone contribute; but to the ſecond, all, both ſhip and merchandizes, contribute in common. Of the firſt kind are all extraordinary and unforeſeen expences, befalling either the ſhip or goods, or both; the loſs, in which caſes, is to be totally defrayed by the thing or things which occaſioned it: ſuch as the loſs of cables, anchors, maſts, and ſails, by reaſon of ſtorms or other accidents; as alſo damages accruing to goods through their own defects, by waſting, rotting, ſtorms, pirates, or other contingencies; beſides the mariners wages while the ſhip is extraordinarily detained by embargoes, provided ſhe be hired for the whole voyage, and not by the month; all theſe being ſimple or private averages, and not to be charged to the common account. For groſs, or common average to have place, ſeveral things are requiſite; 1ſt, ſomething muſt have been caſt into the ſea out of abſolute neceſſity; 2d, the commanders muſt have had the conſent of the owners for ſo doing; 3d, it ſhould have only been done for the ſecurity of the whole ſhip, which muſt have been ſaved in conſequence thereof; for, in ſuch caſe, all thoſe for whoſe intereſt the thing was caſt into the ſea, are to contribute towards the indemnization of the perſon whoſe property it was; and every thing is to be taxed proportionably, ſo much as jewels, gold, or any other leſs portable commodity, notwithſtanding they are no way burdenſome to the ſhip: even

the veſſel itſelf is liable to this taxation; as alſo are the maſter and paſſengers, for ſuch things as they have in the ſhip; but the proviſions are excepted.

By the laws of Oleron, when there is an extreme neceſſity, in a ſtorm, the goods, wares, guns, or whatſoever elſe is on board a ſhip, may, by conſulting the mariners, be thrown overboard by the maſter, for the preſervation of the ſhip; and, if they diſſent, the maſter may notwithſtanding command the caſting overboard what goods or things he ſhall judge moſt neceſſary, for the ſecurity of the reſt, in caſe the ſtorm and danger continue: but, if there be a merchant, or ſuper-cargoe, aboard, he ſhould begin firſt to throw the things overboard, if requeſted; and then the mariners ſhall anſwer double for embezzling to their own uſe any part of that which ſhould be thrown over; and if the merchant refuſes, yet the maſter and mariners may proceed without them; though they muſt take care, that things of the leaſt value, and greateſt weight be flung overboard: but if the ſhip happens to out-weather the ſtorm, and makes a ſafe arrival at her port of diſcharge, the maſter, and the principal part of the crew, when they come to land, are to make oath that the goods were caſt over board for no other cauſe than the ſecurity of the ſhip; upon which the remainder of the goods that have obtained ſafety, whether they pay freight or not, muſt come into the average.

Many opinions have been held regarding the cuſtom of average; but the goods caſt over-board make no derelict, ſo as to be forſaken, or wilfully caſt away. If theſe goods are ſhipped aboard in England, and ſuch goods are taken up by another Engliſh ſhip at ſea, an action lies to recover the goods: ſo where any goods are thrown overboard, and afterwards recovered again, the average ceaſes; ſaving for ſo much as they ſhall be damnified, by reaſon of ſuch ejectment: but if, before the goods happen to be recovered, the owner hath an average, he ought to reſtore the money to thoſe who paid him, deducting for the loſs he may ſuſtain by his merchandiſe being damaged.

By the Rhodian laws, if a ſhip or veſſel, be indiſcreetly ſtowed with goods, or the lading is above the birth-mark, and an ejection happens, no contribution ſhall be made; but ſatisfaction is to be anſwered by the ſhip-maſter or owners. Where goods, or merchandiſes, are laden above the overlope of the ſhip, or prohibited goods are put on board, and ſuch goods occaſion any danger or damage, the maſter muſt bear the loſs: beſides, if the maſter having received his complement of goods, takes in things without permiſſion of the freighters, and a ſtorm ariſes at ſea, in which part of their goods are thrown overboard, the maſter only muſt anſwer it, and there will be no average: alſo for goods brought ſeverally into the ſhip, without the knowledge of the maſter or purſer, if they are ejected no contribution is to be had.

If a ſhip is taken at ſea, and the maſter, to obtain repoſſeſſion of the ſhip and lading out of the enemies hands, engages to pay a ſum of money for the ranſome; for the performance whereof he puts himſelf, as a ſecurity, into the cuſtody of the captor; the maſter muſt procure his redemption at the coſts and charges of the ſhip and lading, according to the intereſt of every man, by contribution: alſo if goods are taken by an enemy, or by letters of marque and repriſal, the remainder is liable to average and contribution.

If two ſhips happen to ſtrike againſt each other, whereby damage is received, and if there be no fault or miſcarriage in either, contribution is to be made by a juſt equality, as it happened accidentally; but if there be a fault or miſcarriage on either ſide, it is otherwiſe, for then a full ſatisfaction muſt be made the merchant injured; though if one ſhip periſhes the loſs cannot be proportioned; ſo that there can be no contribution: for if this were to be thrown into an average, it might be productive of fraudulent deſigns. However, this does not prevent the owners of a ſuffering ſhip, from bringing their action againſt the negligent maſter of the other, to recover damage.

As the common law looks upon the goods and cargoe of a ſhip to be a ſecurity for the freight due, ſo the maritime law adjudges them as a ſecurity for anſwering the average and contribution, and that the maſter ought not to deliver the goods till a contribution is ſettled; the ſame being tacitly obliged for the one as well as the other.

After a general ſhipwreck there is no average, but ſave who ſave can, as is vulgarly ſaid on this occaſion.

AVERAGE, is more particularly uſed for the quota, or proportion, which each merchant or proprietor in the ſhip, or loading, is adjudged, upon a reaſonable eſtimation, to contribute to a common average; which ſum is to be divided, among the ſeveral claimants, in proportion to their reſpective intereſts and demands.

AVERAGE, is alſo a ſmall duty which thoſe merchants, who ſend goods in the ſhips of another perſon, pay to the maſters thereof for their care of them, excluſive of the freight.

AVERANCE. A port-town of Normandy in France, ſituated in 1 deg. 20 min. of W. lon. and 48 deg. 40 min. of N. lat.

AVES. Some ſmall iſlands belonging to the Dutch, on the coaſt of Terra Firma, in S. America.

AUGUSTA, or *Auſta*. An iſland in the gulph of Venice, on the coaſt of Dalmatia. See *Italian Iſlands*.

AUGUSTIN, the capital of Spaniſh Florida, in America, ſituated near the frontier of Georgia, in 81 deg. of W. lon and 30 deg. of N. lat. See *Spaniſh America*.

AUGUSTIN *cape*, is ſituated in Brazil, in S America, on the Atlantic ocean, 300 m. E. of the Bay of All Saints.

AVIGNON *berry*, is the fruit of a ſhrub, by ſome authors called *Lycium*, growing plentifully near Avignon in France, being ſomewhat leſs than a pea, of a green colour, inclining to yellow, of an aſtringent and bitter taſte, and much uſed by dyers, who ſtain a yellow colour with it; as alſo by painters, who make out of it a fine golden yellow.

AVILES. A port-town of the province of Aſturia, in Spain, ſituated in 6 deg. 48 min. of W. lon. and 43 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

AVISO, is an Italian word, uſed in mercantile affairs, for intelligence or advice; but is now generally applied to a ſmall ſhip, called the *aviſo*, diſpatched by the Spaniſh commanders from Vera Cruz, or other parts of S. America, to the miniſtry of Madrid, with letters of information of the departure of the galleons, or regiſter ſhips, on their voyage to Europe. See *Regiſter Ships*.

AUME. See *Awm*.

AUNCEL *weight*, an ancient kind of balance, now diſuſed upon account of the fraudulent practices commited by it.

AVON. A river in England that riſes in Wiltſhire, and running W. by Bath, where it becomes navigable, continues its courſe to Briſtol, falling into the Severn a little below that city.

AVON, is alſo another river in England, riſing in Leiceſterſhire, which runs S. W. of Warwick, continues the ſame courſe to Eveſham, and falls into the Severn at Tewksbury in Glouceſterſhire.

AVOIRDUPOIS *weight*. A certain method of weighing ſuch ſort of goods as are ſubject to droſs or waſte; and now the common weight generally uſed for moſt ſorts of large and coarſe commodities, in which 16 ounces are reckoned to a pound.

AURAY, or *Avray*. A port-town of Britanny in France, ſituated in 2 deg. 45 min. of W. lon. and 47 deg. 40 min. of N. lat.

AURICHALCUM, among modern writers, denotes a factitious metal, popularly called *braſs*, which is a mixture of copper and calamine ſtone, melted together by a very vehement fire, in furnaces made on purpoſe. See *Braſs*.

AURIPIGMENTUM. See *Arſenic and Orpiment*.

AURUM, in natural hiſtory, denotes gold, and is chiefly uſed to denote certain chemical preparations, whereof gold is the baſis or principal ingredient; ſuch as the aurum potabile, aurum fulminans, &c.

AURUM *fulminans*, is a preparation of gold, of ſome uſe in phyſic, being ſo called, becauſe, when caſt in the fire, it produces a noiſe like thunder. It conſiſts of gold diſſolved in aqua regia, and precipitated by oil of tartar *per deliquium*, or volatile ſalt of ſal ammoniac: the powder being waſhed in warm water, and dried to the conſiſtence of a paſte, is afterwards formed into little grains, of the bigneſs of hemp-ſeed, which have much more force, and take fire ſooner than gun-powder.

AURUM *moſaicam*, or *Muſicum*, a preparation in pharmacy, ſo called from its golden colour; being made of mercury, tin, ſal armoniac, and flowers of ſulphur, by grinding, mixing, and ſetting them three hours in a ſand heat; when the dirty ſublimate being taken off, the aurum moſaicum is found at the bottom of the matraſs, and is recommended in moſt chronical and nervous caſes.

AURUM *potabile*, potable gold, is a compoſition made of gold, by reducing it, without any corroſive, into a kind of glue, of the colour of blood; which being ſteeped in ſpirit of wine, acquires a ruby colour, and is called tincture of gold.

An ounce of this tincture, mixed with 16 ounces of another liquor, is called *aurum potabile*, becauſe of its gold colour, and is ſaid to be a ſovereign remedy againſt ſeveral diſeaſes.

AUSERON. A Perſian drug, which the Europeans bring from the Eaſt Indies by the way of Surat, being ſcarce and valuable.

AUSTRIA. A circle of Germany. See *Germany*.

AUSTRIAN *Netherlands*. See *Netherlands*.

AUTOUR. A kind of bark uſed in the compoſition of carmine, being ſomewhat like cinnamon, except that it is paler on the outſide, and within of a nutmeg colour, but variegated with ſhining particles: it is very light, ſpongy, of an almoſt inſipid taſte, without ſcent, and is brought from the Levant.

AWARD, the deciſion, or judgment, made by arbitrators, or their umpire, choſen or appointed, to ſettle a matter that was in diſpute. See *Arbitrator*.

AWM, *Aume*, *Aam*, or *Haam*, a Dutch meaſure of capacity for liquids, containing 8 ſtekans, or 20 verges or verteels, anſwering to what in Engliſh is called a *tierce*, or $\frac{1}{7}$ of an Engliſh ton.

AWNING. The covering of a boat, or part of a ſhip, eſpecially the window of the captain's cabin, to keep off the wind, ſun, or rain.

AXIM. A town on the gold coaſt of Guinea, ſituated in 4 deg. of W. lon. and 5 deg. of N. lat. where the Dutch have a fort, and factory, called St. Antony.

AXUNGIA, otherwiſe *Axongia*, a kind of fat, being the ſofteſt and moiſteſt found in animal bodies: the axungia of ducks, geeſe, vipers, and ſeveral other animals, is uſed in phyſic; but that of man is beſt, when well prepared with aromatic herbs, to diſſolve humours and eaſe rheumatick pains.

AXUNGIA, is alſo the gall, or ſalt of glaſs, or rather the ſcum that riſes upon glaſs before vitrification.

AYAMONTE'. A port-town of Andaluſia in Spain, ſituated in 8 deg. 5 min. of W. lon. and 37 deg. of N. lat. near the mouth of the river Guadiana.

AZARIA. A kind of coral brought from Smyrna. See *Coral*.

AZARIMST. A ſtone, having the ſame virtue with the terra ſigillata, and extracted from a mine in the kingdom of Cananor; being uſed as a remedy in the fever, the bloody flux, and to expel the malignity of ſerpents bites.

AZARINA. A kind of azarum, or wild ſpikenard.

AZARUM, vulgarly called wild *nardus*, is a root which grows in ſeveral parts of the Levant, Canada, and even of France, in the neighbourhood of Lyons, which was formerly but little known; though now it is much uſed, ſince farriers by experience have diſcovered, that it exceeds all other drugs in curing the farcy in horſes, when given them in powder from one ounce to two.

The true choice of the azarum ſhould be that of the Levant, if poſſible; the roots neither fibrous nor bruiſed; of a grey-colour within and without, and a briſk ſmell, with a bitteriſh taſte.

Some druggiſts have endeavoured to ſubſtitute azarina inſtead of the true azarum, but the counterfeit is eaſily diſcovered; for azarina is uſually brought from Burgundy in France; its roots being very ſmall, blackiſh, dry, and ſo abounding with filaments that the true roots can ſcarcely be diſtinguiſhed.

AZIMUTH *Compaſs*. See *Compaſs*.

AZOGUE *ſhips*, are properly two Spaniſh men of war of the line, and a frigate, employed in conveying the flota from Europe to New Spain, which are only permitted to carry quick-ſilver, fruits, ſpices, and iron, which produce his moſt catholic Majeſty the neat profits of 100,000 dollars, after payment of all the coſts and charges for equipping them out; proviſion, wages, and other charges, which has been calculated to amount to 345,544 piaſtres, or 77,997 l. 8 s. 6 d. ſterling.

AZORES *Iſlands*, called alſo the *Terceres*, and weſtern iſlands, are ſubject to the crown of Portugal, lying in the weſtern or Atlantic ocean, between 25 and 33 deg. of W. lon. and between 37 and 40 deg. of N. lat. 300 leagues W. of Portugal, and as many from Newfoundland; being almoſt in the mid-way between Europe and America.

Theſe iſlands are nine in number, as following; Flores, Corvo, Fayal, Pico, St. George, Graciоſa, St. Mary, St Michael, and Tercera; which were diſcovered in 1439, by the Portugueſe, who, finding them uninhabited, and fit for cultivation, immediately eſtabliſhed ſome colonies there; but more particularly on account of their commodious ſituation for their navigation to and from the Eaſt Indies and Brazil.

Tercera is eſteemed the principal of all the Azores, on account of its having a tolerable good harbour, and being the ſeat of the governor; though it is not ſo large as St. Michael, being no more than 18 or 20 leagues in circumference; however, it is more populous, containing about 20,000 inhabitants. It is pretty much encumbered with rocks and mountains, but affords plenty of good corn and paſture; an excellent breed of cattle, and a tolerable kind of wine: it alſo yields large quantities of citrons, oranges, and lemons; as alſo ſome confectionary goods, woad, and leather. The chief town is called Agra, which is ſituated on a bay of the ſea, that forms the harbour on the S. ſide of the iſland, being defended by a caſtle ſituated on a rock at the entrance of the bay. This town is a biſhop's ſee, where the Britiſh, French and Dutch nations have their reſpective conſuls.

St. Michael's is the largeſt of all theſe iſlands, being about 30 leagues in circumference. It produces corn, fruits, cattle, fiſh, and fowl; as alſo a thin wine: but it has no harbour, nor ſhelter for ſhips; though it has ſeveral towns and villages well inhabited, of which the principal is Punta del Gado.

St. Mary's is a ſmall iſland to the ſouthward of St. Michael's, and produces much the ſame animals and vegetables. It is well cultivated and inhabited; having alſo a manufactory of earthern ware, with which they ſupply the adjacent iſlands.

The other iſlands produce all kinds of grain, fruits, paſture, and cattle; as alſo cedars, and other timber.

Woollen and linen cloths, ſtuffs, oil and ſalt, are ſent to the Azores, which abſolutely want the two laſt articles, though productive of all the other neceſſaries of life.

And Great Britain ſupplies thoſe iſlands with ſtuffs, wool, iron, ſalt-fiſh, cheeſe, butter, and ſalt-meat in barrels.

AZUM. A port of Abyſſinia in the Red ſea.

AZURE. A mineral ſtone, commonly called *lapis*, or *lapis lazuli*, which has been held to be the marcaſite of gold, becauſe found in the mines of this metal, and ſometimes variegated with brilliant particles and veins like gold: but, notwithſtanding it is alſo met with in mines of ſilver, and copper. It is certain that it has more of the nature and quality of marble than of the marcaſite: its colour being of a pretty deep blue, but very beautiful and vivid; which is found in ſeveral parts of Europe: but the moſt beautiful and precious ſort comes from Perſia, and the Eaſt Indies. See *Lapis Lazuli*.

Gold-ſmiths, lapidaries, and artiſts in inlaid-work with precious ſtones, uſe it for ſeveral kinds of workmanſhip; but its moſt ordinary uſe is for making *ultramarine*, which is a blue in great eſtimation among painters, and ſold as a very valuable commodity. See *Ultramarine*.

The azure-ſtone, or lapis lazuli, to be of a good quality, and proper for making ultramarine, ſhould be heavy, little mixed with rock, having veins of copper, and of a deep blue, inclining to that of fine indigo. Care ſhould be taken of its not being rubbed with oil of olives, which makes it appear of a deeper blue than it would naturally be, and this impoſition may be diſcovered by breaking it, when if the colour be found, paler within than without,

it is a ſufficient ſign that it has been falſified: whether the azure-ſtone is of a good quality, might be alſo known by heating it in the fire till it reddens; which, far from changing its colour, gives it, on the contrary, a new luſtre. There is another ſort of azure, or lapis lazuli, very common in France, whoſe colour inclines to green, being chiefly found in Provence, and the neighbourhood of Toulon; but its quality is much inferior to that which comes from Perſia and India, being in no reſpect proper for the making of good ultra-marine

AZURE *in ſtone*, or ſmalt, otherwiſe falſe, or compound lapis, is a vitrification, or enamel, made of tin, ſolder of Alicant, gravelled aſhes, fine ſand, and zafre; but it is this laſt ingredient that gives it the blue colour reſembling that of the real azure-ſtone.

AZURE *in powder*, to which alſo the name of aſhes of azure, or enamel, is given, is nothing elſe but pulverized ſmalt, brought from ſeveral parts, eſpecially Germany and Holland; but the latter is more valuable, becauſe its blue inclines more to the ultra-marine; for which reaſon it is called the common, or Dutch *ultra-marine*. To prevent any miſtake or impoſition, in the choice of good azure in powder, care ſhould be taken that the azure of Germany is ſandy, well grained, and as deep in colour as poſſible; but the finer and paler the azure of Holland is the more it is eſteemed; for tho' its colour is apparently loſt in the pulverization, it makes a very fine blue when uſed by the limner.

There is another kind of German azure, which is a tincture gathered neatly from the tops of ſtones in ſilver mines. There is likewiſe a factitious azure, made with indigo, or the juice of violets, mingled and pounded with a certain chalk: the common ſort being made with ſal armoniac, and ſilver-leaf; or with ſulphur, quick-ſilver, and ſal armoniac.

BAAT, is a weight among the Siamese, being about half an ounce.

BAB, or *Babel-mandel*, is an island at the entrance into the Red sea, and forms one side of the famous streight of Babel, or Bab-mandel. It is situated in 44 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 13 deg. of N. lat. being about five miles in circumference. The Ethiopians and Arabians formerly contended, with great fury, for the possession of this island, which was then a place of much importance, as it commanded the entrance into the Red sea, and preserved a communication between Ethiopia and Arabia; but since the Turks have possessed themselves of both shores, the island is in a manner deserted, being a sandy barren soil, and affording scarce any sustenance for a man or beast.

BACAIM, or *Baciaim*. A port-town of Cambaya, in the hither peninsula of India, situated in 72 deg. of E. lon. and 19 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. subject to the Portuguese.

BACALAO. A name given by the Spaniards to the cod-fish, and to a fish very much resembling it, which they catch on the coast of the island of Juan Fernandes in the South Sea. The Spaniards also call Newfoundland, upon account of its cod-fishery, the island of Bacalao: however, at the west end of this great island, there is another small one, more particularly called by them Bacalao. See *Fishery*.

BACHIAN. One of the Molucca islands, subject to the Dutch. See *Moluccas*.

BACHICERAI. The capital of Crim Tartary. See *Tartary*.

BACHU. A port-town of the province of Chirwan in Persia, situated on the western shore of the Caspian sea, in 49 deg. of E. lon. and 40 deg. of N. lat. being 3000 m. S. of Astracan, and 120 m. N. of Ferabat.

BACKS. A sort of tanned hides. See *Hide*.

BACK-*maker*. A person who makes liquor-backs, tender-backs, mash-tuns, coolers, and other things used by brewers; the trade being partly carpentry, and partly cooperage; but there are not many of this business.

BACK-*staff*, in navigation, an instrument called by the French the *English quadrant*, invented by Capt. Davis, of good use at sea in taking the altitude of the sun, and consisting of three vanes; the first called the horizon-vane, the second the shade-vane, and the third the sight-vane. Mr. Flamstead contrived a glass-lens, or double convex, to be placed in the middle of the shade-vane, which makes a small bright spot on the slit of the horizon-vane, instead of the shade; which is a great improvement, if the glass be truly made; for by this means the instrument may be used in hazy weather, and a much more accurate observation made in clear weather than could be by the shadow.

BACK-*stays of a ship*, are ropes belonging to the main-mast and fore-mast, and the masts belonging to them, serving to keep them from pitching forwards, or over-board.

BACON. A well known sort of food, made of hog's flesh salted and dried; which renders it fit for keeping a considerable time.

BADEN. The capital of the margravate of Baden in Swabia, remarkable for its hot baths. See *Germany*.

BADGER. A licensed huckster, or person privileged to buy corn, or other provisions, and carry them from one place to another to make profit of, without being reputed an ingrosser: but in the statutes he is also called a kidder, or cader of corn; as in those of the 5, & 6. Ed. VI. c. 14. and 5. Eliz. c. 12. Besides, in the statute of the 9th of William III. there is likewise mention of badgers and retailers of salt. See *Forestallers*.

BADGER is also a wild four-footed animal, something like the hog, dog, and fox; its age being discoverable from the number of holes under its tail, where a new hole annually makes its appearance. This animal affords three kinds of commodities; its skin, which is ranked among common furs; its fat, sold by druggists, and used for disorders of the reins and sciatic gouts; and its bristles, of which pencils are made for painters and gilders. It dwells in burrows among the woods in England, and most other countries.

BAFFETAS. A cloth entirely fabricated of cotton thread, brought from the East Indies; the best of which are those of Surat, containing about 12½ yards in length, and 1 yard wide.

BAFFETAS is also an Indian stuff, called otherwise *shaub*. See *Shaub*.

BAFFINS *Bay*. A gulph in North America; which runs from Cape Farewel in West Greenland, and lies from lat. 60 N. E. to 80 degrees; being discovered by Capt. Baffin, an Englishman, as he attempted to find a N. W. passage into the Pacific ocean.

BAG. A term used to signify different quantities of certain commodities; as a bag of almonds, for instance, is about 3 hundred weight; of aniseed, from 3 to 4 hundred; of pepper, from 1¼ to 3 hundred; of goats-hair, from 2 to 4 hundred, and of cotton from 2½ to 4¼.

Bags are also used in most countries, especially among merchants and bankers, to put their money in; which are sometimes taken by weight, without counting the contents.

BAGDAT. A strong town of Turky, on the frontiers of Persia, situated on the river Tigris, in 43 deg of E. lon. and 33 deg. 20 min of N. lat.

BAGNAGAR is the capital of Golconda, in the hither peninsula of India. See *India*.

BAHAMA, or *Lucaya islands*, are situated in the Atlantic ocean, between 21 and 27 deg. of N. lat. and between 73 and 81 deg. of W. lon. They are very numerous, and twelve of them of a considerable extent; the principal of which are Bahama, Lucayo, Eleathera, or Long-island; the islands of Andros, Providence, St. Salvador, or Cat-island, Samana, Maquana, and Heneaga. The island of Bahama, which communicates its name to the rest, is situated between 20 and 30 leagues to the eastward of the continent of Florida: but neither this, or any of the rest, are constantly inhabited, except Providence, and three or four more near it, in possession of the English; for the Spaniards did not think them worthy of planting after they had extirpated the natives, because these islands had no gold or silver in them, and were surrounded by rocks and shoals, which rendered the navigation difficult; tho' the gulph of Florida, or Bahama, through which the Spanish galleons sail in their way for Europe, lies between these islands and the continent of Florida. See *British America*.

BAHAR, or *Barre*. A weight used at Ternate, Malacca, Achem, and several other places of the East Indies; of which there two sorts, one called the great, and the other the small bahar.

Pepper, cloves, nutmegs, ginger, cinnamon, and other spices, are weighed by the former, which is equal to 572 lb. English weight. Quicksilver, vermilion, ivory, silk, musk, and other precious commodities, are weighed by the small bahar, which is about 476½ lb. English weight. The bahar of Mocha in Arabia is 450 lb. and 15 frasels make the bahar, by which weight coffee is sold.

BAHAREM, or *Baharen*. An island in the Persian gulph, in Asia, formerly one of the most considerable pearl fisheries in the world, but disused at present.

BAJADOR *Cape*, lies on the W. coast of Africa, S. of the Canary islands, in 15 deg of W. lon. and 27 deg. of N. lat.

BAILE, or *Bale*, in a maritime sense, is what seamen call lading, or casting the water by hand out of a boat, or ship's hold, with buckets, cans, or the like; and when the water is thus bailed out, they say *the boat is freed*; but they also give the name of bailes to those hoops that bear up the tilt of the boats.

BAILE is also a name given to the Venetian embassador at Constantinople, the name signifying a judge-consul.

BAIOCO, or *Bayoc*. A copper coin current at Rome, and in the ecclesiastical state, being worth about three farthings sterling; and there are also half *baiacos*.

BAKER. A person whose employment principally consists in

in the making and vending of bread, or reducing meals of any kind into bread.

The BAKER's *Company of London.* This company appears to be of great antiquity; for, in the beginning of the reign of Henry II. in the year 1155, it was charged, in the great roll of the exchequer, with a debt of one mark of gold, for their guild; which ſeems as if the antient guilds had held their privileges in fee-farm of the crown. However, this company does not appear to have been incorporated till about the year 1307, by letters-patent of Edward II. which charter was renewed by Henry VII. and confirmed by ſeveral of his ſucceſſors; but when or by whom their arms were at firſt granted, is not ſo apparent; tho' it muſt have been before 1590, becauſe in that year their creſt and ſupporters were granted by Clarencieux king at arms.

This company is incorporated by the name of The maſter and wardens of the myſtery or art of bakers of the city of London; being governed by a maſter, 4 wardens, and 30 aſſiſtants; to whom belong a livery of 195, whoſe fine is 10l. on admiſſion, with a handſome hall in Harp-lane, where they tranſact their affairs.

BAKU. A city of Perſia, remarkable for its walnut-oil. *See Perſia.*

BALANCE, or *Ballance.* One of the ſix ſimple powers in mechanics, uſed principally for determining the equality or difference of weights in heavy bodies, and conſequently their maſſes or quantities of matter; of which there are two kinds, the ancient and modern. 1. The antient, or Roman, called alſo *ſtatera Romana*, or ſteel-yard, conſiſts of a lever or beam, moveable on a centre, and ſuſpended near one of the extremities: on one ſide the centre are applied the bodies to be weighed, and their weight is meaſured by the diviſion marked on the beam; on the other ſide is a place, where a weight, moveable along it, keeps the ballance in equilibrio; which is a cuſtom ſtill retained in ſeveral parts of England, but more particularly by the inhabitants, eſpecially the butchers, of Shrewſbury. The modern ballance, now ordinarily in uſe, conſiſts of a lever, or beam, ſuſpended exactly in the middle; to the extremities whereof are hung ſcales, or baſons.

BALANCE *of trade* denotes an equality between the value of commodities bought of foreigners, and the value of the native productions tranſported into other nations; therefore, in the exchange of commodities, if one nation pays the other a quantity of gold or ſilver over and above its property of other kinds, this is called a ballance againſt that nation in favour of the other; from which an inference is drawn, as an indubitable corollary, *that the whole ſcience of profitable commerce conſiſts in the bringing this ſingle point to bear.* However, this is only applicable to the ultimate balance of trade: for, in reference to the intermediate ballance, it is ſometimes defective; becauſe a trade may be beneficial to a nation, where the imports exceed the exports; and conſequently the ballance is paid in ſpecie; if that trade, directly or indirectly, is neceſſary for the carrying on of another more profitable and advantageous; tho' it is to be obſerved, that this trade is not beneficial, conſidered in itſelf, but only as it is relative and ſubſervient to the carrying on of another; of which there is an inſtance reſpecting the greateſt part of the Britiſh trade to the Baltic, and the Eaſt Indies; theſe being inſtrumental in procuring a ballance in other countries, tho' diſadvantageous in themſelves.

It is neceſſary that this ballance be kept in trading nations; and if it cannot be made in commodities, it ought to be in ſpecie; for thereby is underſtood whether a nation gains or loſes by foreign trade, or any branch thereof; and conſequently whether that nation increaſes in opulence, or is depreſſed by penury.

There can be but one general method for maintaining the preſervation of this ballance in all mercantile communities, and that is, ſince gold and ſilver form the univerſal ſtandard for making an eſtimate of the value, and regulating the price of the commodities or manufactures of all countries, to export larger quantities of their own, and import leſs of others; ſo that what is deficient in the value of their merchandiſe, compared with others, may be paid in gold and ſilver; the conſequence of which muſt be, that theſe metals will be continually increaſing with them as far as relates to that particular trade and nation, and decreaſing with others; and in what proportion ſoever the money of foreigners comes into this country, in that proportion it may certainly be affirmed, that the ſailors, freighters, merchants, tradeſmen, tenants, landlords, and duties of that country, are paid at the expence of ſuch foreigners.

A merchant may have a diſtinct intereſt from that of his country, and may find proſperity by a trade which may be extremely detrimental to other merchants, and the whole community; nay more, he may be impoveriſhed by a trade that is beneficial to his country: but merchants have entertained different opinions of this national ballance; becauſe each perſon has probably ſet his own branch of commerce in a favourable light; which obſervation may be corroborated by the opinion of Sir Joſiah Child, who remarks, "That merchants, while they are in the buſy "and eager proſecution of their particular trades, altho' "they be very wiſe and good men, are not always the "beſt judges of trade, *as it relates to the power and profit "of a kingdom*:" for which he aſſigns this reaſon, "that "their eyes are ſo continually fixed upon what makes for "their peculiar gain and loſs, that they have no leiſure to "expatiate, or turn their thoughts, on what is moſt advantageous to the kingdom in general." It is a maxim with traders, and a juſtifiable one, "to get all that can be "got in a legal and honeſt way." Beſides, if the laws of their country give them the permiſſion of carrying on any particular profitable trade, it is their buſineſs, as merchants, to engage in the proſecution of it. But as to the great point of national advantage or diſadvantage, this is properly the concern of thoſe who preſide in the miniſterial cabinet, whoſe province it is to frame the laws and regulations relative to trade, in ſuch a manner as may cauſe the private intereſt of the merchant to coincide with the general good of his country; for which reaſon the appointment of the board of trade is apparently a very wiſe and neceſſary inſtitution, it being calculated to anſwer this important end.

There are ſeveral methods of arriving at the knowledge of a national loſs or gain upon the ballance of trade. 1. The moſt generally received way of computing this ballance is, by taking a ſtrict ſurvey of what proportion the value of the commodities exported bears to thoſe imported; whereby, if the exports exceed the imports, it is concluded that nation is in a gaining way; it being ſuppoſed that the overplus is imported in bullion, and ſo increaſes the national treaſure. But this method is rendered uncertain, eſpecially in the Britiſh dominions, by the difficulty of obtaining a true account, either of the exports or imports; becauſe cuſtom-houſe books are no rule in this caſe, on account of the running of goods, eſpecially ſeveral fine commodities of ſmall bulk, as points, lace, ribbands, ſilks, jewels, fine linens; as alſo of wines, brandies, and teas; to which may be added various accidents affecting the value of the ſtock, either ſent out or brought in; as loſſes at ſea, markets, bankrupts, ſeizures, and the like. Then as to particular trades, there are ſeveral countries to which the manufactures ſent from Great Britain are inconſiderable; yet the goods imported from thoſe countries are neceſſary to the carrying on the Britiſh trade in general, as the trade to Norway and Sweden for timber and naval ſtores.

2. The ſecond method is by obſerving the courſe of exchange; whereby, if generally above the intrinſic value or par of the coins of foreign countries, the Britiſh nation not only loſes by ſuch exchanges, but the ſame is a proof that it loſes by the general courſe of trade: tho' this method is alſo imperfect, becauſe the Britiſh merchants trade to many countries where there is no eſtabliſhed courſe of exchange.

3. The third method, recommended by Sir Joſiah Child, is made from the increaſe or diminution of the Britiſh trade, and ſhipping in general; for if theſe diminiſh, whatever profit particular men may make, the nation loſes; and ſo, on the contrary, if theſe are augmented, the nation is in a gaining condition. To corroborate which, he lays it down as an infallible rule, that in all parts of the world where-ever trade is flouriſhing, and the ſhipping increaſes for a ſucceſſion of ages, that trade muſt be

be nationally profitable, even in the caſe of a merchant, who, by proſecuting a conſiderable trade, impoveriſhes himſelf; for while his ruin is approaching, he contributes to the benefit of the royal revenue, many artificers, ſeveral tradeſmen, and divers labourers.

4. A fourth way is by obſerving the increaſe and diminution of coin and bullion. But this is the leaſt obvious and palpable of any; for the money ſeems, to vulgar eyes, moſt plentiful when there is leaſt occaſion for it, and more ſcarce as the occaſions for employing it are more numerous and advantageous; by which means there is an appearance of moſt money when there is the leaſt trade. Thus when the Eaſt India company have a conſiderable ſale to make, money is generally found to be ſcarce in London, becauſe the occaſion engages people to employ quantities which they had provided for that purpoſe.

Notwithſtanding the variety of calculations for attaining an exact computation of the ballance of the Britiſh trade with foreign nations, there can be no certainty of arriving at a particular eſtimation; for with regard to imports, the bullion, and ſuch valuable articles, are not entered in the cuſtom-houſe books, and ſeldom preſented. As to the exports, ſeeing the woollen manufactures go out cuſtom-free, the entries there made of them cannot be depended on: but ſuppoſe a more exact account of the Britiſh exports and imports could be had; yet ſince ſo great a part of the Britiſh trade is driven by exchange, and ſuch vaſt quantities of commodities are imported from the plantations on account of the inhabitants there, the produce whereof they leave in England as a ſtock at home, beſides their being ſupplied from their mother-country with ſo many things for their conſumption, it cannot be perceived how any moderate computation can be this way made of the general trade of Great Britain; much leſs of that which the Britiſh ſubjects drive with any particular nation, the commodities which they receive at one place being often carried to another: thus the Britiſh merchants tranſport to Italy the ſugars they receive for their manufactures in Portugal, bringing from Italy ſilk and other things to be manufactured in England. And yet it muſt not be concluded they loſe by the Portugal trade, becauſe the returns thence fall ſhort by the cuſtom-books, or that they get more by the Italian trade, becauſe it appears not by thoſe books how they exported commodities to pay for what they import thence. And as to the profits which Britiſh merchants make by the freights of their ſhips, it does not appear at all from the cuſtom-houſe books; nor at what rates their products and manufactures are ſold abroad, or their plantation-goods to foreigners at home: ſo the matter muſt ſtill remain doubtful; for no more certain way to judge of it is known, than by the increaſe the nation makes in its bullion, which always ariſes from the over ballance of its foreign barter and commerce: however, it has been endeavoured more fully to illuſtrate this ſubject in the repreſentation of the Britiſh commerce. See *Great Britain*.

BALANCE *of power*, is the preſervation of the ſeveral European governments, as far as may be, in their preſent condition; and the preventing any potentate whatever from acquiring ſuch a meaſure of power, as may be dangerous or fatal to their reciprocal intereſts; which, as they took riſe from, are abſolutely neceſſary to the continuance of commerce; any attempt upon which is conſequently felt by every nation that has any ſhare of trade, and moſt of all by the maritime powers, who have the largeſt ſhare, and make the moſt of it.

The reciprocal connections reſulting from trade have entirely altered the ſtate of things, and produced, within theſe two, or at moſt three centuries paſt, a kind of new ſyſtem in Europe, or in the Chriſtian parts of Europe at leaſt; by which every ſtate is led to have a much greater concern than formerly for what may happen to another: for inſtance, in former ages, a quarrel in the north could only have affected the north; but in the laſt century things were totally altered. Both the Engliſh and Dutch ſent their fleets into the Baltic, upon the quarrel that happened between the Swedes and the Danes, a little before the reſtoration of King Charles II. Not long before this, the crown of Sweden became a contracting party in the remarkable triple alliance for maintaining the peace of Europe, preſerving the Spaniſh Low Countries, and ſetting bounds to the power of France. After the revolution, towards the cloſe of the reign of King William III. both the maritime powers ſent their fleets again into the Baltic with the ſame view, and the ſame ſucceſs; the like of which has been done more than once ſince. The pretence, in all thoſe caſes, was the love of juſtice, and an exact performance of treaties; in which alſo there was ſomewhat of truth: but the great and real deſign was, to prevent thoſe inconveniencies which muſt have befallen the maritime powers, if either Sweden or Denmark had been entirely ruined by thoſe wars. Therefore it may be ſaid, that the ballance of power, in the ſtrict ſenſe of that phraſe, was created by trade, and muſt continue to be the object more eſpecially of trading countries, ſo long as they preſerve their commerce and their freedom.

It is from a ſenſe of this, that whenever any power attempts to oppreſs another, or betrays a viſible deſign of augmenting its own ſtrength by attacking or conquering its neighbours, other potentates are ready to interpoſe; from a quick ſenſe, not only of the inconveniencies that muſt ariſe from the incroachments made by ſuch a power, but from the juſt apprehenſions that this may prove extremely prejudicial to commerce in general, and to that of ſeveral nations in particular; who, to prevent this, will not ſcruple to take up arms, as was the caſe in the two general wars preceding the treaty of Utrecht, as well as in the laſt terminated by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. Thus it appears, that the ballance of power is not an empty name, or an idle thing; but a very juſt and ſignificant, tho' a new and figurative, expreſſion. However, notwithſtanding it has been thus ſhewn how this political ballance ariſes, yet it is not quite ſo eaſy to explain wherein it truly conſiſts; for, with reſpect to this, the moſt eminent writers find it a very difficult thing to diveſt themſelves of their prejudices. As for inſtance, a French politician takes it for granted, that this ballance ought to be held by his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, and never ſo much as ſuſpects that this will or ought to be diſputed. At Vienna, again, there is nothing clearer than that the right of holding the ballance is in the imperial court; and he who ſhould treat this as chimerical, would be thought as deficient in ſenſe as in good manners. But the Italians are the moſt judicious and ſenſible authors upon this ſubject; and particularly the Venetians; for only grant them that the ſea as well as land is ſubject to dominion, and that their republic has an indubitable right to the ſovereignty of the Adriatic, they will very readily concede every thing elſe in favour of other princes and ſtates.

The ſtruggle, therefore, for the ballance of power, is in reality a ſtruggle for power; tho' it is difficult to ſhew where this ballance lies. But beſides the general ballance of power, there are three particular ballances which ought to be attended to and ſupported; becauſe, if any of theſe are debilitated or deſtroyed, it will be almoſt impoſſible to preſerve the reſt. The firſt of theſe is the ballance of the north, where the potency of Ruſſia is principally to be apprehended. There is no ſuch thing as being reſponſible for the views of any court, becauſe they are perpetually changing: the only ſecurity that can be had, muſt reſult from the preſcribing proper bounds to all; and, in the preſent caſe, this chiefly depends on the maritime powers, who are always able, and ought to be ever willing, to maintain that equilibrium which ſubſiſts there at preſent. In this they have reaſon to expect, if ſhe is true to her own intereſt, the concurrence of France, to whom an abſolute and overbearing power in the north would be as fatal as to any other ſtate; becauſe ſhe muſt become dependent upon it for her naval ſtores, and find her grandeur in other reſpects greatly diminiſhed.

The ſecond ballance of power is in Germany; where, for the common peace and ſafety of Europe, it is neceſſary the conſtitution of the empire ſhould be maintained; which cannot be done, if either the imperial dignity is transferred to a houſe more potent than all the reſt, or if any other power be permitted to give laws to the emperor and empire. At preſent the ballance of Germany ſeems to depend upon properly poiſing the two great houſes of Auſtria

ſtria and Brandenburg, and preventing either of them from giving a new form of things in that country; which, conſidering the intereſt that ſeveral princes have in other parts, muſt, from its conſequences, neceſſarily throw all Europe into confuſion.

The third ballance is in Italy; where the ſeveral princes and ſtates ſeem to underſtand their own intereſt the beſt of any. Upon this principle it ſeems reaſonable to preſerve both the houſes of Auſtria and Bourbon in the poſſeſſion of their dominions in that country; ſince, if either ſhould be expelled, the other would ſoon be abſolutely maſter of the whole: for the ſame reaſon it is expedient, that the firſt branch of the houſe of Bourbon ſettled there, ſhould not only be ſovereign, but altogether independent; which, in the courſe of a few years, muſt neceſſarily change the face of affairs there, and bring that power to act under the ſame political maxims with the reſt of the princes and ſtates of Italy. It ſeems likewiſe requiſite for the ſecurity of this ballance, that the power of his Sardinan Majeſty ſhould be extended; becauſe every acceſſion of territory to this prince, muſt fix him more effectually to thoſe principles, which are moſt conducive to the peace and proſperity of Italy: and tho' ſuch accidents may happen, as may for a time oblige him to temporiſe, or perhaps act inconſiſtently in regard to this ballance; yet it is certain that nothing but real neceſſity can carry him into an alliance fatal to his own independency, as well as to the intereſt of his ſubjects, and the common good of Chriſtendom.

Upon the whole, peace and good neighbourhood, the encouragement of arts and ſciences, and the purſuit of manufactures and commerce, as they are agreeable to the intereſt of every particular ſtate, ſo they are beſt for the whole; becauſe they would contribute to render every particular country of Europe infinitely more populous, and the inhabitants of all countries much more happy, than any vain endeavours to aggrandiſe particular families at the expence of the human ſpecies.

BALANCE *of accompt*, is when the accompt is ballanced, or when the debtor and creditor ſides of any particular accompt are equal.

BALANUS *Marepſica*, or *Nux unguentaria*, in the ſhops called *ben*, and by Pliny *myrobolanum*, affords an excellent oil; and is brought from Egypt, Ethiopia, Arabia, Syria, and Barbary.

BALASIUS *lapis*. A gem, of a ſhining purple, or roſe colour, called by ſome *placidus*, being a third ſpecies of the carbuncle. See *Carbuncle*.

BALASSOR, or *Baliſore*. A term for a particular kind of muſlin handkerchiefs, made at Baliſore in India; the piece being about 12 yards long, and 1 yard wide.

BALASTRI, is a term uſed at Smyrna for the fineſt gold-cloths manufactured at Venice.

BALAUDINA. A factitious ſtone, compoſed of the mercury of iron; being, on account of its ſulphur, of a red and ſhining colour.

BALAUSTINES, *Balauſtium*, or *Balauſtia*, in pharmacy, the flowers of the wild pomegranate, or *malus punica ſylveſtris*, growing in the Eaſt Indies. Theſe flowers are very rough to the tongue and palate, as alſo very aſtringent; on which account they are uſed in diarrheas, and other diſeaſes.

There are two kinds of them, the fine, and the common: the common have little or no virtue; and the fine ſhould be choſen new, broad, and of a beautiful gloſſy crimſon colour.

BALAZEES, or *Sauvaguzees*, are white cotton cloths manufactured at Surat in India, and its neighbourhood; the piece containing 16½ yards in length, and ⅞ in breadth.

BALDERDASH. To adulterate, ſpoil, or mix a good and a bad commodity together.

BALDIVIA. A port-town of the province of Chili in South America, ſituated in 80 deg. of W. lon. and 40 deg. of S. lat. See *Spaniſh America*.

BALE. A pack, or certain quantity of merchandiſe; as a bale of ſpicery, of cloth, of books, of thread, or of any other packable commodity; which bales are always marked and numbered, for the merchants to know their own commodities.

A bale of cotton yarn is from 3 to 400 weight; of raw ſilk, from 1 to 400; of lockram, or dowlas, either three, three and a half, or four pieces.

BALEARES. The antient name for the iſlands of Majorca, Minorca, Ivica, and Formentera, ſituated in the Mediterranean, S. of Catalonia in Spain. See *Minorca* and *Spaniſh iſlands*.

BALI, or *Bally*, is one of the Sunda iſlands in the Indian ocean; and, with the eaſt-end of the iſland of Java, forms a ſtreight about a mile over; thro' which the Eaſt India merchant-ſhips ſometimes return to Europe from China: but it is a difficult paſſage, eſpecially if the mariners omit the obſervation, that the S. wind burſts thro' the ſtreights once in 24 hours, and ſets a ſhip back as much as it has gained in a whole day. See *Sunda iſlands*.

BALIEPATAN. A town of India, remarkable for its pepper. See *India*.

BALISORE, or *Balaſſor*. A port-town of the hither India, ſubject to the Mogul, and ſituated on the N. W. part of the bay of Bengal, in 85 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 21 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 180 m. S. W. of Huegley, and 340 m. N. E. of Maſlapatan, being a Britiſh factory, ſubordinate to the government of Fort William; where ſhips, bound for the river Ganges and Bengal, uſually take in pilots. See *India*.

BALL. A ſpherical body of wood, iron, &c. The word is alſo uſed to ſignify ſome tools and inſtruments of ſeveral arts and trades.

BALLAST. Any heavy matter uſed to ſink a veſſel to its proper depth in water, or to give it a juſt weight and counterpoiſe, ſo as to be able to bear ſail without overſetting. The ordinary ballaſt is ſand, or ſtones, ſtowed in the hold, next the falſe keel of a veſſel: but ſometimes lead, corn, or other heavy goods, ſerve for ballaſt, which is ſometimes one half, ſometimes a third, and ſometimes a fourth part, of the burden of the veſſel, tho' flat veſſels require the moſt ballaſt; and ſhips are ſaid to be in ballaſt, when they have no other loading.

Maſters of veſſels are obliged to declare the quantity of ballaſt they bear, and to unload it at certain places; they are alſo prohibited unloading their ballaſt in havens, roads, &c. the neglect of which has ruined many excellent ports. By the ſtatutes of the 27th, 34th, and 35th of Henry VIII. as alſo by that of the 11th and 12th of William III. proper directions are given for ballaſting ſhips or veſſels in the Thames, the Severn, and the Avon.

BALLASTAGE. See *Laſtage*.

BALLIAGE. A ſmall duty paid to the city of London, by aliens, and even denizens, on their exportation of certain commodities. See *Scavage*, *Cuſtoms*, *Package*, *Portage*, *Aliens*, and *Denizens*.

BALLON. A kind of brigantine, uſed by the Siameſe, being made of the trunk of a ſingle tree, and managed with oars, with which they carry on their inland trade, by navigating up and down the rivers.

BALM, or *Balm-mint*, is a common garden plant, of great uſe in medicine, and from which a water is extracted by diſtillation.

BALM *of lead*. See *Lead*.

BALSAM, or *Balm*. A kind of medicinal gum; of which there are ſeveral ſorts; but the principal are thoſe of the Levant and Peru.

The balſam of the Levant oozes from inciſions in a ſhrub growing in Egypt and Judea, but chiefly in Arabia Felix; which is ſo valuable, that it makes part of the ſpecial revenue of the Grand Signior, without whoſe permiſſion none of theſe ſhrubs are allowed to be planted or cultivated. The ſhrub growing in India and Arabia bears leaves like rue, but that of Egypt has leaves like the maſtic tree. The inciſion through which this admirable juice flows, is made in the dog-days. It is firſt liquid, and afterwards thickens to the conſiſtence it is ſeen in Europe: but few can pride themſelves in having it pure; becauſe, upon account of its great price, it is adulterated immediately after its filtration from the ſhrub. The marks of its purity are, as pretended, when its ſmell is ſtrong and briſk, when it is freſh, its taſte bitter, ſharp, and aſtringent, eaſily diſſolving in the mouth, and leaving no ſtain on woollen cloth; its real colour being like that of gold, and its ſmell retaining ſomething of the citron. The fruit is

called *carpo-balſamum*; the twigs *xylo-balſamum*; and the juice *opo-balſamum*: the carpo-balſamum enters the compoſition of Venice treacle, and muſt be choſen of an aromatic taſte, with a grateful ſmell: the xylo-balſamum is uſed in the troches of Hedychrous; and is brought in little faggots, the bark of which is red, the wood white, reſinous, and aromatic.

There is likewiſe a balſam of Mecca, or white balſam; being a dry white gum, reſembling copperas, eſpecially when old; which is brought from Mecca by the return of the caravans, and has all the virtues of the balm of Gilead or Judea; from whence it is conjectured to be the ſame, only hardened and altered in colour. This balm is uſed as a medicine in ſeveral diſorders; as alſo to make pomatum, and virginal milk, for preſerving and beautifying the ladies complections.

BALSAM *of Peru*, though not in ſo much eſtimation as that of the Levant, has, notwithſtanding, all its virtues: it is of three kinds, or rather the ſame balſam has three different names; as balſam of inciſion, a white glutinous reſin, oozing from an inciſion in the tree, and afterwards thickened and hardened; which is uſed for green wounds: dry balſam, diſtilled from the ends of the branches cut off, which is firſt like milk, though it afterwards reddens with the ſun; its uſe being for the compoſition of lac virginale: and balſam of lotion, which is blackiſh, and drawn from the bark; the roots and leaves being cut and boiled together; which is uſed for the ſame purpoſe as the white balſam.

BALSAM *of Copaiba*, or *Copivi*, which comes from Braſil and Guinea, in earthen bottles, is of two ſorts; the one bright and thin, the other thick; the firſt being white, and of a reſinous ſmell, the other inclining to yellow; but both have been much eſteemed for wounds, and venereal diſorders: though now they are not ſo much regarded.

BALSAM *of Tolu*, is at firſt a liquid reſin, which, as it grows old, becomes of the colour and conſiſtence of Flanders ſize; having ſome reſemblance, both in ſmell and taſte, to the balm of Gilead, and comes by inciſion from ſome trees growing in New Spain; where the inhabitants receive it in little veſſels of black wax.

BALSAM *of liquid amber*, is a clear, reddiſh reſin, produced by a tree in New Spain, called, by the natives, *oſoſol*; much reſembling ambergreaſe, eſpecially in ſmell, from whence it is denominated: it alſo reſembles balſam of Tolu in ſmell and colour, and is expreſſed, in the ſame manner as the oil of laurel, from a red fruit in the iſland of St. Domingo. The new balſam is liquid, in which ſtate it is called *oil of liquid amber*; and when old, *balſam of liquid amber*; which comes from Spain in barrels, and is very ſcarce among Europeans, being a ſovereign remedy in wounds, eſpecially fiſtulas in the anus.

BALSAM, is alſo applied to certain factitious ſubſtances, made by chemiſts and apothecaries, chiefly of balſamic and healing ingredients, in imitation of the native balſams. 1ſt, It ſignifies a certain ſort of perfume, of a thick conſiſtence, like an ointment; as balſam of roſes, apoplectick, and others; 2d, liquors diſtilled from gums, and reſinous ſubſtances, with ſpirit of wine, uſed in anointing outwardly; as nervous balſam, ſciatic, &c. 3d, a liquor for anointing the body, thicker than oil, and more liquid than an ointment: 4th, ſalts in fuſion, and melted, are called balſams; as the balſam of ſalt of jewels: 5th, a kind of particular preparation called balſam; as balſam of ſulphur, and balſam of ſaturn: and, laſtly, the ſpirit of common ſalt extracted by art; wherein things of the moſt corruptible quality being ſteeped, are ſaid to remain eternally entire.

BALTIC *ſea*. This ſea, together with the gulphs of Bothnia, and Finland, affords a navigation for carrying on the commerce with the eaſt land, or northern countries of Europe; having Sweden on the N. Denmark on the S. W. Germany on the S. with Poland, Courland, and the conquered provinces of Ruſſia on the E. The Baltic has a communication with the German ocean, by means of the Categate, or Scagerac ſea, which is the paſſage from the ocean to the Sound, or entrance into the Baltic ſea, between Sweden and Denmark: it is obſervable that a current perpetually ſets out of this ſea, through the Sound, into the ocean; for which reaſon, and the numerous rivers diſembogued there, its waters are not ſo ſalt as other ſeas: beſides, there are no tides here; and it is frequently frozen three or four months in the winter, which occaſions a ſuſpenſion of trade with the northern countries, but more particularly with Ruſſia.

BALTIC *Iſlands*. See *Daniſh*, *Swediſh*, *and Ruſſian Iſlands*.

BAMBOUC, or *Bambou*, a kind of wood, or rather cane, or reed, extremely knotty, and of the growth of ſeveral places in the Eaſt Indies: its height and thickneſs is very extraordinary; but no other part of it comes to Europe than the firſt and ſmalleſt twigs, which are uſed for walking canes; the larger wood being uſed by the Indians for building.

BANCA. One of the Sunda iſlands. See *Sunda Iſlands*.

BANCALES. A port town of the E. coaſt of Sumatra, in the Eaſt Indies, ſituated in 99 deg. of E. lon. and 2 deg. of N. lat. being 130 m. W. of Malacca. See *Sunda Iſlands*.

BANCO, or *Banquo*, an Italian word, ſignifying bank; which is moſt commonly uſed to denote that of Venice. See *Bank*.

BAND. A ſmall weight of about 2 ounces, uſed in ſome parts of the Guinea coaſt, for gold duſt.

BANDA *iſlands*, or *nutmeg iſlands*, ſituated in the Indian ocean, are generally comprehended under the names of Banda proper, otherwiſe called Lantor, or Lontor, from the principal town being ſituated upon it; Pooloway, Pooloroon, Nero, Roſinging, and Gonapi, which are a part of the archipelago of the Moluccas, and uſually included among thoſe called the little Moluccas, being ſituated between 127 and 128 deg. of E. lon. and between 4 and 5 deg. of S. lat. having the iſland of Ceram to the N. the iſland of Celebes, or Macaſſar, on the W. with the ocean on the E. and S. about 5 leagues diſtant from Amboyna, and 400 from Batavia; being the only places in the world productive of mace and nutmegs: but there are alſo ſeveral other ſmall iſlands which paſs under the denomination of Banda, though too immaterial for obſervation; however all the principal iſlands are in the poſſeſſion of the Dutch; whereby all the nutmegs and mace cultivated there, paſs through their hands.

Lantor, or Banda proper, is the largeſt and richeſt of all the iſlands of Banda. The town of Lantor is, by nature, as ſtrong as a caſtle, and inacceſſible, being built on the brow of a ſteep hill, with an aſcent as difficult as by a ladder; tho' the Dutch made an eaſy conqueſt of it.

Pooloway is a perfect paradiſe, abounding with nutmegs, and other delicious fruits. Their only want is in ſprings and rivers, which is ſupplied, in ſome meaſure, by the frequent rains; and, when theſe fail, the natives import water from the other iſlands. On the E. ſide of this iſland the Dutch have a fort called the Revenge, being a regular pentagon, and held to be not only one of the ſtrongeſt places the Dutch have in India; but much the pleaſanteſt reſidence of their Indian governors.

Pooloroon had neither pleaſure or profit to invite the Dutch to raviſh it from the Engliſh, in the manner they did; the ſole deſign of that expedition being to engroſs the whole ſpice trade to themſelves, which they could not eaſily do, while other nations had acceſs to this iſland.

The largeſt of theſe iſlands is not above 20 leagues in circumference, and moſt of them much leſs: but the vulcanoes, and earthquakes, which frequently happen there, are very terrible; not a year hardly paſſes without ſome miſchief being done by them, which very much diminiſhes the pleaſures the Dutch would otherwiſe enjoy in this their terreſtrial paradiſe.

Banda, is the third of the ſix grand governments belonging to the Dutch in the Eaſt Indies: it was in the year 1601 that theſe adventurous republicans made their firſt appearance in this iſland, which was one of their earlieſt eſtabliſhments; for the firſt fort they erected in this part of the world, was in the iſland of Nero, which fort is now called Naſſau.

In 1609 they made a treaty with the Orancais, or lords of theſe iſlands, whereby the latter obliged themſelves to ſend all their nutmegs and mace to Fort Naſſau; as alſo to

to deliver them to the company's commiſſioners at a certain ſtipulated price; the Dutch engaging themſelves, on their part, to defend and protect them, particularly againſt the Portugueſe.

This treaty having been ill executed, and the Dutch factories inſulted, their commiſſioners being maſſacred, and, what was their principal grievance, the nutmeg trade paſſing into other hands by the connivance of the Orancais; the Dutch commenced hoſtilities againſt the natives, which continued ſome years, when two other treaties were concluded upon, one in 1616, and the other the year following; but theſe, at the ſollicitation of the Engliſh, who were then at war with the Dutch, were not better obſerved.

At laſt, peace being concluded between the Engliſh and Dutch in 1619, the latter the year following, began to expreſs their reſentment againſt the Orancais of Banda; for which purpoſe they offered the Engliſh to divide with them the conqueſt of theſe iſlands: but the Engliſh having refuſed it, they attacked Banda in the month of March 1621, when they obliged the iſlanders to deliver up their towns, forts, arms, and iſlands; and to acknowledge they belonged to the States General, both by right of conqueſt and ceſſion: whereby the Dutch are in poſſeſſion by force, and maintain that they ought alſo to belong to them by right; the Engliſh having refuſed to ſhare this conqueſt; tho', by the treaty of 1619 they were to trade in common with the Dutch to the Moluccas, Banda, Amboyna, and other places.

To aſcertain the trade of nutmegs and mace, the Dutch have built forts in all the iſlands of Banda; and, to augment, people, and cultivate the lands, they divided the ground into lots, which they diſtributed to the Dutch planters eſtabliſhed there, in proportion to their number of ſlaves; obliging them to plant a certain number of nutmeg trees annually, and to bring to the factory all their harveſt of nutmegs, and mace, where they are purchaſed by the company: but there are alſo ſome Moors in the iſlands, to whom the lots were diſtributed on the ſame footing as to the Dutch.

All theſe iſlands ſubſiſt only by the proviſions, commodities, and merchandize, ſent them from Batavia; the ſoil being too indifferent for the produce of any thing but nutmegs. Stuffs, linens, and hard-ware, ſell tolerably well there, being purchaſed both by the Dutch ſoldiers and planters; as alſo by the native iſlanders, who are generally Mahometans. See *Molucca Iſlands*.

BANDANNOES. A muſlin brought from the Eaſt Indies; the piece being about 20 yards long, and 1 yard broad.

BANDER-CONGO. A port-town on the E. ſide of the Perſian gulph, ſituated in 54 deg. of E. lon. and 27 deg. of N. lat. 100 m. W. of Bander-Abaſſi, or Gombron.

BANDEROLL. A little flag, in form of a guidon, extended more in length than breadth; which is hung out on the maſts of ſome foreign veſſels. See *Flag*.

BANDORA. The capital of the iſland of Salſette, or Canorin, ſituated in 72 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 19 deg. of N. lat. on the W. coaſt of the Hither India. See *Salſette*.

BANIAN, in India, ſignifies a book-keeper to merchants; though the word is miſapplied to the name of a religious ſect of people who adhere to the Pythagorean ſyſtem: but this is a miſtake; for the people of that ſect are not called Banyans, but the Banyans are all of them of that ſect.

The principal merchants in the Eaſt Indies are of this ſect: they alſo act as brokers, like the Armenians; and they are ſpread in all parts of India, down to Perſia, where they are alſo eſtabliſhed.

BANJAR. A river in the iſland of Borneo, in the Eaſt Indies, in the mouth whereof is a floating town, where the Engliſh Eaſt India company have a factory. See *Sunda Iſlands*.

BANK. A great ſhoal of ſand in the ſea, where ſhips are frequently ſwallowed up and loſt.

BANK, in commerce, is a denomination given to certain ſocieties, or communities, who aſſume the charge of money belonging to private perſons, for improvement by intereſt, or for ſecurity without. Theſe banks are eſtabliſhed in the ſeveral principal trading cities in Europe; as in Venice, London, Amſterdam, Hamburg, Paris, and Genoa: but, of all others, the Venetian bank is the moſt conſiderable; as being of the greateſt antiquity, and that whereon the others are modelled.

The BANCO, *or* BANK *of Venice*, commonly called *banco del guiro*, is properly a board of publick credit and intereſt; or a general and perpetual purſe, for all merchants and traders; eſtabliſhed by a ſolemn edict of the commonwealth, which enacts, That all payments of wholeſale merchandiſe, and letters of exchange, ſhall be in banco, or bank notes; and that all debtors, and creditors, ſhall be obliged, the one to carry their money to the bank, the other to receive their payments in banco: ſo that payments are performed by a ſimple transfer from one to the other: he who was before creditor on the bank books, becoming debtor as ſoon as he has relinquiſhed his right to another, who is entered down as creditor in his place; by which the parties have only an alteration of the name, without any effective payment being made. Though, ſometimes, there are actual payments made; eſpecially in matters of retail, and when foreigners have an inclination to carry off money in ready ſpecie; or when particular traders chuſe to have a ſtock by them to negotiate in bills of exchange, or other mercantile tranſactions. The neceſſity of theſe effective payments has occaſioned the opening a fund of ready money; which is found ſo far from a diminution of the ſtock, that this liberty of withdrawing money at pleaſure is rather an augmentation to it. By means of this bank, the republic, without encroaching on the freedom of commerce, or without paying any intereſt, is miſtreſs of 5000,000 of ducats, or 1,083,333 l. ſterling, which is the limitation of the capital ſtock, to be in readineſs on any emergent occaſion; the republic being ſecurity for the capital.

BANK *of England*. For the ſupport of public credit, the prevention of extravagant uſury, and the utility of trade in general, this opulent bank was projected by William Paterſon, Eſq; a Scotchman, being eſtabliſhed in the 5th and 6th years of the reign of K. William and Q. Mary, by act of parliament, whereby it was enacted, That their majeſties, by commiſſion under the great ſeal, might appoint perſons to take ſubſcriptions, on or before the firſt of Auguſt 1691, from any perſons, natives or foreigners, for raiſing and paying in to the receipt of the exchequer 1,200,000 l. for the ſecurity whereof, the yearly ſum of 140,000 l. ſhould be kept apart in the receipt of the exchequer, payable out of the duties of exciſe; out of which the yearly ſum of 100,000 l. ſhould be applied to the uſe of the ſubſcribers. Their majeſties were empowered to incorporate ſuch ſubſcribers to be one body corporate, by the name of *The governor and company of the bank of England*, who ſhould be capable to purchaſe, and retain, lands, hereditaments, and perſonalties. The corporation, ſo to be made, ſhould not borrow under their common ſeal any further ſum than 1,200,000 l.; ſo that they ſhould not, at any time, owe more, unleſs by act of parliament, upon funds agreed in parliament; and if any more ſhould be borrowed under the common ſeal, every member of the corporation ſhould, in their private capacities, be liable, in proportion to their ſeveral ſhares, to the repayment of ſuch monies, with intereſt. The corporation ſhould not trade, or ſuffer any perſon in truſt for them to trade, with any of the effects of the corporation, in the buying or ſelling of any merchandiſe or goods; every perſon ſo trading, or by whoſe order ſuch trading ſhould be made, to forfeit treble of the value of the goods and merchandiſe traded for. But the corporation might deal in bills of exchange; as alſo in buying or ſelling bullion, gold or ſilver, or in ſelling goods mortgaged to them not redeemed within three months after the time of redemption. All bills obligatory and of credit, under the ſeal of the corporation, might, by indorſement thereon, under the hand of the proprietors, be aſſigned, and the aſſignee ſue in his own name. If the governor, or other members of the corporation, ſhould, upon account of the corporation, purchaſe any lands or revenues belonging to the crown; or lend to their majeſties, their heirs, or ſucceſſors, any money by way of anticipation on any part of the revenue, other than ſuch part only on which a credit of loan

ſhould be granted by parliament; then the governor, or members, ſo conſenting to lend, ſhould forfeit treble the value of the loan.

In purſuance of this act, ſubſcriptions books were opened at Exeter-change, on the 5th of June 1696; when the lords of the treaſury ſubſcribed 5000 l. on the behalf of his majeſty; but the other ſubſcriptions amounted to no more than 2100 l. for, after all manner of expedients had been propoſed, by the commiſſioners, for rendering their project palatable to the public, they were diſappointed in their expectations; the cauſe of which they aſcribed to the large intereſt allowed upon all ſecurities, both public and private, at the ſame time that theſe ſubſcriptions were limited to 5 *per cent.*

However, the intereſt was enlarged to 8 *per cent.* and the charter paſſed for incorporating the company by the name of *The governor and company of the bank of England*; whereby it was ordained, That there ſhould be, for ever, of the members of the company, a governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-four directors, to be elected annually by the general court; which ſaid governor, deputy governor, and directors, or any thirteen or more, the governor, or deputy-governor, to be always one, ſhould be a court of directors, for managing affairs belonging to the corporation. But, as this limitation, by the unavoidable abſence, or otherwiſe, of the governor, or deputy-governor, might be of great hindrance to the buſineſs of the corporation, an alteration was made in this reſpect, by an act of parliament paſſed in the year 1742, whereby it was enacted, That whenever a court of directors ſhall meet, if the governor, or deputy, ſhall be abſent for two hours after the uſual time of proceeding to buſineſs; the directors then met, being not leſs than thirteen, may chuſe a chairman by majority, and proceed to buſineſs; all their acts being declared to be equally valid as if the governor or deputy had been preſent. And by another act, paſſed in the year 1751, it was enacted, That the governor and company of the bank, in any general court, might proceed to tranſact any buſineſs, without adminiſtring the oaths and affirmation, or ſubſcribing the declaration, appointed by their charter to be taken and ſubſcribed by the members of every general court; unleſs they ſhould be required thereto by nine or more proprietors preſent, qualified to vote: and that when a court of directors ſhould be met, according to ſummons or appointment, and ſhould be ſatisfied that the governor, or deputy-governor, would not be preſent to hold the ſaid court; or if the governor, and deputy-governor, ſhould be abſent after the uſual time of proceeding to buſineſs, the court might chooſe a chairman for that time, who ſhould alſo preſide at a general court, if any ſhould at that time be ſummoned to meet, and proceed to buſineſs, by tranſacting the affairs of the corporation, which ſhould be valid to all intents and purpoſes.

By another act of parliament, paſſed in the 8th and 9th years of K. W. III. the company were empowered to enlarge their capital ſtock, by new ſubſcriptions, to 2,201,171 l. 10 s. 8 d. It was alſo enacted, That the capital ſtock and fund of the bank, ſhould be exempt from taxes; that the ſtock ſhould be accounted a perſonal, and not a real eſtate; to deſcend to executors, and not to heirs; that no contract, or agreement, either by word or in writing, for buying or ſelling of bank ſtock, ſhould be good in law or equity, unleſs it be regiſtered in the books of the bank within ſeven days, and the ſtock transferred within fourteen days; that no act of the bank ſhould forfeit the ſtock thereof, but the ſame ſhould be ſubject to the debts of the company; that it ſhould be felony, without benefit of clergy, to forge, or counterfeit, the common ſeal of the bank, or any ſealed bank bill, or any bank note; or to alter, or eraſe, ſuch bills, or notes; that the duties of tonnage and poundage, on wines, vinegar, and tobacco, on the additional impoſitions on goods and merchandizes, ſtamps, marriages, duties on houſes, and upon ſalt, ſhould be the general fund for making good the particular funds of the company, for money advanced to the government; that in caſe of judgment of forfeiture given againſt the bank, the yearly payments out of the exchequer, and all the eſtate belonging to the bank, ſhould be veſted, for three years, in twenty-four perſons, to be choſen by the majority of the company; who ſhould have power to receive the monies due to the bank, as if no ſuch judgment had been given, and to pay and diſcharge the debts and contracts due at the time of ſuch judgment; after which the ſurplus ſhould be divided among the ſeveral members, and then the ſaid yearly payments ſhonld be veſted in the particular members, in proportion to a liſt thereof, to be made up by the ſaid truſtees; and ſhould be aſſignable in a book to be kept by the auditor of the receipt; and that the debts of the bank ſhould never exceed their capital ſtock.

By another act of parliament, paſſed in the 7th of Queen Anne, the company were empowered to augment their capital ſtock to 4,402,343 l. and the company to be continued till the 1ſt of Auguſt 1732, on condition of advancing 400,000 l. more to the government.

By another act of the 9th of Q. Anne, it was enacted, That every perſon who ſhould be elected governor, deputy-governor, or director of this company, ſhould, during that year, be incapacitated from acting as a director of the Eaſt India company.

In 1714 the company advanced to the government another loan of 1,000,000 l. and 500,000 l.; in conſideration of which the incorporation was continued till the year 1742.

In the 3d year of the reign of K. George I. the intereſt of the capital ſtock belonging to the bank was reduced to 5 *per cent.* and the bank agreed to deliver up as many exchequer bills as amounted to 2,000,000 l. in principal money; and to accept an annuity of 100,000 l. payable out of the aggregate fund, and duties upon houſes It was thereby alſo declared, That it ſhould be lawful for the bank, from time to time, as they ſhould ſee cauſe, to call for, from their members, in proportion to their reſpective intereſts in the capital ſtock, any ſums of money as, in a general court, ſhould be adjudged neceſſary; and all perſonal repreſentatives ſhould be indemnified in paying the ſame: and if any member ſhould neglect to pay his ſhare of the monies ſo called for, at the time appointed by notice in the London Gazette, and fixed upon the Royal Exchange, it ſhould be lawful for the bank, not only to ſtop the dividend of ſuch member, and to apply the ſame towards payment of the money ſo called for; but alſo to ſtop the transfers of the ſhare of every ſuch defaulter, and to charge him with an intereſt of 5 *per cent. per annum*, for the monies ſo omitted by him to be paid, till payment thereof; and if the principal and intereſt ſhould be three months unpaid, the bank ſhould have power to ſell ſo much of the ſtock belonging to the defaulter as would ſatisfy the ſame, rendering the overplus to the proprietors; and the bank might, in a general court, when they ſhould adjudge their affairs would admit thereof, cauſe any ſum of money, ſo called in, to be divided among the then members, in proportion to their reſpective ſhares in the capital ſtock.

In the year 1725, the bank agreed to reduce the intereſt of their annuity of 100,000 l. due from the government, upon the ſum of two millions, to 4 *per cent.* which reduced that annuity to 80,000 l. payable out of the duties on houſes, and the aggregate fund.

In the year 1727 the governor and company of the bank paid into the exchequer 1,750,000 l. for the purchaſe of an annuity of 70,000 l. ſubject to redemption; which was chargeable on the duties of coals and culm.

In the year 1728 the governor and company of the bank paid into the exchequer 1,250,000 l. for the purchaſe of an annuity of 50,000 l. chargeable on the additional duties on ſoap and paper; certain linens, ſilks, calicoes, and ſtuffs; ſtarch, exported coals, and the ſtamp duties; all which had been previouſly mortgaged to the ſouth-ſea company. The ſame year, the government ordered 500,000 l. to be paid to the bank out of the ſinking fund, for redeeming a proportionable part of the annuity of 80,000 l. granted in the year 1725; and, in the year 1737, the government alſo ordered that the ſum of 1,000,000 l. ſhould be paid to the bank, in further diminution of the annuity of 80,000 l. whereby the original principal ſum of 2,000,000 l. was reduced to 500,000 l. and the annuity to 20,000 l.; as alſo the whole debt due to the bank to 1,600,000 l.

The

The incorporation expiring in the year 1742, the company engaged to ſupply the government with the farther ſum of 1,600,000 l. at 3 *per cent.*; in conſideration whereof they obtained an act of parliament for enlarging their capital with that additional ſum, and continuing the company till the 1ſt of Auguſt 1764. The government was now indebted to the company in the ſum of 3,200,000 l. the one half carrying 4, and the other moiety 3 *per cent.*: for which they not only procured the prolongation of the company for 22 years; but the act of parliament for that purpoſe alſo declared, That no other bank ſhould be allowed by parliament; nor ſhould any body politic or corporate, or other perſons whatever, united in partnerſhip above the number of ſix, throughout England, borrow, or take up, any ſums of money on their notes payable for leſs time than ſix months, during the continuance of ſuch privilege to this company; which was thereby declared to be a corporation with privilege of excluſive banking; though ſubject to redemption on a year's notice, after the 1ſt of Auguſt 1764, and repayment of their principal intereſt, and all arrears of annuity.

In the year 1746 the company agreed, that the ſum of 986,800 l. due to them in exchequer bills, unſatisfied on the duties for licences to ſell ſpirituous liquors, and ſtrong waters, by retail, ſhould be cancelled and diſcharged; and, in lieu thereof, they accepted of an annuity of 39,472 l. being the intereſt on the ſaid ſum at 4 *per cent.* to be charged on the ſame ſecurities: and the company alſo agreed to advance the further ſum of 1,000,000 l. into the exchequer, upon the credit of the duties ariſing by the malt and land tax, at 4 *per cent.* for exchequer bills to be iſſued for that purpoſe: in conſideration whereof the company were enabled to augment their capital with 986,800 l.

In the year 1750 the government ſtood indebted to the company, for principal and intereſt, in the ſum of 8,486,800 l. and to the proprietors of certain annuities transferable at the bank, in the ſum of 18,402,472 l. Theſe, with the other national debts, amounted to upwards of 80 millions, which the legiſlature were deſirous of reducing by a diminution of the public intereſt; and, accordingly, an act of parliament paſſed, for this purpoſe, whereby it was enacted, That all perſons, bodies politic and corporate, intitled unto any part of the national debt, who ſhould conſent to accept of an intereſt of 3 *per cent.* to commence from the 25th of December 1757, ſubject to the ſame redemption which their 4 *per cent.* were liable to, ſhould, in lieu of their preſent intereſt, receive 4 *per cent.* until the 25th of December 1750; from thence 3 l. 10 s. *per cent.* until the 25th of December 1757; and to 3 *per cent.* afterwards, till redeemable by parliament: for which all the duties, and revenues, appropriated to the payment of the 4 *per cent.* ſhould be ſubject.

But as the principal ſums on the 4 *per cent.* annuities, unſubſcribed for accepting this reduction of intereſt, and payable at the exchequer and bank of England, amounted to 1,026,476 l. 4 s. 6 d. being 182,250 l. the amount of the unſubſcribed exchequer orders, payable out of the duties upon wrought plate; with 157,571 l. 6 s. 1 d. the amount of the unſubſcribed annuities of the year 1746; and alſo 71,723 l. 9 s. 6 d. the amount of the unſubſcribed lottery annuities of 1747, both transferable at the bank; and 211,634 l. 15 s. the amount of the unſubſcribed annuities of 1747, transferable as aforeſaid; as alſo 281,381 l. 1 s. 9 d. the amount of the unſubſcribed annuities of the year 1748, transferable as aforeſaid; and 103,975 l. 12 s. 2 d. the amount of the unſubſcribed annuities of the year 1749, transferable as aforeſaid: the ſame was, by an act of parliament paſſed in the year 1751, directed to be paid off: and as the bank of England agreed to pay into the exchequer 1,013,148 l. 4 s. 6 d. part thereof, upon condition that exchequer bills ſhould be iſſued to them, charged on the ſinking fund, at 3 *per cent. per annum*; and that the principal in ſuch exchequer bills ſhould be repaid them out of the firſt monies of the ſinking fund, that ſhould be applied to the payment of the principal of the national debt; and alſo upon condition that they ſhould ſubſcribe the reſidue thereof, amounting to 13,328 l. in bank annuities: the government agreed thereto, and the money was accordingly advanced by the company, which increaſed their above mentioned debt of 8,486,800 l. to 9,513,276 l. 4 s. 6 d. See *Fund*, *National Debt*, and *Exchequer*.

The company make dividends of their profits half yearly, of which notice is publickly given; when thoſe who have an occaſion for their money may readily receive it: but private perſons, if they judge convenient, are permitted to continue their funds, and have their intereſts added to the principal.

A magnificent ſtructure was erected behind the royal exchange for the conveniency of this company, the foundation of which was laid in 1732; and, ſoon after the finiſhing of this ſtately fabric, the proprietors of the bank cauſed a ſtatue to be erected in the hall of the building, in commemoration of their founder, with the following inſcription.

Ob
Legibus vim
Judiciis auctoritatem,
Senatui dignitatem,
Civibus univerſis jura ſua,
Tam ſacra, quam civilia, reſtituta,
Et illuſtriſſimæ domus Hanoverianæ
In imperium Britannicum ſucceſſione.
Poſteris confirmata,
Optimo principi,
Gulielmo tertio,
Conditori ſuo,
Grato animo poſuit, dicavitque
Hujus ærarii ſocietas,
A. C. MDCCXXXIV. harumque ædium I.

Or, in Engliſh, thus:

For reſtoring efficacy to the laws,
Authority to the courts of juſtice,
Dignity to the parliament,
To all his ſubjects their religion and liberties,
And confirming theſe to poſterity,
By the ſucceſſion of the illuſtrious houſe of Hanover
To the Britiſh throne.
To the beſt of princes, William the Third,
Founder of the bank,
This corporation, from a ſenſe of gratitude,
Has erected this ſtatue,
And dedicated it to his memory,
In the year of our Lord MDCCXXXIV.
And the firſt year of this building.

Thus firmly eſtabliſhed is this glorious ſuperſtructure of the national credit of Great Britain, having the legiſlative power of the kingdom for its foundation; a ſecurity ſufficient for ſo noble, ſo extenſive a fund; a ſecurity coeval with the liberties of the people, that cannot periſh without the extinction of freedom, and has ſo cloſely rivetted the conſtitution of the bank with the common intereſt of the country, that they ſhould now co-operate for their mutual preſervation, againſt the extended arm of ambition, the deſigning eye of avarice, the envy of ſurrounding enemies, and the force of future invaſions.

BANK *of Amſterdam*. This bank was eſtabliſhed in 1609, much upon the footing of the banco of Venice, and is, properly ſpeaking, a perpetual caſh for traders; its fund having amounted to ſuch prodigious ſums, as ſometimes to have been computed at no leſs than 3000 tons of gold, valued at 100,000 florins *per* ton, amounting in the whole to near forty-two millions ſterling.

By its eſtabliſhment, it was ordained, that the payments of bills of exchange ſhould be made in bank-money, unleſs the ſum was leſs than 300 florins; and a payment cannot be written in bank for leſs than this ſum, paying 6 d. either for receiving or paying, the Eaſt and Weſt India companies excepted; which payments are made by a ſimple transfer; ſo that both debtors or creditors are obliged, the one to bring their money to the bank, and the others to receive it in bank-money.

Tho' the bank of Amſterdam has no open caſh, like the banco of Venice; yet, ſetting aſide the regulation of the bank, payments are ſometimes made in real money; and

there are particular cashiers out of the bank, who make these payments for 8 *per cent.*

It is by this bank that the city of Amsterdam upholds itself with so much splendor; and, without disturbing the liberty of trade, makes itself mistress of the greatest part of the money of its inhabitants; for no man conceives it a diminution of his wealth for having his substance in bank.

Ingots of gold, and bars of silver, are also deposited in this bank, their price being regulated pursuant to their value, after the assay has been made: and it is therefore that the bank-money is usually worth more than the current, this difference being called the *agio* of the bank.

Those who have money in bank, may take it out when they think proper, by paying 16 *per cent.* for the keeping, or they may dispose of it in bills; and if, in taking it out, the agio is under 5 *per cent.* the treasurer makes the difference to be paid, provided that upon receipt the interest was 5 *per cent.*

The bank is shut up twice a-year, in January or February, and in July or August, and continues shut eight, ten, or fifteen days; during which times the books of accompt are adjusted. It is also shut up during the feasts of Easter, Ascension, Christmas, and some other festivals.

The whole city is bound to make good the money deposited in this bank, and the treasure is secured under four different locks; the keys of which are kept by four of the principal magistrates.

When any difficulty arises among merchants and traders concerning bank-affairs, it is regulated summarily by commissioners nominated for this purpose by the magistrates of Amsterdam: and some other formalities are also observed concerning this bank, which are too immaterial to be inserted.

BANK *of Hamburgh.* Tho' the fund of this bank is not so considerable as that of Amsterdam, yet the fidelity and exactness wherewith all things are therein transacted, have given it a great reputation through all Europe, and particularly in the north.

The burghers, and several corporations of the city, are the security of the bank, the senate not assuming the least inspection into its affairs.

The directors are four in number, whose election is by a plurality of voices of the principal citizens. It is the business of these directors to superintend the observance of the regulations, and to furnish the cashiers with money, when payments are to be made; which however is done without intermeddling with the bank-treasure, the directors taking care to provide other funds.

The capital of this treasure is supposed to be very considerable: but as the book-keepers take an oath of secresy with regard to what enters, and goes out of the bank, as also with regard to what each person has deposited therein, it is very difficult to fix upon any certainty; which is likewise the reason that no seizure can be made of the deposit belonging to any person; because creditors are deprived of all such knowledge by this obligation of secresy.

The book-keepers, who, as well as the directors, are four in number, are obliged every week to give in to the comptrollers two books of their accompts; and none but burghers can have an accompt in bank, whose money is deposited there without interest. However, no particular person can write in bank for less than 100 marks, and two stivers are paid for entering any sum under 300 marks.

There are hours specified every day for writing in bank; in the morning, from seven till ten; and in the afternoon, from three till five. It is also at the same hours in the morning, that a person may be informed whether a sum has been written; and the same may be done from ten till five in the afternoon, on paying a fee of two stivers to the book-keeper. But there are merchants who stipulate with the bank, for 20, 30, or 40 marks a year, for a power to write their sums in bank at any time.

The bank is shut up every year, from the 31st December to the 15th of January following.

The species usually received in bank are rix-dollars, halfs, quarters, and eighths of rix-dollars, which are usually worth an eighth, very often a quarter, and even sometimes one half *per cent.* more than the money which is written in bank-bills; so that the agio is sometimes from 30 to 40 *per cent.*

The bank of Hamburgh receives also pledges, on which it lends money at interest, with an obligation of repaying principal and interest in six months; in default whereof the deposited effects are sold at the bar of the bank to the best bidder, after an advertisement importing the day of their sale and delivery.

The BANK *of Genca*, commonly called the *bank of St. George*, was formerly of great opulence, and in high estimation, consisting of such branches of the revenues as were appropriated to the discharge of several sums borrowed from private persons during the exigencies of the commonwealth; which perpetually endangered it during any commotions, where the republic was an accessory party: therefore the unhappy alliance of the Genoese with the French and Spaniards, against the house of Austria in 1746, was attended with the most fatal consequences to this bank, by the impoverishment of the state, which has never been, and perhaps never will be, able to revive the lustre and reputation of its national fund.

BANK-*book*. See *Book-keeping*.

BANK-*fund*. See *Fund*.

BANKER. A person who banks, or negotiates and traffics in money, receiving and remitting from place to place by means of bills or letters of exchange; the word bank, in this sense, being a derivative from the Italian banca, formed of the Spanish banco, a bench whereon the antient money-changers sat in the public markets; or, according to the opinion of others, a table whereon they counted their money.

In Italy, the employment of a banker, especially in republics, is no derogation from nobility; which occasions the principal part of the Italian cadets, or younger sons of condition, to undertake it for the support of their dignity, and the credit of the profession.

An act of parliament, made in the 23d year of King Charles II. recites, "That several persons, being gold-"smiths, and others, by taking up or borrowing great "sums of money, and lending out the same again "for extraordinary hire or profit, have acquired the re-"putation of bankers." It is therefore apparent from this act, that the moneyed goldsmiths in London first obtained the characters of bankers in the reign of that monarch: but bankers of late, are those goldsmiths, and private persons, in whose custody money is deposited for security, to be withdrawn again as the proprietors have occasion for the same, without any manner of interest.

The occupation of a banker is now very advantageously executed by several eminent citizens of London and inhabitants of Westminster, in Edinburgh, Bristol, Shrewsbury, and several other places of the united kingdom; as also in Dublin, and some other of the most considerable maritime towns in Ireland; but, by the act of parliament passed in the year 1742, no company of bankers exceeding six in number, are permitted in England.

BANKRUPT, is a dealer, who, having possession of the property of other people, absconds to defraud his creditors; the word being derived from the Italian *banco rotto*, or broken bench; for it was the custom in Italy, when a banker failed, to demolish his bank, or bench, where he counted his money, and negotiated his business in the public market, on purpose to advertise the community, that the person to whom the bank appertained, was no longer in a condition to continue his employment. However, Cowel deduces the word from the French *banque* or table, and *route*, *vestigium*, or trace; by a metaphor from the sign left in the ground of a table once fastened to it, and no more to be discovered: for, on this principle, he traces the origin of bankrupts, from the antient Roman mensarii, or argentarii, who had their tabernæ or mensæ in certain public places; and who, when they fled, or absconded, with the money intrusted to their care, left only the sign or shadow of their former station behind for the satisfaction of their creditors.

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The firſt act of parliament relative to bankrupts, was paſſed in the 35th year of the reign of King Henry VIII. which was more particularly explained in another act paſſed in the 13th year of Queen Elizabeth; whereby it was enacted, That if any merchant, or other perſon, uſing the trade of merchandiſe, by way of bargaining, exchange, rechange, bartry, chevisance, or otherwiſe, in groſs, or by retail, or ſeeking his trade of living by buying and ſelling; ſhould depart the realm, or begin to keep his houſe, or otherwiſe to abſent himſelf, or ſuffer himſelf willingly to be arreſted for debt, or other thing, not due for money delivered, wares ſold, or other good conſideration, or ſhould ſuffer himſelf to be outlawed, or yield himſelf to priſon, or depart from his dwelling-houſe, to the intent to defraud or hinder any of his creditors of their juſt debts, he ſhould be deemed a bankrupt: and when any merchant, or other perſon uſing the trade of merchandiſe, ſhall be deemed a bankrupt, the Lord Chancellor is impowered, by commiſſion under the great ſeal, to appoint commiſſioners for examining into the ſtate of the bankruptcy; who ſhould be inveſted with a diſcretionary power, to take care of the body of the bankrupt, and make ſuch order as they think neceſſary relative to the ſecurity of his real and perſonal effects, for the ſatisfaction of the creditors.

By the ſtatute made in the 1ſt year of the reign of King James I. it is enacted, That every perſon uſing merchandiſe, who ſhould willingly or fraudulently procure himſelf to be arreſted, or his goods, money, or chattels, to be attached or ſequeſtered, or depart from his dwelling-houſe, or make any fraudulent grant or conveyance of his land or chattels, whereby his creditors might be defeated or delayed for the recovery of their debts; or being arreſted for debt, ſhould, after his arreſt lie in priſon ſix months upon that arreſt, or any other arreſt or detention for debt, ſhould be adjudged a bankrupt. That if any perſon becoming a bankrupt, ſhould convey to any of his children, or other perſons, any real or perſonal eſtate, or transfer his debts to other men, except the ſame ſhould be conveyed or transferred upon the marriage of any of his children, both the parties married being of the years of conſent, or ſome valuable conſideration, it ſhould be in the power of the commiſſioners to ſell or diſpoſe thereof, in as ample manner as if the bankrupt had been actually ſeized or poſſeſſed thereof. That it ſhould be lawful for the commiſſioners to examine the bankrupt upon interrogatories tending to diſcloſe his eſtate, as they ſhould think proper; and if he ſhould be guilty of perjury, whereby to prejudice the creditors to the value of 10 l. the bankrupt ſhould ſtand upon the pillory two hours, and have one of his ears nailed to the pillory, and cut off.

By a ſtatute of the 21ſt of James I. it was declared, That the ſtatutes againſt bankrupts, and for relief of creditors, ſhould be in all things largely and beneficially conſtrued for relief of the creditors. That every perſon uſing the trade of merchandiſe, by way of bargaining, exchange, bartering, chevisance, or otherwiſe, in groſs or by retail, or ſeeking his living by buying and ſelling, or uſing the trade or profeſſion of a ſcrivener, receiving other men's money or eſtates into his truſt and cuſtody, who ſhould obtain any protection, other than ſuch perſons as ſhould be lawfully protected by privilege of parliament, or ſhould prefer unto his Majeſty, or unto any of the King's courts, any petition or bill againſt his creditors; or any of them, deſiring or endeavouring to compel them to accept leſs than their juſt and principal debts; or to procure time or longer days of payment, than was given at the time of their original contracts; or being arreſted for debt, ſhould, after his arreſt, lie in priſon two months upon that, or any other arreſt or detention for debt; or being arreſted for 100 l. or more of juſt debt, ſhould, after ſuch arreſt, eſcape out of priſon, ſhould be adjudged a bankrupt; and in the caſe of an arreſt, or lying in priſon for debt, from the time of his firſt arreſt. That if any bankrupt ſhould, upon his examination before the commiſſioners, be found to have fraudulently conveyed away his real or perſonal eſtate to the value of 20 l. with an intent to elude the execution of the ſtatutes, or defraud his creditors, and ſhould not diſcover the ſame, ſuch perſon might be indicted for ſuch fraud; and, if convicted, to ſtand upon the pillory for two hours, have one of his ears nailed there, and cut off. That the commiſſioners, or any perſons appointed by their warrant, might break open the houſes, chambers, ſhops, warehouſes, doors, trunks, or cheſts of the bankrupt, where the bankrupt, or any of his goods or eſtate, ſhould be reputed to be, and to ſeize upon and order the body and goods of the bankrupt, and to diſpoſe of the ſame as the commiſſioners ſhould think proper. That all acts againſt bankrupts ſhould extend to ſtrangers born, as well aliens as denizens, as effectually as to natural born ſubjects, both to make them liable to the laws as bankrupts, as alſo to make them capable of the benefit as creditors.

Some other proviſions relative to bankrupts, tho' immaterial to the deſign of this dictionary, were ordained by the ſtatutes of the 13th and 14th of Charles II. the 5th and 10th of Queen Anne, and the 5th and 7th of King George I. But the moſt particular and eſſential act was paſſed in the 5th of King George II. whereby it was enacted, That bankers, brokers, and factors, ſhould be liable to the ſtatutes concerning bankrupts. That if any perſon declared a bankrupt ſhould not, within forty-two days after notice in writing left at his uſual place of abode, or perſonal notice, in caſe ſuch perſon be in priſon, and notice in the London Gazette, ſurrender himſelf to the commiſſioners, and diſcover and deliver up all his effects, books, and writings, except neceſſary wearing apparel for himſelf, his wife, and children; then the bankrupt, in ſuch caſe, or in caſe he ſhould conceal or embezzle his eſtate, to the value of 20 l. or any books of accompt, or writings relating thereto, with intent to defraud his creditors, ſhould, upon indictment and conviction, be deemed *guilty of felony, without benefit of clergy*; and the goods and eſtate of ſuch felon ſhould go among the creditors ſeeking relief under ſuch commiſſion. That the commiſſioners ſhould appoint, within the forty-two days for the bankrupt to ſurrender, not leſs than three meetings, the laſt of which ſhould be on the forty-ſecond day limited for his appearance; and three weeks notice ſhould be given in the Gazette of the time and place of ſuch meeting. That the Lord Chancellor might enlarge the time for ſuch perſon ſurrendering himſelf, and diſcovering his effects, not exceeding 50 days from the expiration of the ſaid forty-two days, ſo as ſuch order for enlarging the time be made ſix days before the time of ſurrender.

That all bankrupts who ſhould ſurrender and conform, as by the act directed, ſhould be allowed 5 *per cent.* out of the neat produce of the eſtate that ſhould be received, if it was ſufficient to pay 10 s. in the pound, and ſo as the ſaid 5 l. *per cent.* ſhould not amount to above 200 l. In caſe the eſtate ſhould be ſufficient to pay 12 s. 6 d. in the pound, then all perſons ſo conforming ſhould be allowed 7 l. 10 s. *per cent.* ſuch allowance not exceeding 250 l. and if the eſtate was ſufficient to pay 15 s. in the pound, the bankrupt to be allowed 10 l. *per cent.* but not to exceed 300 l. and every ſuch bankrupt ſhould be diſcharged from all debts owing at the time he became bankrupt, on producing his certificate; unleſs the plaintiff could prove the certificate was unfairly obtained, or make appear any concealment by ſuch bankrupt to the value of 10 l. But if the neat produce of ſuch eſtate ſhou'd not amount to 10 s. in the pound, the bankrupt ſhould only be allowed ſo much as the aſſignees and commiſſioners ſhould think fit, not exceeding 3 l. *per cent.* That no diſcovery ſhould entitle ſuch bankrupt to the benefits allowed by the act, unleſs the commiſſioners certified to the Lord Chancellor his conformity to the act, and unleſs 4 parts in 5 in number and value of the creditors for 20 l. reſpectively, ſhould ſign ſuch certificate; which certificate the bankrupt ſhould make oath was obtained without fraud, after which it muſt be allowed by the Lord Chancellor; and any of the creditors were to be heard, if they thought fit, againſt the making ſuch certificate, and againſt the confirmation thereof. That nothing in this act ſhould give any advantage to any bankrupt, who ſhould, upon marriage of any of his children, have given above the value of 100 l. unleſs he proved before the commiſſioners, that he had other eſtate remaining ſufficient to ſatisfy his debt; nor to any bankrupt

rupt who ſhould have loſt, in one day 5 l. or in the whole, the value of 100 l. within twelve months next preceding his becoming bankrupt, at any ſort of gaming; or that, within one year, ſhould have loſt 100 l. by contracts for ſtock, or ſhares of any public funds, where ſuch contract was not to be performed within one week from the making, or where the ſtock was not actually transferred.

That the commiſſioners ſhould examine the bankrupt, and every other perſon they thought proper, touching the bankruptcy; and, if they refuſed to anſwer in a ſatisfactory manner, the commiſſioners might by warrant commit them to priſon, to remain there without bail, till they ſubmitted to anſwer, and ſubſcribed their examination; and if any goaler wilfully ſuffered ſuch perſon to eſcape, or to go without the walls or doors of the priſon, he ſhould forfeit 100 l. for the uſe of the creditors.

That every perſon who ſhould, after the time allowed to ſuch bankrupts, voluntarily make diſcovery of any part of the eſtate belonging to the bankrupt, not before come to the knowledge of the aſſignees, ſhould be allowed 5 *per cent.* and ſuch further reward as the aſſignees, and the major part of the creditors, in value, ſhould think fit.

That every perſon who ſhould have accepted of any truſt, and ſhould wilfully conceal any eſtate of any bankrupt, and ſhould not, within forty-two days after ſuch commiſſion ſhould iſſue, and notice given in the Gazette, diſcover ſuch truſt and eſtate, in writing to one of the commiſſioners or aſſignees, and ſubmit to be examined, ſhould forfeit 100 l. and double the value of the eſtate concealed, to the creditors.

That it ſhould be lawful for the perſons taking bills, notes, or other ſecurity for money payable at a future day, to petition for a commiſſion, or join in petitioning.

That no commiſſion of bankrupt ſhould be awarded, unleſs the ſingle debt of the creditor, or of more perſons being partners, petitioning for the ſame, amounted to 100 l. or unleſs the debt of two creditors petitioning amounted to 150 l. or unleſs the debt of more creditors petitioning amounted to 200 l. and the creditors petitioning ſhould, before the ſame be granted, make affidavit, or ſolemn affirmation, before one of the maſters in chancery, of the truth of their debts, and give bond to the Lord Chancellor, in the penalty of 200 l. to be conditioned for proving their debts; and if ſuch debts ſhould not be really due, or if it could not be proved that the party was a bankrupt, then the Lord Chancellor ſhould, upon petition of the party grieved, order ſatisfaction to be made for the damages ſuſtained; and, in caſe there be occaſion, aſſign ſuch bond to the party, who might ſue for the ſame in his own name.

That if any bankrupt ſhould, after iſſuing of any commiſſion againſt him, pay to the perſon who ſued out the ſame, or deliver to ſuch perſon goods, or ſecurity for his debt, whereby the perſon ſuing out ſuch commiſſion ſhould privately have more in the pound than the other creditors, ſuch payment, delivery of goods, or giving ſecurity, ſhould be deemed an act of bankruptcy, whereby ſuch commiſſion ſhould be ſuperſeded; and the Lord Chancellor might award, to any creditors petitioning, another commiſſion; and the perſon receiving ſuch goods ſhould forfeit as well his whole debt, as the whole he ſhould have received, and ſhould deliver up the ſame, or the full thereof, to be divided among the other creditors.

That the creditors who ſhould petition for a commiſſion of bankruptcy, ſhould be obliged at their own coſts to proſecute the ſame, until aſſignees ſhould be choſen; and the commiſſioners ſhould, at the meeting to be appointed for chuſing aſſignees, aſcertain ſuch coſts, and order the aſſignees to reimburſe ſuch petitioning creditors, out of the firſt effects of the bankrupt received, and every petitioner ſhould be at liberty to prove his debt without paying contribution.

That the commiſſioners ſhould immediately, after the declaration of the bankrupt, cauſe notice thereof to be given in the Gazette, and ſhould appoint a time and place for the creditors to meet to chuſe aſſignees; which meeting for the city of London, and all places within the bills of mortality, ſhould be at Guildhall: at which meeting the debts ſhould be proved, and the commiſſioners ſhould aſſign the eſtate belonging to the bankrupt unto ſuch perſons as the major part in value of ſuch creditors ſhould chuſe; and the aſſignees ſhould be obliged to keep books of accompt, wherein they ſhould enter all ſums of money, or other effects, received out of the eſtate of the bankrupt, to which books every creditor ſhould have free reſort; but no creditor ſhould be permitted to vote in ſuch choice of aſſignees, whoſe debt ſhould not amount to 10 l.

That where it ſhould appear there had been mutual credit given, or mutual debts, between the bankrupt and any other perſon, the commiſſioners or aſſignees ſhould ſtate the accompt; when one debt might be oppoſed againſt another, and the ballance of ſuch accompt ſhould be claimed or paid.

That the commiſſioners might immediately appoint aſſignees, who might be removed by the majority of the creditors; and the Lord Chancellor might, upon petition of the creditors, order the choice of new aſſignees; when the commiſſioners ſhould cauſe public notice to be given in the two Gazettes, that ſhould immediately follow the removal of ſuch aſſignees, and the appointment of others.

That, before the creditors ſhould proceed to the choice of aſſignees, the majority preſent ſhould, if they thought fit, direct how, and with whom the monies to be received ſhould remain until the ſame was divided; to which rule the aſſignees ſhould conform, as often as 100 l. ſhould be got in.

That the aſſignees, after the expiration of four months, and within twelve months from the time of iſſuing ſuch commiſſion, ſhould cauſe twenty-one days notice to be given in the Gazette, of the time and place the commiſſioners and aſſignees intend to make a dividend; when the creditors, who had not before proved their debts, ſhould be at liberty to prove the ſame; and, upon every ſuch meeting, the aſſignees ſhould produce accompts of their receipts and payments, as alſo of what ſhould remain outſtanding, and might be examined upon oath touching the truth of ſuch accompts; when the aſſignees ſhould have all juſt allowances, and the commiſſioners ſhould order ſuch dividend, and at ſuch time, as they ſhould think neceſſary; and the aſſignees, in purſuance of ſuch order, without any deed of diſtribution, ſhould make ſuch dividend, and take receipts in a book from each creditor.

That the aſſignees ſhould be empowered, with conſent of the creditors, to make compoſition with any debtors, where it ſhould appear neceſſary.

That after the bankrupt ſhould have obtained the confirmation of his certificate, he ſhould attend the aſſignees to ſettle any accompt, or any court of record, or for ſuch other buſineſs as the aſſignees ſhould judge neceſſary; for which attendance the bankrupt ſhould be allowed 2 s. 6 d. a day; but if he ſhould neglect to attend, or refuſe to aſſiſt in ſuch diſcovery, without cauſe ſhewn to, and allowed by the commiſſioners, he ſhould be committed to priſon, until he ſhould conform to the ſatisfaction of the commiſſioners.

That, within eighteen months after the iſſuing of any ſuch commiſſion, the aſſignees ſhould make a ſecond dividend, if the eſtate was not wholly divided upon the firſt; when the commiſſioners ſhould order what was to be divided; which ſecond dividend ſhould be final, unleſs any ſuit ſhould be depending, or any part of the eſtate ſtanding out; or unleſs ſome future eſtate of the bankrupt ſhould afterwards come to the aſſignees; in which caſe the aſſignees ſhould convert the ſame into money, and within two months after divide the ſame by order of the commiſſioners.

That no ſuit in equity ſhould be commenced by aſſignees, without conſent of the majority of the creditors preſent.

And that no farmer, graſier, or drover, or receiver-general of taxes, ſhould be deemed a bankrupt, or be intitled to the benefits given by this act, which was to continue for three years from the 24th of June 1732.

The above act was continued, by the ſtatute of the 9th of George II. to the 29th of September 1743, and afterwards continued in full force. And, by an act of parliament paſſed in 1746, it was enacted, That no real creditor of a bankrupt, in reſpect of goods ſold to, or bills of exchange really drawn, negotiated, or accepted by ſuch bankrupts in courſe of dealing, ſhould be liable to refund

fund to the aſſignees, any money, which, before the iſſuing of the commiſſion, was really in the courſe of trade received by him of ſuch bankrupt, before he knew of his becoming a bankrupt, or being in inſolvent circumſtances. And reciting, that whereas merchants, and other traders, frequently lent money on bottomry, or at reſpondentia, and cauſed their veſſels with their cargoes to be inſured; and where commiſſions of bankruptcy iſſued againſt the obligor, or aſſurer, before the loſs of the ſhip or goods happened, it had been made a queſtion whether the obligee, or aſſured, ſhould be permitted to prove their debts, or have any benefit under the commiſſion, which might be a diſcouragement to trade: for remedy thereof, it was therefore enacted, That the obligee in any bottomry, or reſpondentia bond, and the aſſured in any policy of aſſurance, made upon a valuable conſideration, ſhould be admitted to claim; and after the loſs or contingency, to prove the debt thereon, as if the ſame happened before the iſſuing of the commiſſion, and receive a proportionable dividend.

By the ſtatute of the 24th of George II. it was enacted, That where any perſons ſhould fraudulently ſwear, or being quakers affirm, before the major part of the commiſſioners in a commiſſion of bankruptcy, or by affidavit or affirmation exhibited to them, that a ſum of money is due to him, or her, from any bankrupt, which ſhould, in fact, not be really and duly owing; and ſhould, in reſpect of ſuch fictitious debt, ſign the certificate for ſuch bankrupt's diſcharge: in every ſuch caſe, unleſs ſuch bankrupt ſhould, before the major part of the commiſſioners have ſigned ſuch certificate, by writing ſigned by him, and delivered to one or more of the commiſſioners, or of the aſſignees of his eſtate and effects, diſcloſe the fraud, and object to the reality of ſuch debt; ſuch certificate ſhould be null and void, and the bankrupt ſhould not be entitled to his diſcharge, or to any of the benefits or allowances given to bankrupts, by the act of the 5th of George II.: and that where any creditor of a bankrupt reſides in foreign parts, the letter of attorney of ſuch creditor, atteſted by a notary-public, in the uſual form, ſhould be a ſufficient evidence of the power by which any perſon thereby authoriſed ſhould ſign the bankrupt's certificate.

Such are the precautions taken by the Britiſh legiſlature, for the ſecurity of credit, the ſupport of mercantile confidence, and the proſperity of commerce: neither have other nations been leſs provident againſt ſuch fraudulent practices in trade; particularly in France, where, by the regulation of Henry IV. in the year 1609, and that of Lewis XIV. in 1673, it is declared, That fraudulent bankrupts ſhould be rigorouſly proſecuted, and puniſhed with death.

BANTAM. Once the capital of a large kingdom, and a port-town of great trade on the N. W. coaſt of the iſland of Java; ſituated in 105 deg. of E. lon. and 6 deg. 30 min. of S. lat. See *Sunda Iſlands*.

BANTRY. A port-town of the county of Cork, in the S. W. part of Ireland, ſituated in 9 deg. of W. lon. and 51 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on a bay of the ſea, which is denominated from the town. See *Ireland*.

BAR, is that ſhallow part at the entrance of a port, which prevents ſhips from coming in with the tide; as that of Goa, Cheſter, Dublin, and many other places.

BAR, is alſo ſaid of certain bits, or pieces of metal, extended in length; as a bar of ſilver, and a bar of iron.

BAR, is likewiſe a denomination given, among traders on the coaſt of Guinea, to a certain quantity of goods of any kind, which quantity was of equal value among the natives, to a bar of iron, when trade was firſt carried on to the river Gambia. Thus, a pound of fringe is a bar, two pounds of gun-powder is a bar, and 100 gun-flints is a bar, and each ſpecies of trading goods has a quantity in it called a bar: therefore, their way of reckoning is by bars, or crowns, one of which does not ſometimes amount to one ſhilling ſterling; but that happens according to the call of goods, which are ſometimes dear, and ſometimes cheap.

BARACOU. A port-town on the N. E. part of the iſland of Cuba, in N. America, ſituated in 76 deg. of W. lon. and 21 deg. of N. lat. 50 m. N. E. of St. Jago de Cuba. See *Spaniſh America*.

BARANCA, or *Baranco de Melambo*, among the Spaniards, is an office, or factory, of receipt, in America, which they have upon the river Magdalen, ſix leagues diſtant from the N. ſea; where all European commodities deſigned for new Granada are unloaded; being about 30 leagues diſtant from Carthagena, and 20 from St. Martha.

BARATRY. See *Barratry*.

BARBADOES. One of the Britiſh Caribbee iſlands. See *Britiſh America*.

BARBARY, or the N. diviſion of Africa, extends itſelf along the ſouthern ſhore of the Mediterranean ſea, from the 2d deg. of W. lon. to the 30th deg. of E. lon. the river Mulvia ſeparating it from Morocco, on the W.; it is bounded by Egypt on the E.; and by the great mountain, called Mount Atlas, on the S.; comprehending the countries of Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, and Barca; being inhabited by Moors and Arabs, under the juriſdiction of an abandoned race of Turks, conſiſting of pirates, banditti, and the very refuſe of the Ottoman empire, who have compulſorily quitted their ſeveral countries to avoid the puniſhment of their crimes.

As theſe piratical ſtates are very formidable enemies to the Chriſtian powers, and frequently occaſion a ſtagnation of the Italian commerce, by their numerous corſairs interrupting the navigation of the Mediterranean; it may be thought neceſſary to give ſome relation of the riſe and eſtabliſhment of theſe piratical kingdoms; which happened in the following manner.

The Moors of Spain having been diſpoſſeſſed of their country, after the loſs of Granada, in 1492, when Ferdinand and Iſabella were upon the Spaniſh throne, and being obliged to renounce their religion, or tranſport themſelves to the coaſts of Barbary, many of them choſe to go into exile; but, to revenge themſelves on the Spaniards, and ſupply their neceſſities, they confederated with the Mahometan princes, on the Barbary coaſt; fitted out little fleets of cruizing veſſels, took all the Spaniſh merchant ſhips they met with at ſea, landed in Spain, and brought away multitudes of people to wear the ſhackles of captivity. The Spaniards thereupon invaded Barbary, took Oran, with ſeveral other places on the coaſt of Algiers, and were in a proſperous way of reducing the whole country: but, in this diſtreſs, the African princes made application to Barbaroſſa, a famous Turkiſh rover, deſiring his aſſiſtance againſt the Chriſtians; which he very readily afforded them; though he had no ſooner repulſed their enemies, than he uſurped the government of Algiers; treating the Moors, and Africans, with all the denotations of ſlavery; as his brother Heyradin Barbaroſſa afterwards did the inhabitants of Tunis; while another of theſe adventurers obtained the government of Tripoli: in which uſurpation they were ſupported by the Grand Signior, who claimed the ſovereignty of the whole coaſt, which, for ſome time, was reputed a provincial part of the Ottoman dominions, and governed by Turkiſh baſhaws, or viceroys: but theſe reſpective ſtates, or rather their military men, at length took upon them to elect a ſovereign out of their own body, and rendered themſelves independent of the Turkiſh empire.

The piratical ſtates have never been at peace with the Spaniards ſince the loſs of Granada; and they find it their intereſt to be at perpetual war with the ſtates of Italy, whoſe ſhips they are continually plundering, and carrying their unhappy crews into a moſt deplorable ſlavery: which depredations are very beneficial to the captors, and contribute to the preſervation of the reſpective ſtates; becauſe, the ranſom for the redemption of their priſoners, occaſions a continual plenitude of money, and enables them to ſupport an obſtinate war, whereby the Europeans furniſh theſe Barabarians with new weapons for their own deſtruction.

The kingdom of Algiers extends 600 m. from E. to W. and, in ſome places, about 400 m. from N. to S. being divided into the provinces of Tremeſen, Titterie, and Conſtantina. The government is, in reality, an abſolute monarchy; though it has ſome appearance of a mixed government, becauſe the dey, or ſovereign, ſometimes aſſembles a divan, conſiſting of the principal officers of the ſtate, and of the janizaries. The dey is elected by

the army; who depoſe, or put him to death, whenever they apprehend he does not conſult their intereſt: the want of ſucceſs, in any inſtance, almoſt infallibly occaſions a rebellion; for, of the ſix deys that have preſided there ſince the year 1700, four have been murdered, and a fifth reſigned his government for the preſervation of his life. The Grand Signior had, till very lately, a baſhaw conſtantly reſiding at Algiers, to whom he expected the dey, and his ſubjects, ſhould pay a great regard; but, finding his authority ſlighted, and that they would not permit his baſhaw to intermeddle in their affairs, or even allow him a vote in their divan, he conſtituted the dey himſelf his baſhaw, that he might ſtill ſeem to retain ſome authority over the Algerines.

This country is very populouſly inhabited by many Arabian and African tribes, governed by their particular princes; who are kept under ſubjection by about 6000 Turks and Cologlies, the ſtanding forces of the government, by that political maxim, *Divide and command*; for theſe Turks maintain their ground againſt all oppoſition, by promoting diſſentions between the different tribes.

The revenues of the government ariſe from the tribute paid by the Moors and Arabs; a detachment of the army being annually ſent into each province to make the collection, under the command of a bey, or viceroy, which amounts to about 300,000 dollars, or 45,000 l. ſterling; however, the cuſtoms paid by ſuch Europeans as are permitted to traffic, is far from being inconſiderable: and the captures at ſea, ſometimes are equal to the taxes raiſed upon the natives.

The principal port is Algiers, the metropolis of the country, which is a large, ſtrong, and populous city, about 400 m. E. of Gibraltar, containing about 100,000 Mahometans, 15,000 Jews, and 2000 Chriſtian ſlaves. The commercial buſineſs is generally tranſacted by the Jews, which principally conſiſts in the ſale of captives; who are uſually brought to this city, where they have a maritime force generally of 20 veſſels, each with 3 or 400 men on board, which are uſually employed in cruizing againſt the Chriſtians. However, there are ſeveral other ports belonging to this government; particularly Tremeſen, Arzer, Sercelli, Tedlis, Bugia, Gigery, Eſtore, Bona, Tabarca, and the Baſtion of France, remarkable for its coral fiſhery, which the French poſſeſſed themſelves of towards the end of the reign of Solyman II. from whom they obtained the conceſſion of it in 1561, in conſequence of a previous treaty with the Algerines: beſides, there are Marſalquiver, and Oran, in poſſeſſion of the Spaniards, who took them in 1509, loſt them in 1708, and recovered them again in 1732.

The principal commodity of this country is corn, which is produced in great quantities, and frequently exported to the countries on the northern ſide of the Mediterranean, by European merchants; who alſo export Barbary horſes, olives, oil, wool, ſoap, dates, figs, raiſins, oſtrich-feathers, hides, honey, wax, iron, allum, and hair.

The principal commodities imported here, are Engliſh and Venetian cloths, lead, ſhot, deal-boards, perpetuanos, ſpices, ſaffron, ſilks, canvas, madder, iron, wire, paper, cotton, yarn, and wool. The importation of all goods is permitted; but the exportation of corn, peaſe, beans, oil, butter, honey, dates, and other edible commodities, are generally prohibited.

The cuſtoms of this country, upon all commodities imported, are 10 *per cent.* upon the real value ſold; excepting lead, ſhot, and iron, which pay no cuſtom at all: though every ſhip, on entering the harbour, muſt either land her ſails or her rudder, for prevention of her running away without licence, and paying the duties: but the cuſtoms on goods exported are only 5 *per cent.* excepting hides, wax, and wool, which are free from any duty.

The kingdom of Tunis, is ſeparated from the kingdom of Algiers, on the W. by the river Guadalbarbar; and by Tripoli on the E.; extending only 250 m. along the coaſt of the Mediterranean, but about 400 into the interior part of the country, where it is bounded by the eaſtern part of Biledulgerid; comprehending the provinces of Tunis proper, and Bogia. The government, and inhabitants, are of a ſimilar regulation, and mode, with the Algerines; only in this kingdom, the Grand Signior has ſtill a baſhaw, who is ſome check upon the dey, or ſovereign, and has a ſmall tribute paid him; for which the Tuniſians are in expectation of his protection, and aſſiſtance, when endangered with an invaſion from the Chriſtian powers.

The beſt ports in this country are Biſerta, Tunis, Bona, Nubia, Alchamamot, Hamamet, Suſa, Capſa, and Elhamina: but the principal port is Tunis, the capital city, which is about 3 miles in circumference; ſituated in a fine plain, near a ſpacious lake, 30 m. S. of the ruins of the ancient Carthage, 300 m. E. of Algiers, and 120 miles S. W. of Trapano in Sicily.

This city is more populous than Algiers, containing about 10,000 families, and 3000 ſhops, where they ſell linen, woollen, and other manufactures: but their maritime force is greatly inferior to that of the Algerines; their commodities, both imports and exports, as alſo their duties, are much of the ſame nature as thoſe among the Algerines; but their conſumption of European goods is nothing like equivalent: for the Tuniſians encourage very few manufactures, ſupplying their neceſſities chiefly by piracies. And what elſe can be expected from the moſt profligate deſperadoes, the moſt abandoned ſet of men? The ſoldiery, as they elect, have the dey at their devotion; theſe are criminals, renegadoes, or pirates; who, notwithſtanding their infamous original, look upon themſelves as noblemen, uſing the Moors, and other inhabitants of Africa, little better than ſlaves: they ſeldom make any application to agriculture, or traffic, eſteeming piracy and robbery as nobler employments, or, at leaſt, an eaſier way of accumulating treaſure: however, the Europeans have ſome trade with Tunis, importing from thence moſt of the ſame commodities as from the Algerines.

The kingdom of Tripoli, including Barca, is bounded by Tunis on the W. and by Egypt on the E. being about 1000 m. long, but not above 200 broad, comprehending the provinces of Tripoli proper, and Barca deſart; the people and government, as alſo their trade, being like thoſe of Algiers and Tunis. Tripoli is divided into five provinces, wherein are ſome populous cities: the principal ports being Capes, Zoara, Raſagafaron, Tripoli, Racazarra, Razil, Lebeda, Caſamhomet, Salines, Sudico, Caſar Sarton, Caſreinum, and Arcadia: but Tripoli is the capital, which is well fortified, and ſituated 300 m. S. E. of Tunis; being alſo ſomewhat remarkable for its ſilk manufactures. The Turkiſh ſoldiers that govern this country are not above 3 or 4000; though they have ſeveral hundred thouſand Moors and Arabs under their juriſdiction: however, the dey of Tripoli is not ſo abſolute as the deys of Tunis and Algiers, becauſe of their proximity to the Turkiſh province of Egypt: for a Turkiſh baſhaw has his reſidence here, who has a power of controuling the dey, and levying a tribute on his ſubjects; though the dey is elected or depoſed by the ſoldiery.

Theſe piratical ſtates have, for more than two centuries paſt, moleſted the navigation of the Mediterranean; which was originally owing to the expulſion of the Moors from Spain; and obnoxious as ſuch a proceeding has been found, the court of Madrid ſtill continues to drive away the Mooriſh poſterity from the dominions of Spain to thoſe of Barbary; though it muſt certainly be a very impolitic ſtep, as Spain has been much exhauſted of its inhabitants ſince the diſcovery of America.

The naval force of the regency of Algiers is the moſt formidable among the Barbary ſtates; which has occaſioned the friendſhip of that government to be frequently ſolicited by ſeveral of the European powers; who find it more for their intereſt to contract ſuch an alliance, than live at open enmity with ſuch poor and deſperate opponents, who confiſcate all veſſels they ſeize without proper paſſports.

The Algerines are in alliance with the Engliſh, the French, the Swedes, the Dutch, and the Grand Duke of Tuſcany; being at open war with the other European powers, who frequently ſend out little armaments to oppoſe them, particularly the King of Spain, their Sardinian and Sicilian majeſties; the Pope, the Genoſe; the Venetians, and the Knights of Malta: even the ſubjects of the Grand Signior were liable to their depredations till

till the year 1749, when an accommodation was made. The Swedes purchaſed their peace at the rate of 70,000 dollars, or 15,000 l. ſterling. The ſucceſs which the Dutch met with, during a war of twelve years, to deſtroy a few of their veſſels; the magnificent preſent of naval ſtores that were promiſed, upon ratifying the peace; together with the natural timidity of the dey, leſt by further loſſes he ſhould be reckoned unfortunate, and ſuffer a depoſition, were the concurring reaſons for extending their amity to that republic; though the greateſt part of the ſoldiery, and the maritime officers in general, very ſtrenuouſly oppoſed it; alledging, that it would be in vain to arm out their veſſels, when tranquillity was ſupported with the three trading nations; that their loſs was inconſiderable, when compared with their opulence obtained by the war; concluding, with a very expreſſive Arabian proverb, *That ſuch perſons ought never to ſow who are afraid of the ſparrows*; whereby it is probable, the preſent dey will be obliged to contract his alliances, from thoſe very principles which, a few years ago, engaged his predeceſſor to increaſe them.

The Algerines have certainly a peculiar eſteem and friendſhip for the Britiſh nation; and, provided there could be any ſecurity in a government guided by capricious choice and humour, more than by council and mature deliberation, England has no occaſion to apprehend a quarrel from this anarchy of a legiſlature. The Dutch are very induſtrious in cultivating a good underſtanding with the Algerines, by making an annual preſent to the regency; a method hitherto very prevalent and ſucceſsful: whilſt, on the other hand, the French may influence them as much by reminding them of the execution which their bombs formerly did to the capital city; and of a later inſtance of their reſentment at Tripoli: however, if the Algerines are to be intimidated, the Engliſh have as much intereſt to expect from the expedition of Sir Edward Spragg, at Bugio, as the French can have in that of the Marquis d'Eſtrees at Algiers: for, notwithſtanding all the arguments that may be urged in behalf of Marſeilles and Toulon, the Algerines cannot be perſuaded but that Gibraltar and Minorca are in a more convenient ſituation to give them diſturbance.

But reaſon and argument will not always be good politics at the court of Algiers, where the firſt miniſter is the cook, and where an inſolent ſoldiery have too frequently the command: therefore, in critical junctures, the ground is to be maintained by the nice management and addreſs of the conſul; by knowing how to make proper application to the particular paſſions of thoſe who have the aſcendency over the dey; by flattering one, placing a confidence in another, and eſpecially by making a proper uſe of thoſe invincible arguments money, kaf-tans, and gold watches: for, according to an old obſervation, *Give a Turk money with one hand, and he will permit his eyes to be plucked out by the other.*

No confidence can be repoſed in the profeſſions of amity from the Algerines; becauſe, what appearance they have of equity, honeſty, or public faith, proceeds rather from fear and compulſion, than from choice and free election: for the acknowledgment is very juſt, which Ali Baſhaw, a late dey, made to Mr. Cole, the Britiſh conſul, upon complaining of the injuries that Britiſh veſſels met with from his cruizers; who replied, *That the Algerines were a company of rogues, and he was their captain:* which has been evidenced in their capture and detention of the Britiſh packet from Liſbon, which was carried into Algiers, and the ſpoil divided among the captors; notwithſtanding the remonſtrances of the Britiſh conſul, and a ſolemn deputation for reſtitution made by commodore Keppel, who returned without obtaining any other ſatisfaction than information that the regency had ſent an ambaſſador, and a preſent to the Britiſh monarch; which was the only compenſation ever made.

The European ſtates who have conſuls in the four principal ports of Barbary, are thoſe who keep ambaſſadors at Conſtantinople; eſpecially the Engliſh, French, and Dutch; though the Venetians and Genoeſe are thoſe who trade moſt to Tripoli: but for their regulations of commerce with Great Britain, ſee *Treaty*.

The coins generally uſed on the coaſt of Barbary are foreign; as the Turkiſh ſultanins of gold, worth about 3 s. 4 d.: the moticales of Fez, worth 2 s.; Spaniſh rials, French crowns, Hungarian ducats, and others. At Algiers they coin the barbas, worth half an aſper; and at Tremecen they coin gold rubios, worth 35 aſpers; medians worth 501, and zians worth 100; the aſper being about a halfpenny ſterling.

The weight uſed at Algiers is the quinta, or quintar, containing 100 rott. or lb. which make about 120 lb. averdup. in London, or 112 lb. averdupois makes about 94 rottelos. But the quintar is of ſeveral ſorts: thus 150 rottelos make the quintar of lead, yarn, and wool; 166 rottelos make the quintar of raiſins, butter, figs, honey, dates, oil, and ſoap; 110 rottelos make the quintar of almonds, cheeſe, and cottons; and 100 rottelos make the quintar of flax.

The long meaſure of Algiers is of two ſorts; the Turkiſh and Moriſco picos. The latter is the meaſure of the country, being in length but $\frac{3}{4}$ of the Turkiſh pico. The Turky pico is divided into 16 parts, and every 8th part is called a robo; and, with giving a thumb in the yard, according to the cuſtom in England, one yard is $1\frac{1}{2}$ Turky picos; by which all ſilks, ſtuffs, and woollen goods, are ſold in Algiers; where the meaſure for grain is the tarri, which, when heaped up, as is cuſtomarily done in meaſuring, holds about 5 Engliſh gallons.

In Tunis, Tripoli, and Barca, the common weight is a cantar, or 100 lb. which makes about 114 lb. averdupois in London: they reckon 8 tamins to an ounce, and 16 ounces to a pound. Their meaſure for corn is the ſaw, the weab, and the coffice; 12 ſaws make a weab, and 18 weabs a coffice; the coffice containing about 10 Engliſh buſhels. Their meaſure for wine and oil is the meetar; the oil meetar being twice as big as the wine meetar, and contains about 5 Engliſh gallons. Their meaſure for cloth and ſtuffs is a pico, which is about 26 $\frac{1}{2}$ Engliſh inches: the ſilk is $\frac{1}{10}$ ſhorter than the cloth pico; and the linen pico is about $\frac{1}{4}$ ſhorter than the ſilk pico.

BARBARY *company*, was an Engliſh company incorporated by King Henry VII, when his ſubjects, in imitation of the Portugueſe and Spaniards, began to make diſcoveries: which company carried on a conſiderable traffic on the coaſts of Barbary and Morocco, and was in a very flouriſhing condition in the reign of Q. Elizabeth: but the inteſtine diſſentions in Morocco prevented all commerce, and overthrew the company; from whoſe diſſolution ſprung up the Turky company. See *Turky company*.

BARBAS. An Algerine coin, worth about a farthing.

BARBER. A perſon whoſe employment conſiſts in ſhaving, bleeding, and drawing of teeth; formerly ranked among ſurgeons, but now among peruke-makers. See *Surgeon, and Peruke-maker*.

BARBER'S *company of London*, on account of the art of ſurgery being formerly ſolely practiſed by the barbers, was incorporated by letters patent of Edw. IV. in 1461, by the name of "The maſter, or governor, of the miſtery, or commonalty, of the barbers of London." Sometime after, others aſſuming the practice of ſurgery, the barbers, in the 3d of Henry VIII. in the year 1512, obtained an act of parliament, to prevent all perſons from practiſing ſurgery, within the city of London and 7 miles of the ſame, except ſuch as were duly examined, and admitted by the biſhop of London, or the dean of St. Paul's, and ſuch perſons, expert in ſurgery, as he, or they, ſhould judge proper to call to his, or their aſſiſtance: and that all perſons preſuming to act contrary to the tenor of this act, were to forfeit, for every month's practice, the ſum of 5 l.

By virtue of this act of parliament, ſeveral perſons, not barbers, being examined and admitted as practitioners in the art of ſurgery, they ſoon erected themſelves into a ſociety, ſeparate from that of barbers; which the parliament taking into conſideration, for their mutual intereſt, united them, by the appellation of The maſters or governors of the miſtery, or commonalty, of barbers and ſurgeons of London: and as the ſaid act ſtrictly enjoined all perſons practiſing the art of ſhaving not to intermeddle with that of ſurgery, except what

belongs

belongs to the drawing of teeth; ſo likewiſe it enjoined all ſurgeons from following the practice of ſhaving.

This united company conſiſted of a maſter, 3 wardens, 26 aſſiſtants, and 322 liverymen; whoſe fine, on admiſſion, was 10 l. to whom belonged a magnificent hall and theatre for the diſſection of human bodies; all parts whereof were explained by anatomical lectures for the inſtruction of the juvenile part of the faculty: but, by act of parliament in the year 1745, the body was divided into two diſtinct companies of barbers and ſurgeons; and the former were ſeparately incorporated by the name of The maſter, governors, and commonalty of the miſtery of barbers of London, to be governed by a maſter, 3 wardens, and 24 aſſiſtants; having the old hall belonging to the united company in Monkwell ſtreet, and the ſame privileges as the united company enjoyed, with reſpect to every thing but ſurgery. See *Surgeon*.

BARBE, or *Barb*. A breed of horſes brought from Barbary, much eſteemed for their vigour and ſwiftneſs, being uſually of a ſlender make, with their legs far apart; and they retain their metal to the laſt, which makes them prized for ſtallions. According to Dapper they are ordinarily ſold for about 150 l. a horſe, their genealogy being preſerved in Barbary, with as much care as Europeans do thoſe of their noble families; and, in ſelling them, they always produce their titles of nobility. The race of horſes is much degenerated in Numidia, the Arabs having been diſcouraged from keeping it up, by the Turkiſh officers, who were ſure to be maſters of them; but at preſent the Tingitanians and Egyptians have the reputation of preſerving the beſt breed, both for ſize and beauty; the ſmalleſt of theſe laſt being uſually ſixteen hands high, and all of them ſhaped, according to the phraſe, like the antelope.

The good conditions of a Barbary horſe, beſides the ſuppoſed quality of never lying down, and of ſtanding ſtill when the rider drops his bridle, are to have a long walk, and to ſtop ſhort, if required, in a full career.

BARBOTINA, or *Semen contra*, otherwiſe underſtood *vermes*, is a ſeed that kills the worms engendering in the human body, to which children are very liable; and it is alſo called *ſemen ſanctum*. The plant which produces it has ſuch ſmall leaves, that they ſcarce can be diſtinguiſhed from the ſeed itſelf. The French pretend that it grows in Xaintonge, whence they give it the name of Santoline, or Xantoline; but that uſually ſold by druggiſts, comes from Perſia, and the borders of Muſcovy; tho' the Engliſh, Dutch, and French, have it from Aleppo, Alexandretta, and Smyrna.

This ſeed, to be good, ſhould be plump, of an agreeable ſcent, and very green; but care muſt be taken that the green is not the reſult of ſome drug.

BARBUDA. One of the Britiſh Caribbee iſlands, ſituated in 61 deg. of W. lon. and 18 deg. of N. lat. See *Britiſh America*.

BARCA is a barren deſart country, ſituated on the S. coaſt of the Mediterranean, between Tripoli and Egypt. See *Barbary*.

BARCELONA. A port, and the capital town of Catalonia in Spain, ſituated in 2 deg. of W. lon. and 41 deg. 20 min. of N. lat See *Spain*.

BARCELOR. A Dutch factory, and port-town on the coaſt of Malabar in the Eaſt Indies, ſituated in 74 deg. of E. lon. and 13 deg. of N. lat.

BARFLEUR *Cape*, is ſituated 12 miles E. of Cherburg in France, in 1 deg. 15 min. of W. lon. and 49 deg. 47 min. of N. lat. the town which is ſituated near it being antiently one of the beſt port-towns in France; but the harbour being choaked up with ſand, it is now in ruins.

BARFOULS. A kind of ſtuff made in the kingdom of Cantor, ſituated upon the banks of the river Gambia in Negroland in Africa; being a kind of cloathing for the negroes, called *pagnes*, or *paans*, who carry on a pretty briſk trade of them with Europeans, to whom they give them in exchange for iron bars.

BARGAIN. An agreement or contract relating to the buying or ſelling of any thing.

BARGE, is a veſſel uſed in navigable rivers, either for burthen or pleaſure, under the different denominations of a company's barge, a row-barge, a royal barge, a ſand-barge, a ſevern-barge, a ware-barge, a light horſeman, and a weſt country barge.

BARIGA *de more*. A kind of ſilk brought by the Dutch from the Eaſt Indies.

BARIGA is alſo a term uſed by the Portugueſe for a ſort of Indian ſilk. See *Cobeca*.

BARILLA, or *Barillia*, is a Spaniſh plant, uſually ſowed by the poor peaſants of Murcia, which is of conſiderable uſe in the compoſition of ſoap, and the manufactory of glaſs. See *Soſa*.

BARIQUE *of France*. See *Barrel*.

BARK is the exterior part of trees, ſerving them for a ſkin or covering; of which there are a great many kinds in uſe in the ſeveral arts: ſome in medicine, as the quinquina or Jeſuits bark, and mace; others in dying, as the bark of the alder; others in ſpicery, as cinnamon, and caſſia lignea; the bark of oak, in tanning; the bark of the cork-tree, for corks; that of the linden-tree, for a kind of cordage; and the bark of a ſort of birch-tree is uſed by the Indians for canoes, capable of holding twenty-four perſons.

In the Eaſt Indies, they alſo manufacture the bark of a particular tree into a kind of ſtuff or cloth, which is ſpun and dreſſed much after the manner of hemp; the long filaments ſeparated from it, upon beating and ſteeping it in water, compoſing a thread of a middle kind between ſilk and common thread; neither ſo ſoft nor bright as ſilk, nor ſo hard or flat as hemp. Some of theſe ſtuffs are pure bark, being called *pinaſſes* and *biambonnes*; but in others they mix ſilk with the bark, and call them *ginghams* and *nillas*.

BARK-*mill*. See *Mill*.

BARK, in navigation, denotes a little veſſel for the ſea, having uſually two or three triangular ſails: but there are various kinds of barks; as a bilander, a ſaick, a ſettee, a ſhint, a maul, and a ſmouk; tho' the word *bark* is ſometime uſed for any veſſel that has no maſts.

BARK *of incenſe*. See *Frank-incenſe*.

BARKING *of trees*, is the peeling off or ſtripping the bark from the wood; for which purpoſe the month of May is the moſt ſeaſonable; becauſe the ſap then looſens the bark from the wood, which it is very hard to effect in any other time, unleſs the ſeaſon is very wet; heat and dryneſs being always oppoſite thereto; but maliciouſly barking of apple-trees, or other fruit trees, is made felony by the ſtatute of the 37th of Henry VIII.

BARKER. A cant word for a ſaleſman's ſervant, that walks before his door, to invite cuſtomers in to buy cloaths.

BARLETTA. A port town in the territory of Barri in Naples, ſituated on the gulph of Venice, in 17 deg. of E. lon. and 41 deg. of N. lat. See *Italy*.

BARLEY. A grain, or corn, which grows very plentifully in England, where ſome people make bread of it; but its particular uſe is for making malt, whence a variety of liquors, ſuch as ale and beer, are brewed; from which grain, according to hiſtorians, was taken the ſtandard of Engliſh weights or meaſures. The chief kinds of barley are, 1. The common long-eared barley; 2. Winter, or ſquare barley, otherwiſe beer-barley, or big; 3. And the ſpratt, or battledor barley. See *Corn*, and *Malt*.

BARLEY *ſugar*. See *Sugar*.

BARLOVENTO *Iſles*. See *Caribbee iſlands*.

BAROMETER. A certain inſtrument, ſo called by the curious enquirers into nature; whereby, with the aſſiſtance of mercury put therein, the weight and preſſure of the air may be ſeen and obſerved, according to the minuteſt variations.

BARNSTABLE. A port-town of Devonſhire, ſituated on the river Tau, in 4 deg. 10 min. of W. lon. and 51 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. See *Great Britain*.

BAROCHE. A port-town of the hither India in Aſia, in the province of Cambaya, ſituated 60 miles N. of Surat, in 72 deg. 5 min. of E. lon. and 22 deg. 15 min. of N lat. See *India*.

BARRA, or *Vara*, is a long meaſure, uſed in Portugal for woollen cloths, ſerges, and linens, being the length of an Engliſh ell.

BARRA, is alſo a long meaſure, uſed in ſome parts of Spain for meaſuring ſtuffs: being of three kinds; the Valentia barra, 13 of which are $12\frac{6}{7}$ yards Engliſh meaſure; the Caſtile barra, 7 of which make $6\frac{3}{4}$ yards Engliſh meaſure; and

and the Arragon barra, 3 of which are equal to 2, Engliſh meaſure.

BARRACAN. A French ſtuff, ſomething like a camblet, uſed for cloaks, great coats, and other outward garments, to keep off the rain. They are made of wool, ſometimes mixed with hemp; being chiefly manufactured at Abbeville, Amiens, Roan, Liſle, and Valenciennes; but the latter are moſt in repute, the piece being about 24 Engliſh ells in length, and about $\frac{3}{4}$ in breadth. There are alſo barracans made in Holland and other places.

BARRAGE. A kind of worked linen, made at Caen in Normandy.

BARRAS. A gum, or reſin, oozing from inciſions made in the pine-tree; of which there are two kinds; but neither of them are ſcarce known by this name, being commonly called white and marbled incenſe; whoſe difference is only in colour, and that according as they are gathered more or leſs cleanly, or ooze in fair or foul weather.

The marbled, when neat, and clean, is ſold ſometimes for benjoin, to which it has a near reſemblance; but the ſmell is ſufficient to diſcover the impoſition: and the white is the real galipot.

BARRATRY, *Baratry*, or *Barretry*, in a marine ſenſe, is when the maſter or crew of a ſhip defraud the owners or inſurers, either by running away with the ſhip, ſinking her, deſerting her, or embezzling the cargo; and it has been determined, in a court of law, that fraud is barratry, tho' not named in the covenant; but negligence might not.

BARREL. An oblong veſſel, of a ſpheroidal, or rather cylindrical figure, made of fir, oak, beech, or other timber, uſed for containing ſeveral ſorts of goods, both liquid and dry.

The Engliſh barrel, wine-meaſure, contains the eighth part of a tun, the fourth part of a pipe, and the half of a hogſhead; that is, thirty-one gallons and a half; but of beer it contains 36 gallons, and of ale only 32.

However, according to the ſtandard of the ale-quart by the 10th and 11th of William III. the barrel of beer, vinegar, or liquor preparing for vinegar, is to contain 34 gallons.

BARREL is alſo uſed for a certain quantity, or weight, of ſeveral merchandiſes, which varies according to the commodities.

By the ſtatute of the 13th of Elizabeth, the barrel of herrings is to contain 32 gallons wine-meaſure, being about 28 gallons old ſtandard, uſually amounting to about 1000 full herrings.

By the ſtatute of the 5th of George II. the barrel of ſalmon is to contain 42 gallons, and the barrel of eels the ſame; but by the 10th of Queen Anne the barrel of ſoap is to contain 256 lb.

A barrel of Eſſex butter ſhould weigh 106 lb. and of Suffolk butter 256 lb.

BARTERING. The art of trucking or exchanging one commodity for ano her of equal value; but the word, according to its derivative *baratar*, from the Spaniſh, ſignifies to deceive, or circumvent, in bargaining; becauſe it is probable, that thoſe who dealt this way, uſually endeavoured to over-reach one another. See *Commerce*, *Exchange*, and *Truck*.

BARTHOLOMEW *Iſle*, is one of the Caribbees, ſituated in 62 deg. 5 min. of W. lon. and 18 deg. 6 min. of N. lat. ſubject to France. See *French America*.

BARUTH. An Indian meaſure, containing 17 grantans, that is, about 56 lb. of pepper; ſo that the grantan ſhould be about $3\frac{1}{2}$ lb.

BASALTES. A kind of ſtone, deſcribed by ſome of the antient naturaliſts to be of the hardneſs and colour of iron; but others called it *lapis Lydius*, from Lydia, the place where it was found in moſt abundance; tho', among the moderns, it is denominated the touchſtone, as being uſed for the trial of gold and ſilver.

It is hard, heavy, cloſe, black, and reſiſts the file. There are ſtones of this kind near Gaillon in Normandy; others are brought from Ethiopia and Germany; and the Giants cauſeway in Ireland is ſaid to be made of the baſaltes.

BASARUCO. A ſmall Indian coin, of a very baſe allay, being compoſed only of ordinary tin; of which there are two kinds, the one bad, and the other good; the former being by a ſixth inferior to the latter; thirty of which are worth about three halfpence ſterling.

BASHAW, *Paſcha*, or *Pacha*. A Turkiſh governor of a province, city, or other diſtrict; and Captain-Baſhaw is the title of the Turkiſh high-admiral.

BASILIC, or *Baſilica*, in the antient architecture, denoted a kind of public hall, or court of judicature, where the princes, or magiſtrates, ſat to adminiſter juſtice; but, in after-times, the denomination was alſo given to other buildings of public uſe; as town-houſes, exchanges, burſes, and the like.

BASILICON, or *Baſilicum*, in pharmacy, is the denomination of an officinal unguent, or plaiſter; alſo called *tetrapharmacum*, as being compoſed of four ſimples, which are roſin, wax, pitch, and oil of olives.

BASKET. An uncertain quantity; as of aſſa fœtida from 20 to 50 lb. and of medlars two buſhels.

BASKET. A convenient utenſil, fit for many purpoſes, particularly for the carriage of garden-ſtuffs, made of willow twigs, or ruſh, wove together, ſometimes cloſe, and ſometimes open, according to the uſe for which it is wanted.

BASKET-*makers company of London*, is a fraternity by preſcription, and not by charter; but when or by whom erected into a fellowſhip, is unknown: however, it has the honour to be reckoned one of the city-companies, by the title of, The wardens, aſſiſtants, and freemen of the company of baſket-makers of the city of London; being a community governed by 2 wardens and 28 aſſiſtants; but they have neither livery nor hall to manage their affairs in.

BASON, in a maritime ſenſe, is uſed for a dock; as alſo for a reſervatory of water in a port. See *Dock*.

BASSAIM, or *Bacceim*. A port-town of the province of Cambaya, in the hither India in Aſia, ſituated in 72 deg. 5 min. of E. lon. and 19 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. ſubject to Portugal.

BASSON, or *Baſſoon*. A muſical inſtrument of the wind kind, blown with a reed, and furniſhed with eleven holes, ſerving for the baſs in concerts of hautboys. To make it more portable, it divides into two parts; whence it alſo bears the denomination of faggot. Its diameter at bottom is nine inches, and its holes are ſtopped like large flutes.

BASSORA. See *Boſſora*.

BASS-*Viol*. A muſical inſtrument of the ſame form with that of the violin, except that it is much larger, and is ſtruck like it with a bow; but has ſtrings, and eight ſtops, divided by half ſtops, or ſemi tones; the ſound it yields being much more grave, ſweet, and agreeable, than that of the violin, and of much nobler effect in a concert.

BASTIA. The capital city, and port, of the iſland of Corſica, ſituated in 9 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 42 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. See *Italian iſlands*.

BASTIMENTOS, are ſome ſmall uninhabited iſlands on the coaſt of Darien in South America, lying a little to the eaſtward of Porto Bello.

BASTION *of France*. A French eſtabliſhment for a coral fiſhery on the coaſt of Barbary, ſituated in 8 deg. of E. lon. and 36 deg. of N. lat. See *Company of the Baſtion of France*, under *African Company*.

BATACALO. A fort and town on the coaſt of the iſland of Ceylon, in India, ſituated in 81 deg. of E. lon. and 8 deg. of N. lat. See *Ceylon*.

BATAVIA. A large and populous city in the iſland of Java, the capital of all the Dutch colonies and ſettlements in India, ſituated in 106 deg. of E. lon. and 6 deg. of S. lat. See *Sunda iſlands*.

BATE. To lower the price of a commodity, or to make an allowance for a damage.

BATH-*metal*. See *Metal*.

BATICALA. A town of India, remarkable for its rice. See *India*.

BATMAN, or *Bateman*. A Turkiſh weight for ſilks; of which there are two kinds; the one weighs about 24 lb. Engliſh, and the other about 5 lb. only.

BATMAN, or *Bateman*, is likewiſe a Perſian weight, of two ſorts as well as that of Turky; the firſt being called batman of Chahi, and the ſecond batman of Tauris.

That of Chahi is uſed both for weighing the neceſſaries of

life, and the loadings of beaſts of burden, weighing about 13 lb. Engliſh.

That of Tauris is uſed only for mercantile commodities, and weighs about 7 lb. Engliſh.

BATZ, or *Batzen*. A ſmall ſilver coin, current in ſeveral towns of Germany, particularly at Noremberg; which is worth 4 cruitzers, or $1\frac{1}{13}$ d. ſterling.

There are alſo ſilver and copper batzens in Switzerland, of a different currency, in proportion to their allay; the good batz is worth $2\frac{1}{2}$ d. ſterling, and the bad batz is worth only $1\frac{7}{8}$ d. ſterling.

BAVARIA. A circle of Germany. See *Germany*.

BAULK. A name for a young fir-tree. See *Fir*.

BAY, in geography, is a part of the ſea, almoſt ſurrounded by land; being larger in the middle within, than at its entrance, which is called the mouth of the bay; as the bay of Biſcay in Spain, and Torbay in Devonſhire. See *Gulph*.

BAY-*ſalt*. See *Salt*.

BAY-*yarn*, is a name ſometimes given to woollen yarn. See *Yarn*.

BAYS, or *Baize*, is a ſort of coarſe, open woollen ſtuff, made chiefly at Colcheſter in Eſſex; where there is a hall, called the *Dutch bay-hall*, or *Raw-hall*.

By the ſtatute of the 12th of Charles II. it was enacted, That no perſon ſhould weave in Colcheſter any bay, known by the names of *four-and-fifties*, *ſixties*, *ſixty-eights*, *eighties*, *or hundred bays*, but within two days after weaving they ſhould carry it to the Dutch bay-hall, to be viewed and ſearched, that it might appear whether it be well and ſubſtantially wrought, before it was carried to be ſcoured and thicked; and that no fuller or thicker ſhould receive ſuch bay before it was ſtamped at the ſaid hall.

Formerly the French, as well as the Italians, were furniſhed with bays from England; but of late the French have undertaken to imitate them, and have ſet up manufactures of their own with ſucceſs, at Niſmes, Montpelier, and other places.

The export of Engliſh bays is very conſiderable to Spain, Portugal, and Italy, their chief uſe being for dreſſing the monks and nuns; as alſo for linings, eſpecially in the army: but the looking-glaſs makers likewiſe uſe them behind their glaſſes, to preſerve the tin or quickſilver; and the caſe makers to line their caſes.

The breadth of bays is from three quarters to 2 yards, and the length from 42 to 48 yards the piece; but thoſe of a yard and three quarters broad are beſt for the Spaniſh trade.

By an arret of the French King of the 14th of July 1703, it was obſerved, that, ſince the late union between the two crowns of France and Spain, there had been ſet up in France manufactures of bays, perpets, and ſerges, calculated for the commerce of Spain and America, in imitation of thoſe made in England, of which there was great conſumption in the Spaniſh dominions: that theſe new fabrics of France were in equal perfection with the Engliſh: that if they could be ſold at the ſame price, a conſiderable trade might be opened for them in Spain; and that to gain this point, it would be convenient to free them from all duty upon exportation, as they did in England upon ſuch as were ſhipped for Spain; or at leaſt to reduce the duty lower, in order to ſupply the Spaniards at the price the Engliſh did: from theſe motives, his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, by the above arret, permitted the ſaid woven commodities to be exported out of the kingdom upon payment of an inconſiderable duty.

BAYONNE. A port-town of Gaſcony in France, ſituated in 1 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. See *France*.

BAZAC. A very beautiful and fine ſpun cotton, which comes from Jeruſalem, from whence it has received the name of Jeruſalem cotton; the half bazac, and the middle bazac, are alſo cottons from the ſame place, but far inferior in quality. See *Cotton*.

BAZAR, *Bazari*, or *Bazaard*. A place appropriated for trade, among the eaſtern nations, eſpecially the Perſians; ſome of which are uncovered, like European markets, and ſerve for the ſame uſes; commodities of ſmall value, and great bulk, being generally expoſed to ſale there; but others are covered with high roofs, having a kind of domes, and windows, to tranſmit the light; where the dealers in precious ſtones, rich ſtuffs, goldſmiths work, and ſuch like commodities, have their ware-houſes. Sometimes even ſlaves are ſold there; tho' this barbarous commerce is alſo carried on in the open bazars.

The bazar, or maidan, of Iſpahan is one of the moſt beautiful market-places in all Perſia, and ſurpaſſes even all thoſe in Europe; but, notwithſtanding its great magnificence, it muſt be confeſſed that the bazar of Tauris is the moſt extenſive, as it contains more than 15,000 ſhops; but in Tauris the bazar for precious ſtones is called *kaiſerie*, or the royal market.

BAZAT. A kind of cotton, brought from the Levant.

BAZGENDGE. A kind of red gall-nut, uſed by the Turks to dye ſcarlet.

BAZZO. A coin of Germany, worth about 6 d. ſterling.

BDELLIUM, or *Bedelium*. An aromatic gum, brought from the Levant; of ſome uſe, both as a medicine, and a perfume: but there is much uncertainty concerning it; for Moſes deſcribes manna as of the colour of bdellium: and Joſephus explains the paſſage, by ſaying it is the gum of a tree reſembling the olive-tree; and that the manna the Jews were fed with in the deſart, reſembled this drug: but Scaliger, and others, ſet aſide this explication, owning they know not what is the bdellium mentioned in ſcripture.

The bdellium, now ſold by druggiſts, is ſcarce better known than that of the antients: ſome ſay that it drops from a thorny tree, whoſe leaves are like thoſe of the oak, and whoſe fruit is like that of a wild fig-tree, having notwithſtanding a pretty good taſte; others make the tree that produce it like the myrtle-tree; others will have it, that theſe trees grow in the Bactriana; others in Arabia Felix, near a town called Saraca; others in Africa, near the banks of the river of Senegal; and others in the Eaſt Indies.

Good bdellium ſhould be in clear and tranſparent lumps, of a reddiſh grey on the outſide, and the colour of Engliſh glue within; and, by paſſing the tongue over it, it ſhould become yellow.

BEACHY-*head*. A cape on the coaſt of Suſſex in England, between Haſtings and Shoreham.

BEACONS, are marks and ſigns for the ſea, erected on the coaſts of England by the maſters and company of Trinity-houſe, who are empowered thereto by act of parliament. See *Trinity-houſe*, and *Light-houſe*.

BEACONAGE *Money*, is that paid towards the maintainance of a beacon; the word being derived from the Saxon *beacnian*, to nod, or ſhew by a ſign.

BEADS, are little glaſs-trinkets, that ſerve for the commerce carried on by the Europeans in ſeveral places of the coaſts of Africa, as well as in the iſlands and continent of America. Theſe trinkets conſiſt of ſeveral grains of glaſs of all colours, and different ſizes, perforated in the middle, to be run on ſtrings for necklaces, bracelets, ear-pendents, and other ornaments, with which the inhabitants, and eſpecially the women, of theſe countries are very fond of adorning themſelves.

The duty in England on the importation of bracelets, or necklaces, of glaſs, was formerly 4 s. the ſmall groce, containing 12 bundles: but as it was difficult for the officers in the cuſtoms, and dealers in thoſe commodities, to diſtinguiſh between great bugle and glaſs-beads, on the importation; and as the duties on glaſs-beads were much lower than thoſe on great bugle, which was a great temptation to unfair traders to deceive the officers, and a diſcouragement to the fair merchants; it was therefore, by an act of parliament paſſed in 1744, enacted, That the duties on the importation of glaſs-beads ſhould ceaſe and determine; and, in lieu thereof, there ſhould be paid the ſame duties as were payable for great bugles imported, which was 4 s. in the pound.

BEAK-*head of a ſhip*, is that part without the ſhip, which is faſtened to the ſtern, and ſupported by a knee; being uſually carved and painted, making, beſides its uſe, the ornamental part of a ſhip.

BEAMS *of a ſhip*, are the large, main croſs timbers, which prevent the ſides of a ſhip from falling together, and which alſo ſupport the decks and orlops.

The main beam is next the main maſt, and from it they are reckoned by firſt, ſecond, and third beams, the greateſt beam of all being called the *mid-ſhip beam.*

BEAN. A pulſe of the large ſort, commonly cultivated in gardens and fields, and of different denominations; as the ſmall Liſbon, the Spaniſh, the Sandwich, and Windſor; as alſo the horſe bean, and French or kidney bean.

BEAN *of St. Ignatius*, is a ſmall ſolid fruit growing in ſome of the Philippine iſlands, and much uſed in medicine.

BEAR, is an animal found in ſeveral parts of the world, particularly the northern countries, whoſe ſkin is a conſiderable article in trade. The ſkins of old bears are uſed for houſings, or horſe-cloths; and thoſe of young bears for muffs, and other things, for warmth or ornament.

BEAR'*s greaſe*, is alſo of uſe in medicine; and, to be of a good quality, ſhould be choſen newly melted, greyiſh, clammy, of a ſtrong taſte, and pretty thick; that which is too white being adulterated with common tallow.

BEARER *of* a *bill of exchange*, denotes the perſon in whoſe hands it is, and in favour of whom the laſt order, or endorſement, was made. See *Bill*, and *Exchange.*

When a bill is ſaid to be payable to the bearer, it is underſtood to be payable to him who firſt offers himſelf after it becomes due: but to be paid a bill of this kind, there needs neither order nor transfer; however, it is good to know to whom it is paid.

BEARING, in geography and navigation, is the ſituation of one place from another, with regard to the points of the compaſs; or the angle, which a line, drawn through the two places, makes with the meridians of each.

BEARING alſo, in the ſea-language, is uſed in another ſenſe; as when a ſhip ſails towards the ſhore, ſhe is ſaid *to bear in with the land*; when a ſhip that was to windward comes under the ſtern of another ſhip, and ſo gives her the wind, ſhe is ſaid *to bear under her lee*; and if a ſhip ſails into a harbour with the wind large, or before the wind, ſhe is ſaid *to bear in with the harbour.*

In crouding they ſay, *bear up the helm*, that is, let the ſhip go more large before the wind; or *bear up round*, that is, let the ſhip go between her two ſheets, directly before the wind.

They alſo ſay, a ſhips *bears*, when, having too ſlender a quarter, ſhe will ſink too deep into the water with an overlight freight, and therefore can carry but a ſmall quantity of goods.

BEATEN, or *Leaf-gold.* See *Leaf-gold.*

BEAVER, or *Caſtor.* An amphibious four-footed animal, ſometimes living upon land, and ſometimes in water; tho' ſome live entirely out of water, where they only go to drink, as other land-animals; making holes and dens for themſelves, like rabbits and foxes; but theſe are called ſluggiſh beavers, or land beavers.

The largeſt beavers meaſure, between the occiput and the root of the tail, about 26 inches, the head meaſuring ſeven; having a flat, oval tail, covered with thin ſcales like a fiſh, meaſuring 14 inches; which in all make about 4 feet.

They are found ſometimes in France, Germany, and Poland; but moſt abundantly in the province of Canada in North America; under which denomination are comprehended thoſe that come from Acadia, Hudſon's bay, and other parts of North America. See *Hudſon's bay company.*

The beavers of Canada are of three colours; the brown reddiſh, the black, and the white. The firſt is the cheapeſt; the next is the moſt valued in England; and the laſt is the moſt valued in Canada, where one of theſe ſkins ſells for 18 s. ſterling, while the others ſell only for 5 or 6 s. The beavers are excellent food; they breed once in a year, having from 10 to 15 in a litter; and their ſkins are principally uſed in the manufacture of hats and furs.

Beſides, in 1669, an attempt was made in France to employ it in other merchandiſes: accordingly a manufactory was ſettled in the Fauxbourg St. Antoine, near Paris; where they made cloths, flannels, ſtockings, and other commodities, of beaver, with a mixture of wool; which manufacture flouriſhed for a while, but ſoon decayed; it being found, by experience, that the ſtuffs not only loſt their dey when wet; but when they became dry again, were as harſh and ſtiff as felts.

Merchants diſtinguiſh three kinds of beaver, tho' they are all the ſkins of the ſame animal; theſe are new beaver, dry beaver, and fat beaver: new beaver, called alſo winter beaver, and Muſcovite beaver, becauſe ordinarily ſent into Muſcovy, is that taken in the winter-huntings, which is the beſt, and moſt eſteemed, for rich furs, as having loſt none of its hairs by moulting. Dry, or lean beaver, is got in the ſummer-huntings, when the beaſt is moulted, and has loſt part of its hair; which being much inferior to the former, is little uſed in furs, but moſtly in hats. Fat beaver, uſually called *old coat*, is that which has contracted a certain fat unctious humour, exhaled by ſweat from the bodies of the Indians, after they have wore it for ſome time. But tho' this is better than the dry, it is only uſed for hats. See *Caſtor*, and *Caſtoreum.*

After the hair is cut off the ſkin, the pelt, or ſkin itſelf, is uſed in various works; as for the covering of mails, and trunks, in ſlippers, and other things.

BEAVER, is alſo a term for what is made entirely of beaver's hair; and a half-beaver is a hat in which other hair has been mixed with that of the beaver.

BEAUVOIR. A port-town of France, in 2 deg. of W. lon. and 47 deg. of N. lat. ſituated on the coaſt of Poictu, in the province of Orleanois.

BECALMED, is to have no wind to fill the ſails of a ſhip; which is occaſioned either by its being taken off by the interpoſition of the ſhore, or for want of any ſtirring. See *Calm.*

BECANER. The capital of the territory of Becar in India, ſituated on the Ganges, in 83 deg. of E. lon. and 28 deg. of N. lat. See *India.*

BEDOUINS, are tribes of Arabs, living in tents, and diſperſed all over Arabia, Egypt, and the north of Africa, whoſe chief employment is the graſing of cattle; being governed by their own chiefs, and their own laws, without interfering with thoſe of the country where they reſide.

BEDS, in ſpeaking of minerals and foſſils, ſignify certain ſtrata, or layers of matter, diſpoſed over each other; and feather-beds are an article in trade, belonging to the upholſterers buſineſs.

BEE. An inſect, or fly, which produces honey and wax; both being of conſiderable uſe in trade, eſpecially the latter. In Poland, Ruſſia, and North America, the bees make their hives in the trunks of old foreſt trees, and afford great plenty of honey; but in the ſouthern parts of Europe their hives are preſerved in gardens. Bees delight much in watery places, uſing a great deal of it in aſſiſting them to make honey, which they extract from aromatic herbs and flowers, towards the latter end of April, and in May. The bees generate from February to the end of October; they ſwarm in May and June; but the May-ſwarms are moſt in eſtimation.

The age of the honey-comb is eaſily known by its colour; for the firſt year it is whitiſh, the ſecond yellow, and the third brown; but when older, it turns black, is barren, and without production; at which time the bees ceaſe to make honey, or breed other ſwarms.

BEECH. A foreſt-tree, very thick, and full of branches; its wood is whitiſh, tender, and dry; being of uſe among joiners for houſhold-furniture; as alſo for many domeſtic utenſils, and fuel.

BEECH-*oil.* An oil drawn from the fruit, or maſt, of the beech-tree. See *Oil.*

BEEF. The fleſh of beeves, or of bulls, oxen, cows, and heifers; being a great article in commerce, as it is generally ſalted, both for reſiſting putrefaction, and for being the more eaſily tranſported into thoſe countries where it may be ſold to advantage.

By the ſtatute of the 6th of George II. beef cured with any ſalt in England, but in Scotland only with foreign ſalt, which has paid duty, is to be allowed a bounty of 5 s. the barrel upon exportation.

This is one of the moſt conſiderable branches of the Iriſh trade; for the paſture of that country is ſo excellent, that their cattle, in a great meaſure, ſupply France, Spain, Portugal, the Netherlands, and the Weſt Indies, with this kind of proviſion. Jutland is alſo a conſiderable country for the venditure of beef; but Ireland is the moſt convenient market, from whence the duty on beef is 1 l. *per* barrel on its importation into England. Beef is alſo

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one of the principal commodities of the Britiſh colonies on the continent of North America, which they export to the Weſt Indies.

BEEN, *Ben*, or *Behen*, a medicinal root, celebrated for its aromatic, cardiac, and alexiterial virtues; eſpecially among the Arabs: of which there are two kinds; the white, and the red: the former being inſipid, making little impreſſion on the tongue, beſides that of a little bitterneſs it leaves behind; and ſuppoſed, by ſome modern botaniſts, to be the ſame with the lychnis terreſtris; and by others, with the papaver ſpumeum; the red is fibrous, brown without, and reddiſh within, ſuppoſed to be the ſame with the lemonium maritimum majus, or ſea lavender.

They are both brought from the Levant in ſtumps like jalap, and have the ſame virtues; being ſubſtituted for each other: but they ſhould be choſen dry, of a deep colour, and of an aromatic taſte.

BEER. A popular drink, prepared from malt and hops; which Meſſieurs Perrault, Rainſſant, and others defend, by urging that the hops, which the ancients were ſtrangers to, have a faculty of purifying the blood, and removing obſtructions; ſerving as a corrective, and freeing the drink from the inconveniencies to which the antients were liable. See *Hops and Malt*.

In the year 1691 there were brewed by the common brewers in the city and ſuburbs of London, 1,222,764 barrels of ſtrong beer and ale, and 865,831 barrels of ſmall beer: But, in the ſame year, the duty upon beer and ale being doubled, it ſet a great number of private brewers to work; which ſo greatly affected the common breweries that, in the year 1695, the annual quantity of ſtrong beer and ale was reduced to 909,299 barrels, and the ſmall beer to 813,824 barrels.

And altho' the number of inhabitants within the bills of mortality ſince that time is encreaſed one fourth, yet the quantity of ſtrong beer and ale brewed within the city and ſuburbs, in the year 1724, was only increaſed to 1,172,494 barrels, while the ſmall beer was decreaſed to 798,495 barrels; whereas, according to the ancient ſtate of the London brewery, and the great increaſe of the inhabitants of the city, the ſtrong beer and ale brewed within the bills of mortality at preſent, by public and private brewers, ought to amount to 1,528,464 barrels; and the ſmall beer to 1,74,288 barrels: but, by the great conſumption of brandy, and other pernicious ſpirits, the London brewery decreaſes daily; wherefore, ſuch a quantity of beer and ale as aforeſaid is not to be expected, though there is a vaſt conſumption of country beer and ale in the city, from many parts of the kingdom.

Strong beer, ſtrong ale, mum, cyder, and perry, may be ſhipped off in Great Britain, to be exported into foreign parts, as merchandiſe, from the common keys of any lawful port, within the uſual hours of exciſe, in the preſence of a ſworn gauger, or other ſworn officer of exciſe; upon notice given, at the exciſe-office, within the limits whereof the ſaid liquors were brewed or made: and upon the ſaid gauger's, or officer's, certifying the quantity of ſuch liquors off, to the officer of exciſe where the entry was made, they are to pay the exciſe of the ſaid liquors ſo exported, to the brewer, or maker thereof, within one month after ſhipped exportation; deducting 3 d. *per* ton for charges: but no drawback is to be allowed for what is taken on board for the uſe of the ſhip: however, if the ſaid liquors are unladen, or laid on land, or put into any other ſhip, or veſſel, in Great Britain, they are, by the ſtatute of the 1ſt of William and Mary, liable to be forfeited, with 50 l. for every caſk. See *Clap-board*.

By the ſtatute of the 11th and 12th of William III, it was enacted, for the aſcertaining the meaſures for retailing ale and beer, that all perſons retailing ale and beer, ſhould ſell their ale and beer by a full ale-quart, or ale-pint; according to the ſtandard remaining with the chamberlains of the exchequer, in a veſſel made of wood, earth, glaſs, horn, leather, pewter, or other wholeſome metal, marked from the ſaid ſtandard in the exchequer, or city of London, or ſome other place, where a ſtandard ſhould be kept; and not in any other veſſel not marked, on forfeiture of a ſum not exceeding 40 s. nor leſs than 10 s.

And by the ſtatute of the 13th of William III. it was enacted, That no common brewer, inn-keeper, victualler, or retailer of beer and ale, ſhould uſe any ſugar, honey, foreign grains, Guinea-pepper, the liquor called *eſſentia bine*, made from malt and water boiled up, coculus indiae, or any unwholſome ingredients, in the brewing or making of beer or ale, or mix any ſugar with any beer or ale in caſk, after the ſame is cleanſed, on pain of forfeiture of 20 l.

Eager BEER, beer turned ſour, which is uſed by callicoe-printers, chymiſts, lapidaries, ſcarlet-dyers, vinegar-merchants, white-lead men, and others. See *Eager*.

BEIBAZAR. A city of Turky, remarkable for its goat-hair. See *Turky*.

BEID. A plant growing near the village of Martarca, in Egypt, which ſhoots forth an abundance of roots, from whence ſeveral branches, and twigs, ſprout 5 or 6 feet high. Its leaves are broad, very thick, and terminate in an oval form; from whence, while ſoft and tender, oozes a kind of milk, which hardens by heat, and is fit not only for the currying of leather, but is alſo of ſuch uſe in medicine, as to ſerve for a depilator, and to cure ſcalds, the itch, and other tumours of the ſkin.

Its bloſſoms, of a ſaffron colour, inclining to a red, grow in little cluſters on the top of the branches, where they are faſtened by long ſtalks, and form a kind of crown turned toward the ground; from which bees extract excellent honey.

A kind of cotton more ſleek, and ſofter, than ſilk, covers both ſeed and fruit, ſerving to make mattraſſes and cuſhions.

BEIGE. A kind of French ſerge, of a black, grey, or tann-colour, called otherwiſe natural ſerge; becauſe the wool whereof it is manufactured, receives no dye, being uſed either for the warp or woof, as it has been taken off the ſheep.

BELAY, on board a ſhip, ſignifies the ſame as faſten: thus they ſay, belay the ſheet, or tack; that is, faſten it to the kennel, or to any other thing.

BELEM. A fortreſs on the N. ſide of the river Tagus, 3 m. W. of Liſbon, in Portugal, which commands the entrance of that port.

BELELAIS, are ſilks ſtuffs manufactured at Bengal, after the manner of taffetas; the piece being about 20 yards long, and yard wide.

BELEDINE. A kind of ſpun ſilk. See *Silk*.

BELENITES, or *Belemnites*, ſo called from a dart, or arrow, whoſe figure it reſembles, is a pyramidal ſtone, of various colours; particularly recommended in intermitting fevers, having power to precipitate the febrile ferment; which is alſo called *dactylus idæus*, as being found on Mount Ida, in the iſland of Candia: but it is alſo found on the Alps, and in ſeveral parts of Germany, France, and Switzerland.

BELFAST. A port-town of Ireland, ſituated in Carickfergus bay, in 6 deg. 15 min. of W. lon. and 54 deg. 38 min. of N. lat. in the county of Antrim, and province of Ulſter.

BELLISLE. An iſland ſituated near the eaſtern coaſt of New Britain, or Eſkimaux, in 58 deg. of W. lon. and 52 deg. of N. lat. giving its name to the ſtreights of Belliſle, which ſeparates the N. of Newfoundland from New Britain. See *French America*.

BELLISLE, is alſo an iſland on the S. coaſt of Britany, in France, ſituated in 3 deg. of W. lon. and 47 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. See *French Iſlands*.

BELL. A popular machine, ranked by muſicians among the number of muſical inſtruments of percuſſion.

BELL-*metal*, is a compoſition of copper and tin melted together: the ordinary proportion being 22 or 23 pounds of tin, to 100 weight of copper: but ſome add lead and braſs to the compoſition. See *Copper*, *Tin*, *Lead*, *and Braſs*.

BELL-*founder*. A perſon who caſts or makes bells.

BELL-*glaſſes*, is a particular kind of glaſs made in the form of bells, being uſed by gardeners to preſerve tender plants from the weather.

BELLOWS. An inſtrument to blow, or convey wind with, very often uſed by all ſorts of ſmiths, to make their fires burn quick and fierce; and alſo for many other purpoſes; ſuch as giving air to mines in deep and long drifts; the cauſing the pipes of an organ, or bagpipe, to ſpeak; as alſo for domeſtic uſes.

BELOCULO. One of the names given to ipecacuanha.

BELT, is a name given to two particular parts of the ſea, bordering

bordering upon the Daniſh territories, at the entrance of the Baltic; the one called the Greater Belt, dividing Zeland from Funen; and the other called the Leſſer Belt, dividing Funen from the continent of Jutland. See *Denmark and Baltic.*

BELVIDERE. The capital of the province of Belvidere, ſituated in 22 deg. of E. lon. and 37 deg. of N. lat. on the W. coaſt of the Morea, near Cape Torneſe; whence the Engliſh import the raiſins called *belvideres.* See *Turky.*

BENCOOLEN. A port, and town, belonging to the Engliſh, ſituated in 101 deg. of E. lon. and 4 deg of S. lat. on the S. W. coaſt of Sumatra, whence they export great quantities of pepper, the growth of the adjacent country. See *Sunda Iſlands.*

BENDING, is a maritime word: thus they ſay, *bend the cable*, when it is to be made faſt to the ring of the anchor; and to bend two cables, ſignifies to tie them together with a knot, which, though leſs ſure than ſplicing, is ſooner done.

To unbend the cable, is to looſen it from the ring of the anchor; which is done when a ſhip deſigns to be long at ſea: and to bend a main ſail, is to make it faſt to the yard in its proper place.

BENDS. A ſort of tanned hides. See *Hide.*

Bends, in a ſhip, are the ſame with wailes, or wales, the outermoſt timbers of a ſhip, on which the men ſet their feet in climbing up; being reckoned, from the water, the firſt, ſecond, and third bend; which contribute much to ſtrengthen the ſhip, having the beams, knees, and foot hooks, bolted into them.

BENEAPED, in the ſea-language, is ſpoken of a ſhip when the water does not flow high enough to bring her out of a dock, or over a bar of ſand.

BENGAL. The moſt eaſterly province of the Mogul's dominions in India; being annually overflowed by the Ganges, as Egypt is by the Nile. See *India.*

BENIN. The capital of the territory of the ſame name, on the Guinea coaſt in Africa, ſituated on the river Formoſa, in 5 deg. of E. lon. and 7 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 120 m. N. E. of Whidah, whither the Europeans reſort for Negro ſlaves. See *Guinea.*

BENZOIN, *Benjoin*, or *Benjamin*, is a medicinal kind of gum, imported from the kingdoms of Cochinchina, Lao, and other parts of the Eaſt Indies; particularly from the iſland of Sumatra; being ſometimes called *aſſa dulcis*; and is procured by a longitudinal inciſion, made in a tree whoſe leaves reſemble thoſe of the almond tree; which is of a yellowiſh colour, an agreeable ſcent, and melts eaſily.

There are three ſorts of benzoin; the firſt called *amygdaloides*, becauſe of its being interſperſed with ſeveral white ſpots, reſembling broken almonds, which comes from Siam, and is eſteemed the beſt: the ſecond is black, which drops from young trees, in the iſland of Sumatra, being very odoriferous, and called *benzoinum de boninas:* the third ſort is alſo black, but leſs odoriferous, and is found in the iſlands of Java and Sumatra.

Benzoin is uſed in phyſic as a pectoral and anti-aſthmatic; but when thrown on live coals it ſerves to perfume houſes and other places.

BERAMS. A coarſe cotton cloth, brought from the Eaſt Indies, particularly from Surat; of which ſome are white, and others ſtriped: the former being about 11 yards in length, and about a yard wide: the latter about 15 yards long, and ſomething leſs than a yard in breadth.

BERCHEROCT. A weight uſed at Archangel, and in other places in Ruſſia, for weighing pot-aſhes, and other commodities of great bulk: the bercheroct weighing 400 lb. Muſcovite weight; which amount to about 364 lb. Engliſh averdupois.

BERGAMO. A coarſe kind of tapeſtry, manufactured in ſeveral parts of France; but ſeldom exported to other countries.

BERGAMOT, gives the denomination to a kind of eſſence drawn from a fruit, produced by ingrafting the lemon tree on the bergamot pear ſtock; which is no more than the oily fluid of theſe lemons expreſſed by the fingers.

There is likewiſe a kind of ſnuff of the ſame name; which is only clean tobacco, with a little of the eſſence rubbed into it.

BERGEN, capital of the province of Bergen in Norway; is ſituated in 6 deg. of E. lon. and 60 deg. of N. lat. being a conſiderable port-town on the German ocean. See *Denmark.*

BERLIN. The capital of the King of Pruſſia's dominions in Germany, ſituated on the river Spree, in 14 deg. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. having a communication by water, both with the Baltic ſea and the German ocean. See *Germany.*

Berlin, is alſo a travelling carriage, chair, coach, or chariot; ſo called from the city of Berlin, where they were firſt uſed. See *Coach.*

BERMUDA *iſlands*, are ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, between 65 deg. of W. lon. and 32 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 700 m. E. of Charles-town in S. Carolina. See *Britiſh America.*

BERRY, *bacca*, a grain, fruit, or ſeed, produced by ſeveral herbs, trees, and ſhrubs; being of various ſizes, forms, properties, and uſes, according to the plants whereon they grow: ſome of which are uſed in medicine, as juniper-berries, and buckthorn-berries; and others in dying, as French, or yellow berries.

Berry-*point*, an Engliſh cape, at the entrance of Torbay in Devonſhire.

BERVY. A ſea-port town of Scotland, in the county of Merns, ſituated in 2 deg. 5 min. of W. lon. and 56 deg. of N. lat.

BERYL, is a precious ſtone, reſembling cryſtal, brought from the Eaſt Indies, and found alſo on the banks of the Euphrates: of which there are ten ſorts; but the moſt eſteemed are thoſe that go under the denomination of *beryl*, *chryſoberyl*, and *chryſopraſin.*

The beryl inclines a little to a ſea-green, whence it has obtained the name of *aqua marina:* but to give it fire, and luſtre, it muſt be cut facetwiſe; the poliſh giving no ſplendor, whatever other way it is cut. The chryſoberyl is paler, inclining ſomewhat to a gold colour: and the green has the aſcendant in the chryſopraſin.

Some are of opinion, that the beryl is the diamond of the antients; and it is certain, that many ingenious modern jewellers have been ſometimes deceived therein.

Pieces of beryl have been often found ſo large as to be big enough to form very beautiful vaſes; ſeveral of which kind are met with at Cambay, Martaban, Pegu, and in the iſland of Ceylon.

The properties of the beryl were very great in the opinion of ancient naturaliſts; but this opinion is now exploded.

BESESTAN. See *Bezeſtin.*

BESORCH, is a tin coin of Perſia, current at Ormus; 5 of which are about 3 farthings ſterling.

BETEL. A plant of great reputation in all the Eaſt, particularly in India: of which there is an incredible commerce and conſumption.

This plant, which is not unlike the pepper-ſhrub, is ſo weak that it requires a prop to ſupport it as it grows: its leaves are like thoſe of ivy, but more ſoft and full of a red juice; which, as the Eaſtern people conceive, is excellent for fortifying the heart, and faſtening teeth; as alſo for making the breath ſweet, and agreeable; for it is theſe leaves, chewed continually by the Indians, with a kind of nut called *areca*, which makes their lips ſo red, and teeth ſo black, the latter being a colour preferred by them to the whiteneſs of the European's teeth.

The commerce of betel leaves is ſo very conſiderable, that ſeveral eminent merchants deal in them, and ſend ſeveral ſhips freighted therewith into moſt parts of the Eaſt; where its uſe is ſo common, that the grandees and people, the rich and the poor, are never without their box of betel, which they preſent to each other whenever they meet: and what makes the traffic of betel eaſy, is its property of continuing for a long time uncorrupted.

BETILLES, muſlins, or white cotton cloths, manufactured in the Eaſt Indies; particularly at Pondicherry, of which there are three kinds: the firſt, called ſimply *betille*, is ſomewhat coarſe; being from 1 yard to 2 yards wide, and about 20 yards long. The ſecond ſort, called *betille oringal*, has a ſmart clear thread, and is very fine: the piece contains about 16 yards in length, and of the ſame breadth as the ſimple betille. The third kind, called *pelicat betilles*,

is very clear; the piece being about the ſame length and breadth as the oringal.

There is alſo a kind of cambric betilles, made by the Indians, of cotton, in imitation of cambrics.

BEVELAND, N. and S. are two iſlands, ſituated in the province of Zealand, in the United Provinces; between the eaſtern and weſtern branches of the river Scheld. See *United Provinces*.

BEURT-SCHEPEN, or *Beurt-Schuyten*, are ſhips, lighters, or river boats, ſo called at Amſterdam, that have the ſole privilege of trading to ſeveral towns, as well without as within the ſeven United Provinces: having this denomination on account that each of them is obliged to depart, and load, in its turn, for the place it is to go to; which is regulated by the wardens of the company of boat-men. The privileged places for theſe ſhips are London, in England; Rouen, and St. Vallery, in France; Hambourg, and Bremen, in Germany: there are alſo ſome for Middlebourg, in Zealand, the greater part of the towns of Brabant, Flanders, and almoſt all the towns of the ſeven provinces; which is of a great conveniency to ſuch of the Amſterdam merchants, who have not merchandiſe ſufficient to freight an entire ſhip; and who, on paying the freight regulated by the ordonances, find proper conveniencies, by theſe veſſels, to ſend goods into all theſe places in what quantity they pleaſe.

BEZANS, cotton cloths brought from Bengal; of which there are white, and ſtriped of different colours.

BEZESTIN, or *Beſeſtan*, are the covered halls, ſo called at Conſtantinople, where the richeſt and moſt precious kind of merchandizes are ſold; of which there are two buildings, the new and old: in the old bezeſtin, built in the year 1461, are ſold arms, and harnaſſes for horſes, ſome common, and others enriched with gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones.

In the new are ſold all kinds of merchandize; but generally the moſt precious ſort, as goldſmiths goods, furrs, veſts, tapeſtry, ſtuffs of gold, ſilver, ſilk, and goats hair, precious ſtones, and porcelain; in which alſo the Engliſh, Dutch, and French merchants, have their ſhops for linen and woollen goods.

The merchandiſes are in great ſafety in theſe places, and the doors are ſhut up early: for the Turkiſh merchants, who have ſhops here, retire to their own homes in the town: and the Chriſtian merchants, and Jews, retire to the ſuburbs, and return the next morning.

BEZOAR, or *Bezoard*, a ſtony ſubſtance, taken out of the ſtomach of ſome animal; compoſed of ſeveral coats, like an onion, and endued with the power of reſiſting poiſon: being of two kinds, the oriental, and occidental.

Oriental bezoar is moſt in eſtimation; which is brought from ſeveral parts of the Eaſt Indies, particularly Golconda and Cananor, where it is found intermingled with the dung of an animal, of the goat-kind, called *pazan*; in whoſe belly this ſtone is formed; for the buds of a certain ſhrub which the animal uſes to brouze, are generally found in the middle of it, and ſuppoſed to be the baſis on which this formation is made. The bezoar ordinarily grows to the bigneſs of an acorn, and ſometimes to that of a pidgeon's egg: its colour is variable, ſometimes of a blood colour, ſometimes a pale yellow, a browniſh red, and honey colour; the number of bezoars produced by each animal is alſo various, ſome yielding from one to ſix, and others none at all. A ſtone of one ounce is ſold in the Indies for about 5 l. ſterling, and one of four ounces for about 100 l. ſterling; ſo that the value of the ſtone is augmented according to its magnitude, the price increaſing like that of a diamond. Oriental bezoar ſhould be choſen gloſſy, of a ſmell like that of ambergreaſe, ſmooth to the touch, and in large pieces; its figure is indifferent, but its colour uſually olive.

Bezoar is eaſily ſophiſticated, and the deceit as eaſily diſcovered; for the methods of proving it are, 1ſt, to ſteep it 3 or 4 hours in luke-warm water; when, if the water is not tinged, nor the bezoar does not loſe of its weight, it is pure: 2dly, to try it with a ſharp red hot iron; when, if it enters the ſtone, and the heat makes it fry and ſhrivel, it is factitious: 3dly, to rub it over a paper ſmeared with chalk, or quick lime; when, if it leaves a yellow taint on the former, or a green one on the latter, it is good. Occidental bezoar is heavier, more brittle, of a dirtier green colour, leſs gloſſy, and generally held much inferior in virtue than the oriental; being found in the belly of ſeveral animals, eſpecially in Peru; as the guanacos, jackos, and vicunnas, as alſo the taraguas, whoſe bezoar is moſt eſteemed, this animal being much like the goat that produces the oriental.

German bezoar, alſo called *cows egg*, is ſaid to be found in the ſtomach of certain cows; but more frequently in that of the chamois, a ſort of rapicapra, or wild goat: but theſe bezoars are ſuppoſed to be only the hair of thoſe animals; which, being occaſionally licked off by the tongue, is ſwallowed down; and, being impregnated with the ſaliva, is condenſed into balls, which are uſed in ſome medicines, but chiefly to make a yellow colour for painters in miniature.

Beſides theſe three kinds of bezoars, which the ſhops afford, there are three other kinds of greater value; as the hog, or boar bezoar, porcupine bezoar, and monkey bezoar; the former of which is found in the gall-bladder of a boar in the Eaſt Indies, which, in figure and ſize, reſembles a filbert, though more irregular; its colour not fixed, but moſt commonly white, with a tincture of blue, being ſmooth and ſhining, and valued at ten times its weight in gold. The Indians, who call it *maſtica de ſoho*, prefer it to the goat bezoar, and attribute infinite medicinal virtues to it: but for uſe, they infuſe it in water, or wine, till it has communicated a little bitterneſs to it; and, to facilitate the infuſion, as alſo at the ſame time to preſerve ſo precious a ſtone, they uſually ſet it in a gold caſe full of holes.

Porcupine, and monkey bezoars, are like the hog bezoar; though Tavernier ſays, theſe kinds are found in the heads of the monkey and porcupine; and that they are held in ſuch eſteem by the natives of Malacca, that they never part with them, unleſs as preſents to ambaſſadors, or the greateſt princes of the Eaſt; though ſome add, that they are likewiſe found in Siam: however, the form, colour, and properties of theſe three bezoars are ſo ſimilar, that it is more than probable, they are all the ſame ſtone, under three different denominations.

BEZOARDICUM *minerale*, or *Mineral Bezoar*, is a preparation of antimony, corrected with ſpirit of nitre, and ſoftened by repeated lotions, which carry off the purgative virtue, and ſubſtitute a diaphoretic one; whereby it promotes perſpiration like the native ſtone of bezoar.

BEZOARDICUM *joviale*, or *Bezoar of Jupiter*, is a regulus, made by melting three ounces of regulus of antimony, and two of block-tin; which, powdered and mixed with ſix ounces of corroſive ſublimate, and diſtilled off in a kind of butter, that is diſſolved in ſpirit of nitre, and the ſolution diſtilled three times; the bezoar remaining at the bottom is to be powdered, waſhed and mingled with ſpirit of wine, till it grows inſipid.

BEZOARDICUM *lunale*, or of *ſilver*, is made by mixing rectified butter of antimony with fine ſilver, diſſolved in ſpirit of nitre; when a powder falls to the bottom, which is the bezoar.

BEZOARDICUM *martiale*, is a diſſolution of crocus martis, by reverberation in butter of antimony, with ſpirit of nitre poured on it; which has been recommended as efficacious againſt hyſterical, and hypochondriac diſorders.

BIA, is a name given by the Siameſe, to the little white ſhells of the Maldives, which ſerve for ſmall money, and are called *coris* in almoſt all the other parts of the Eaſt Indies. At Siam, 800 bias are given for a fouang, which is the eighth part of a fical; ſo that 12 bias, or coris, are not quite worth a halfpenny ſterling. See *Coris*.

BIAMBONNCER. A ſort of Indian ſtuff, made entirely of bark.

BIARIS. A kind of whale, called alſo *cachalot*; of the hinder part of whoſe brain the drug called *ſperma ceti* is made. See *Whale*, and *Whale fiſhery*.

BIASSE. A kind of raw ſilk, brought from the Levant.

BICE. A blue powder, or colour, uſed by painters.

BICHET. A dry meaſure of France, different according to the places where it is uſed; being generally from 13 to 19 buſhels Wincheſter meaſure.

BID, is to offer a certain ſum of money for goods, eſpecially thoſe ſold by auction.

BIDON. A liquid meaſure, in uſe among French ſailors; containing about five quarts Engliſh wine-meaſure.

BIGONTIA, or *Bigorza*. A liquid Venetian meaſure, making 3 quarts and an half Engliſh wine meaſure.

BIIS. A weight uſed on the coaſt of Coromandel in the Eaſt Indies, being about 8 lb. averdupois.

BILANDER. A veſſel of about 80 tons, uſed for the tranſport of merchandiſe; being a kind of hoy, conducted by four or five men only; but furniſhed with maſts and ſails in all reſpects like a hoy. See *Hoy*.

BILBOA. The capital of the province of Biſcay in Spain, ſituated in 3 deg. of W. lon. and 43 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. at the mouth of the river Ibaicabal, which a little below falls into a bay of the ſea, and forms a good port; in ſome repute for its exportations of wool, ſword blades, and other manufactures of iron and ſteel. See *Spain*.

BILBOES. The puniſhing a perſon at ſea, by laying or putting the offender in irons, or a ſort of ſtocks, but more ſevere than the common ſtocks.

BILDGE, or *Bilge*, of a ſhip, denotes the bottom of her floor, or the breadth of that part which ſhe reſts on when ſhe is a ground.

BILDGE-*water*, is that which, by reaſon of the flatneſs of the ſhip's bottom, lies on her floor, and cannot go to the well of the pump: but the Dutch, whoſe ſhips are frequently of this form, uſe a ſort of pumps, called *bildge-pumps*, or, as they are called in England, *burr-pumps*, to carry off the bildge-water.

When a ſhip ſtrikes againſt a rock, they ſay ſhe is bildged, or bulged.

BILEDULGERID, is a diviſion of Africa; having Zaara on the ſouth; Morocco, and the coaſt of Barbary, on the north; the unknown parts of Africa on the weſt; and the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt; comprehending the kingdoms of Teſſe, Darha, Tafilet, Segelmeſſa, Tegorarin, Techort, Zeb, or Zab, Meſab, Gademis, Fezzan, and Levata. This country was the ancient Numidia; when it was tolerably fertile, poſſeſſed by an induſtrious people, and had Zama for its metropolis; the inhabitants were ſo numerous, and of ſuch a warlike diſpoſition, as to enable their king Jugurtha, to make a long and formidable contention with the antient Romans, when that republic was in the meridian of its glory; but the Mahometan Arabs, who are now in poſſeſſion of this extenſive country, are negligent in cultivating the ſoil; by which their vagrant tribes are no otherwiſe conducive to the promotion of any mercantile intereſt, than by gathering dates, which they have in great plenty in their woods; as alſo in procuring oſtrich-feathers.

BILL, in parliament, denotes a paper, containing propoſitions offered to the houſes to be paſſed by them, and then to be preſented to the king, to paſs into an act or law.

BILL ſignifies alſo a paper, either written or printed, in large characters; which is poſted up in the Royal Exchange, and other open and public places, to give notice of the ſale of any merchandiſe, or ſhip, or of the ſailing of any veſſel to foreign parts.

BILL, in trade, both wholeſale and retail, as alſo among tradeſmen and workmen, is an accompt of merchandiſe or goods delivered to a perſon, or of work done for another.

BILL *of entry*. An account of goods entered at the cuſtom-houſe, both inward and outward; wherein is expreſſed the name of the merchant importing or exporting the quantity of goods, and the ſort, as alſo from whence imported, or to what place exported.

BILL *of exchange*, is a ſhort note, or writing, ordering the payment of a ſum of money, in one place, to ſome perſon aſſigned by the drawer, or remitter, in conſideration of the like value paid to him in another place.

The whole eſtate and effects of merchants uſually conſiſt in bills of exchange; which are inſtruments ſo noble and excellent, that tho' they want thoſe formalities required by the common law, and cannot be deemed ſpecialties; yet they are ſuperior to any bonds or ſpecialties, by the reſpect that is paid to them, and the punctuality and preciſeneſs of the payment.

That which conſtitutes the form and eſſence of a bill of exchange, is the ceſſion or transferring of a ſum of money by the drawer to him on whoſe account it is drawn, to be received of his correſpondent at another place; which ceſſion or transfer is made in the mercantile terms for value received, that is, for a like ſum given by the perſon for whoſe ſake the bill is drawn to the drawer, in money, merchandiſe, or other effects.

The juſt and true exchange for monies by bills, is according to value for value; which is grounded on the ſtandard of coins, proportionable to their valuation; which, being juſtly made, reduces the price of exchange to a ſum certain, for the exchange of monies to any place. See *Exchange*.

To note, and *to proteſt a* BILL. See *Note*, and *Proteſt*.

Bank-BILLS, are inſtruments whereby private perſons become intitled to a part in the bank-ſtock. See *Bank of England*.

BILL *of lading*. An inſtrument ſigned by the maſter of a ſhip, acknowledging the receipt of a merchant's goods, and obliging himſelf to deliver them, at the place to which they are conſigned, in good condition.

Of ſuch bills there are uſually three; the firſt the merchant keeps; the ſecond is ſent to the factor, to whom the goods are conſigned; and the third is kept by the maſter of the ſhip.

BILL *of parcels*. An account of the particular ſorts and prices of goods bought, given by the ſeller to the buyer.

BILL *of ſale*, is when a perſon wanting a ſum of money, delivers goods as a ſecurity to the lender, to whom he gives this bill, impowering him to ſell the ſaid goods, in caſe the ſum borrowed is not repaid, with intereſt, at the time appointed.

BILL *of ſtore*. A kind of licence granted at the cuſtom-houſe, to merchants to carry ſuch ſtores and proviſions, cuſtom free, as are neceſſary for their voyages.

BILL *of ſufferance*. A licence granted at the cuſtom-houſe, to a merchant to ſuffer him to trade from one Engliſh port to another, without paying cuſtom.

BILL *of Debt*. See *Debt*.

Exchequer-BILL. See *Exchequer*.

Paper-BILLS *of Credit*. See *Paper-Bill's*.

Shipping-BILLS. See *Entry*.

BILLET. A log of wood, cut for fuel. See *Fuel*.

BILLON, in coinage, a kind of baſe metal, either of gold or ſilver, in whoſe mixture copper predominates. According to ſome authority, billon of gold is any gold beneath ſtandard, or 21 carats; and billon of ſilver all below 10 penny weights; but according to others, gold and ſilver beneath the ſtandard, as far as 12 carats, and 6 penny weights, are properly baſe gold and ſilver; and all under thoſe, billon of gold, and billon of ſilver, in regard copper is the prevailing metal.

BILLOW. A large rolling wave, or ſurge of the ſea.

BIMAES. A ſort of Braſil wood.

BIMLIPATAN. A port-town of Golconda in India, ſituated in 83 deg. of E. long. and 18 deg. N. lat. where the Dutch have a factory. See *India*.

BINDELY. A kind of ſmall ſilk and ſilver ribbon, manufactured in ſeveral places of Italy.

BINDING *an apprentice*, or to bind him, is to engage him with a maſter or freeman of any trade or company, in order to learn that profeſſion or trade; the term for which the apprentice is bound being generally ſeven years to tradeſmen, five to attornies, or leſs to merchants. See *Apprentice*.

BINDING *of books*, is the ſewing the ſheets together, and putting a cover to them, either of paper, parchment, or leather; which occaſions the terms of French binding, Dutch binding, law-binding, marble-binding, binding in leather, in wood, in ſheep, in calf, in parchment, and in vellom.

BINN. A place made up, wherein to put corn, or other grain.

BINTAW. A French ſettlement on the river Gambia in Africa.

BIRCH-*tree*, is a tree of a middling height, whoſe branches are thin, and bending, which are uſed for making brooms; the bark is rough, thick, and white; the wood is white; and

and the tree, which grows in a poor ſoil, or marſhy places, caſts its bark every year.

The birch-tree, tho' very indifferent, is uſed by turners for chairs, and other domeſtic things; as alſo by huſbandmen for ox-yokes, and hop-poles; by coopers for hoops, and by baſket-makers for baſkets.

BIRDLIME, is a viſcid ſubſtance, prepared various ways, and from various materials, for the catching birds, mice, and other vermin.

The bird-lime ordinarily uſed in England, is made from holly-bark, having a third part of nut-oil, or any thin greaſe, incorporated with it over the fire.

The birdlime brought from Damaſcus is ſuppoſed to be made of ſebeſtens; but it endures neither froſt nor wet: that brought from Spain is of an ill ſmell: that of the Italians is made of the berries of miſleto heated, mixed with oil; but, to make it bear the water, they add turpentine; and it is ſaid the bark of the Engliſh way-faring ſhrub, makes the beſt ſort of birdlime.

BIRTH, or *Birthing*, among ſeamen, denotes the due diſtance obſerved between ſhips lying at anchor, or under ſail; but a convenient place aboard for a meſs to put their cheſts, and other things, is alſo called a birth; and a proper place to moor a ſhip in, is called by the ſame name.

BIS. A Latin word, ſignifying twice; which is frequently uſed by merchants, when two leaves in the ſame book have been marked with the ſame number by miſtake; when, to ſhew that it has been twice uſed, bis is wrote next to the number of one of thoſe leaves; which method is practiſed, to prevent the trouble of altering a whole ſeries of numbers.

BISA, or *Biza*. An Indian coin, current in Pegu, for about 1 s. 8 d. ſterling. The biſa is likewiſe a weight uſed in Pegu, being about 1 lb. 12 oz. Engliſh averdupois.

BISANTAGAR. A town of India, where there is a manufactory of cotton-cloths. See *India*.

BISCAY *Bay*, or the *Bay of Biſcay*, extends from Cape Ortegal on the north coaſt of Spain, to Uſhant on the weſtern coaſt of France.

BISERTA. A port-town of the kingdom of Tunis in Africa, ſituated in 9 deg. of E. lon. and 37 deg. of N. lat. on the coaſt of the Mediterranean. See *Barbary*.

BISKET, or *Biſcuit*. A ſort of bread made of wheat, ſo denominated from the word *biſcoctus*, or twice baked; and is particularly applied to bread made for the ſervice of ſeamen; which is baked twice to preſerve it, and called *ſea-biſcuit*: but for long voyages, they bake it four times, and prepare it ſix months before it is put on ſhip-board.

BISCUIT is alſo commonly underſtood of ſmall cakes made by the confectioners of fine flour, eggs, ſugar, and other ingredients.

BISHOP, *and his clerks*. Some little iſlands and rocks on the coaſt of Pembrokeſhire in Wales, too frequently fatal to mariners.

BISMUTH. A mineral body, half metallic, compoſed of the firſt matter of tin, while imperfect, found uſually in tin mines, and ſometimes alſo in ſilver. See *Tin*.

Its ſubſtance is hard, ponderous, and brittle; of a large, gloſſy, white, and ſhining grain: but it is called *tin glaſs*; becauſe, when broke, it ſhews a great number of little poliſhed laminæ, like glaſs: it is likewiſe called *marcaſite*, by way of excellence, becauſe ſurpaſſing all others in whiteneſs and beauty.

It is ſometimes uſed by pewterers, inſtead of regulus of antimony, and by letter-founders in caſting their types; but it contains an arſenical ſalt, which makes it dangerous in medicine.

The precipitate of biſmuth makes a very white magiſtery; which, mixed with prepared waters and pomatums, makes a fucus, to beautify the complexion and preſerve the ſkin.

There is alſo an artificial biſmuth, much like the natural, being that which is uſually found in the ſhops, made by reducing tin into thin laminæ, and cementing them by a mixture of white tartar, ſalt-petre, and arſenic, placed alternately in ſeveral ſtrata, or layers, in a crucible over a naked fire; tho' the ſame is alſo made of a mineral called zink, by uſing lead inſtead of tin, and a little calamine. See *Zink*.

BISNAGUA, or *Viſnagua*. A plant reſembling fennel; which grows abundantly in the Levant, from whence it is brought into Europe, where its principal uſe is for the making of tooth picks.

BISTER, or *Biſtre*, among painters and deſigners, is a colour made of chimney-ſoot boiled, and afterwards diluted with water, ſerving to waſh their deſigns.

BISTI. A ſmall Perſian coin; which, from ſome relations of good authority, is placed among the current ſilver coins of Perſia, being worth about three farthings ſterling; but others make the biſti only a money of accompt.

BISTORT. A medicinal plant, uſed in the compoſition of the theriaca, growing on the Alps, the Pyreneans, and the mountains of Auvergne. Its root is the only part uſed by druggiſts; which is wreathed in the form of a wreathed column, being brown without, and fleſh-coloured within, ſurrounded with tufted fibres, and of an aſtringent taſte; which is good againſt fluxes and hernias; but its principal property is to be an antidote againſt poiſon.

It ſhould be choſen plump, freſh, brown on the outſide, reddiſh within; and, if poſſible, it muſt be the produce of a warm climate.

BIT. That part of a horſe's bridle which goes into his mouth: but, in the Weſt Indies, it is the leaſt piece of ſilver coin in the Britiſh colonies, which goes current at ſeven pence halfpenny ſterling.

BITCHEMARE. A kind of fiſh, ſalted and dried like cod, found upon ſome parts of the coaſts of Cochinchina, which is brought to China in great quantites by the Dutch, and the natives of Cochinchina.

BITTACLE. A ſea-term, ſignifying a wooden frame with two ſtories, placed in the ſteerage, before the ſteerſman, by the mizen-maſt; being faſtened with wooden pegs inſtead of iron, to prevent the direction of the needle of the compaſs which is incloſed in it, from being altered by the proximity of that metal.

BITTER. A ſea-term, ſignifying any turn of the cable about the bitts, ſo that the cable may be let out gradually; and when a ſhip is ſtopt by a cable, they ſay ſhe is brought up by a bitter; alſo that end of the cable which is wound about the bitts, is called the bitter-end of the cable.

BITTS, are two perpendicular pieces of timber in the forepart of the ſhip, bolted to the gun-deck and orlope-beams, their lower ends ſtepping in the foot-waaling; the heads of which are braced to the croſs-piece; and when ſeveral turns of the cable taken over them is for bearing the ſhip at an anchor, there are generally two pair of bitts; beſides, there are others on the upper deck, which are fixed by the main and fore maſt, and called the top-ſail-ſheet, and jeer-bitts.

BITUMEN. A fatty, tenacious, mineral juice, very inflammable; or a foſſil body which readily takes fire, yields an oil, and is ſoluble in water; of which naturaliſts diſtinguiſh three kinds; the hard, the ſoft, and the liquid or oily; and each of theſe they ſubdivide into ſeveral others.

Among the hard bitumens are reckoned yellow amber, ſometimes ambergreaſe, jet, aſphaltum, piſſaſphaltum, pit-coal, black-ſtone, and ſulphurs: the ſoft are maltha, bitumen of Calao, Surinam, and Copal: laſtly, the naptha of Italy, and petroleum, are reckoned among the liquid bitumens; to which may be added zacinthius.

Of bitumens, ſome again are foſſil; others are found floating on the ſurface of certain lakes; and others ſpring from the earth like fountains, as at Pitchford in Shropſhire. Some bitumens are ſo hard, that they are uſed in forges inſtead of coals; others ſo glutinous, that they ſerve inſtead of cement or mortar in buildings; and others ſo liquid, that they are burnt in lamps inſtead of oil: but the bitumen in moſt eſteem, is that of India. See *Aſphaltum*.

BLACK, commonly called a colour; of which there are various kinds in commerce; as dyers black, painters black, German black, ivory-black, Spaniſh black, lamp-black, and others.

Dyers BLACK, or good black, is one of the five ſimple and mother colours uſed in dying; and is made differently, according to the different quality and value of the ſtuffs to be dyed. See *Dying*.

For

For broad-cloths, fine ratines, and druggets, they uſe woad and indigo: the goodneſs of the colour conſiſts in there not being above ſix pounds of indigo to a ball of woad, when the latter begins to caſts its blue flower, and in not being heated for uſe above twice. Thus blued, the ſtuff is boiled with alum, or tartar, then maddered; and, laſtly, the black given with galls, copperas, and ſumac; to bind which, and for preventing its ſmearing in uſe, the ſtuffs are to be well ſcoured in the fulling mill when white, and afterwards well waſhed.

For ſtuffs of leſs value, it is ſufficient they are well blued, with woad, and afterwards blacked with galls and copperas; but no ſtuff can be regularly dyed from white into black, without paſſing through the intermediate blue.

Yet there is a colour called *coal-black*, or Jeſuit's black, prepared of the ſame ingredients as the former, but without being firſt dyed blue; for here the drugs are diſſolved in water boiled for four hours, which have afterwards ſtood to cool till the hand could bear it; then the ſtuff is dipped in it, and again taken out ſix or eight times. This method of dying black is ſaid to be invented by the Jeſuits; and ſome even prefer it to the other.

By the ſtatute of the 23d of Elizabeth, it was enacted, That nothing of the nature of cloth ſhould be maddered for a black, except it was firſt grounded with woad only, or with woad and anele, unleſs the madder was put in with ſumac or galls, on pain of forfeiting the value of the thing dyed; provided it ſhould be lawful to dye any manner of gall-black, and ſumac-black, wherein no madder ſhould be uſed.

Earth-BLACK, is a kind of coal found in the ground, which, when well pounded, is uſed by painters in freſco; but there is alſo a kind of black made of ſilver and lead, to fill up the cavities of things engraved; as alſo another kind of black or ink, made of gall-nuts, copperas, or vitriol.

German or Frankfort BLACK, is made of the lees of wine burnt, waſhed in water, and ground in mills, together with ivory or peach-ſtones burnt. This black makes the principal ingredient in the rolling-preſs-printers ink. See *Ink*.

It is uſually brought from Frankfort, Mentz, and Straſbourg, either in lumps or powder; but that of France, upon account of the difference in the lees of wine, is leſs valued than that of Germany.

Ivory-BLACK, or velvet black, is made of ivory burnt between two crucibles, well luted; which is chiefly uſed by painters and jewellers. See *Ivory*.

Bone-BLACK, is made with the bones of oxen, cows, and other cattle, burnt and well ground; being much uſed in painting, but not ſo much valued as ivory-black.

Harts BLACK, is made from that part of hartſhorn which is left in the retort, after the ſpirits of volatile ſalt and oil have been extracted; which remains are ground with water, and make a black almoſt as fine and good as that of ivory.

Lamp-BLACK, or lamb-black. The ſooty fumes of roſin, prepared by melting and purifying the roſin in iron veſſels, ſetting fire to it under a chimney lined at the top with ſheep-ſkins, or thick linen-cloth, to receive the vapour, which is the black, thus prepared in vaſt quantities at Paris: but in England it is generally prepared from the reſinous and fatty parts of wood, burnt under a kind of tent which receives it: however, the greateſt part is brought from Sweden and Norway; being uſed on various occaſions, particularly in printers ink, mixed up with oils of turpentine and linſeed, all boiled together.

Spaniſh BLACK. So called becauſe firſt invented by the Spaniards, is no other than burnt cork; which is uſed in various works, particularly among painters.

BLACK *Hellebore*. See *Hellebore*.

BLACK *Lead*. See *Lead*.

BLACKS, or *Negroes*, are the inhabitants of ſeveral nations on the coaſt of Africa. See *Negroes*.

BLACK *Sea*, or *Euxine Sea*, lies between Europe and Aſia; being bounded by Tartary on the north; by Circaſſia, Mingrelia, and Georgia, towards the eaſt; by Natolia, or the Leſſer Aſia, on the ſouth; and by Romania, Bulgaria, and Beſſarabia, towards the weſt; extending from the 29th deg. of E. long. to the 44th, and from the 42d to the 46th deg. of N. lat. being entirely ſurrounded by the dominions of the Grand Signior, who enjoys the ſole navigation of it; tho' it is ſometimes diſturbed by the excurſions of the Coſſacks, who iſſue from the mouth of the Boriſthenes, and commit great ravages on the coaſt of Turky. The Ruſſians alſo attempted to eſtabliſh a navigation on this ſea; but have been obliged, by late treaties, to deliver up all the fortreſſes they had erected on the coaſts of the Euxine, and abandon this navigation; which is reckoned dangerous to the Turks, on account of the ſea being ſo tempeſtuous, and having but few tolerable harbours on it; from whence it is ſaid to have obtained the name of the *Black Sea*.

BLACKSMITH. One who makes any ſort of iron-work.

BLACKSMITH's *Company of London*, was an antient guild or fraternity, continued ſo by preſcription, till incorporated by letters patent of Queen Elizabeth, bearing date the 20th of April 1571, by the title of The keepers, or wardens, and ſociety of the art and miſtery de lez blackſmiths, London; which was confirmed by King James I. being a corporation governed by a maſter, 3 wardens, and 21 aſſiſtants; to which belongs a livery of 220 members, whoſe fine is 8 l. with a pleaſant hall on Lambert hill for the diſpatch of buſineſs.

BLACKWATER. A river of Ireland, that runs through the counties of Cork and Waterford, and diſcharges itſelf into Youghall bay.

BLACKWELL-*Hall*, in London, is the greateſt ſtaple for the woollen manufacture in Great Britain, being under the direction of the preſident and governors of Chriſt's hoſpital; where clothiers ſend their manufactures to be diſpoſed of, either by themſelves, or the factors appointed for that purpoſe.

By an act of parliament, paſſed in the 8th and 9th of King William III. it was enacted, That the governors of Blackwell-hall, and their deputies, ſhould ſtrictly hold the following times and rules. That the public market of Blackwell-hall ſhould be held every Thurſday, Friday, and Saturday, from 8 o'clock in the forenoon till 12, and from 2 in the afternoon till 5; and the keepers of the hall ſhould not permit any buying or ſelling of any woollen cloth at the hall upon any other days or hours, upon the penalty of 100 l. That the governors ſhould appoint to the country clothiers the moſt convenient room in the hall for the ſale of their cloth, and warehouſe room for keeping the ſame, paying the antient duties of the hall. That no factor, or other perſon other than the owner of the cloth, ſhould ſell, or expoſe to ſale, out of the ſaid market of Blackwell-hall, any cloth directed to be brought to the ſaid market, or any factor there, upon penalty of 5 l. for every cloth ſo ſold. That books, and weekly regiſters, ſhould be kept of all the cloths bought and ſold there; in which books ſhould be entered the names and habitations of the owners, buyers, and ſellers; the times of ſale, the factor or other perſon, buying or ſelling of every cloth; to which books the clothiers, their agents or ſervants, ſhould, at all convenient times, have recourſe, without fee; and any hall-keeper, clerk, or maſter-porter, neglecting his duty herein, ſhould for every offence forfeit 10 l. That if any perſon buy any cloth of another, except the owner, otherwiſe than for ready money, the perſon ſhould, within twelve days after ſale and delivery of the ſame, take or demand of the buyer a note, teſtifying under his hand the cloth ſold, and the ſum of money ſold for, payable to the owner; and ſhould deliver ſuch note on demand, with notice of the buyer's place of abode thereon ſubſcribed, to the owner, or any perſon authoriſed by him to receive the ſame, on pain to forfeit to the owner of the cloth ſold double the value thereof, for every neglect of ſo doing: and if any woollen-draper, or perſon trading in the woollen manufacture, buying woollen cloth upon truſt, ſhould refuſe, or neglect to give ſuch note upon requeſt, at any time after eight days of the ſale and delivery, he ſhould forfeit 20 s. for every cloth ſo ſold to the owner; and every piece of cloth not returned within eight days after delivery of the ſame, ſhould be deemed to be paſſed and approved of by the buyer as a merchantable cloth; and all contracts for allowing a longer time, for the paſſing of any cloth, ſhould be void. See *Woollen Cloth*.

BLADDERS. A ſkinny ſubſtance, of a ſtrong texture, which receives and keeps the urine of all animals till nature

ture diſcharges it; bladders of cattle and ſheep being uſed by apothecaries for holding liquids.

BLADE. The cutting part of a knife, ſword, or ſaw.

BLAFFART. A ſmall coin, current in the electorate of Cologne in Germany, being worth about a farthing ſterling.

BLANC. A ſmall copper coin, formerly current in France, and worth ſomewhat leſs than a farthing; but ſince the year 1670, the blanc has not been a current coin, being now uſed only as a money of accompt.

BLANCARDS. A name given, in France, to certain linens, becauſe the thread was half bleached before ſent to the loom. Their chief manufacture is in Normandy, whence they are ſent to the Spaniſh Weſt Indies, for the uſe of the mine-ſlaves.

BLANCHING, in coinage. See *Coinage*.

BLANCO *Cape*, or *Cape Blanco*. A promontory of Peru, in South America, ſituated on the coaſt of the Pacific ocean, 120 miles S. W. of Guiaquil.

BLANCO *Cape*, is alſo a promontory of Africa, in the Atlantic ocean, ſituated 180 miles N. of Senegal river.

BLANES. A port-town of Catalonia in Spain, ſituated in 2 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 41 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. being 20 miles S. of Gironne. See *Spain*.

BLANK, is a name given by traders to ſuch ſpaces as are not written upon, which are ſometimes to be met with in their day-books; tho' they are of dangerous conſequence, upon account of the abuſes that might be committed therein; for merchants books have no credit in point of juſtice, but according as all the paragraphs are ſuppoſed to be wrote after each other in unſuſpected times; and eſpecially, if blanks appear at the bottom of the pages, no credit at all is to be given them: thus care ſhould be taken that conteſted articles are not written at the bottom of pages, which carries a great face of ſuſpicion.

With regard to bills of exchange, it is ſaid that an indorſement is blank, to ſignify, that, on the back of the letter, there is but a ſimple ſignature; over which there is a ſufficient ſpace to write an order, a receipt, or acquittance.

BLANKET. A ſtuff, commonly made of white and coarſe wool, to cover beds; being made in a loom like cloth, only they are croſſed like ſerges.

BLANQUIL. A ſmall ſilver coin ſtruck at Morocco, worth about 2 d. ſterling.

BLARE. A ſmall copper coin, alloyed with a little ſilver, ſtruck at Bern in Switzerland, and is worth about $1\frac{4}{5}$ d. ſterling.

BLATTA-*Byzantia*, in pharmacy, a teſtaceous body, being the upper part of a ſhell, whoſe fiſh yields a purple dye.

The blatta differs from the buccinum, or purpurea, in figure; the former being oblong, the latter round; but in the ſhops they are uſually confounded, and ſold for each other.

The blatta byzantia is alſo confounded, by apothecaries, with the unguis odoratus; from which it ought to be diſtinguiſhed, as belonging to another kind of ſhell-fiſh. The beſt was formerly brought from the Red ſea, being the paleſt and fatteſt; the blacker, and leſs, came from Babylon, or the Perſian gulph: but latter times took up with thoſe about Conſtantinople, whence the preſent blatta has its name, Conſtantinople being formerly called *Byzantium*.

BLAVET, or *Port-Louis*. A port of Britany in France, ſituated in 3 deg. of W. lon. and 47 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. at the mouth of the river Blavet, being one of the ſtations for the royal navy of France.

BLAYE. A fortreſs of the province of Guienne in France, ſituated on the river Garonne, 21 miles N. of Bourdeaux, to defend the paſſage of the river, that no ſhips may go to or return from that city without permiſſion. See *France*.

BLEACHING. The art of whitening linens, ſtuffs, ſilks, wax, and other matters, which ought to be greatly regarded in the linen manufacture.

BLIND. A ſort of falſe light, commonly made uſe of in the ſhops of tradeſmen, to prevent too great a light from diminiſhing the beauty and luſtre of their goods; particularly linens and ſilks.

BLOCK. A large piece of marble, rough as it comes out of the quarry.

BLOCKS, on board ſhips, are pieces of wood, in which the ſhivers of pullies are placed, and the running ropes paſs: ſome are ſingle, ſome double; and ſome have three, four, or five ſhivers in them; being named, and diſtinguiſhed, by the ropes they carry, and the uſes for which they ſerve.

BLOCK-*tin*, that which is pure and unwrought. See *Tin*.

BLOCK-*wood*, the ſame as logwood.

BLOOD-*ſtone*, or *Lapis Hæmatites*, is a mineral of a reddiſh colour, hard and ponderous, being found in iron mines: it is uſe in medicine, and among gilders.

BLOWING, the action of the wind, in a briſk gale; and the operation of making glaſs veſſels is called blowing of glaſs.

BLUBBER. The fat of whales, and other large fiſh, from whence the oil is extracted. See *Train-oil, and Whale-fiſhery*.

BLUE. One of the primitive colours of the rays of light.

Painters BLUE, is made differently, according to the different kinds of painting: in limning, freſco, and miniature, they uſe indifferently ultramarine, blue aſhes, and ſmalt; theſe being the natural blues; except the laſt, which is partly natural, partly artificial; but in oil, and miniature, they uſe indigo, verditer, lapis armenus, ſmalt, lit-mouſe, and alſo a counterfeit ultramarine.

Dyers BLUE, is one of their ſimple, or mother colours, uſed in the compoſition of others, being chiefly made with woad and indigo: though ſome dyers heighten their blue, by adding madder, braſil, and other woods.

Turnſol BLUE, uſed in painting on wood, is made of the ſeed of that plant: the preparation being by boiling four ounces of turnſol in a quart of water, wherein lime has been ſlacked.

Flanders BLUE, is ſeldom uſed but in landſcapes, being apt to turn green.

Pruſſian BLUE, is made of tartar and crude nitre, ox blood, Engliſh vitriol, crude allum, and ſpirit of ſalt; which form an excellent blue for painters, being reckoned as good as the ultramarine.

BLUEING *of metals*, is done by heating them, till they aſſume a blue colour; particularly gun-barrels and buckles; as alſo by gilders before they apply their gold or ſilver.

BLUNDERBUSS. A ſhort gun, the barrel of which is commonly braſs, with a large bore.

BOARD. A piece of timber, ſawed into thin pieces for building. Boards thicker than ordinary are called planks; thoſe formed ready for coopers are called clap-boards; and the mill-boards, and ſcale-boards, are ſhaved very thin for caſes, or band-boxes.

BOARD, is alſo a number of governors, directors of a corporation, commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or exciſe, lords of the treaſury, or of trade and plantations, who, when met together to do the buſineſs they are choſen for, or appointed to, are called a board.

BOARD, in the ſea-language, is to enter into a ſhip by force, in order to take, or make a prize of her.

BOAT. A ſmall, open, floating veſſel, commonly wrought, or moved, only by rowing; and intended chiefly for the navigation of rivers, lakes, and the like: but there are alſo boats belonging to ſhips; and even thoſe ſhips which carry the packets, or mails, to and from foreign parts, are called packet-boats.

The ſeveral boats for ſhips are, a jolly-boat, a long-boat, a ſkiffe, a pinnace, a water-boat, and a yawl: other boats, are a gondola, a Greenland-boat, a Bermudas-boat, a ballon of Siam, a horſe-boat, a periaga, a pleaſure-boat, a ponton, a canoe, a curricle, a curry-curry, a deal-hooker, a felucca, a ferry-boat, a praw, a flying praw, a punt, a tilt-boat, a tod-boat, a well-boat, and a wherry.

The boats, or wherries, allowed to ply about London, are either ſkullers wrought by a ſingle perſon, with two oars, or oars wrought by two perſons, with each an oar: but all boats rowed with more than four oars, above, or below London-bridge, are forfeited, by the ſtatute of the 8th of Geo. I. See *Watermen*.

BOATSWAIN. An officer on board of a king's ſhip, charged with her rigging, ropes, cables, anchors, ſails, flags, colours, and pendants: he is alſo to take care of the long boat, with its furniture; and to ſteer her either by himſelf, or his mate: he likewiſe calls out the ſeveral gangs aboard, to the due execution of their watches, and buſineſs: beſides, he is a kind of provoſt-marſhal, to ſee, and

and puniſh, all offenders, ſentenced by the captain, or a court-marſhal of the fleet.

BOBBIN. A ſmall, neat, turned ſtick, made either of hard wood, bone, or ivory, to weave thread-lace: alſo an inſtrument to wind wool, thread, worſted, hair, cotton, ſilk, gold, and ſilver, to render them more ſuitable for the weaver's uſe. And it is likewiſe a white round tape, uſed by women to tie their head-cloths with, and in child-bed linen.

BOCA-CHICA. The ſtraight or entrance into the harbour of Carthagena, in S. America.

BOCA DEL DRAGO. A ſtraight between the iſland of Trinidad and new Andaluſia, a province of the Terra Firma, in S. America.

BOCAL. An Italian liquid meaſure uſed at Rome, being properly what the Engliſh call bottle, and is about half a gallon wine-meaſure.

BOCCASSINE. Cotton cloths, manufactured at Tiria in Turky, ſtarched and ſtiffened with ſtationer's paſte.

BOCHARA. A city of Uſbec Tartary, ſubject to Perſia, ſituated on the river Oxus, in 65 deg. of E. lon. and 40 deg. of N. lat. See *Perſia*.

BODICE. An ordinary kind of ſtays, wore by the poorer ſort of women.

BODY, or *Body-corporate*, is a company, or corporation, of ſeveral perſons who compoſe a juriſdiction, by charter or act of parliament.

Body of a ſhip, is the whole veſſel, except the ſails, ropes, and rigging.

Body, is likewiſe ſaid of the materials which compoſe any kind of manufactures; in which ſenſe tradeſmen ſay, the body of cloth or ſerge is good; the body of velvet is too looſe, or too thin; or the body of paper is too weak.

Body of a tree, is the large timber.

BOG. A river of Poland, which runs S. E. through the province of Podolia and Budziac Tartary, falling into the Euxine ſea, between Oczakow, and the mouth of the river Boriſthenes.

BOHEA. One of the beſt kinds of tea, which comes from China. See *Tea*.

BOHEMIA. A kingdom ſubject to the queen of Hungary. See *Germany*.

BOHOL. One of the Phillippine iſlands, in Aſia, ſituated in 122 deg. of E. lon. and 10 deg. of N. lat. See *Philippine Iſlands*.

BOIS. A term for the madder of Georgia and Armenia, where it grows in great plenty, particularly about Teflis.

BOKAS. A cotton cloth, brought from Surat, of which ſome are white, and others blue.

BOLE, is applied to ſeveral kinds of earths which enter galenical preparations; and ſuch as are uſed by painters, potters, and other artiſts. Boles may be ranked under the general names of loam and clay, being native foſſile earths, commonly ſomewhat unctuous: ſo that when mixed up with water, they may be wrought into a paſte; as white clay, fullers earth, and ruddle: but there are others of a drier nature, as marle, and chalk.

Bole *Armoniac*, or the *Armenian bole*, is a ſoft, friable, fatty earth, brought from Armenia and Perſia, of a pale red colour; eaſily pulveriſed, adhering to the tongue, eſteemed a good drier, ſtyptic, and vulnerary: but it is eaſily falſified; and druggiſts frequently ſell Lemnian, or other earth, for it. See *Lemnian Earth*.

Bole *of the Levant*, is a medicinal earth, much of the ſame nature and uſe with the bole armoniac: but there is ſcarce any ſuch thing in England, as either true bole armoniac, or bole of the Levant; all the boles now in uſe being brought from France, or the neighbouring countries.

BOLLARDS, are large poſts ſet in the ground, on each ſide of a dock, to which are laſhed large blocks, for docking, or undocking of ſhips.

BOLLOS. A term given by the Spaniards of Peru, to the ingots, or bars of ſilver.

BOLOGNE, or *Boulogne*, a port-town on the Engliſh channel, ſituated at the mouth of the river Lenart, in 1 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 50 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. being the capital of the Bolognois, a territory of Picardy, in France. See *France*.

BOLONIAN *ſtone*. See *Bononian Stone*.

BOLT, in trade, is 28 ells of canvas.

Bolts, or iron pins, in a ſhip, are of ſeveral ſorts, frequently diſtinguiſhed according to the places where they are uſed; as chain-bolts; bolts for carriages; ring-bolts, ſerving for the bringing to of the planks; drive bolts, uſed to drive out others; ſet bolts, employed for forcing the planks and other works, and bringing them cloſe to one another; rag-bolts, on each ſide full of jags, or barbs, to keep them from flying out of their holes; clench-bolts, faſtened at the ends where they come through; fore-lock-bolts, made like locks, with an eye at each end, wherein a fore-lock of iron is driven to prevent ſtarting out; fend, or fender-bolts, made with long and thick heads, ſtruck into the uttermoſt bends or wales of a ſhip, to ſave her ſides from bruiſes and hurts.

BOLT-SPRIT, or *Bow-ſprit*, the name of a uſeful part of the rigging of a ſhip. See *Bowſprit*.

BOLZAS. A kind of cotton ticking, either intirely white, or ſtriped with yellow, brought from the Eaſt Indies.

BOMB. A large, hollow, iron ball, or ſhell, filled with gun-powder, and ſome combuſtible matters, to be fired, or thrown from a mortar.

BOMBASINE, or *Bombycine*, a ſort of ſtuff made of worſted and hair, commonly worn as mourning; for which the duty on importation into England is 6 d. for the narrow ſingle piece, not above 15 yards, and 7 d. for the broad: but the greateſt part of what is now uſed in England is made in Spittal-fields.

BOMBAY. An iſland, and fort, near the W. coaſt of the hither peninſula of India, ſituated in 72 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 18 deg. 13 min. of N. lat. being 130 m. S. W. of Surat; 200 m. N. of Goa, and 40 m. N. W. of Dunde Rajopere.

The iſland is 7 m. long, and about 20 in circumference; having a town upon it a mile in length, with ſome other ſmall towns; but the houſes are low and mean, except ſome few belonging to the Engliſh and Portugueſe.

The fort is ſtrong, and regularly fortified; having 120 pieces of cannon mounted, and ſtands at ſome diſtance from the town.

There is no good water, but what they preſerve in ciſterns, in the time of the rains; that which they have from their wells having a brackiſh taſte: but thoſe who can afford it, ſend a mile farther up the bay for what they drink, where there is a good ſpring.

The Portugueſe, who poſſeſſed themſelves of this iſland ſoon after their coming to India, gave it the name of Boonbay, from the goodneſs of the harbour, which is capable of containing near 1000 veſſels: but the king of Portugal, in the year 1663, transferred the property of it to K. Charles II. of England, on his marriage with the princeſs Katherine, the infanta of Portugal, as part of her fortune; and K. Charles II. made a preſent of it ſometime after to the Engliſh Eaſt India company. See *Engliſh Eaſt India Company*.

The iſland is but barren, and does not produce grain ſufficient to ſubſiſt half the inhabitants; though they are ſupplied very reaſonably from the neighbouring countries: but what they abound in moſt, and what the eſtates of the iſland conſiſt in, are their groves of cocoa-nut trees. Their gardens all produce mangoes, jacks, and other Indian fruits; and they make pretty large quantities of ſalt, with very little trouble, from the ſea-water, which being let into little pits, the ſun extracts the moiſture, and the ſalt, is left behind.

The inhabitants are a mixture of ſeveral nations; as Engliſh, Portugueſe, and Indians; amounting in all to 50 or 60,000: but the preſident of Surat is uſually governor of the place; who has a deputy here, and courts of juſtice after the model of England; and the governor, when he is upon the iſland, appears in greater ſtate than the governor of Fort St. George; being attended, when he goes abroad, by two troops of Moors and Banderins, with their ſtandards.

The iſland is not a very healthy place, becauſe ſevere fluxes, the ſcurvy, and a diſtemper called the barbiers, which affects the whole body, ſo that a man can hardly ſtir hand or foot, are frequent among the inhabitants; though the natives, and thoſe who are ſeaſoned to the country, enjoy

enjoy a tolerable ſtate of health, frequently living to a good old age; and thoſe who go over young find no great inclemency from the climate.

Both the Dutch and the Mogul, in their turns, have endeavoured to make themſelves maſters of Bombay, but have been hitherto diſappointed. So lately as 1688, the Mogul general landed 25,000 men upon the iſland, and attacked the fort; but not being able to carry it, came to a treaty with the governor, and retired; though the villages, and plantations, in the iſland, ſuffered very much by the enterpriſe; for which the governor, Sir John Child, was deſervedly blamed, having made no preparations to prevent a deſcent.

This place is exceedingly well ſituated for trade on the continent of India, being, indeed, the principal ſettlement the Engliſh have in this part of the world; and, ſince governor Bohun drained the bogs and ſwamps, it has been as healthful as any of the Engliſh ſettlements on this coaſt; being the ſtation for ſome of the company's ſhips ſent there every year for the trade of Mocha and Decan: it is alſo frequented by the country ſhips belonging to Fort St. George, and Fort William.

BOMB-KETCH. A ſmall veſſel ſtrengthened with large beams, for the uſe of mortars at ſea.

BOMENE. A port-town of the United Provinces, in the province of Zealand, ſituated in 40 deg. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. on the N. ſhore of the iſland of Schouen, oppoſite to the iſland of Gorce. See *United Provinces*.

BONA. A port-town of the province of Conſtantina in Algiers, in Africa, ſituated in 8 deg. of E. lon. and 36 deg. of N. lat. on the coaſt of the Mediterranean. See *Barbary*.

BONAIRE. An iſland near the coaſt of Terra Firma, in America, ſituated in 67 deg. of W. lon. and 12 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. ſubject to the Dutch, who traffic from hence with the coaſt of Caraccao. See *Dutch America*, under *United Provinces*.

BONAVISTA, one of the Cape Verd iſlands, ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, in 23 deg. of W. lon. and 16 deg. of N. lat See *Cape Verd Iſlands*.

BOND, in law, an inſtrument between two or more parties, containing certain conditions to be done and performed upon the forfeiture, or penalty, of double the debt or obligation. Bonds for apprenticeſhips, are called indentures: but bonds not to uſe trades, till or ſow the ground, or of the like nature, are unlawful, becauſe they are againſt the public good, and therefore void.

BONDED *goods*, are ſuch as have an allowance of time for payment of their duties: thus the additional duty on linen and ſilk, may be bonded for 12 months; the additional duty for tobacco, and wine, 9 months; the new ſubſidy on tobacco for three months; the one 3d ſubſidy on tobacco for 9 months; impoſt on ditto for 18 months; impoſt on wine at 3 equal payments, one 3d at 3 months, one 3d at 6 months, and one 3d at 9 months; impoſt of 1690, impoſition of 1692, and new duty on whale fins, at 4 equal payments, one 4th at 3 months, one 4th at 6 months, one 4th at 9 months, and one 4th at 12 months: new duty on raiſins, nutmegs, cinnamon, cloves, mace, and ſnuff, for 12 months; and the duties on coals coaſtwiſe for 3 months.

BONDS, for paying cuſtom-houſe duties, are to be ſtamped, in the ſame nature as other bonds, with an eighteen penny ſtamp; otherwiſe, the bond to be void not only till ſtamped, but till payment of the duties, and 15 l. beſides, and the officer to forfeit his employment.

This bonding of duties is greatly injurious to trade, and inconvenient to the merchant, or trader; becauſe it ariſes from high and numerous impoſts on the commodities, and obliges the dealer to find ſecurities for his obſervance of the laws belonging to thoſe impoſts.

BONE-LACE. See *Lace*.

BON ESPERANCE CAPE, or *Cape of Good Hope*, the moſt ſouthern promontory of Africa, ſituated in 16 deg. of E. lon. and 34 deg. 15 min. of S. lat. where the Dutch have built a good town and fort; the capital of their ſettlements in the country of the Hottentots.

BONETA. A fiſh, found in great plenty, about the Madeira iſlands; being about 3 feet long, and 2 about; its fleſh being white, tender, and of a good taſte, affording good proviſion to ſeamen while in thoſe parts. The bonetas go in ſhoals, are eaſily taken, and are fit for ſalting or pickling.

BONGO. A capital, and port-town, of one of the Japaneſe iſlands, ſituated in 132 deg. of E. lon. and 82 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

BONIFACIO. A port-town at the S. end of the iſland of Corſica, ſituated in 9 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 41 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. which gives name to the ſtreight between Corſica and Sardinia, and is one of the beſt towns in the iſland. See *Italian Iſlands*.

BONNETS, in the ſea-language, are ſmall ſails ſet upon the courſes, on the mizzen, main ſail, and fore-ſail, of a ſhip, when theſe are too narrow, or ſhallow, to clothe the maſt; or in order to make more way in calm weather.

BONONIAN *ſtone*, a ſmall, grey, ſoft, gloſſy, fibrous, ponderous, ſulphurous ſtone, about the bigneſs of a large walnut; but when broken, having a kind of cryſtal, or ſparry talc, within; found in the neighbourhood of Bologna, or Bononia, in Italy; and, when duly prepared, making a kind of phoſphorus. See *Phoſphorus*.

BONTANS. A kind of ſtuff, or covering of cotton, ſtriped with red, and manufactured at Cantor, a kingdom ſituated on the upper part of the river of Gambia, in Africa; great quantities of which are bought up by the Engliſh, French, and Dutch, ſerving them in their trade with the inhabitants of the other coaſts of Africa.

BOOK, is a work of wit, or genius, compoſed and printed, for the public utility, or ſometimes only for curioſity, and pleaſure: of which printers make the impreſſion, bookbinders bind, and gild them; and bookſellers ſell them, by wholeſale and retale.

Printed books are diſtinguiſhed according to their different forms, which are of ſeveral ſorts; as folios, quartos, octavos, duodecimos, and ſo on; which is to be underſtood of the folding of the ſheets, with the quantity of leaves and pages each ſheet contains.

BOOKS, *Bookſellers*, and *Bookbinders*, were formerly no ways material to the commercial world; though, ſince the invention of printing, they have been thought conſiderable enough to attract the obſervation of their reſpective legiſlatures; but more particularly in France and England: for, in the former kingdom, the ſovereign has taken the direction of them into his own hands, giving them new ſtatutes; appointing officers to fix prices, granting licences, and privileges, without the ſanction of which no book can be publiſhed: however, in the latter country, the caſe is very different; for the Engliſh look upon the toleration of the preſs as one of the moſt eſſential denotations of Britiſh liberty.

The ſtatute of the 8th of Q. Anne regulates the property of authors: and thoſe of the 9th of George I. and the 11th of George II. aſcertain the manner of importing books printed abroad. See *Stationers Company*.

But, to prevent the importation of ſuch as are popiſh, and ſuperſtitious, there is, in the port of London, a particular officer appointed to examine all books imported, printed, or written, in any language whatſoever.

A baſket of books is 8 bales.

BOOK-*binding*, the art of ſewing together the ſheets of a book, and covering them with a back: binding being diſtinguiſhed from ſtitching; as in the latter the leaves are only ſewed, without bands or backs. See *Binding*.

BOOK-*keeper*. A perſon who keeps the accompts of a merchant, or trader, in a correct and methodical manner, being generally the principal clerk in the compting-houſe.

BOOK-*keeping*, the art of keeping accompts; that is, of recording the tranſactions of a perſon's affairs in ſuch a manner, that the true ſtate of any part, or of the whole, may be thereby known with the greateſt perſpicuity, exactneſs, and facility.

By the tranſactions of a perſon's affairs are meant either ſuch as relate to the perſons dealt with, or the things dealt in; which laſt are either money, the principal means of commerce; or goods, comprehending all other effects.

And by knowing the true ſtate of a perſon's affairs, is meant to know what relates to every perſon dealt with, and every thing dealt in; that is, what every perſon owes

a merchant, or the merchant owes him; as alſo what quantity and value of every kind of effects are in the hand of the merchant, with the gain and loſs on that ſubject within the time of the account.

The art of book-keeping is compriſed in the uſe of ſeveral books of accompts, partly eſſential, and partly ſubſidiary: theſe books are either kept ſingle, as among retail dealers; or double, as among eminent merchants: for the firſt, a journal, or a day-book, and a ledger, or poſt-book, are ſufficient; for the ſecond, there are ſeveral others required, as mentioned in the article of *Books of accompt*.

It is univerſally acknowledged, that the Italians, particularly thoſe of Venice, Genoa, and Florence, firſt introduced the method of keeping books double, or in two parts; from whence it is called the Italian method, which is followed by moſt European merchants: but for the different monies in which the ſeveral nations of Europe keep their reſpective accompts, and the value of the ſame according to ſterling money, ſee *Money of Accompt*.

In book-keeping, merchants have books of various kinds, as the waſte-book, which is the firſt, and moſt eſſential; in this all kinds of matters are, as it were, mixed promiſcuouſly together, to be afterwards ſeparated and transferred into others; ſo that this may be called the elements of all the reſt. It may be kept two ways; the firſt by entering things down ſimply as they happen, as, *Bought of ſuch a perſon*; *ſold to ſuch a perſon*; *paid to ſuch a perſon*; *lent ſo much*, and the like: the ſecond by entering at once, each article, debtor and creditor; which laſt is eſteemed the beſt, in regard, as forming a kind of little journal, it ſaves the keeping any other. This waſte book, Mr. Malcolm obſerves, is an univerſal and compleat memorial of all the tranſactions and events of buſineſs, taken in the natural order of time, whereby all things of one date are placed together; ſerving as a preparation for the ledger book, into which they are to be all transferred, upon diſtinct accompts, according to the order of ſubjects.

The waſte-book begins with the inventory of a merchant's effects, and debts; and contains a compleat record of every tranſaction of his affairs, with all the circumſtances, in a plain narration of matters of fact; every tranſaction following another in the order of dates. This book is, in reality, a journal, or day-book; but that name being applied to another, the name waſte-book is given to this by way of diſtinction; though what relation the word waſte bears to the nature of this book, is not very obvious. Some authors better call it the memorial-book, or memorandum-book, in regard, its principal uſe is for taking memorandums.

Journal-Book, or *Day-book*, is that wherein the affairs of each day are entered orderly down, as they happen, from the waſte-book. Each article in this book conſiſts of ſeven parts; as the date, debtor, creditor, ſum, quantity, and quality, how payable, and the price.

The journal, ſo far as it differs from the waſte-book, is only a book of aid to the ledger: but there are two different methods of keeping it; in the firſt, which is that hitherto chiefly in uſe, the journal is a compleat tranſcript of the waſte-book, in the ſame order of time, but in a different ſtile: for the waſte-book expreſſes every tranſaction in a ſimple narration of what is done; whereas the journal diſtinguiſhes the debtors and creditors, as a preparation for the ledger: thus, when any tranſaction is to be transferred from the waſte-book into the journal, it is examined by the rules of the ledger, as if it was to be entered immediately there; and finding the debtors and creditors to which it belongs, theſe are diſtinctly marked by their denominations of debtor and creditor, in the ſtile of the journal; at leaſt, the accounts that are debtors, are expreſly ſo named; and by their being directly connected debtor to ſome other accounts, theſe are ſufficiently determined to be the creditors, though the word creditor be not written.

The form of the journal, which Mr. Malcolm judges moſt preferable, is a compleat tranſcript of the waſte-book, without any alteration; leaving, on the left ſide of every page, a large margin, about a third part of the page, on which, againſt every tranſaction, are to be written the names of the debtors and creditors of that tranſaction, with their titles of debtor and creditor, and ſums of money; obſerving, that where there are ſundry debtors or creditors to one creditor or debtor, they write their names next each other, and the name of the one correſponding debtor or creditor againſt the total of the other ſums; by which means the balance and connection appears at firſt ſight: then when the tranſaction is transferred to the ledger, they write on this margin the number of the folios, where the accounts ſtand in the ledger.

This book may be called either the waſte-book or journal, being, in reality, both; not only as every waſte-book is a journal, but as there is here alſo that which diſtinguiſhes both a waſte-book and a journal.

Ledger Book, or *Ledger*, ſometimes alſo called the great-book, and the poſt-book, is a large volume, containing all the tranſactions of a man's affairs, in ſuch order, as that thoſe belonging to every different ſubject lie together in one place; making ſo many diſtinct or ſeveral accounts. The ledger is only the waſte-book ſtill further digeſted; being extracted either immediately from it, or from the journal. It is uſually ruled in ſix columns, in which all the accompts diſperſed in the journal, are drawn out, and ſtated in debtor and creditor. To form each accompt two pages are required, oppoſite to each other; that on the left ſerving for debtor, the other for creditor; each article to conſiſt of five parts, or members; the date, the perſon whom another credits, or is credited by; the ſubject, that is, the thing credited, or indebted for; the page where it is found, and the ſum or amount of the article.

The management of the ledger being of great importance in accompts, it may be neceſſary to ſubjoin, from Mr. Malcolm, the following rules relating thereto. 1. That, for every diſtinct ſubject, with which a merchant has an accompt; that is for every perſon with whom he deals on mutual truſt and credit, or who, by any means becomes indebted to the merchant, or the merchant to him, as well as for every thing the merchant deals in, there muſt be a certain ſeparate ſpace, or portion allowed, wherein are to be written all and only the tranſactions relating to that ſubject; whoſe name is to be inſcribed or written at the head thereof, making hereby diſtinct and particular accompts.

2. Every accompt is to be diſtinguiſhed into two parts, taking for each an equal portion, leſs or more, as is thought proper, of right and left pages, of one folio or opening; the name of the ſubject being written on the head of the accompt, on both ſides, which are diſtinguiſhed by the words debtor on the left ſide, and creditor on the right, for the uſes following: to which the columns explained below are ſubſervient.

3. Every perſonal accompt to contain, on the debtor's ſide, all the articles which that perſon owes the merchant, and the payments made by the merchant of his debts to that perſon: and on the creditor ſide all that the merchant owes to him, and the payments he makes of his debts to that perſon; or, becauſe this rule conſiders payments under the notion of mutual oppoſite debts upon the receiver, if this be once ſuppoſed, the rule may be briefly expreſſed thus: every perſon is debtor for what he owes the merchant, and creditor for what the merchant owes him.

4. Every real accompt to contain on the debtor's ſide, the quantity and value of what was upon hand at the beginning of the accompt, and what was afterwards received, with all coſt and charges: and on the creditor ſide, the quantity and value of what is diſpoſed of, or any way taken away, or gone out of it; with all the returns that ſubject makes. Or, more briefly thus: it is debtor for all received, firſt coſt and charges; and creditor for all gone out of it, with the returns.

5. Every tranſaction muſt be entered in the ledger-book, with a balance of debt and credit; that is, ſo as every article be placed on the debtor ſide of ſome other, making thereby equal debt and credit in the ledger; and where the perſonal and real accompts, concerned in the tranſaction, do not, in the articles belonging to them, make this balance, as they will in moſt caſes, then ſome imaginary accompt muſt be uſed to ſupply the defect.

6. Thoſe accompts, whoſe articles of debt and credit, in any tranſaction, balance one another, are, in the ledger, to be connected together in the ſtile of every article, as mutual and correſpondent debtors and creditors; by writing in each of the correſponding accompts the name of the other, after the article *to* in the debtor's accompt, and *by* in the creditor's, which connects the two; the name of the accompt, in which articles are written, with its quality of debtor and creditor, being underſtood as joined to, and ſo is read before the word *to* or *by* in every article, tho' it be written only once for all on the head of the accompt: then, after the name of the correſponding creditor or debtor, follows a brief narration of the fact; the date, and other numbers, being placed in their proper columns: hence is found the uſe of the column that ſtands before, and next to the money-column; which is this, to write in it the number of the folio where ſtands the correſponding accompt, with which the accompt, wherein you write, is connected in every article.

To facilitate the uſe of the ledger, there is an alphabet, to ſerve as an index or repertory, conſiſting of 24 leaves, each cut on the edge, and marked with one of the 24 letters; wherein the initial letters of the perſons names, with whom a merchant has accompts, are inſerted with the folio of the ledger, where the accompt is ſtated.

The more exact book-keepers, extend the index to the things or commodities a man has dealings in, as well as the perſons he deals with: generally it is the firſt letter of a man's ſirname, and the proper name of the thing that directs its place in the index: thus, John Gordon is put under G, and claret wine under C, unleſs all ſorts of wine be comprehended in one accompt; in which caſe it is put under W.

Debt-Book, or *Book of Payments*, is a book wherein is entered the day whereon all ſums fall due, whether to be paid, or received by bills of exchange, merchandiſes, or otherwiſe; to the end, that, by comparing receipts and payments, proviſion may be made, in time, for a fund for payment, by receiving bills due, or taking other precautions. It is only to be obſerved, that, like the ledger, it muſt be on two oppoſite pages; monies to be received on the left hand, thoſe to be paid on the right.

Caſh-Book, is the moſt important of all the auxiliary ones; being ſo called becauſe it contains, in debtor and creditor, all the caſh that comes in, or goes out of the merchant's ſtock. In this are entered all the ſums received and paid daily; thoſe received on the left hand, with the perſon's name, of whom received, for what, for whom, and in what ſpecies: thoſe paid on the ſide of the creditor, mentioning likewiſe the ſpecies, the reaſon why, the perſon to whom, and for whom the payment is made.

The better to conceive the nature of this book, it is to be obſerved, that in buſineſs where caſh happens to be an accompt, which has numerous articles, it is convenient to keep a particular accompt thereof, in a book diſtinct from the ledger; and for this reaſon called the caſh-book. This is formed, in all reſpects, like the caſh accompt in the ledger, with a debtor and creditor ſide, in which all the caſh received, and given out, is entered, either in a ſimple ſtile, or in that of the ledger: but which way ſoever the narration is made, every article muſt be duly entered on the oppoſite ſide of the correſponding accompt in the ledger, with a reference to the ledger accompt of caſh: for ſuch an accompt there muſt alſo be, into which the ſums of the debtor and creditor ſides of the particular accompt muſt be transferred once a week or month, as is found convenient: thus, in the caſh-book, the ſums being written down againſt them, write transferred to the ledger, and mark the folio; and in the ledger accompt, enter the ſum with the date of the transfer, debtor to, and creditor by ſundry accompts, as *per* the caſh-book. The caſh accompt in the ledger, is neceſſary for the balance of the whole; and the convenience of the ſeparate accompt of all the particulars is, that they are had all together, in one continued accompt; whereas the rule of the ledger being not to allow more than one folio for one accompt, till that be filled up, the accompt might hereby lie in ſeveral different folios.

Book *of Invoyces*, a book to ſave the journal from the eraſures inevitable in taking accompts or invoyces, of the ſeveral goods received, ſent, or ſold, where it is neceſſary to be very particular, and to render thoſe invoyces eaſier to find than they can be in the waſte-book. The invoyces here entered, are to be thoſe of goods bought, and ſet to accompt of ſome other; thoſe of goods ſold by commiſſion; of goods ſent away to be ſold on proper accompt; and thoſe of goods ſold in partnerſhip, whereof a merchant has the direction, or whereof others have the direction.

This book contains an accompt, or invoyce, of all the goods which a perſon ſhips off, either for his own accompt, or for others in commiſſion, according to the bills of lading; with the whole charges till on board, every invoyce following after another, in order as they happen. But the invoyce book is only a copy of what is written in the waſte-book, in thoſe caſes, and deſigned for the more ready finding out theſe invoyces, than can be done in the waſte-book.

Factor-Book, is an accompt of what a perſon receives to ſell in commiſſion for others, and of the diſpoſal thereof; which is numbered and diſtinguiſhed into folios, like the ledger; on the left-hand is written, in a plain narrative ſtile, an account of the goods received, with all charges: and on the oppoſite ſide, an account of the ſales, and diſpoſals of the goods; ſo that this is only a copy of the employer's accompt of goods in the ledger in the ſtile of the waſte-book: though where a perſon does little in commiſſion, a ſeparate book for this purpoſe is needleſs.

Book *of Accompts current*, is kept in debtor and creditor, like the ledger, and ſerves for accompts ſent to correſpondents, to be regulated in concert with them, before they are entered in the ledger: this being properly a duplicate of the accompts current, kept to have recourſe to on occaſion.

Book *of Acceptances*, or of *Draughts*, is deſtined for the regiſtring all bills of exchange, notified by letters of advice from correſpondents, to be able to know, on the bills being preſented, whether they have orders to accept them or not. When merchants chuſe to decline accepting a bill, againſt the article thereof, in the book they put P.; that is, proteſt; that on offering the bill the bearer may be told he may proteſt it: on the contrary, if they accept it, they write againſt it an A, adding the date, or day of acceptance: and this, upon being transferred to the debt-book, is cancelled.

Book *of Remittances*, ſerves to regiſter bills of exchange, as they are remitted by correſpondents, to require the payment thereof; but if they are proteſted for want of acceptance, and returned to thoſe who remitted them, mention is made thereof againſt each article, by adding a P. in the margin, and the date of the day when they were returned, or cancelled. The books of acceptances and remittances have ſo near a relation to each other, that many merchants and tradeſmen make only one of the two, which they keep in debtor and creditor; putting acceptances on the ſide of debt, and remittances to that of credit.

Book *of Expences*, a detail of the petty expences, both domeſtic and mercantile; which, at the end of each month, are ſummed up, and made an article for the caſh-book. This book being a ſeparate accompt of all the expences of living, ſerves to keep both the profit and loſs accompt, and alſo the caſh book, more diſtinct: the greater and more conſiderable articles are to be placed here particularly; but the ſeveral ſmall articles of daily diſburſements only in totals; though under what denominations, and how general or particular the articles of this book are to be made, muſt be left to the choice of every perſon: all that is neceſſary to obſerve here being, that the caſh paid out on ſuch accompts muſt be carefully entered here, and thence, once a week, or month, be transferred to the caſh-book, and to the profit and loſs accompt in the ledger, which is debtor to caſh for it.

Book *of Numeros*, or *Wares*, is kept for the eaſy knowledge of all the goods brought in, ſent out, or remaining in a ware-houſe. On the left-hand page are entered the quantity, and number, or mark of the goods brought in: on the right, the diſcharge of the goods out of the ware-houſe, againſt the reſpective articles of the firſt.

Month-Book, is numbered in folios, like the ledger, and divided into ſpaces; on the top of each of which are the names of the 12 months of the year, allowing a whole folio, more or leſs, to each month, and a different ſet of 12 ſpaces for every different year. On the left-hand page the merchant ſhould enter the payments to be made to him, in that month, and on the right-hand page the payments he is to make; a column is likewiſe to be made on the left-hand of every page, in which the day of payment is to be wrote, after this the name of the debtor or creditor, and then the ſum is to be drawn into the money-columns.

Book *of veſſels*, is kept in debtor and creditor, a particular accompt being kept for each veſſel. To the ſide of debtor are put victualling, fitting out, wages, and other expences; to the ſide of creditor are put every thing the veſſel has produced, whether by way of freight or otherwiſe: laſtly, the total of each is entered in the journal, upon ballancing the accompt of each veſſel.

Book *of workmen*, is particularly in uſe among manufacturers who have conſiderable works in their hands, being kept debtor and creditor for each workman employed; on the ſide of debt is put the matters given them to work, and on that of credit the work they return.

Book *of cargo*, or *loading*, is kept by a clerk of a ſhip; wherein are entered all the goods aboard the veſſel, whether thoſe only for freight, or for ſale or exchange, the whole according to the ſpecification in the maſter's bill of loading.

Bank-Book, in cities where there are public banks, as at Venice, Amſterdam, Hamburgh, and London, is neceſſary, wherein to keep an accompt of the ſums paid to or received from the bank.

Book, abſolutely uſed, denotes the waſte-book, ſometimes the journal, or day-book; in which ſenſe it is, they ſay, I have put down ſuch a ſum in my book, You ſhall have an extract of my book, and the like.

Book-*keeping*, tho' principally in uſe among merchants and eminent dealers, is yet applicable, with advantage, to perſons of all other conditions; with this only difference, that the narrower their affairs and tranſactions are, the fewer books they need to keep, and ſo on the contrary. The ſame ways of accompting, which in great and diffuſed trade prevent confuſion, by an artful and regular diſpoſition of things, if applied to mean and narrow dealings, will create confuſion, at leaſt give unneceſſary trouble; ſince a few things ſhew themſelves readily, and are examined by mere inſpection; ſuppoſing no other book but a waſte-book record, every corner whereof, in very ſmall dealings, is familiar to the eye of the owner, ſo that he can readily turn to what he wants; but this, in larger accompts, is impoſſible, which makes order, the ſtricteſt form, and much writing, abſolutely neceſſary: yet one rule muſt be indiſpenſibly obſerved in all caſes; that is, to make a true and exact memorial of every thing belonging to the accompt, juſt as things occur; and if buſineſs increaſe, ſo that a nearer approach to the perfection of accompting be neceſſary, this will ſerve as a foundation, on which the accompt may be raiſed to any requiſite form.

Artificers, handicraftſmen, and the like, ought to keep an account of the charges and profit of their buſineſs, which may be eaſily done, by an exact accompt of all they pay or owe for the materials and inſtruments of their work, with ſervants wages, and taxes upon their trade; and of all they receive, or is remaining due, for their work. They may conveniently keep accompts for the materials of their work, to ſatisfy them of the diſpoſal thereof, and ſerve as a check on ſervants, who have acceſs to thoſe things; and they ſhould keep accompts for the perſons they deal with, both in buying and ſelling.

For petty traders, who deal in ſome hundreds of trifling wares, and make ſales to the value of a farthing or halfpenny, theſe cannot pretend to keep orderly accompts; the beſt they can do is to be careful that ſervants commit no wrong, for they have no accompt of goods; and if it is aſked what of any kind remains with them, they muſt make an inſpection of their ſtock, if their memory fail. Theſe can only have a caſh-accompt, which they ſhould charge once a week with the money received, and diſcharge for what they give out: it is not convenient they ſhould touch the caſh-box, or till, oftener than once a week, when it is completed; but if they do, they muſt keep a ſeparate accompt of what they take out, to know what was received; beſides, they ſhould have a kind of ledger for the perſons with whom they deal upon credit, in which they ſhould give every debtor or creditor an accompt, with a debt and credit both on one ſide, either with a double money column, or conſtant deductions, as the debts and credits ſucceed one another; they may alſo, for the ſake of thoſe, have a memorandum, or day-book, wherein all things of this nature ſhould be writ down, and then carried into the other.

For more conſiderable ſhop-keepers, who commonly deal in a few different ſpecies of goods, as drapers and mercers, they uſually keep a ledger for perſons and wares diſtinct, without any formal connection or reference of the accompts in their ſeveral articles; whereby there can no regular ballance be made. In the accompts of perſons, they uſe the formality of a debtor and creditor ſtyle, which is mere ſhew, without the real value of a regular accompt, there being no oppoſite correſponding debtors and creditors to be found; for their ledger of wares, as they call it, contains nothing of this, and is but an imperfect contrivance, which they ſatisfy themſelves with, to know how much remains. But the worſt is, that in allotting ſpaces for the accompts of wares, they frequently allow no more than they ſuppoſe may ſerve for the retail of the quantity firſt entered on that ſpace, and, when this is diſpoſed of, take a new ſpace for a new parcel; which, in a quick trade, is not only troubleſome, but confuſed, if there be any of the old parcels remaining, unleſs they carry it to the new accompt. In reality, dealers in retail, if conſiderable in their way, ought not to come ſhort of the utmoſt pitch of art; at leaſt, they ſhould keep three grand books, a waſte, journal, and ledger, unleſs they join the firſt two into one; the waſte-book to contain every thing done in the ſhop, both what is ſold on truſt, and for caſh; this and the journal may be made into one, by marking the debtors and creditors on the margin, againſt every tranſaction of value; and for the ledger, becauſe there are commonly many articles of debt to one of credit, on the accompts of perſons with whom they deal, and many articles of credit for one of debt, upon accompt of wares, they may keep the debt and credit both on one ſide, by double money-columns; in the one of which the debt, and in the other the credit, ſhould be ſet.

BOOK *of Rates*. See Book of *Rates*.

Book *of the Ship*, is an officer in the port of London, appointed by, and out of, the tackle porters, to accompt for the freighters, which is more fully explained at the end of the article *Cuſtoms*.

BOOM. A long pole, wherewith ſeamen ſpread out the clue of the ſtudding ſail; as alſo ſometimes that of the main-ſail, and fore-ſail, to make them broader, and receive more wind.

A ſhip is ſaid to come *booming*, when ſhe makes all the ſail ſhe can. But boom likewiſe denotes a pole, with a buſh or baſket on the top, placed to direct ſhips how to ſteer into a channel, otherwiſe called a *beacon*.

BOOT. A covering for the leg, commonly made of leather, for riding.

Boot, in bargaining, is when ſomething is given freely, or more than the commodity, which is ſaid to be given to *boot*.

BORAX. A mineral, urinous ſalt, of the nitrous kind; chiefly uſed in ſoldering and fuſing of metals; ſometimes alſo in medicine, as an emetic, and promoter of delivery. Borax is uſually ſuppoſed to be known to the antients under the denomination *chryſocolla*. See *Chryſocolla*.

Pliny divides the antient borax or chryſocolla into natural and artificial; the natural a ſlimy humour in mines of gold, ſilver, copper, and lead, by the winter's cold becoming of the conſiſtence of pumice-ſtone; the artificial, a mineral putrified by water running in the veins of the mine all winter long till June, and letting the mine dry the reſt of the year. The moderns alſo diſtinguiſh two kinds of borax; the natural, which is crude; and the artificial, which is purified and refined.

The

The former is a mineral ſalt, of the common form, dug out of the earth, in ſeveral parts of Perſia; and found alſo at the bottom of a torrent, running in the mountains of Purbeth, near the frontiers of White Tartary; when taken up, it is expoſed to the air, where it acquires a reddiſh fatneſs, that ſerves to feed, and prevent its calcining; but when in perfection, it is ſent to Amadabat, in the territories of the Great Mogul, where it is purchaſed by the European merchants. However, there is another kind of natural borax, drier, and of a greyiſh colour, like Engliſh copperas, only differing from the former by being longer expoſed to the air.

The Venetians were the firſt inventors of artificial borax, or they rather diſcovered the art of purifying the natural; but the Dutch, after refining it, reduce it into little pieces, like tagged points, in which form it is commonly uſed.

Borax, either in the Dutch or Venetian manner, ſhould be tranſparent, almoſt inſipid to the taſte, and without any mixture of Engliſh allom.

By an act of parliament, paſſed in the 17th year of King George II. it was enacted, That all borax refined in Great Britain ſhould have the ſame draw-back, and all the ſeveral duties on exportation, as a like quantity of unrefined borax.

BORAX, is likewiſe a kind of bezoar, found in the head of a toad; to which ſeveral extraordinary virtues are attributed; ſome naturaliſts affirming it to be a petrifaction of one of the head-bones; but others ſay it is found in the head of the ſea-toad only, and give it a place among precious ſtones. See *Bezoar*.

BORDAT. A ſtuff manufactured in ſome places of Egypt, particularly at Cairo, Alexandria, and Damietta.

The bordats of Cairo are worth about 2 s. 3 d. ſterling the piece, thoſe of Alexandria 3 s. and thoſe of Damietta 3 s. 3 d. ſterling.

BORD-*Halfpenny*, or *Brod-halfpenny*, is money paid in markets and fairs, for ſetting up boards, tables, and ſhells, for the ſale of wares.

BORIQUE, or *Crab-iſland*. One of the Caribbee iſlands, ſubject to Spain, ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, in 64 deg. 30 min. of W. long. and 18 deg. of N. lat.

BORISTHENES, or *Nieper*. One of the largeſt rivers in Europe, riſing in the province of Moſcow in Ruſſia; and running W. by Smolenſko, afterwards bends its courſe to the S. till it paſſes by the city of Kiow; and then running S. W. through the country of the Coſſacks, falls into the Black ſea between Oczakow and Little Tartary.

BORITSCHIA, or *Brotchia*. A town of India, remarkable for its cotton cloths, where the Engliſh and Dutch have factories. See *India*.

BORNEO, the greateſt iſland in the world, is ſituated in the Indian ocean, between 107 and 117 deg. of E. lon. and between 7 deg. 30 min. N. lat. and 4 deg. of S. lat. See *Sunda Iſlands*.

It is ſubject to ſeveral princes; and the Engliſh Eaſt India company have their factors here, from whence they chiefly import pepper.

BORNHOLM. An iſland of the Baltic ſea, ſituated in 15 deg. of E. long. and 55 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. See *Denmark*.

BOROUGH. A large village, or corporate town, which ſends one or more burgeſſes to parliament. See *City*, and *Town*.

BORROWING, is the taking up money, or goods, upon credit, in order to pay it, or return them again to the lender in kind or value.

BOSPHORUS of Thrace, or ſtreight of Conſtantinople, divides Europe from Aſia; being about a mile broad, between Conſtantinople on the European ſide, and Scutari on the ſide of Aſia.

There is alſo the Cimmerian Boſphorus, generally called the ſtrait of Caffa.

BOSSORA, or *Baſſora*. A port-town of Aſiatic Turky, in the province of Eyraca Arabic, ſituated in 47 deg. of E. lon. and 30 deg. of N. lat. on the W. ſide of the river Euphrates. See *Turky*.

Gulph of BOSSORA. See *Perſian Gulph*.

BOSTON. A port-town of Lincolnſhire, ſituated in 15 min. of E. long. and 53 deg. of N. lat. near the mouth of the river Witham, which falls into the German ſea. See *Great Britain*.

BOSTON is alſo the capital of New England, ſituated in 71 deg. of W. lon. and 42 deg. 24 min. of N. lat. See *Britiſh America*.

BOTANICY, or *Botany*. The ſcience of herbs and plants, which ſearches into the ſeveral ſpecies, teaching how to diſtinguiſh their forms, ſorts, uſes, and virtues.

BOTARGO. A kind of ſauſage, made with the eggs and blood of the ſea-mullet; the beſt of which comes from Tunis in Barbary: they are alſo made at Alexandria, and other parts of Egypt, where it is made in the ſame manner as the cavear of ſturgeon is in Ruſſia; and there are great quantities of botargoes conſumed throughout all the Levant.

BOTCH. To mend old cloaths; alſo an ordinary, bad, or bungling piece of work of any kind.

BOTHNIC *Gulph*. The northern arm of the Baltic ſea, dividing the eaſt and weſtern provinces of Bothnia in Sweden. See *Baltic*.

BOTTLE. A veſſel to hold liquor, or other things, of various ſizes and forms, commonly made of glaſs, by the glaſs-makers. There are alſo bottles made of leather, and ſold by the caſe-makers, as likewiſe ſtone-bottles made by the potters.

BOTTOMRY, or *Bottomree*. The act of borrowing money upon the keel or bottom of a ſhip; whereby the maſter binds the ſhip, that if the money is not paid by the day appointed, the creditor ſhall have the ſhip; which agreement is commonly in nature of mortgaging a ſhip; and in the inſtrument, there is a clauſe expreſſing that the ſhip is engaged for the performance of the ſame.

Bottomry is alſo where a perſon lends money to a merchant, who wants it to traffic, and bottomrees his ſhip as a ſecurity; being an engagement of the veſſel for repayment of the money: ſo that if the ſhip miſcarry, the lender loſes the money advanced; but if it arrives ſafe at the end of the voyage, he is to be repaid the money lent, with a certain premium or intereſt agreed on; and this on pain of forfeiting the ſhip: in regard to which, tho' the intereſt be greater than that allowed by law, it is not uſury; for money lent to ſea, is allowed a larger intereſt than money advanced on land, by reaſon it is furniſhed at the hazard of the lender, and, if the ſhip periſhes, he ſhares in the loſs; ſo that there is no real ſecurity, as in caſe of lands and hereditaments: beſides, the greater the danger is, the greater may be the profit reaſonably required for the money lent; which has been the opinion of civilians, and allowed by all, or the general part, of the trading nations in Europe.

The ſecurity or contract of bottomry, as generally made, is juſt and honourable, according to the laudable practice among maritime perſons, notwithſtanding the advantage may be 20, 30, or ſometimes 40 *per cent.*; but it cannot be denominated uſury, becauſe the money is lent without conſideration of time.

By the laws of Oleron, a maſter of a ſhip hath no power to take up money by bottomry, in places where his owners dwell, unleſs he is a part owner; and in that caſe he may take up ſo much only as his part will anſwer in the ſhip; for if he exceeds that, his own eſtate is liable to make ſatisfaction. But when a maſter is in a ſtrange place or country, where he hath no owners, nor any goods of theirs, nor of his own, and for want of money, which he cannot procure by exchange or otherwiſe, his voyage might be retarded, there money may be borrowed upon bottomry, and all the owners are liable for it; that is, they are anſwerable by their veſſel, but not in their perſons, by the act of the maſter; and the owners may have their remedy againſt ſuch maſter whom they put in truſt.

By the Rhodian law, when a maſter or owner of a ſhip takes up money on bottomry, and buys in lading, but endeavours to defraud the prince or ſtate of their cuſtoms, or puts ſuch goods on board which incur a forfeiture of the ſhip; in ſuch caſe the borrower only runs the hazard, and not the lender; and where bonds and bills of bottomry are ſealed, and the money is paid, if the ſhip receives injury by ſtorm, fire, enemy, or any other accident, before the commencement of the voyage, then the perſon borrowing ſhall only run the hazard; unleſs it be otherwiſe provided, by particular words, that the contract

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is to have its beginning from the time of the ſealing; but otherwiſe the contingency does not commence till the departure.

Many maſters of ſhips having inſured, or taken up money upon bottomry, to a greater value than their adventure, have ſometimes wilfully caſt away, burnt, or otherwiſe deſtroyed the ſhips under their care; therefore, by the ſtatute 10th Charles II. c. 6. the crime was made felony, and the perſon or perſons offending were to ſuffer death; which was continued by a ſtatute made in the firſt year of the reign of Queen Anne; and, by another made the 14th of George II. was extended to America. See *Inſurance.*

BOUGES. See *Coris.*

BOUL, is a term uſed at Smyrna, ſignifying the impreſſion made with lamp-black and linſeed-oil on cotton cloths, to prevent their being changed by the Armenians and Greeks, when given them to dye after the Indian manner.

BOULINIS, or *Boligneſe.* A copper coin ſtruck at Bologna in Italy, being about a halfpenny ſterling.

BOUNTY-*Money*, is an encouragement given by the Britiſh parliament for the venditure of ſome of their national commodities, when there is a greater quantity than anſwers the conſumption of the kingdom, which ſo greatly diminiſhes the price, that the owners would be impoveriſhed by keeping their commodities if periſhable; or if not, their circumſtances may be ſuch, as to render them incapable of waiting till there is a greater ſcarcity, to occaſion a riſing market; in conſideration whereof, proviſion is made, by ſeveral ſtatutes, when the goods are under the price limited, to allow the exporter ſo much *per cent.* or *per* quantity exported. There is likewiſe an encouragement given for importing into England, ſome of the manufactures of the Britiſh plantations. See *Corn*, *Fiſh*, *Fleſh*, *Gun-powder*, *Whale-fiſhery*, *Sail-cloth*, *Naval Stores*, and *Spirituous Liquors.*

BOURBON, formerly called the *iſland of Maſcarenha*, is an iſland ſituated in the Indian ocean, 300 miles E. of Madagaſcar, and is about 90 miles in circumference, affording a variety of hills and vallies, woods and champian ground; which occaſioned it to be called the Engliſh foreſt, by Captain Caſtleton, who viſited it in the year 1613; but the Engliſh neglected to make any ſettlement there; whereupon the French took poſſeſſion of it in the year 1664, and gave it the name it retains at preſent.

Its firſt inhabitants were brought there from Madagaſcar, conſiſting only of three unhappy perſons, who were baniſhed there, and who, on their return to Madagaſcar, after the expiration of three years, made ſuch a magnificent and agreeable deſcription of it, that ſeveral of the inhabitants of Madagaſcar requeſted leave to dwell there.

The iſle of Bourbon is almoſt of an oval figure, and is divided into two unequal parts, the ſmaller being entirely barren; but the larger is ſo far the contrary, that ſcarce any part of the world, as it is pretended, has a greater appearance of fertility; and nothing would be wanting to the country, if it had any commodious ports for ſhipping. However, this iſland, together with that of Madagaſcar, makes part of the French Indian company's conceſſion, ſerving them for a place of refreſhment in their voyages to India; and promiſing them a conſiderable object of commerce by the coffee beans cultivated there. See *Madagaſcar*, and *Iſland of Mauritius.*

BOURDALOUE. A kind of French worked linen, made in Lower Normandy.

BOURDEAUX. A city of France, capital of the Bourdelois, and of all Guienne and Gaſcony, ſituated in 40 deg. of W. lon. and 44 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. on the river Garonne. See *France.*

BOURG. The capital city of Cayenne, and of the French colonies on the coaſt of Guiana, ſituated in 52 deg. of W. lon and 5 deg. of N. lat. See *French America.*

BOURME. A middling ſort of Perſian ſilk.

BOURO. One of the Celebes iſlands in the Indian ocean, ſituated in the midway between the iſlands of Macaſſar and Ceram; being ſubject to the Dutch, who have a fortreſs there. See *Celebes.*

BOUTANES, cotton cloths, or dimitties, made in the iſland of Cyprus.

BOUTON, an iſland of the Celebes, ſituated in 121 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and between 4 and 5 deg. of S. lat. See *Celebes.*

BOW *of a ſhip.* That part which is broadeſt before, beginning at the looſ, compaſſing about towards the ſtem, and ending at the ſternmoſt part of the forecaſtle.

If a ſhip has a broad round bow, ſailors call it a *bold bow*; if a thin narrow bow, they ſay ſhe has a *lean bow*; the piece of ordnance that lies in this place is alſo called the *bow-piece*, and the anchors that hang there are called her great and little *bower.*

BOWER, is an anchor carried at the bow of a ſhip; of which there are uſually two, called firſt and ſecond, or the great and little bower. See *Anchor.*

BOWLING, or *Bow-line.* A rope faſtened to the leech, or middle part of the outſide of the ſail in a ſhip, ſerving to make the ſail ſtand ſharper or cloſer by a wind.

The bowling is faſtened by two, three, or four ropes, like a crow's foot, to as many parts of the ſail; only the mizen-bowling is faſtened to the lower end of the yard.

The bowling belongs to all ſails, except the ſprit-ſail, and ſprit-top-ſail, where it is omitted for want of room to hale it forwards; and thence it is thoſe ſails cannot be uſed cloſe by a wind.

When ſailors ſay, *eaſe the bowling*, *check or run up the bowling*, they mean, let it more ſlack.

BOWSE, or *Bowſe.* A ſea-term, ſignifying as much as hale, or pull together: thus, haling upon a tack, is called *bowſing upon a tack*; and when they would have the men pull all together, they cry *bowſe away.*

BOW-*ſprit*, or *Bolt-ſprit.* A kind of maſt in a veſſel, ſtanding foremoſt on the prow, and reſting ſlope-ways on the head of the main-maſt. Its lower end is faſtened to the partners of the fore ſtern, and farther ſupported by the fore-ſtay; ſo that it ſerves to carry the ſprit-ſail, ſprit-top-ſail, and jack-ſtaff.

The bow-ſprit ſhould be two thirds of the length of the main maſt, and its thickneſs equal to the mizen-maſt: when it is twelve fathoms five feet long, its yard muſt be eight fathoms two feet long, and the top-maſt of the bow-ſprit three fathoms one foot. See *Stores.*

BOWYER. One whoſe trade is to make bows and arrows fit for archery.

BOWYERS *Company of London*, was a fraternity by preſcription, till the 18th of James I. who incorporated the ſame by his letters-patent on the 25th of May 1620, by the name of The maſter, wardens, and ſociety of the myſtery of bowyers of the city of London. That the incorporating of this fraternity ſhould be deferred to this time, is ſomewhat ſurpriſing; tho' not ſo much as that of its being incorporated then, when the military engine called the *bow* was almoſt rendered uſeleſs, by the invention of fire-arms.

This company, for the management of their affairs, have a maſter, 2 wardens, and 12 aſſiſtants, with 30 liverymen, whoſe fine on admiſſion is 8 l. their hall being antiently in Noble ſtreet; but at preſent they have none.

BOYNE. A river of Ireland, which riſes in Queen's county, in the province of Leinſter, runs N. E. by Trim and Cavan, and falls into the Iriſh channel a little below Drogheda.

BOX. A tree of the ever-green kind, the wood whereof is much uſed to make mathematical and muſical inſtruments, works of ſculpture, and toys; being yellowiſh, hard, ſolid, even, heavy, and fit for poliſhing; but the beſt box comes from Turky and Spain.

BRACCIO, or *Brace*, is an Italian term for a fathom. See *Fathom.*

BRACELET. An ornament for the wriſts or arms of women; of which ſome are made of ribbons, others of wove hair, horſe-hairs, pearls, glaſs-beads, amber, and precious ſtones; which are good commodities to vend among the negroes on the coaſt of Guinea.

BRACES, in the ſea-language, are ropes belonging to all the yards of a ſhip, except the mizen, being two to each yard, which are received through blocks faſtened to pendants at the yard-arms.

The uſe of braces is *to ſquare the yard*, that is, to ſet it ſquare; hence, *to brace the yard*, is to bring it to either

ſide; *to traverſe the yard*, is to ſet it any way overthwart; and *to right the yard*, is to bring it ſo as it may ſtand at right angles with the length of the ſhip.

All braces come aftward on, the main brace comes to the poop, the main-topſail brace to the mizen top, and thence to the main-ſhrouds; the fore, and fore-topſail braces, come down by the main, and main-top-ſail ſtays, and ſo of the reſt.

The mizen-bowling ſerves for a brace to that yard, and the croſs-jack braces are brought forward to the main-ſhrouds, whenever a ſhip ſails cloſe by a wind. See *Yards*.

BRACKETS, with ſhipwrights, are ſmall knee timbers, that ſupport the galleries, and gratings.

BRADS. Long, thin, ſlender nails, uſed to drive into thin fir, and other boards, to keep them from ſplitting, having no heads, and ſo are drove down within the ſurface of the wood.

BRAID. A ſmall, narrow ſort of lace, uſed for ornamenting womens ſhoes, and bed-curtains.

BRAILS, in a ſhip, are ſmall ropes uſed in furling the ſails acroſs; being reeved through blocks, which are ſeized on either ſide the ties, a little diſtance off upon the yard; ſo that they come down before the ſails of a ſhip, and are faſtened at the ſkirt of the ſail to the crengles; their uſe being, when the ſail is furled acroſs, to hale up its bunt, that it may the more readily be taken up, or let fall: but theſe brails belong only to the two courſes and the mizen ſail.

Sailors ſay, *hale up the brails*, or *brail up the ſails*; the meaning of which is, that the ſail is to be haled up, in order to be furled, or bound cloſe to the yard.

BRAKE. An inſtrument uſed for dreſſing hemp and flax; alſo a name of female fern; as likewiſe a ſharp bit, or ſnaffle, for horſes.

BRAN. The ſkins or huſks of corn, eſpecially wheat ground, ſeparated from the farina, or flower, by a ſieve or boulter; of wheat-bran it is that ſtarch-makers make their ſtarch; and bran is alſo uſed in dying as a non-colouring drug.

BRANDY. A ſpirit, obtained by ſimple diſtillation from real wines, or fermented juices of grapes; which thoſe who deal in this commodity chuſe to be white, clear, and of a good taſte; as alſo, when poured into a glaſs to form a little white lather on the top, which, upon diminiſhing, makes a circle, called by the French merchants the *chaplet*, and by the Engliſh the *head*, or *bubble*; there being no brandy well deflegmated but this, which retains no ſuperfluous humidity, wherein the bead will be entirely formed.

Brandy made of wine, is called *French brandy*; but there is alſo Engliſh brandy, extracted from malt or molaſſes, and decayed fruit.

The chief uſe of brandy is as a dram, eſpecially in the cold northern countries; as alſo among the negroes in Guinea, who ſell one another for a few bottles of brandy; and among the Indians of Canada, and other parts of North America, who are infinitely fond of it. But it is alſo of ſome uſe in medicine, being ſaid to ſtrengthen the nerves; and it is likewiſe of ſervice in dying, when raiſed into rectified ſpirit of wine, being accounted one of the dyers non-colouring drugs.

The beſt brandies, and in the greateſt quantities, are prepared in France: thoſe of Bourdeaux, Rochelle, Cogniac, Nantz, and Poictu, are the moſt eſteemed; as being of a better taſte, finer, ſtronger, and enduring the bubble-proof longer than any of the reſt; and thoſe of Anjou, Touraine, and Orleans, claim the ſecond place.

Brandy makes a very conſiderable article in the French commerce, the number of foreign veſſels wherewith all their ports are full in time of peace, and which are laden with brandy, being incredible.

Nantz alone furniſhes 174,000 gallons *per annum*, Bourdeaux above twice as much, and the other places in proportion; of which there are annually imported into Great Britain upwards of 300 tons; but the Dutch take off their hands almoſt as much as all the reſt of Europe; tho' Poland and Sweden are the only nations which are not their cuſtomers, theſe preferring the corn-brandies of their own countries to the wine-brandies of France.

French brandies imported by any veſſel into any port of Great Britain, pay 78l. 4s. *per* ton; and brandies from any other countries, except France, only 48l. 4s. all other foreign brandies being exempted from the duties of 30l. charged on French brandies in the reign of King William III.

Brandy diſtilled a ſecond time, is called *ſpirit of wine*; and this, after another rectification, is called *ſpirit of wine rectified*.

BRASIER, or *Brazier*. A maker or dealer in braſs-ware; as coppers, pots, tea-kettles, candleſticks, and other braſiery goods; as alſo lead and iron goods for houſhold-furniture. See *Armourer*.

BRASIL *Wood*. See *Brazil*.

BRASS, is a factitious metal, compoſed of copper, fuſed with lapis calaminaris, which gives it a hardneſs and yellowneſs. See *Copper*, and *Calaminaris*.

Pure braſs is only malleable when hot; if cold, it breaks; and after melting twice, it is no longer in a condition to bear the hammer; but to work it, ſeven pounds of lead is put to 100 lb. of braſs, which renders it more ſoft and pliable.

The beſt braſs guns are made of malleable metal, not of pure copper and calamine alone; but it is neceſſary to add coarſer metals, ſuch as lead and pot-metal, to make it run cloſer and founder.

The beſt proportion for gun-metal, is for 11 or 12,000 lb. weight of metal, to uſe 10,000 lb. of roſe copper, 900 lb. of tin, and 600 lb. of braſs; but the proportion is variable, according to the quality and goodneſs of the copper.

For making the fineſt ſtatues of braſs, the proportion ſhould be half copper, and half braſs.

Bell-metal is a compoſition of braſs and tin, and pot-metal of braſs and lead. See *Bell-metal*, *Pot-metal*, and *Metal*.

BRASS *wire*, is braſs drawn through the wire-drawing iron.

The exportation of Britiſh braſs is prohibited, by the ſtatute of the 2d of Edward VI. under penalty of forfeiting the double value, and 10l. for every 1000 lb. weight; but, by the ſtatute of the 7th of Queen Anne, braſs-wire made in Great Britain, is permitted to be exported, even without paying duty; tho' the importation of braſs wrought is 5l. for every quantity of 100 l. value; braſs lavercocks are 1s. 4d. the pound, and pile weights 1s. braſs trumpets are 12s. the dozen, and lamps 10s. the duty.

BRASS is alſo a colour made by colourmen and braſiers, to imitate braſs. The fineſt braſs colour is made of the powder-braſs of Germany, diluted into a varniſh: but there are two ſorts of this colour; the red braſs, or bronze; and the yellow, or gilt braſs; with which figures of plaſter are braſſed or gilt over, ſo as to look like real braſs. See *Bronze*.

BRASSA *Sound*, or *Bay*, is on the eaſt part of the iſle of Main-land, one of the iſlands of Shetland.

BRAULS. Indian cloths, ſtriped with blue and white, otherwiſe called *turbans*; becauſe they ſerve to cover that kind of head-dreſs, particularly on the coaſts of Africa.

BRAUNSBURGH. A town of Pruſſia in Poland, ſituated on the Baltic ſea, in 20 deg. of E. lon. and 54 deg. 15 min. of N. lat.

BRAVO. One of the Cape Verd iſlands, ſituated in 25 deg. of W. lon. and 14 deg. of N. lat. See *Cape Verd iſlands*.

BRAY. A port-town of Ireland, in the county of Wicklow, and province of Leinſter, ſituated on St. George's Channel, in 6 deg. 16 min. of W. lon. and 53 deg. 12 min. of N. lat.

BRAZE, is to ſolder with braſs and tin, or to mend braſs goods with that compoſition.

BRAZIL, an American wood, commonly ſuppoſed to have been thus denominated, becauſe firſt brought from Fernambucco, a town of Brazil in South America, belonging to the Portugueſe; but the ſame ſort of wood is alſo brought from Japan, Lamon, and St. Martha; and braziletto, or Jamaica wood, is likewiſe brought from ſome of the Antilles iſlands.

Brazil wood is very heavy, dry, crackles much in the fire, and ſcarce raiſes any ſmoak, by reaſon of its extreme dryneſs.

neſs. None of theſe different ſorts of wood have any pith, except that of Japan; but that of Fernambucco is eſteemed the beſt, which ſhould be choſen in thick pieces, cloſe, ſound, and without any bark on it; upon ſplitting, from a pale colour, it becomes reddiſh; and, when chewed, has a ſweetiſh taſte. It is uſed by turners; but its chief uſe is in dying, where it ſerves for a red colour, which eaſily evaporates and fades; tho' it ſhould not be uſed without alum and tartar.

From the brazil of Fernambucco is drawn a kind of carmine, by means of acids, and alſo a liquid lacca for miniature.

BRAZING, in ſmithery, is the ſoldering of two pieces of iron together, by means of thin plates of braſs melted between the pieces that are to be joined.

BRAZZA. A town and iſland on the coaſt of Dalmatia, in the gulph of Venice, ſituated in 18 deg. of E. lon. and 43 deg. of N. lat. See *Venetian Iſlands.*

BREAD. The principal food of man, moſt commonly made of different ſorts of corn, reduced to a dough, or paſte, and uſually baked in an oven.

The kinds of grain, uſed chiefly in Europe for bread, are wheat, rye, and maſlin corn, which is a mixture of both; but, in times of ſcarcity, poor people make bread of barley and oats; and the ſarraſin corn is a grain whoſe uſe is pretty frequent in ſome provinces of France. Maize is alſo the principal ingredient for bread in ſeveral parts of Aſia, Africa, and America; in ſome countries they make bread of fiſh, and in others of the roots of trees, and plants, raſped into a kind of flour.

The ſtatute of the 8th of Queen Anne, of the 1ſt of George I. and the 3d of George II. regulate the aſſize and weight of all ſorts of bread to be ſold by any baker, and the manner of ſelling them; all which ſorts of bread ſhould be made according to the goodneſs of the grain; and the aſſize and weight of the white, wheaten, and houſhold bread, ſhould be ſet and aſcertained according to the table following.

The ASSIZE of BREAD, in pounds, ounces, and drams, avoirdupoize.

In the firſt column is the price of the buſhel of wheat, from 2s. to 15s. the allowance for baking included; and in the other columns is the weight of the loaves, the white loaves being one half, and the wheaten three quarters, of the weight of houſhold-loaves.

SMALL BREAD.

The price of the buſhel of wheat.		*The PENNY-LOAF.*						*TWOPENNY-LOAF.*								
		White.		Wheaten.		Houſhold.		White.			Wheaten.			Houſhold.		
s.	*d.*	*oz.*	*dr.*	*oz.*	*dr.*	*oz.*	*dr.*	*lb.*	*oz.*	*dr.*	*lb.*	*oz.*	*dr.*	*lb.*	*oz.*	*dr.*
2		23	3	34	12	46	5	2	14	5	4	5	8	5	12	11
2	3	20	10	30	14	41	3	2	9	3	3	13	13	5	2	6
2	6	18	9	27	13	37	1	2	5	1	3	7	10	4	10	2
2	9	16	14	25	4	33	11	2	1	11	3	2	9	4	3	7
3		15	7	23	3	30	14	1	14	14	2	14	5	3	13	13
3	3	14	4	21	6	28	8	1	12	8	2	10	12	3	9	1
3	6	13	4	19	14	26	8	1	10	8	2	7	12	3	4	15
3	9	12	6	18	9	24	11	1	8	11	2	5	1	3	1	7
4		11	9	17	6	23	3	1	7	3	2	2	12	2	14	5
4	3	10	14	16	6	21	13	1	5	13	2		11	2	11	10
4	6	10	5	15	7	20	10	1	4	10	1	14	14	2	9	3
4	9	9	12	14	10	19	8	1	3	8	1	13	4	2	7	
5		9	4	13	14	18	9	1	2	9	1	11	13	2	5	1
5	3	8	13	13	4	17	10	1	1	10	1	10	8	2	3	5
5	6	8	7	12	10	16	14	1		14	1	9	4	2	1	11
5	9	8	1	12	1	16	2	1		2	1	8	3	2		4
6		7	12	11	9	15	7		15	7	1	7	3	1	14	14
6	3	7	7	11	2	14	13		14	13	1	6	4	1	13	11
6	6	7	2	10	11	14	4		14	4	1	5	6	1	12	8
6	9	6	14	10	5	13	12		13	12	1	4	10	1	11	7
7		6	10	9	15	13	4		13	4	1	3	14	1	10	8
7	3	6	6	9	9	12	13		12	13	1	3	3	1	9	9
7	6	6	3	9	4	12	6		12	6	1	2	9	1	8	11
7	9	6		9		11	15		11	15	1	1	15	1	7	15
8		5	13	8	11	11	9		11	9	1	1	6	1	7	3
8	3	5	10	8	7	11	4		11	4	1		14	1	6	8
8	6	5	7	8	3	10	14		10	14	1		6	1	5	13
8	9	5	5	7	15	10	9		10	9		15	14	1	5	3
9		5	2	7	12	10	5		10	5		15	7	1	4	10
9	3	5		7	8	10			10			15		1	4	1
9	6	4	14	7	5	9	12		9	12		14	10	1	3	8
9	9	4	12	7	2	9	8		9	8		14	4	1	3	
10		4	10	6	15	9	4		9	4		13	14	1	2	9
10	3	4	8	6	13	9	1		9	1		13	9	1	2	1
10	6	4	7	6	10	8	13		8	13		13	4	1	1	10
10	9	4	5	6	7	8	10		8	10		12	15	1	1	4
11		4	3	6	5	8	7		8	7		12	10	1		14
11	3	4	2	6	3	8	4		8	4		12	6	1		8
11	6	4		6	1	8	1		8	1		12	1	1		2
11	9	3	15	5	15	7	14		7	14		11	13		15	12
12		3	14	5	13	7	12		7	12		11	9		15	7
12	3	3	13	5	11	7	9		7	9		11	6		15	2
12	6	3	11	5	9	7	7		7	7		11	2		14	13
12	9	3	10	5	7	7	4		7	4		10	14		14	9
13		3	9	5	6	7	2		7	2		10	11		14	4

SMALL BREAD.

The price of the bushel of wheat.		PENNY-LOAF.						TWOPENNY-LOAF.					
		White.		Wheaten.		Household.		White.		Wheaten.		Household.	
s.	d.	oz.	dr.	oz.	dr.	oz.	dr.	lb. oz.	dr.	lb. oz.	dr.	lb. oz.	dr.
13	3	3	8	5	4	7		7		10 8		14	
13	6	3	7	5	2	6	14	6 14		10 5		13	12
13	9	3	6	5	1	6	12	6 12		10 2		13	8
14		3	5	4	15	6	10	6 10		9 15		13	4
14	3	3	4	4	14	6	8	6 8		9 12		13	
14	6	3	3	4	13	6	6	6 6		9 9		12	13
14	9	3	2	4	11	6	5	6 5		9 7		12	9
15		3	1	4	10	6	3	6 3		9 4		12	6

LARGER BREAD.

The price of the bushel of wheat.		Sixpenny-loaf.						Twelvepenny-loaf.						Eighteenpenny-loaf.					
		Wheaten.			Household.			Wheaten.			Household.			Wheaten.			Household.		
s.	d.	lb.	oz.	dr.	lb.	oz.	dr.	lb.	oz.	dr.	lb.	oz.	dr.	lb.	oz.	dr.	lb.	oz.	dr.
2		13		9	17	6	1	26	1	2	34	12	2	39	1	10	52	2	3
2	3	11	9	6	15	7	3	23	2	12	30	14	5	34	12	2	46	5	8
2	6	10	6	13	13	14	7	20	13	11	27	12	14	31	4	8	41	11	6
2	9	9	7	11	12	10	4	18	15	5	25	4	7	28	7		37	14	11
3		8	11		11	9	6	17	6	4	23	2	12	26	1	1	34	12	2
3	3	8		5	10	11	2	16		11	21	6	4	24	1		32	1	6
3	6	7	7	3	9	14	14	14	14	5	19	13	13	22	5	8	29	12	11
3	9	6	15	4	9	4	5	13	14	7	18	8	10	20	13	11	27	12	14
4		6	8	4	8	11		13		9	17	6	1	19	8	13	26	1	1
4	3	6	2	2	8	2	14	12	4	4	16	5	11	18	6	7	24	8	9
4	6	5	12	11	7	11	9	11	9	6	15	7	3	17	6	1	23	2	12
4	9	5	7	13	7	5	1	10	15	10	14	10	3	16	7	7	21	15	4
5		5	3	7	6	15	4	10	6	13	13	14	7	15	10	4	20	13	11
5	3	4	15	7	6	9	15	9	14	14	13	3	14	14	14	5	19	13	13
5	6	4	11	13	6	5	2	9	7	11	12	10	4	14	3	8	18	15	5
5	9	4	8	9	6		11	9	1	1	12	1	7	13	9	10	18	2	2
6		4	5	8	5	12	11	8	11	1	11	9	6	13		9	17	6	1
6	3	4	2	12	5	9		8	5	8	11	1	15	12	8	3	16	10	15
6	6	4		3	5	5	9	8		5	10	11	2	12		8	16		11
6	9	3	13	13	5	2	6	7	11	9	10	4	12	11	9	6	15	7	3
7		3	11	9	4	15	7	7	7	3	9	14	14	11	2	12	14	14	5
7	3	3	9	8	4	12	11	7	3	1	9	9	7	10	12	9	14	6	2
7	6	3	7	10	4	10	2	6	15	4	9	4	5	10	6	13	13	14	7
7	9	3	5	13	4	7	12	6	11	10	8	15	8	10	1	7	13	7	4
8		3	4	2	4	5	8	6	8	4	8	11	1	9	12	7	13		9
8	3	3	2	9	4	3	7	6	5	2	8	6	13	9	7	11	12	10	4
8	6	3	1	1	4	1	7	6	2	2	8	2	14	9	3	3	12	4	4
8	9	2	15	11	3	15	9	5	15	5	7	15	2	8	15		11	14	11
9		2	14	5	3	13	13	5	12	11	7	11	9	8	11		11	9	6
9	3	2	13	1	3	12	2	5	10	3	7	8	4	8	7	4	11	4	6
9	6	2	11	14	3	10	9	5	7	13	7	5	1	8	3	11	10	15	10
9	9	2	10	12	3	9	1	5	5	9	7	2	1	8		5	10	11	2
10		2	9	11	3	7	10	5	3	7	6	15	4	7	13	2	10	6	13
10	3	2	8	11	3	6	4	5	1	6	6	12	8	7	10	1	10	2	12
10	6	2	7	12	3	4	15	4	15	7	6	9	15	7	7	3	9	14	14
10	9	2	6	13	3	3	12	4	13	10	6	7	7	7	4	6	9	11	3
11		2	5	15	3	2	9	4	11	13	6	5	2	7	1	12	9	17	11
11	3	2	5	1	3	1	7	4	10	2	6	2	14	6	15	4	9	4	5
11	6	2	4	4	3		6	4	8	9	6		11	6	12	13	9	1	1
11	9	2	3	8	2	15	5	4	7		5	14	11	6	10	8	8	14	
12		2	2	12	2	14	5	4	5	8	5	12	11	6	8	4	8	11	
12	3	2	2	1	2	13	6	4	4	2	5	10	13	6	6	2	8	8	3
12	6	2	1	6	2	12	8	4	2	12	5	9		6	4	2	8	5	8
12	9	2		11	2	11	10	4	1	7	5	7	4	6	2	2	8	2	14
13		2		1	2	10	12	4		3	5	5	9	6		4	8		5
13	3	1	15	8	2	10		3	14	15	5	3	15	5	14	7	7	13	15
13	6	1	14	14	2	9	3	3	13	13	5	2	6	5	12	11	7	11	9
13	9	1	14	5	2	8	7	3	12	11	5		14	5	11		7	9	5
14		1	13	13	2	7	12	3	11	9	4	15	7	5	9	6	7	7	3
14	3	1	13	4	2	7		3	10	9	4	14	1	5	7	13	7	5	1
14	6	1	12	12	2	6	6	3	9	8	4	12	11	5	6	5	7	3	1
14	9	1	12	4	2	5	11	3	8	9	4	11	7	5	4	13	7	1	2
15		1	11	13	2	5	1	3	7	10	4	10	2	5	3	7	6	15	4

BREAD-*room*. A ſea-term, for that place in the hold of a ſhip, generally towards the ſtern, where the bread or biſcuit is kept.

BREADTH. The extent which linen or woollen cloths, ſtuffs, or ſilks, ought to have between the two ſelvages or liſts.

BREAKING, among tradeſmen, is failing in buſineſs, by becoming a bankrupt, or inſolvent.

BREAKING *Bulk*. The beginning to unload the cargo of a ſhip. See *Bulk*.

BREEZE. A briſk or freſh gale of wind, blowing from the land or ſea.

BREMEN. One of the moſt conſiderable port towns of Lower Saxony in Germany, ſituated in 8 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 53 deg. 25 min. of N. lat. See *Germany*.

BRENTE. A river riſing in the biſhopric of Trent; and running S. E. through the Venetian territory in Italy, falls into the Adriatic ſea, oppoſite to the city of Venice.

BREST. An excellent port and harbour of France, ſituated in 4 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 48 deg. 25 min. of N. lat. on Cameret bay, in the Atlantic ocean, and on the weſt coaſt of Britany. See *France*.

BRETON, or *Cape Breton*. An iſland in North America, ſituated between 61 and 62 deg. of W. lon. and 45 and 48 of N. lat. See *French America*.

BREWER. A perſon who brews, or makes and ſells beer, and other kinds of malt liquor, by wholeſale. See *Ale*, *Beer*, and *Malt*.

BREWERS *Company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 16th of Henry VI. in the year 1438, by the appellation of The maſter, and keepers, or wardens, and commonalty of the myſtery or art of brewers of the city of London; which were confirmed by Edward IV. in 1480, with an additional privilege of making by-laws; the company being governed by a maſter, 3 wardens, and 28 aſſiſtants, with a livery of 108 of their members, who pay a fine of 16l. 13s. 4d. upon admiſſion; and have a handſome hall in Addle-ſtreet, where they tranſact their affairs.

BREWER's *Haven*. A good harbour at the north ſide of the iſland of Chiloe, ſituated in 82 deg of W. lon. and 42 deg. of S. lat. near the coaſt of Chili in South America. See *Spaniſh America*.

BREWING. The art of mixing or managing liquors; but particularly applied to the brewing of beer and ale from malt and hops; which is a conſiderable trade in the city of London.

BRICK. A kind of factitious ſtone, made of a fatty earth, formed into long ſquares, four inches in breadth, and eight or nine in length, by means of a wooden mould, and then baked and burnt in a kiln, to ſerve for the uſes of building. There are alſo bricks of a whitiſh colour; and Walpit in Suffolk is remarkable for this ſort.

Bricks acquire various names, according to their forms, dimenſions, uſe, method of making, and place. The principal ſorts are, compaſs-bricks, of a circular form, uſed in ſteening of walls: concave, or hollow bricks, on one ſide flat, like a common brick, on the other hollowed, uſed for conveying water under-ground: cogging bricks, uſed for making the indented work under the coping of walls, built with great bricks: coping bricks, formed on purpoſe for coping of walls: Dutch or Flemiſh bricks, uſed to pave yards and ſtables; as alſo for ſoap-boilers vats and ciſterns: clinckers, being ſuch bricks as are glazed by the heat of the fire in burning: feather-edged bricks, like the common ſtatute bricks, only thinner on the one ſide than on the other, and uſed to pen up the brick-pannels in timber buildings: ſamel or ſandal bricks, are ſuch as lie outermoſt in a kiln, or clamp, being conſequently ſoft, and uſeleſs, as not being thoroughly burnt: great bricks are thoſe which are twelve inches long, ſix broad, and three thick, the weight of one being about 15 lb. ſo that 100 weigh 1500 lb. and 1000 of them 15,000 lb. their uſe being to fence walls: pilaſter, or buttreſs bricks, which are of the ſame dimenſions with the great bricks, only they have a notch at one end, half the breadth of the brick; their uſe being to bind the work at the pilaſters of fence-walls, which are built of great brick. Paving-bricks, or tyles, are of ſeveral ſizes, in ſeveral countries and places. Place-bricks, ſuch as are made in a place prepared on purpoſe for them, near the building they are to be uſed in. Statute, or ſmall common bricks, when burnt ought to be nine inches long, four and a quarter broad, and two and a half thick. By the 3d of George II. within 15 miles of London, theſe bricks are to be 8 ¼ inches long, 4 ⅛ broad, and 2 ½ thick: 100 of theſe commonly weighing 550 pounds, and 1000, 5500 pounds; about 407 in number make a ton weight; being commonly uſed in paving cellars, hearths, and ſinks: 30, or 32, of true meaſure, will pave a yard ſquare, and 330 will pave a ſquare of 100 foot laid flat; but, if laid edgeways, there muſt be near double the number: and ſtock-bricks muſt be of the ſame dimenſions, only ⅛ of an inch thicker.

Barbaro, in his commentary of Vitruvius, recommends a triangular form of bricks, every ſide a foot long, and only an inch and half thick: theſe, he obſerves, would have many conveniencies above others, as being more commodious in the management, of leſs expence, and of fairer ſhew; adding much beauty and ſtrength to the mural angles, where they fall gracefully into an indented work: and Sir H. Wotton wonders they have never been taken into uſe, being recommended by ſo great an authority.

The earth whereof bricks are made muſt not be ſandy, which will render them both heavy and brittle; nor muſt it be too fat, which will make them crack in drying: they ſhould be made either in the ſpring or autumn; and when made, muſt be ſheltered from the ſun if too hot, and yet be expoſed to the air to dry: if in froſty weather, they are to be covered with ſand; if in hot weather, with wet ſtraw; and when well dried, they are to be burnt.

The ſtatutes of the 12th of Geo. I and the 3d of Geo. II. regulate the manner of preparing the earth or clay for making bricks, the method of making them, and the penalties on thoſe who act contrary to theſe ſtatutes.

Goldman obſerves, that bricks will have double the ſtrength, if, after one burning, they are ſteeped in water, and burnt afreſh. If the brick earth be too fat, it muſt be tempered with ſand, and that trodden out again, firſt by cattle, then by men. Bricks made of common earth not only melt but vitrify, by too much heat; for which reaſon the kilns are made of ſuch ſtones as will calcine themſelves, that the vehemence of the fire may be broken by them; beſides which, they uſually place bricks, made of an argillous earth, which will melt next the fire. See *Tile*.

Oil of BRICKS, is oil of olives, imbibed by the ſubſtance of bricks, and afterwards diſtilled from it.

The pieces of brick, being heated red hot in live coals, are extinguiſhed in a trough half filled with oil of olives; being then ſeparated, and the brick thus ſaturated with oil, groſly pounded, it is put into a retort, and placed in a reverberatory furnace; and thus is drawn an oil, which the apothecaries call *oleum de lateribus*, and ſome chemiſts *oil of the philoſophers*; uſed for reſolving tumours in the ſpleen, alſo againſt palſies and epilepſies. See *Oil*.

BRICKLAYER. A perſon who lays bricks in buildings. The tilers and bricklayers of London were incorporated by Q. Elizabeth. See *Tilers Company*.

BRIDGE-TOWN. The capital of the iſland of Barbadoes, ſituated in 59 deg. of W. lon. and 13 deg. of N. lat. in the American ſea, or Atlantic ocean. See *Britiſh America*.

BRIDGE WATER. A borough and port-town of Somerſetſhire, ſituated in 3 deg of W. lon. and 51 deg. of N. lat. near the mouth of the river Evil, which diſcharges itſelf into the Briſtol channel a little below it.

BRIDLINGTON, or *Burlington*, a port-town of Yorkſhire, ſituated in 10 min. of E. lon. and 54 deg. 15 min. of N. lat on the German ocean.

BRIDPORT. A borough, and port-town, of Dorſetſhire, ſituated in 3 deg. of W. lon. and 50 deg. 4 min. of N. lat.

BRIEL. The capital of the iſland of Voorn, in Holland, ſituated in 4 deg. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. See *United Provinces*.

BRIEUX. A port-town of Britany, in France, ſituated on the Engliſh channel, in 2 deg. 50 min. of W. lon. and 48 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. See *France*.

BRIGANTINE. A ſmall, light, flat, open veſſel, going both with ſails and oars; either for fighting or giving chace; having uſually 12 or 15 benches on a ſide for the rowers, with a man and an oar to each bench.

Brigantines are principally uſed by the corſairs; all the hands on board being ſoldiers, and each having his muſket ready under his oar.

BRIGHTHELMSTONE. A little port-town in Suſſex, ſituated in 10 min. of W. lon. and 50 deg 50 min. of N. lat.

BRILLIANT *diamond*. See *Diamond*.

BRIMSTONE, the mineral called ſulphur, which is one of the chemiſts univerſal principles of all bodies. See *Sulphur*.

Flower of BRIMSTONE. See *Flower of Sulphur*.

BRINDISI. A port-town of the territory of Ortanto, in Naples, ſituated in 18 deg 45 min. of E. lon. and 40 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. at the entrance of the gulph of Venice. See *Naples*.

BRINE. The liquor that produces ſalt; which after being taken out of the brine-pots, or brine-pans, is prohibited, by the ſtatute of the 1ſt of Q. Anne, from being uſed for curing or pickling of fiſh, without boiling the ſame into ſalt; as is alſo rock-ſalt, without refining it into white-ſalt. See *Salt*.

BRISTLE. A ſtrong hair, growing upon the backs of ſwine, which is put to ſeveral uſes, particularly in making different ſorts of bruſhes; as alſo by ſhoe-makers, ſadlers, harneſs-makers, and others, in ſewing their works. Great quantities of briſtles are imported from Ruſſia, and are commonly ſold by weight.

BRISTOL. A large city, and port-town of England, ſituated in 2 deg. 40 min. of W. lon and 51 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the river Avon, being part in Glouceſterſhire, and part in Somerſetſhire. See *Great-Britain*.

BRITAIN-GREAT, or *Great-Britain*, is the nobleſt, and moſt opulent, iſland on the face of the globe, ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, between 50 and 59 deg. of N. lat. and divided into S. and N. Britain; the former comprehending England and Wales, in which are 52 counties; 26 cities, 207 borough towns, 803 market-towns, and 9284 pariſhes; being 380 miles long, and 300 broad; containing 8 millions of inhabitants: the latter comprehending Scotland, in which are 33 ſhires; being 278 miles long, and 194 broad; containing 1,500,000 inhabitants.

England is of a triangular figure, bounded by Scotland on the N. by the German ſea on the E; by the Engliſh channel, which divides it from France, on the S. and by St. George's or the Iriſh channel on the W.

Scotland is bounded by the Caledonian ocean on the N.; by the German ocean on the E.; by the river Tweed, the Teviot hills, and the river Eſk, which divide it from England on the S.; and by the Iriſh ſea and Atlantic ocean on the W.

The ſituation of Great Britain, environed by the ſea, affords it inexpreſſible advantages; having, on all ſides, ſafe and commodious ports, and abounding with all the neceſſaries of life. England has always been remarkable for a commercial country; its trade and manufactures have always been conſiderable; and it may be obſerved, that this nation, without being more fertile than the adjacent countries, is inhabited by richer men; that, wanting wood, it covers the ſea with its ſhips; and, though it produces few things, has a flouriſhing trade with all the world. The commercial intereſt of England was but faintly underſtood till the reign of Q. Elizabeth, who not only eſtabliſhed the woollen manufactories on the ruins of thoſe in the Netherlands, but alſo promoted the navigation and commerce of her ſubjects; opening a paſſage for them into both the Indies, and inciting that ſpirit which afterwards induced them to make ſettlements in the moſt diſtant parts of the globe. This princeſs, by a wiſe and happy conjunction of the labours of her people both at home and abroad, formed the extenſion of the national wealth and power, without the leaſt diminution of the people; contrary to the effects of plantations made from other countries, which have ſuffered at home, by aggrandizing themſelves abroad, and eſpecially the Spaniards; whereas the domeſtic power of Britain is conſtantly augmented, in proportion to the advantages derived from its ſettlements abroad; and to this circulation of commerce it is, in reality, owing, that the ſtrength of Britain is ſo much greater, its lands ſo much more valuable, and its intrinſic wealth ſo much increaſed, as they are ſince the reign of Q. Elizabeth. However, it has been conjectured, by Baron Puffendorf, that England was weakened by planting the ſeveral colonies in America; and that it would have been more advantageous, to have employed the coloniſts at home, in manufactures, and in the herring fiſhery. But he never conſidered, that the commodities and manufactures of a country have a certain limit, beyond which it is impoſſible they ſhould extend, without an alteration of circumſtances; or, when they are carried ſo high, as that no markets are to be found, domeſtic induſtry can proceed no further: had he reflected on this important fact, he muſt have been of opinion, that it is owing to the American colonies that Great Britain has not been very ſenſible of ſuch a ſtagnation in trade; becauſe, the coloniſts eſtabliſhed there take off much greater quantities of the national commodities and manufactures than if they had remained at home. This may be farther illuſtrated, by obſerving, that the number of inhabitants in and about the city of London, is now about five times more than at the death of Q. Elizabeth: and though it cannot be imagined, that the number of people throughout the whole kingdom, hath increaſed in the ſame proportion; yet it is certain that theſe are very much augmented, as is apparent from the growth of other great cities, the ſwelling of ſmall villages into large towns, and the raiſing ſeveral new ſea-ports along the coaſts. From hence, it may be diſcovered how the other parts of the Britiſh dominions have alſo increaſed in the number of their inhabitants, as well as England; and have reaped a proportionable benefit from ſo happy a change in their circumſtances; which, as it demonſtrates how much they are indebted to their excellent conſtitution, ſo it is alſo an evident proof that it is the intereſt, and ought to be the care, of ſuch as are entruſted with the adminiſtration of the government, to ſee that every part of the Britiſh empire amply enjoys the advantages derived from the laws, and that glorious freedom which is the reſult of maintaining them in full vigour. The ſubjects, as well as the ſoil, are ever to be conſidered as appendages of the Britiſh empire; and as obedience is expected from the remoteſt quarters, as well as thoſe bordering upon the center of government, ſo they are intitled to the ſame protection and encouragement; which while they receive, there is no doubt but affairs will continue in a flouriſhing condition, and the fears which many have entertained, that ſome of the diſtant colonies may throw off their obedience to the mother country, will diſappear as viſionary ſhadows: for it is in the body politic, as in the natural body; while the vital parts are ſtrong and ſound, the conſtitution will be every where briſk and lively, and the effects of it perfectly felt to its very extremities.

There is a diſtinction frequently made, chiefly by foreigners, between the national and commercial intereſt of Great Britain; but, in reality, this is a diſtinction without a difference; for theſe are ſo inſeparably united, that they may be very well conſidered as one and the ſame: becauſe commerce is that tie by which the ſeveral, and even the remoteſt, parts of the Britiſh empire, are connected, and kept together, ſo as to be rendered parts of the ſame whole, and to receive not only countenance and protection, but warmth and nouriſhment, from the vital parts of the government; of which monarchy is only the head, but liberty is the ſoul: therefore, whatever aſſiſts, promotes, and extends the commerce of Britain, is conſiſtent with its national intereſt; and whatever impairs, diminiſhes, or circumſcribes it, is repugnant thereto: from whence may be derived a true notion of the intereſt of Great Britain, with reſpect to the other European powers; and alſo an opinion formed when that intereſt is really purſued, and when it is either neglected or abandoned; which will be preſently fully expatiated upon.

The encouragement given to the woollen manufactures of England, was the foundation of its flouriſhing commerce; which was ſoon extended to Archangel in Ruſſia, to all the maritime towns of the Mediterranean, and to

the coaſts of Africa, Aſia, and America; where it is ſo firmly rooted, as to ſeem too permanent to be ſhaken, and to ſtand leſs in need of enlargement than moderation.

The principal commodities of the growth of Great Britain are wool and in; the other commodities are iron, lead, copperas, vitriol, ſlate, allom, coals, live oxen and cows, horſes, tallow, ſalt-fleſh, green hides, dreſſed buff, dreſſed ſkins of all ſorts, parchment, vellum, butter, cheeſe, and tallow candles; ſeveral ſtuffs, and woollen manufactures; as cloths, ratines, ſerges, bays, flannels, druggets, woollen-carpets, and tapeſtries; various kinds of manufactures made up of a mixture of wool, ſilk, thread, cotton, and other ingredients; caps, and bonnets, of all kinds, ſtockings of all ſorts; blanketing; hair-buttons; horſe-hair, woollon, and beaver hats; thread, and ſilk lace; ſeveral kinds of furs; ivory unwrought, ox-horn, horn for lanthorns; combs of tortoiſe-ſhell, ivory, box, and horn; all kinds of artillery, and of arms; all ſorts of hard-ware; nails of all ſorts; corn ground and unground, ſtarch, and various kinds of pulſe; bees-wax; timber; wood for dying, and hoops for barrels; ſeveral ſorts of ſpirituous liquors, malt-liquors, cyder, and perry; glaſs, litharge, calamine; moſt kinds of chemical extracts; groceries of all kinds; drugs; yellow and red ochre; all kinds of fiſh, dry and ſalt; and quills for writing. Beſides theſe, the Britiſh nation ſupplies other countries with ſugar, rum, tobacco, and other commodities of its American colonies; as alſo with the linen manufacture of Ireland.

The ſoil of this country is generally clay; but, in many places, gravel and ſand: the former produces good wheat and beans; the latter barley, and oats; and both of them good peas. The timber growing in this iſland is chiefly oak, aſh, elm, beech, and horn-beam: however, there are other trees exceeding uſeful and ornamental, though not honoured with the name of timber; ſuch as the walnut-tree, poplar, maple, hazle, willow, ſallow, ſycamore, and ſome other ſpecies of wood. Plantations of hops are very numerous in Kent, Surry, Eſſex, Worceſterſhire, and Herefordſhire; where there is abundance of apples for cyder, as well as in Devonſhire. In Eſſex and Cambridgeſhire are fields of ſaffron; and in Bedfordſhire and Buckinghamſhire woad for dying. The moſt conſiderable foreſts now remaining are Windſor-foreſt in Berkſhire, New-foreſt in Hampſhire, Sherwood foreſt in Nottinghamſhire, and Epping-foreſt in Eſſex. Cornwal abounds in tin-mines, which are the moſt excellent of any in the world; and Devonſhire is alſo remarkable for this valuable commodity. Cumberland, Derbyſhire, Flintſhire, Denbighſhire, and Montgomeryſhire, are rich in mines of lead, iron, and copper. Staffordſhire and Cheſhire are remarkable for ſalt pits; Yorkſhire for allum, and Northumberland for coal. Norfolk, Eſſex, Wiltſhire, Devonſhire, Dorſetſhire, Somerſetſhire, Leiceſterſhire, Glouceſterſhire, and Worceſte ſhire, are celebrated for their woollen manufactures. Cheſhire, Glouceſterſhire, Suffolk, and Cambridgeſhire, produce plenty of cheeſe; but the two latter are more abundant in butter.

It has been computed that the arable lands, ſown with wheat in England, annually produce 24 millions of buſhels of that grain; of which, in good ſeaſons, great quantities are exported, and the remainder converted into excellent bread and flour for the uſe of the natives. About the ſame quantity of barley is annually produced, according to Doctor Davenant, of which 23 millions of buſhels are firſt converted into malt, and afterwards into ale and beer; one million more of buſhels made into malt, are converted into ſpirits and ſtrong waters; and the reſidue, being ten millions of buſhels unmalted, is either made into bread, exported abroad, or uſed for ſeed at home. But of rye, there is the leaſt ſown of any kind of grain; the lands being too good for it, and the common people generally too dainty to eat the bread made of it.

The numbers of ſheep annually ſhorn in England are computed to be 12 millions; which, at a medium of 3 s. 4 d. *per* fleece, amounts to 2 millions ſterling; and when manufactured may be reckoned 10 millions: for there are reckoned 250,000 cloths, broad and narrow, to be annually made; beſides great quantities of perpetuanos, bays, ſays, ſerges, kerſies, buffins, mocados, grograms, calimancoes, pluſhes, worſteds, fuſtians, durances, tukes, and ſeveral other of the like commodities. The tin mines produce 1,200,000 lb. yearly; the lead mines 800 fodders; allom 800 tons; copper 500 tons; there are great quantities of iron and coal; as alſo of ſalt.

There is ſcarce a manufacture in Europe, but what is brought to great perfection in Great Britain; but the woollen manufacture is the moſt conſiderable, which exceeds, in goodneſs and quantity, that of any other nation. Hard-ware is another extraordinary article; for the Engliſh locks, edge-tools, guns, ſwords, and other arms, exceed any thing of the kind; houſhold utenſils of braſs, iron, and pewter, are alſo important articles; and clocks and watches are in extraordinary eſteem. The Engliſh are not defective in many manufactures; however, among theſe is that of tin-plates, or white-iron, which is manufactured, from the Engliſh tin, in Germany; either becauſe the Engliſh are not ſufficiently experienced in the art of manufacturing tin-plates, or the Germans work ſo much cheaper, that it will not turn to any advantage to make them in England. The Engliſh are alſo leſs acquainted with lace and linen than the French, the Dutch, and the inhabitants of the Auſtrian Netherlands: and paper is alſo another manufacture in which they are excelled by the Dutch.

The principal maritime cities and towns in Great-Britain, are London, Rocheſter, Deal, Dover, Rye, and Winchelſea, on the S. eaſtern coaſt: Seaford, Arundel, Chicheſter, Portſmouth, Southampton, Pool, Lime, Exeter, Dartmouth, Plymouth, and Falmouth, on the ſouthern coaſt: St. Ives, Padſtow, Biddeford, and Briſtol on the S. W. Cardiff, Swanſey, Pembroke, Haverford weſt on the ſouthern coaſt of Wales. Cardigan, Aberyſtwith, and Harlegh, on the weſtern coaſt of Wales. Cheſter, Liverpool, Whitehaven, and Cockermouth, on the N. W. coaſt of England. Kirkcudbright, and Wigton, on the S. of Scotland. Port-Patrick, Irvin, Renfrew, and Glaſgow, on the weſtern coaſt of Scotland. Inverneſs, Bamff, Peterhead, Aberdeen, and Leith, on the eaſtern coaſt of Scotland. Newcaſtle, Shields, Sunderland, Whitby, Scarborough, Hull, Boſton, Lynn, Yarmouth, Southwold, Orford, Aldborough, Ipſwich, and Harwich, on the eaſtern coaſt of England. But, of all theſe, London, Briſtol, and Liverpool, are the moſt conſiderable for the proſecution of a foreign trade. See *Ports*.

The principal inland cities and towns, throughout the modern diviſion of England into ſix circuits are, 1ſt, *In the home circuit*, Colcheſter in Eſſex, where the greateſt manufacture of bays is carried on; St. Albans in Hertfordſhire, one of the moſt conſiderable markets for wheat; and Canterbury, in Kent, remarkable for its ſilken manufactory, introduced by the French and Walloons, in the reign of Q. Elizabeth, on their expulſion from their native countries for adhering to the proteſtant religion. 2d, *In the Norfolk circuit*, are Aileſbury, and Buckingham, where great quantities of lace and ſtraw-hats are made; Bedford, Huntingdon, Cambridge, Ely, Bury in Suffolk, and Norwich which is celebrated for its woollen manufacture, eſpecially in crapes and ſtuffs. 3d, *In the Oxford circuit*, are Oxford, Reading, Abingdon, Glouceſter, Worceſter, Monmouth, Hereford, Shrewsbury celebrated for being the ſtaple for the woollen manufacture of Wales; Bridgnorth; Litchfield; Stafford; Wolverhampton, and Walſal, remarkable for their manufacture of all ſorts of hard-ware. 4th, *In the midland circuit*, are Coventry, Warwick, Birmingham where the greateſt quantity of hard-ware is made; Leiceſter, Derby, Nottingham, Lincoln, Peterborough, and Northampton. 5th, *In the weſtern circuit*, are Wincheſter, Saliſbury, Malmſbury famous for its woollen manufactory, Dorcheſter, Bath, Wells, Taunton remarkable for its woollen manufacture, and Launceſton. 6th, *In the northern circuit*, are York, Leeds conſiderable for its woollen trade, Sheffield remarkable for a manufacture of hard-ware; Durham, Lancaſter, Mancheſter celebrated for its great manufactures of haberdaſhery wares; Appleby, and Carliſle. The principal inland places, belonging to the principality of Wales, are, 1ſt, *In North Wales*, St. Aſaph, Flint, Den-

Denbigh, Wrexham, Montgomery, Welch-pool, Bangor, and Bala. 2d, *In South Wales*, are Radnor, Brecknock, Landaff, St. David's, and Carmarthen.

The moſt remarkable interior cities and towns of Scotland are, Peebles, Lanerk, Edinburgh, which is put down here as an inland place, becauſe Leith is properly the port; Stirling, St. Andrew's, Perth, Duhkeld, Forfar, Brechin, Ruthven, Innerury, Bamff, Nairn, Innernavern, and Dungſby.

The principal rivers in England are the Thames, Severn, Medway, Trent, or Humber, the two Ouſes, the Tyne, the Tees, the Eden, the Derwent, the Ribble, the Merſey, and the Dee. Thoſe in Scotland are the Forth, Clyde, Tay, and Tweed; all which are particularly deſcribed under their reſpective heads.

The capes, or promontories, are Flamborough-head, and Spurn-head, in Yorkſhire; Winterton-neſs, and Eaſton-neſs, in Norfork; Orford-neſs, in Suffolk; Walton naze, in Eſſex; North-foreland, South-foreland, and Dungeneſs, in Kent; Beachy-head, in Suſſex; Dunnoſe, and the Needleſs, on the iſle of Wight; Peverel-point, and Race of Portland, in Dorſetſhire; Berry-point, Star point, and Bolt-head, on the S. of Devonſhire; Lizard-point, Landsend, and Trevoize-point, in Cornwal; Hartland point, and Bag point, in the N. of Devonſhire; Naſh-point, and Worms-head, in Glamorganſhire; St. Goven's-point, Biſhop and his clerks, in Pembrokeſhire; Cardigan point, in Cardiganſhire; Sarnabuck-point, in Merionethſhire; Braychilpult-point, in Caernarvonſhire; Holy-head, and Hillary-point, in Angleſea; Orms-head, in Denbighſhire; and St. Bee's-head, in Cumberland.

The principal commerce of Great Britain centers in the city of London; which was a conſiderable mart among the Romans, enlarged by the Saxons, encouraged by the Danes, protected by the Normans, and by many favourable occurrences is now the emporium of the kingdom, the glory of Europe, and the admiration of all mankind. Through all the variety of governments in Britain, this ancient city obtained many early immunities for the propagation of commerce, and the advantage of merchants: for which purpoſe the ſeveral ſecular guilds of merchants, tradeſmen, and artizans, were formed and incorporated; which, as they are the baſis of commerce, demand an enumeration.

Theſe were the companies of mercers, grocers, drapers, fiſhmongers, goldſmiths, ſkinners, merchant-taylors, haberdaſhers, ſalters, iron-mongers, vintners, cloth-workers, dyers, brewers, leather-ſellers, pewterers, barbers, ſurgeons, cutlers, bakers, wax-chandlers, tallow-chandlers, armourers, girdlers, butchers, ſadlers, carpenters, cordwainers, painter-ſtainers, curriers, maſons, plumbers, innholders, founders, poulterers, cooks, coopers, tilers and bricklayers, bowyers, fletchers, blackſmiths, joyners, weavers, woolmen, ſcriveners, fruiterers, plaiſterers, ſtationers, broderers, upholders, muſicians, turners, baſket-makers, glaziers, horners, farriers, paviours, loriners, apothecariers, ſhipwrights, ſpectacle-makers, clock-makers, glovers, comb makers, felt-makers, frame-work knitters, ſilkmen, pin-makers, needle-makers, gardeners, ſoap-makers, tin plate workers, wheel-wrights, diſtillers, hat-band-makers, patten-makers, glaſs-ſellers, tobacco-pipe makers, coach-makers, gunſmiths, gold and ſilver wire-drawers, long bow-ſtring makers, card-makers, fan-makers, wood-mongers, ſtarch-makers, fiſhermen, pariſh-clerks, carmen, porters, and watermen, whoſe corporations are all particularly deſcribed under their reſpective heads.

So that the whole number of companies in the city of London are 91; having 78 maſters, 220 wardens, 2318 aſſiſtants, 8217 liverymen, and 52 halls.

Excluſive of the city companies, there are ſeveral incorporations of merchants in London; as the merchant adventurers, merchants of the ſtaple, the Hudſon's bay company, Ruſſia company, Eaſtland company, Turky company, Eaſt India company, African company, South Sea company, and Herring fiſhery company: which are alſo particularly deſcribed under their reſpective denominations. Beſides theſe, there were formerly many other companies of merchants which had been incorporated, but are now extinct; ſuch as the Spaniſh, Portugueſe, Italian, French, Dutch, and American companies: however, the commerce to all thoſe countries, except France, is carried on with greater advantage to the Britiſh nation, than when it was under the direction of the companies.

The port of London is allowed to carry two parts in three, or ſix parts in nine, of the foreign trade of England; one ninth may be given to the ports on the S. coaſt of this iſland; which S. coaſt is oppoſite to the N. coaſt of France, the ſea between them being called the channel; the E. end of this, on the Engliſh ſide, is the N. Foreland, which ſtands oppoſite to Newport in France; and the W. end, on the Engliſh ſide, is the Lands end, over againſt Uſhant, or Breſt, in France. One ninth of the trade is allowed to the eaſtern coaſt of England, waſhed by the German ocean; and the other ninth to the W. coaſt, which looks on the Iriſh ſeas.

The great increaſe of the Britiſh navigation, the mercantile opulence, and the potency of the country, are ſufficiently evinced by the ſtupendous commerce of London to and from all parts of the terraqueous globe, and by the great number and magnitude of the national ſhips continually trafficking to this magnificent city: for, in the year 1732, it appeared, from the general regiſter at the cuſtom-houſe, that the number of ſhips belonging to the port of London only were 1417, burthen 178,557 tons, and carrying 21,997 men. In the year 1727, the number of ſhips belonging to other nations that arrived in the port of London amounted to 213, and the number of Britiſh ſhips from all ports beyond the ſea to 1839, making together 2052; and the ſame year the coaſting ſhips which arrived at London, from the ſeveral ports of Great Britain, amounted to 6837; ſo that, in one year, the number of ſhips which arrived there were 8889. For unlading this amazing number of mercantile veſſels, and carrying the prodigious quantities of merchandiſe to and from the 144 wharfs of the city, ſuburbs, and vicinal parts, there are not only employed about 2000 lighters, barges, and boats, but alſo 607 great carts. However, the number of ſhips annually imported at London have been conſiderably increaſed in ſeveral years ſince: but this is always greatly affected by a war with France, or Spain; the difference of which may be eaſily diſcovered from what happened in the war with France preceding the treaty of Utrecht; becauſe, in the years 1709 and 1710, there were only 3556 and 3750 national ſhips cleared from the cuſtom-houſe at London; but in the years 1713 and 1714, they were 5807 and 6614; the net produce of the cuſtoms in 1709 being 1,342,833 l. 14 s. 4 ½ d. but in the year 1714 they amounted to 1,765,695 l. 4 s. 2 ½ d. being an increaſe of 422,861 l. 9 s. 10 ¼ d.: beſides, during the laſt war, the Engliſh loſt 1360 ſhips taken by the Spaniards, and 1878 taken by the French; making together 3238, including men of war, and privateers; which, however, were 196 leſs than thoſe taken by the Engliſh from the French and Spaniards; for the naval force of Britain, at the concluſion of the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, conſiſted of 6 ſhips of 100 guns, 13 of 90, 16 of 80, 25 of 70, 32 of 60, and 34 of 50, being 126 ſhips of the line, beſides 30 frigates of 40 guns, and 45 of 20, 43 ſloops, 16 bombs, and 19 fireſhips, in all 279; of which 225 were in commiſſion; 40,000 ſeamen, and 11,500 marines being granted by parliament for manning this formidable armament: and when the peace was eſtabliſhed, there were 71 ſhips of the line, and 29 frigates, beſides ſloops and tenders contiued in pay; though the marines were diſbanded, and the ſailors reduced to 10,000; but by a liſt of the royal navy, publiſhed in July 1751, it appears to have then conſiſted of 5 firſt rates, of 11 ſecond rates, of 48 third rates, of 58 fourth rates, of 42 fifth rates, and of 50 ſixth rates; being 90 ſhips of the line, and 125 frigates, beſides 42 ſloops, 12 fireſhips, 8 yatchts, and 14 hoſpital ſhips; in all 291.

The woollen manufacture is ſtill the great foundation and ſupport, of the foreign traffic of Great Britain; of which great quantities are exported to Holland, Germany, Ruſſia, Turky, the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, Spain, Portugal, and Ireland: for which Great Britain receives the produce of the ſeveral countries in return, and from ſome places a ballance in treaſure: but the moſt profitable traffic of

Great Britain is carried on with her own plantations in America; who are furniſhed from their mother country with the principal part of their cloathing and furniture; for which they return treaſure, or the merchandiſes of the reſpective colonies; and it is to be obſerved, that theſe colonies, if properly encouraged, would, in a ſhort time, be enabled to take off all the manufactures the mother country could ſpare.

Leather, corn, lead, and coals, are alſo very conſiderable articles in the Britiſh exportations: but there are ſome nations whoſe trade is incompatible with the Britiſh intereſt, and particularly France; beſides, there are ſeveral goods prohibited, which are particularly mentioned under the article *Contraband*. See *Balance of trade*, and *Contraband*.

The Britiſh trade to Ruſſia, Sweden, Denmark, and the Hans towns, has been eſteemed prejudicial; becauſe, in 1721, an enquiry was made into this branch of commerce; when it was found, that Great Britain had loſt above 400,000 l. by it in the years 1716 and 1717, by having bought of thoſe countries the value of ſo many more goods than it had ſold there. Great Britain ſupplies Ruſſia with woollen manufactures, tin, lead, and tobacco: from whence ſhe imports hemp, flax, linen, linen-yarn, Ruſſia leather, tallow, furs, iron, pot-aſhes, and naval ſtores. Sweden, Poland, Pruſſia, Pomerania, the Hans-towns, Denmark, and Norway, are ſupplied with the woollen manufactures of Great Britain; as alſo with ſugar, and tobacco, from the Britiſh plantations: but Great Britain is furniſhed from theſe northern countries with naval ſtores; ſuch as pitch, tar, hemp, maſts, baulks, and deal boards; beſides iron, and copper, which muſt be obtained, though purchaſed with money.

The Turky trade is very profitable to Great Britain, as it affords her markets for great quantities of her woollen manufactures, together with lead, tin, iron, and ſugar; which are ſhipped to Conſtantinople, Scanderoon, and Smyrna; from whence they are diſperſed all over the Turkiſh dominions, as alſo into the Perſian territories. The commodities which great Britain receives in return from Turky, are great quantities of raw ſilk, cotton-wool and yarn, goats-wool, grogram-yarn, fruit, pot-aſhes, ſoap, leather, drugs, and oil, which are the foundations of ſeveral manufactures different from thoſe in Great Britain, by the variety whereof ſhe is enabled the better to ſuit her cargoes for exportation again: and though this trade may require ſome bullion to be carried thither, yet there is a great difference between purchaſing commodities already manufactured, ſuch as thoſe brought from the Eaſt Indies, and buying ſuch commodities as are brought from Turky to keep the poor at work.

The Eaſt India trade has been eſteemed to be of little advantage to the Britiſh nation; for though great quantities of cloth, lead, and ſome other domeſtic manufactures of Great Britain, are exported to Perſia, China, and the Indies, theſe countries are a bottomleſs gulph for the Britiſh bullion, which can never circulate home again: indeed, it has been alledged that, by the exportation of thoſe manufactures again, more bullion in ſpecie is brought into the Britiſh dominions, than is carried out for the buying them in India; but this has never been ſatisfactorily proved; though the doing of it would extremely redound to the honour of the Eaſt India company, whoſe principal commodities imported are, raw and wrought ſilks, callicoes, chints, muſlins, tea, china-ware, cabinets, drugs, and ſome ſpices.

The traffic carried on by the Britiſh merchants along the coaſt of Africa, and from thence to the American colonies, is a very beneficial branch of commerce, both for the mother country, and the plantations: for, in return to goods of the Britiſh manufacture, and others generally purchaſed with them, this trade ſupplies the American ſettlements with ſlaves; by whoſe labour ſuch great quantities of ſugar, tobacco, cotton, ginger, fuſtick, and indigo, are raiſed. Beſides, the gold, wax, and ivory, are profitable commodities for Great Britain to export: ſo that the African trade, both for its exports and imports, and alſo as it ſupplies the plantations, and advances navigation, is an advantageous branch of commerce, which, by the abolition of the monopoly formerly granted to the African company, will remain in a more flouriſhing condition than it could poſſibly do under an excluſive regulation; becauſe the African company ſeldom traded for more than 6000 negroes annually; but, ſince the trade has been laid open, 30,000 and upwards have been purchaſed in a year.

The trade between Great Britain and Italy is a profitable branch; for the former ſupplies the latter with the woollen manufactures, and ſtuffs of Great Britain, leather, tin, lead, fiſh, Weſt and Eaſt India goods; and the Italians ſupply the Britiſh merchants with raw and wrought ſilk, velvets, wine, ſoap, olives, oil, anchovies, paper, glaſs, and ſome dying drugs.

The Britiſh trade to Portugal, and the Portugueſe iſlands of Cape Verd, Madeira, and the Azores, is very advantageous for both nations: for Great Britain exports to Portugal a great quantity of woollen manufactures, ſtuffs, fiſh, corn, and other products of Britiſh growth; from whence ſhe receives, in return, ſalt, oil, woad, fruit, and wines; beſides the precious ſtones, gold, and ſilver, of the Braſils.

The trade to Spain is certainly the moſt beneficial of any to Great Britain; where ſhe exports broad cloth, druggets, bays, long-ells, calamancoes, and other ſtuffs, ſilk and worſted ſtockings, haberdaſhery-wares, tin, lead, fiſh, corn, leather, butter, cheeſe, tobacco, ginger, and wax; receiving, in return, from Spain, their wool, gold, ſilver, iron, fruit, wines, oil, cochineal, indigo, anata, and barillia; but Great Britain has a very conſiderable balance.

The trade between Great Britain and France is manifeſtly to the advantage of the latter, which takes but an inconſiderable quantity of the Britiſh produce; ſuch as tin, lead, horn, flannels, corn, and tobacco; while what Great Britain takes from the French are chiefly articles of luxury, as wines, brandy, linen, fine cambrics, lace, lawn, brocades, velvets, and other rich ſilk manufactures, all tending to impoveriſh Britain, and throw a weighty ballance on the ſide of France. For, by an account of this trade, delivered in to the parliament, by Sir George Downing, commiſſioner of the cuſtoms, and teller of the exchequer, in 1675, it appeared, that the linen and ſilk manufactures only, imported that year from France, amounted to upwards of 800,000 l.; and that the manufactures of wool and ſilk exported from England to France did not amount to 85,000 l.; as alſo that all commodities of the product and manufacture of England, exported into France, did not amount to 90,000 l. more: whereas the wine, brandy, and other commodities of the product and manufacture of France, imported into England, amounted to upwards of 300,000 l.; beſides an incredible value of toys, rich apparel, point-lace, and other articles: by which it was evident, that the export of the natural commodities of Great Britain to France, were leſs in value, by at leaſt a million ſterling, than the native commodities and manufactures of France imported into Britain.

Great Britain exports to the Netherlands ſome ſerges, flannels, ſtuffs, ſugar, tobacco, tin, and lead; for which ſhe receives cambrics, lawns, lace, linen, thread, and tapes, to a great value; ſo that the ballance is very much in favour of the Netherlands.

The trade between Great Britain and the United Provinces is mutually beneficial; the former exporting to Holland conſiderable quantities of woollen manufactures, tin, lead, leather, corn, coals, India and Turky re-exported goods, ſugars, tobacco, rice, ginger, pitch, tar, and other commodities of the Britiſh plantations, which the Dutch retail up in Germany; and, in return, ſupply the Britiſh merchants with lace, cambrics, and other fine linen, thread, tapes, incles, whale-fins, madder, argol, toys, clap-board, nutmegs, mace, cloves, and cinnamon.

A conſiderable traffic is ſupported between Great Britain and Ireland; the former importing great quantities of Iriſh linen, wool, hides, tallow, and ſkins; as alſo beef, pork, butter, cheeſe, ſalmons, and herrings, for other markets: while Ireland is ſupplied with the woollen manufactures of Great Britain, eſpecially fine broad cloth, ſilk, ribbons,

gold and ſilver lace, ſtockings, cutlery wares, pewter, hops, coals, tobacco, ſugar, Eaſt India goods, and other things. Thus, from a conſideration of the ſtate of the Britiſh trade, this inference may be drawn; that ſo far as any nation furniſhes Great Britain with things already manufactured, or only to be ſpent among the inhabitants of the country; ſo much leſs is the advantage to Great Britain by the trade ſhe drives with thoſe nations; eſpecially if their manufactures interfere with thoſe of Great Britain, and are purchaſed with bullion. Therefore, it may be concluded, that the trade to the Eaſt Indies is unprofitable to Great Britain; becauſe, by the ſilks, muſlins, and calicoes, it prevents the conſumption of more of the Britiſh manufactures in Europe, than it takes from the Britiſh nation. The French trade is alſo prejudicial to Great Britain; becauſe, France is to her like a tavern, where ſhe extravagantly ſquanders away all the profits of her labour and frugality, extracted from other nations. Turky, Italy, Portugal, and Spain, are very advantageous to the Britiſh trade, as they conſume great quantities of her manufactures, and furniſh her with materials to be wrought up at home: beſides, theſe nations diſperſe the commodities of Great Britain to other places, which ſhe could not ſo well undertake: this Spain does to her ſettlements in America; Turky to all its territories, both in Europe and Aſia, and alſo to Perſia; while Portugal does the ſame to Braſil. The Dutch, Hamburg, and Dantzick trades, are of much utility to Great Britain; becauſe, they ſupply Germany, Poland, and ſome parts of Ruſſia, with Britiſh manufactures, and little interfere with England in theirs. Ruſſia, Sweden, and Denmark, are profitable to Great Britain, both in what they take, and in what ſhe has from them again. But above all, the African and American trades are the moſt profitable to the Britiſh nation; as they employ more people at home, and give greater encouragement to navigation by their product.

The ballance of trade with Spain and Portugal is always in favour of the Britiſh nation. As for Germany and the United Provinces, their ballances are dubious; ſome being of opinion that they ſhip moſt to England, and others that they receive moſt from England. The northern crowns ſupply Great Britain with more than they take from her; but they are commodities ſhe cannot be without, at leaſt till ſhe can be better furniſhed with them from her plantations in America. Turky may require ſome bullion, yet that trade is very beneficial to Great Britain. And Italy will grow more and more in its balance on the ſide of Great Britain, as the importation of wrought ſilks is diminiſhed, and converted into raw and thrown.

BRITISH *Iſlands*. The principal of theſe are Ireland, with the iſlands of Wight, Scilly, Angleſea, Man, the Hebrides, or the weſtern iſlands, the Orkneys, and the iſlands of Shetland; with Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, and Sark: but Ireland is particularly deſcribed under its reſpective head. See *Ireland*.

The iſland of Wight, the ancient Vecta of the Romans, was formerly a kingdom, but is now included as a part of Hampſhire, lying oppoſite to Portſmouth; from which it is ſeparated by a ſmall channel, the narroweſt part whereof is called the Needles, being about two leagues over, through which ſhips paſs, but with ſome hazard. The iſland is about 20 miles long, and 12 broad. Newport is the principal town; but Cowes is the only maritime place of conſequence, which is a very ſafe and convenient port; though the iſland is remarkable for nothing but corn, and is uſually governed by ſome general officer.

The iſlands of Scilly, are a cluſter of ſmall iſlands and rocks, ſituated about 40 miles W. of the Lands-End, in Cornwal; which have frequently endangered the lives of mariners, and have been fatal to ſeveral; particularly to Sir Cloudeſly Shovel, whoſe ſhip, together with 3 other men of war, were caſt away here on the 22d of October 1707, in the night-time, when this brave admiral, and his gallant ſailors, periſhed in the waves. The 5 larger iſlands are St. Mary, Treſco, St. Martin, St. Agnes, and Bryer: there are alſo 5 ſcattering ones, called Sampſon, St. Helens, Tean, White iſland, and Annet: the 10 eaſtern iſlands are, Great Arthur, Great Ganilly, Great Gannick, Minewithen, Nornour, Little Arthur, Little Ganilly, Little Gannick, Ragged iſland, and Inniſvouls: and there are ſeven other ſcattering iſlands placed about the largeſt, called Mincarlo, Guahall, Northwithel, White iſland, Round iſland, Scilly iſland, and Rat iſland. There are about 1400 inhabitants in theſe iſlands, being all in a ſtate of ſubjection to the Earl of Godolphin, who has the propriety of all the iſlands by patent, claims all the tythe of land, and of fiſh taken at ſea; as alſo of all ſhips coming to anchor, commonly called harbour-dues, which is 2 s. 2 d. every Britiſh veſſel, and double for every foreigner. The ſeat of the government is at St. Mary's, where there is a company of invalids, whoſe commanding officer has the direction of all the iſlands; but all maritime affairs are ſubject to the admiralty of Great Britain. There is a convenient light-houſe, ſupported by the trinity-board, on the iſland of St. Agnes, which facilitates a paſſage to theſe iſlands, where ſhips are furniſhed with pilots from the place; and there are ſome large and commodious harbours; though the ſterility of the place affords no manner of merchandiſe.

The iſland of Angleſea, is one of the counties of N. Wales, having Beaumaris for its principal town; though Holyhead is the only port of conſequence, which is the ſtation for the packets between England and Ireland: but the country is remarkable only for corn.

The iſle of Man, anciently called Mona, is ſituated 35 m. W. of the coaſt of Cumberland, and 28 m. N. of Angleſea; 20 miles S. of the coaſt of Galloway in Scotland, and 40 miles E. of the coaſt of Down in Ireland; being about 30 miles long, and 15 broad; having for its principal towns Ruthin and Peel, though Douglas is the principal port; which is much frequented by ſmugglers, becauſe the duties of importation and exportation were not extended to this iſland until very lately: though the ſoil produces corn, in which their exports conſiſt, as well as in wool, hides, and tallow.

King Edward IV. granted the regality of this iſland to the Earl of Derby, and his heirs; but, on the death of the laſt Earl, it devolved to the Duke of Athol. This alienation of the iſland from the Britiſh government has occaſioned more diſadvantages than all the royalties and juriſdictions of Scotland: becauſe, the Iſle of Man is the great magazine for the French to depoſite their wines and brandies, teas, and other commodities in, till opportunity offers of ſmuggling them on the coaſts of England, Scotland, Ireland, and Wales: whereby the loſs to the Britiſh nation, and the gains to the French, were inexpreſſibly great; who, in the caſe of the ſovereignty of Belleiſle, formerly in poſſeſſion of the family of the famous duke of that name, plainly ſhew that they would not ſuffer ſuch a ſovereignty and juriſdiction to remain on their coaſts. Beſides, the Iſle of Man creates a prodigious expence to the Britiſh government, in maintaining ſo many offices, and cruizers, to guard againſt its illicit and pernicious trade: not to mention the notorious frauds committed in the cuſtoms, together with the perjuries always attending them; or the entry of certain goods for exportation, receiving a drawback or debenture; though thoſe goods are landed in the Iſle of Man, and then run back again upon the Britiſh coaſts. Therefore, and as the whole revenue of the iſland belonging to the noble proprietor is reported not to exceed 3 or 4000 l. annually, it would be a cheap exchange to the public, if he was paid 40, 50, or 60 years purchaſe for his property therein.

The Hebrides, or *Weſtern iſles of Scotland*, which were anciently denominated Ebudæ, are very numerous, and ſome of them large; extending from the coaſt of Argyle, to the N. W. of Strathnavern. The principal iſlands conſiſting of Arran, Ilay, Jura, Mull, Skie, Viſt, and Lewis; the laſt of which is 60 miles long and 20 broad; the inferior iſlands being Bute, Collonſa, Scarba, Luing, Kerera, Liſmore, Kin, Erra, Jona, Tiree, Coll, Biſhops iſles, Barra, Muck, Egg, Helſkyr, Rum, Kannay, Rona, Benbecula, Taranſay, Rona, Glas, Bernera, Moir, Sigram, Pigmies, St. Kilda, Borerau, and ſeveral others uninhabited. Some of theſe iſlands are very populouſly inhabited, and produce great quantities of corn, flax, hemp, cattle, and fowl: ſeveral of them have commodious bays and harbours; and the herring fiſhery is ſo conſiderable there,

there, that 400 buſſes have been loaded in a ſeaſon from he northern part of the iſland of Viſt only.

The Orkney Iſlands, or *Orcades*, lie north of Dungſby head in Caithneſs; from which they are divided by Pentland frith, a ſea remarkable for its ſwift and contrary tides. The principal iſland is Pomona, which is 24 miles long, and 10 broad; the chief town being Kirkwal, where there is an excellent harbour: Hoy is the next iſland in magnitude; and the others are North Ronaldſha, Weſtra, Sanda, Rowſay, Edds, Stronſa, Shapinſha, Burſa, South Ronaldſha, Skerrys, Stroma, and ſome other inconſiderable ones. Theſe iſlands are well inhabited, producing corn, and ſuch other commodities as are found in the Hebrides; but the greateſt riches of the inhabitants are the herrings that annually viſit their coaſts.

The Shetland Iſles lie N. E. of the Orcades, upwards of 100 miles from Caithneſs; being reckoned 46 in number, including ſome little uninhabited holms, which afford the inhabitants paſture for their cattle. The principal iſland is Mainland; being 60 miles long, and 20 broad, indented and cut through by fine bays, which make ſo many harbours; and the principal towns are Skalloway and Lerwick: Yell is the next iſland; after which are Vuiſt, Fetlar, and Whalſey; but no other of any conſequence. Moſt of theſe iſlands abound in black cattle, ſheep, and fowl; but they have little corn: however, they have ſuch plenty of fiſh, that the Britiſh and Dutch buſſes begin their fiſhery for herrings off Braſſa ſound, on the eaſtern part of the Mainland; where they arrive about Midſummer, and continue fiſhing there for ſeveral months; the nature, produce, and trade of which is particularly related under the article *Herring-fiſhery*.

The Norman Iſlands of Jerſey, Guernſey, Alderney, and Sark, are all the remaining inheritance of William the Conqueror, and the dukedom of Normandy, in the poſſeſſion of the Britiſh crown, to which they were annexed by Henry I. in 1180; having, to their great honour, continued firm in their allegiance to England, notwithſtanding ſeveral attempts made upon them by the French. Jerſey is ſituated 15 miles W. of the coaſt of Normandy in France, and 80 miles S. of Portland in Dorſetſhire, being about 30 miles in circumference. Guernſey is about 7 miles W. of Jerſey, being 10 miles long, and as many broad. Theſe two iſlands are well fortified, and have Engliſh garriſons, lying extremely well for trade in time of peace, and to annoy the French with their privateers in time of war. Their ſoil is ſufficiently fruitful, producing corn and fruit in great abundance; eſpecially apples, of which they make plenty of cyder: the inhabitants, who are ſtill ſubject to the antient laws of Normandy, have a tolerable woollen manufactory of ſtockings and caps, and each of them is generally governed by an Engliſh officer of diſtinction.

As for Alderney and Sark, they are under the protection of the other iſlands; but are no ways conſiderable enough to carry on any merchandiſe, or ſupport a garriſon: tho' the race or ſtreight of Alderney, which ſeparates this iſland from Cape la Hogue in Normandy, is very remarkable for its dangerous paſſage, where Sir John Balchen was loſt, in the Victory man of war, of 110 guns, in the year 1744: beſides, between this iſland and Torbay in Devonſhire, are the dangerous rocks called the *Caſkets*.

By the ſtatute of the 3d of George I. it was enacted, That the inhabitants of Guernſey, Jerſey, Sark, and Alderney, might import into any lawful port of Great Britain any goods of the produce or manufacture of thoſe iſles, upon certificates from the governors or commanders in chief, that the ſame were of the produce or manufacture of the ſaid iſlands, without paying any cuſtoms or duties, except ſuch exciſe as ſhould be payable for the like goods of the produce and manufacture of Great Britain: but that nothing in this act ſhould exempt any goods of the produce or manufacture of any foreign nation, which might be imported into the ſaid iſlands, or ſuch foreign goods as ſhould be in part or fully manufactured in the ſaid iſlands by the people thereof, from payment of ſuch cuſtoms upon importation thereof into Great Britain, as ſhould be payable for goods of the like kinds imported into Great Britain from ſuch foreign nation. See *Spirituous Liquors*.

Britiſh America. On the diſcovery of the weſtern world by Columbus, and the eſtabliſhment of the Spaniards on the rich continent of Mexico and Peru, other nations were incited to naval adventures, through the expectations of participating in the opulency of the Spaniards: accordingly Henry VII. King of England, employed Sebaſtian Cabot, a native of Briſtol, and ſon of John Cabot, a Genoeſe or Venetian pilot, in the year 1497, to find out a N. W. paſſage to China, which Cabot was not ſo fortunate to accompliſh: however, this excellent navigator diſcovered all the N. E. coaſt of America, from Cape Florida in 25 deg. N. lat. to 67 and a half; from whence England claimed a right to the poſſeſſion of that country prior to the Spaniards, or any other European power, who had made no diſcovery of it; tho' the Engliſh planted no colonies there till the reign of Queen Elizabeth; which, as Cabot intimates, was owing to the wars with Scotland and France, and afterwards by the reformation, which engaged the whole attention of the Engliſh government. But when Queen Elizabeth had eſtabliſhed the proteſtant religion, ſhe fitted out ſeveral ſquadrons to annoy the Spaniards in America; by which expedition the Engliſh became well acquainted with the fertile and beautiful country of Florida: however, they had ſo long neglected it ſince the diſcovery by Cabot, that the Mexican Spaniards, in the mean time, invaded Florida, and obtained the poſſeſſion of that part of it which lies upon the gulph of Mexico, as far as the Atlantic ocean; while the French alſo made ſome attempts to form a ſettlement near Cape Florida, in which they were diſappointed by the vigilance of the Spaniards.

Queen Elizabeth, in the 26th year of her reign, granted a patent to Sir Walter Raleigh, for all ſuch parts of America as he ſhould diſcover and plant, from 33 to 40 deg. of N. lat.; who, in 1584, ſent two ſhips on the diſcovery, under the command of Capt. Philip Amidas, and Capt. Arthur Barlow, who arrived on that part of Florida denominated Wingandacoa by the natives, and afterwards Virginia by the Engliſh, in honour of their virgin-ſovereign Queen Elizabeth; where they were hoſpitably entertained by Wingina the king of the country, and carried on a beneficial traffic with the inhabitants: after which they returned home, with two Indians who were deſirous of embarking for England, and brought the firſt tobacco into Europe. In 1585, Sir Edward Greenville was ſent out by Sir Walter Raleigh, with ſeven ſhips, to renew the diſcovery of Virginia, who formed a ſettlement in the iſland of Roanoak, oppoſite to that part of the continent afterwards called North Carolina: but the unhappy coloniſts left here were diſregarded by the Engliſh court, and periſhed in attempting to form the firſt ſettlement, while their patron was proſecuting another enterpriſe on the coaſt of Guiana in South America.

As Sir Walter Raleigh himſelf obſerves, the hope of gold was the principal, and almoſt only motive to theſe undertakings; for the Engliſh had obſerved the ſucceſs of the Spaniards, and imagined that gold and ſilver mines were as common in America, as lead-mines are in Europe. The firſt adventurers to Florida, whether Engliſh or Spaniſh, extended their views only to the acquiſition of treaſure, never conceiving that the Virginian tobacco would be equally profitable; for they could not apprehend it would be the foundation of that large and profitable commerce now ſubſiſting between Great Britain and her plantations. However, as ſeveral private Engliſh adventurers had trafficked on the coaſt of Florida, the mercantile part of the nation were ſufficiently appriſed that a very advantageous commerce might be carried on with North America; and the patent granted to Sir Walter Raleigh being forfeited by his attainder in the 1ſt year of K. Ja. I. ſeveral gentlemen and merchants petitioned his Majeſty for a patent to enable them to raiſe a joint ſtock to ſettle colonies at Virginia; obſerving, that this could never be done effectually but by a company or corporation. Whereupon King James granted them a patent, dated the 10th of April 1606; whereby it was ordained, That Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Summers, Richard Hackluit, and Edward Maria Wingfield, adventurers, of the city of London, and all others that ſhould aſſociate with them, ſhould be called the firſt colony, and might begin their firſt plantation at any place upon the coaſt of Virginia

or America, where they ſhould think fit, between 34 and 41 deg. of lat. and ſhould have all the territorial juriſdiction for 50 miles either way, along the coaſt of N. and S. and 100 miles to the weſtward within land; alſo all the iſlands oppoſite the coaſt for 100 miles at ſea; and that no other ſubjects ſhould be permitted to ſettle themſelves on the lands to the weſtward of this colony, without their leave. And his Majeſty alſo granted letters-patent to Tho. Hanham, Raleigh Gilbert, William Parker, and George Popham, of Briſtol, Exeter, and Plymouth, and all others who ſhould aſſociate with them, ordaining that they ſhould be called the ſecond colony, and might extend their plantation to 45 degrees of latitude, with the like privileges granted to the firſt colony. It was ordained, that the reſpective colonies ſhould not plant, within the ſpace of 100 miles of each other: that each company ſhould have a council, conſiſting of thirteen perſons, in whom the government ſhould be lodged, but limited by certain articles under the privy ſeal. They were empowered to dig mines in and beyond their reſpective limits to the weſtward, paying the crown a fifth of all gold, and a fifteenth of all copper-ore, they ſhould get; and they were alſo empowered to ſeize all ſhips trading within their reſpective limits, to coin money, raiſe forces, and other acts of prerogative.

The London adventurers immediately ſent out three ſhips, with 110 planters, under Capt. Chriſtopher Newport, who entered the bay of Cheſepeak; where he landed, and formally took poſſeſſion of the country, in the name of King James I. He contracted a friendſhip with ſome of the weroances, or kings of the country, and ſailed up the river Powhaton, to which he gave the name of James river, in ſearch of a proper place to ſettle the colony; where they erected the foundation of James town, between 40 and 50 miles from the mouth of the river; after which Capt. Newport returned to England, leaving the colony under the direction of Capt. Smith, who made ſeveral diſcoveries in the interior part of the country, and ſoon received a reinforcement of ſix or ſeven ſhips from England, with between 3 and 400 planters.

As the council in Virginia had incurred the diſpleaſure of the company in England, the latter procured a new patent from King James, whereby they were empowered to appoint a governor, with a more ample authority than they had by the preceding patent, and prevailed on the Lord De la War to accept of the government of their new colony, who made his arrival in the country, and formed a regular eſtabliſhment among the planters.

The government of Virginia contracted alliances with the Indians, and were reinforced by 1200 men from England; when the plantations of tobacco began to be very numerous, in which they were principally aſſiſted by the introduction of negroes, in the year 1620. The colony was ſoon in a flouriſhing condition, extending their plantations, and receiving additional ſupplies from England, till they became too formidable for the Indians: but the company gave no proper attention to the preſervation of the coloniſts, which induced King Charles I. to diſſolve the patent, and reduce the country and government under his own immediate direction, appointing the governor and council himſelf; reſerving to himſelf a quit-rent of 2 s. for every hundred acres, and ſo in proportion for any leſſer number. His Majeſty re-eſtabliſhed the conſtitution by a governor, council, and aſſembly; which made the government ſimilar to that of England, increaſed the number of coloniſts, and put the ſettlement in a very proſperous condition.

In this manner the colony continued, tho' not exempt from ſeveral invaſions of the Indians: but, after the reſtoration of King Charles II. peace and commerce were eſtabliſhed with the Indians by a law, and their boundaries preſcribed: ſeveral other acts were made ſuiting the neceſſity of the government; ſo that nothing then ſeemed to remain but the improvement of the country; upon which the duty of 2 s. *per* hogſhead on all tobaccos, and 1 s. *per* ton port-duty on ſhipping, were made perpetual, for ſupport of the government. Thus, not only the colony of Virginia was eſtabliſhed, but alſo all the other extenſive countries belonging to the Britiſh government on the northern coaſt of America, and in the iſlands of the Weſt Indies, ſituated between the Atlantic ocean, the North ſea, and the gulph of Mexico, comprehending the following diviſions and iſlands.

The ſeveral parts of the Britiſh empire on the continent of North America, except Hudſon's bay, or New Britain, lie contiguous, extending along the eaſtern coaſt from 31 deg. of northern latitude, to 50 and upwards; lying between the 63d and 83d degrees of weſtern longitude; and, as the coaſt is extended from the S. W. to the N. E. they are about 1500 miles in length, tho' generally under 200 miles broad, but in no places 400, unleſs the Iroquois, and other Indian nations under the protection of Great Britain, are included. All this part of the continent was originally called by the natives Apalacha, and by the Spaniards Florida. It was afterwards divided by the Engliſh into N. and S. Virginia; but it is now ſubdivided into the following provinces; Georgia, N. and S. Carolina, Virginia, Maryland, Penſylvania, New Jerſey, New York, New England, and Nova Scotia or Acadia; beſides a tenth province called New Britain, or the Terra de Labarador, which is much the ſame with the country called Hudſon's bay and ſtreights; being ſeparated from the reſt of the Britiſh territories by the river St. Lawrence, and part of the French Canada, extending from 50 to 64 deg. of N. lat. and lying between 60 and 90 deg. of weſtern lon. The Britiſh iſlands in America are, Barbadoes, St. Chriſtophers, Antigua, Montſerat, Nevis, Dominica, Barbuda, and Anguilla, among the Caribbees or Antilles; Jamaica, the Lucayas or Bahama iſlands, Newfoundland, and the iſlands of Bermudas, where upwards of 60,000 families have arrived, at different times, from England, for the colonization of theſe countries; which are divided as follows, according to their reſpective ſituations.

Georgia is a new province, denominated ſo in honour of K. Geo. II. being ſeparated from South Carolina by the river Savannah on the north; bounded by the ocean on the eaſt; by the river Alatamaha, which ſeparates it from Spaniſh Florida, on the ſouth; and by Indian Florida on the weſt; containing about 124 miles in length, from north to ſouth, and about 200 from eaſt to weſt. As the Indians were in poſſeſſion of this country, they were frequently ſtimulated by the Spaniards at Auguſtine, to make depredations on the ſouthern frontier of Carolina; therefore a charter for eſtabliſhing this colony was granted by his Britannic Majeſty, in 1733, to the Lord Viſcount Percival, and 19 other gentlemen, truſtees and proprietors of the colony, with the principal views of providing a ſubſiſtence for poor and indigent families at home, and making a barrier for South Carolina; which was effectually carried into execution under the conduct of General Oglethorpe, who eſtabliſhed a trade with the Indian nations adjacent to the colony; and, by his prudent behaviour, ſo attracted their affection as to make them retain the higheſt veneration and eſteem for ſo brave, ſo meritorious a governor, and at all times to ſhew an inviolable attachment to the Britiſh nation. The colony was ſpeedily and populouſly inhabited; Frederica, the capital town, was ſoon erected; as alſo Savannah, and ſeveral other towns built; beſides Hampſtead, Highgate, and ſome other villages, the whole defended by ſeveral forts.

The Indians ſupplied the colony annually with 10,000 lb. weight of deer-ſkins, beaver, and other furs; which were chiefly paid for in woollen goods and iron, being the produce and manufacture of England: and the colony gives the ſtrongeſt indications of amply rewarding her mother-country with a conſiderable produce of ſilk, cochineal, indigo, olives, oil, and cotton, if properly cultivated; but the government has lately taken it out of the hands of the truſtees.

Carolina, comprehending the two provinces of North and South Carolina, is bounded by Virginia on the north; the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt, Georgia on the South, and by Indian Florida on the weſt; extending from 32 to 36 deg. of N. lat. that is, on the weſt to the Apalachian mountains, which run through Florida from the S. W. to the N. E. at about 150 miles from the ocean. This colony

colony was eſtabliſhed in 1663, under a patent granted by King Charles II. to Edward Earl of Clarendon, and ſix other proprietors, who gave this denomination to the country, in honour of his Majeſty; but neglected to plant the colony, till the year 1670; when it was carried on, for a conſiderable time, with no manner of advantage, which was entirely owing to ſeveral miſunderſtandings between the proprietors. Therefore King George II. in 1728, purchaſed their ſeveral intereſts; and, ſince that time, it has been apparent, that it is the joint intereſt of prince and people to encourage theſe plantations; which, if well managed, may furniſh Great Britain, in time, with naval ſtores, ſilk, wine, and oil, which ſhe is at preſent compelled to purchaſe of foreigners; and, at the ſame time, advance her own manufactures, by exporting them to theſe colonies, in return for thoſe products, as alſo for the ſkins, furs, olives, rice, cotton, indigo, ginger, tobacco, ſarſaparilla, turmerick, and ſnakes-root, which are produced here in conſiderable quantities. South Carolina is divided into the four counties of Granville, Colleton, Berkley, and Craven; and North Carolina is divided into the two counties of Clarendon and Albemarle. The principal town of South Carolina is Charles-town, ſituated on the point of a peninſula formed by Aſhley and Cooper rivers; the former being navigable for ſhips 20 miles above the town, but for boats and pettiaugres about 40 miles: the other is not navigable for ſhips ſo far, tho' for leſſer veſſels much farther. The town of Beaufort, on the iſland of Port Royal, about 50 miles S. of Charles-town, is alſo a tolerable port, and the ſtation of the Britiſh ſquadron in thoſe ſeas; and Georgetown, about 50 miles to the north of Charles-town, is alſo a port of ſome reputation. But there has not yet been diſcovered any one good harbour on the coaſt of North Carolina; the beſt they have being at Roanoak, at the mouth of Albemarle river, and at Pimlico; tho' here ſhips have little ſecurity.

The trade of Carolina is ſo conſiderable, as to have employed annually 200 ſhips, laden with merchandiſes of the country; for it appears, from the cuſtom-houſe books, that, in the year 1730, there ſailed from Charles-town 207 ſhips, moſt of them for England; which carried, among other goods, 41,957 barrels of rice, about 500 lb. weight *per* barrel, 10,754 barrels of pitch, 2063 of tar, and 1159 of turpentine; 300 caſks of deer-ſkins, containing 8 or 900 each, which they purchaſe of the Indians for lead, powder, coarſe cloth, vermilion, and iron ware; beſides a great quantity of Indian corn, peaſe, beans, beef, pork, and other ſalted fleſh; with a conſiderable number of beams, planks, and timber for building, moſt part of cedar, cypreſs, ſaſſafras, oak, walnut, and pine.

As the mulberry-trees are very numerous, a good manufacture of ſilk may be eaſily eſtabliſhed; but the planters confine themſelves chiefly to the production of rice, pitch, and tar: however, it is to be obſerved, that North Carolina produces a good quantity of tobacco, and but little rice; as alſo that South Carolina, on the contrary, produces great quantities of rice, and little tobacco; but they are diſtinct colonies, under different governors.

Virginia, at preſent, is bounded by the river Potomack, which divides it from Maryland, on the north eaſt, by the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt, by North Carolina on the ſouth, and by the Apalachian mountains on the weſt; being ſituated between 36 and 39 deg. of N. lat. and between 74 and 80 deg. of W. lon. containing about 200 miles in length from north to ſouth, and about 130 from eaſt to weſt, of cultivated lands.

The colonization of this country has been already related: their principal trade is in tobacco; tho' all ſorts of naval ſtores may be produced there, which are neglected for the more general and profitable commodity of the country, as it affords a comfortable livelihood for the planters, employs yearly 200 large ſhips, and brings in a revenue of 200,000 l. annually to the Britiſh government, where their only foreign conſiderable trade is carried on. They had alſo a foreign trade to the Caribbee iſlands, where they exported lumber, corn, and fleſh; for which they took rum, ſugar, and molaſſes, in return; but New England, New York, and Carolina, have ſupplanted them in this branch of buſineſs.

The Virginia tobacco is of two kinds; the York river, or ſweet-ſcented, which is generally for the conſumption of Great Britain, being eſteemed the beſt in the world; and the Oronoac, which is hotter in the mouth, and is ſent from England to Holland, Germany, Denmark, Sweden, and Ruſſia; where 30,000 hogſheads have been exported in a year; and granting 4 l. a hogſhead to be cleared by them at foreign markets, the profit is 120,000 l. See *Tobacco*.

Virginia abounds in oaks, cedars, pines, cypreſſes, cheſnut-trees, elm, aſh, beech, ſaſſafras, hickories, and ſome other trees. It has plenty of paſture-ground, well ſtored with cattle; alſo mines of coal, iron, and lead, as well as quarries of ſtone.

The principal towns are Williamſburgh, and James-town: but neither of theſe are any ways conſiderable; for every planter chuſes to reſide upon his eſtate, and moſt of them lie adjacent to the principal rivers, where ſhips can come almoſt up to their doors, and take in their tobacco; ſo that tho' the country is extremely populous, there are no well inhabited towns in the whole province. However, the country is very convenient for navigation, where ſhips enter, between Cape Charles and Cape Henry, into the great bay of Cheſepeak; which runs up through Virginia and Maryland, almoſt due north, 300 miles and upwards; being about 28 miles over in the entrance, in moſt places about 20 miles broad, and navigable almoſt all the way for ſhips of conſiderable burthen; beſides, four great rivers fall into the weſt-ſide of this bay, which riſe in the Apalachian mountains, all of them running from the N. W. to the S. E. The moſt ſoutherly of theſe is James-river, called by the Indians Powhaton, being generally about two miles over, and navigable at leaſt 80 miles: York river, whoſe Indian name was Pamunky, is a little to the northward of James river: north of York river is the river of Rappahanock; the two laſt being equally broad with York river; and to the northward of Rappahanock is the river Patowmack, being navigable near 200 miles, and from 7 to 9 miles broad.

Maryland was granted, under patent, to Lord Baltimore in 1631, by King Charles I. who gave it this denomination in honour of his Queen Henrietta-Maria; being a colony ſituated between the 38th and 40th degrees of northern latitude, and between the 74th and 78th degrees of weſtern longitude. The north end of the bay of Cheſepeak divides Maryland into two parts, called the Eaſtern and Weſtern ſhores, which are bounded by part of Penſylvania and the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt, by Virginia on the ſouth, and by the Apalachian mountains on the weſt; being about 140 miles long from north to ſouth, tho' not ſo broad from eaſt to weſt.

This colony has the advantage of ſeveral fine navigable rivers, as well as Virginia; the Patuxent and Severn being on the weſtern ſhore; and, on the other ſide, the Chiptonk, Cheſter, and Saſſafra. The principal towns are Annapolis, and St. Mary's, both convenient ports; but the ſame humour prevails among the inhabitants here as in Virginia, of living on their reſpective plantations, and not in towns. Lord Baltimore took ſuch care in eſtabliſhing the colony, that he had little interruption from the Indians; whereby Maryland ſoon became a rival to Virginia in the cultivation of tobacco, and the heir of that noble family is now the proprietor of this colony.

The Maryland tobacco, which is generally called *Oroonoko*, is ſtronger than that of Virginia, and employs 150 ſhips yearly; but its greateſt demand is for the eaſtern and northern parts of Europe.

This province is divided into eleven counties; St. Mary's, Charles, Prince George, Calvert, Anne-Arundel, and Baltimore counties, being on the weſtern ſide of the bay; and Somerſet, Dorcheſter, Talbot, Kent, and Cecil counties, being on the eaſtern ſide.

The barter of tobacco in the provinces of Virginia and Maryland anſwers all the uſes of gold and ſilver; all the neceſſaries of life being ſold for tobacco, inſtead of money.

Penſylvania, New York, and New Jerſey, were firſt inhabited by the Dutch, but were reduced, or ceded, to the ſubjection of the crown of England under the reign of King Charles the Second, in 1684, who transferred them to his brother the Duke of York; and his Highneſs par-

celled them out to under-proprietors, among whom William Pen, Eſq; a quaker, obtained this part of the country, which he called after his own name, the province being now a propriety in that family. This colony lies between 39 and 42 deg. of N. lat. and between 75 and 79 deg. of weſtern lon. being bounded by the country of the Iroquois, or five Indian nations, on the north; by New York and New Jerſey, from which it is ſeparated for the moſt part by De la War bay and river, on the eaſt; and by Maryland on the ſouth and weſt; containing about 200 miles in length from north to ſouth, but of an unequal breadth. There are ſeveral navigable rivers in this colony, which give large ſhips a commodious paſſage up into the heart of the country; but of theſe the river De la War is the moſt remarkable, which riſing far north in the country of the Iroquois, and dividing this province from that of New Jerſey, falls into the Atlantic ocean, between the promontories of Cape May and Cape Hinlopen; being navigable for 200 miles and upwards with large veſſels, whereby this country is rendered admirably well ſituated for a foreign trade.

The city of Philadelphia being a large, populous, and extenſive place, is the capital of the province, and is ſituated upon the river De la War, in 40 deg. 30 min. N. lat.; The town of Newcaſtle is alſo a conſiderable port, and there are ſeveral other places well inhabited.

The produce of Penſylvania conſiſts in horſes, pipe-ſtaves, pork, beef, and fiſh, ſalted and barrelled up, ſkins, and furs; all ſorts of grain, as wheat, rye, peaſe, oats, barley, buck-wheat, Indian corn, Indian peaſe and beans; pot-aſhes, wax, ſome little quantities of rice and tobacco, and ſome other inferior articles, which they chiefly export to the Caribbee iſlands; from whence they receive, in return, rum, ſugar, molaſſes, ſilver, negroes, ſalt, and wine. They ſend ſome of their corn into Europe; and they receive from Great Britain, houſhold-goods, cloathing of all kinds, hard-ware, tools, and toys. But their trade with the Indians is chiefly in the ſkins and furs of wild beaſts; for which they exchange cloathing, arms, ammunition, rum, and other ſpirits.

The inhabitants of this province have ſet up no remarkable manufacture of their own; nor can they be ſaid to have any ſtaple-commodity; tho', from the ſituation of Philadelphia, it commands a flouriſhing trade.

New Jerſey, and *New York*, are both royal governments; the former lying between 74 and 76 deg. of W. lon. and between 39 and 41 deg of N. lat. about 140 miles in length from north to ſouth, and 60 miles from eaſt to weſt; being bounded on the north by Hudſon's river, which divides it from New York; by the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt and ſouth; and by De la War bay and river, which ſeparate it from Penſylvania, on the weſt; the province being uſually ſubdivided into Eaſt and Weſt Jerſey, having generally the ſame governor with New York, but by a diſtinct commiſſion.

New York is bounded by the river of St. Lawrence, which ſeparates it from Canada, on the north-weſt and north; by New England, and the Atlantic ocean, on the eaſt and ſouth; and by Eaſt Jerſey, from which it is ſeparated by the river De la War, on the weſt; lying between 76 and 80 deg. of weſtern lon. excluſive of Long Iſland, the eaſt-end whereof lies in 72 deg. of weſtern lon. and between 41 and 47 deg. of N. lat. However, the Iroquois, and their allies, inhabit the countries between theſe provinces, and the lakes of Erie, Champlain, and Ontario; where they form a ſecure boundary againſt the French of Canada, and carry on a conſiderable trade in beaver-ſkins with the Engliſh.

There are ſeveral navigable rivers in theſe countries; but the principal is Hudſon's river, which riſes from a ſmall lake between the lakes of Ontario and Champlain, continuing its courſe due ſouth, when it falls into the ſea between Long Iſland and Staten Iſland.

New Jerſey is about 140 miles long upon the coaſt, and about 80 broad; Eaſt Jerſey being divided into the counties of Monmouth, Middleſex, Eſſex, and Bergen; but Weſt Jerſey conſiſts only of the county of Cape May.

The principal towns in New Jerſey are Burlington, ſituated in an iſland in the middle of the river De la War; Perth-Amboy, in Eaſt Jerſey, pleaſantly ſituated at the mouth of Raritan river; and Elizabeth town, N. of Perth-Amboy; which rivers are navigable for ſhips of burthen.

New York is about 200 miles long from ſouth to north, and about 25 miles broad; being divided into the counties of Richmond, Suffolk, Queen's county, New York county, Cheſter, King's county, Orange, Ducheſs, and Albany; but the five laſt counties are ſaid to be inhabited by Dutch, or ſuch as are of Dutch deſcent. There are alſo Staten Iſland, and Long Iſland, or Naſſau Iſland, before the mouth of Hudſon's river; the former being about 14 miles long, and 8 broad; the latter about 120 miles in length, and 18 in breadth; as likewiſe the iſland of Manahattan, or Manhatan, at the mouth of Hudſon's river, being about 12 miles long, and 3 broad.

The principal place in New York, is the city of New York, ſituated on Manahattan iſland; being a large, handſome, and populous place; where there is an excellent harbour, furniſhed with commodious keys and warehouſes, from whence ſome hundreds of ſhips and veſſels are annually employed in its foreign trade and fiſheries; Kingſton, New Albany, and Schenectada, are alſo places of trade.

The commodities of theſe colonies are much the ſame as thoſe of Penſylvania, conſiſting of the ſame ſort of grain, fleſh, fiſh, timber, and cattle, beſides ſome tobacco, peaſe, apples, onions, flour, pipe-ſtaves, and ſtrong beer, which they export to the Britiſh and other foreign ſugar-colonies; receiving, in exchange, rum, ſugar, molaſſes, cocoa, indigo, logwood, cotton, wool, and other articles. They likewiſe ſend their fiſh and pipe-ſtaves to the Madera and Azores iſlands; from whence they receive wine and brandy; and they deal largely with the Indians for furs and ſkins. They are alſo employed in the fiſhery for whales, as well as cod-fiſh; which they carry to ſeveral parts of Europe; bringing the rum, molaſſes, logwood, cocoa, whale oil and bone, to England; which, with a conſiderable quantity of money, ſerve to make up the deficiency on the ballance of trade there, from whence they are ſupplied with furniture, tools, hardware, and the woollen manufactures.

New England received its denomination from K. Charles I. when Prince of Wales; being ſituated between 41 and 45 deg. of N. lat. and between 67 and 73 deg. of weſtern lon. comprehending the ſeveral colonies or governments of the Maſſachuſets, New Hampſhire, Connecticut, and Rhode Iſland, with Providence plantation; bounded by Canada on the north-weſt, by Nova Scotia on the north-eaſt, by the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt and ſouth, and by New York on the weſt; the whole length extending 300 miles, and from 100 to 200 broad.

The four provinces have different conſtitutions, and generally different governors; but the Maſſachuſet colony is ſuperior to the reſt in opulence, trade, and number of inhabitants; its principal town being Boſton, ſituated on a peninſula at the bottom of a fine bay, being a very commodious and flouriſhing port. The principal town of Connecticut, is New London; of Rhode Iſland, Newport; and of New Hampſhire, Portſmouth.

There are ſeveral navigable rivers in this country, as the Connecticut, the Thames, the Patuxet, the Merrimech, the Piſcataway, the Saco, the Caſco, and ſome others; but the moſt remarkable is that of Piſcataway, which runs from W. to E. and falls into the ſea near the town of Portſmouth in Hampſhire; the mouth of which is more like an arm of the ſea than a river, being capable of receiving the largeſt ſhips.

All theſe colonies abound in grain, and the ſame proviſions as thoſe of Penſylvania and New York: the foreſt-trees, and others, are cedar, oak, aſh, elm, cypreſs, pine, fir, aſpin, beech, walnut, cheſnut, hazel, ſaſſafras, ſumack, and other woods uſed in dying and tanning leather. Their fir-trees are of an uncommon growth, and furniſh the royal navy of England with maſts and yards; they draw alſo from theſe, and other trees, pitch, tar, roſin, turpentine, gums, and balms uſed in phyſic and ſurgery: beſides, the ſoil is proper for hemp and flax; ſo that a ſhip may be built and rigged out with the produce of the ſoil, which makes ſhip-building a conſiderable employment

in this country; where the merchants build them for their Britiſh correſpondents, which are freighted full from Boſton to the Weſt Indies; and very often the profit is equal to that of the freight to England. They have alſo many noble advantages, by carrying on a whale-fiſhery in Greenland, and a cod-fiſhery on the banks of Newfoundland; beſides, the ſperma-ceti whale is found upon their own coaſt; by which means they principally ſupply their mother-country with whale-bone and whale-oil. They employ near 500 ſail of ſhips, with 4000 ſeamen, annually in their trade, which they alſo carry on to the Britiſh ſugar-colonies, and the Dutch at Surinam and Curaſſou, where they ſend horſes, ſeveral kinds of live ſtock, ſalt proviſions of fleſh and fiſh, flour, peaſe, cyder, butter, onions, oils, turpentine, ſhips, and lumber, that is, deal-boards, pipe-ſtaves, hoops, and ſhingles. To the ſouthern colonies they ſend rum, molaſſes, imported ſalt for the fiſhery, and all ſorts of proviſions. They alſo ſend their ſhips to the bay of Honduras for logwood, which they tranſport to Europe, as they alſo do ſugar from the Weſt Indies. They manufacture coarſe linen and woollen cloth for their own uſe, as well as iron tools and utenſils; beſides, they have manufactures of hats and paper, from which the Britiſh merchants endeavour to divert them, as being prejudicial to their mother-country, tho' their imports from thence have been computed at 300,000 l. a year; but if Great Britain would encourage their raiſing naval ſtores, and their works of iron, this would prove extremely advantageous to both; becauſe naval ſtores are now imported from Norway, and other places in the Baltic, to Great Britain in foreign bottoms; as alſo is iron from Sweden, which drains the nation of immenſe ſums of money.

Nova Scotia, or *New Scotland*, comprehending Acadia, is bounded by the bay and river of St. Lawrence on the north-eaſt and north-weſt; by the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt; by the ſame ocean, and the bay of Fundi, on the ſouth; and by part of Canada, and part of New England, on the weſt; lying between 43 and 51 deg. of N. lat. and beween 63 and 70 deg. of W. lon. being about 500 miles in length from north to ſouth, and about 300 miles from eaſt to weſt.

This country was formerly inhabited by a Scotch colony, ſent over, in 1622, by William Alexander, then Lord Secretary of Scotland: but that colony failing, the French took poſſeſſion of the country, calling it by the name of Acadia; tho', by the treaty of Utrecht, the whole country was conceded to the crown of Great Britain.

The French had eſtabliſhed a conſiderable ſettlement there; and the Engliſh fortified Annapolis and Canſo, which were the only conſiderable improvements that were undertaken in this colony, till the year 1749; when the government of Great Britain ſent about 4000 coloniſts there, with four regiments of ſoldiers, to form a regular province, under the direction of the Hon. Edward Cornwallis, Eſq; who was appointed Captain-General and Governor in chief of the colony, and formed a ſettlement at the head of Chiboctou harbour, in the very centre of the ſouthern coaſt of the province, having Annapolis on the left, and Canſo on the right, where he founded the town of Hallifax; ſince which the colony has proceeded in a tolerable manner; tho' attended with ſome inconveniencies by the reſentment of the Indians, inſtigated by the French of Canada, to interrupt the plantation of the coloniſts.

By a proper colonization of Proteſtants in ſo valuable a tract of territory, more than an equal participation of the profits of the French fiſhery at Cape Breton muſt fall to the Engliſh; a potent barrier is erected for the ſecurity of the Britiſh provinces in North America, and a perpetual ſeminary for ſailors may be eſtabliſhed. Great were the advantages to be expected from the formation of this colony; becauſe it is equally commodious with Newfoundland for the fiſhery; its harbours are ſo numerous and fine, as not to be exceeded in any part of the world; it abounds with ſalmon, and almoſt all kinds of freſh water fiſh, and has a great plenty of wild-fowl; its woods are ſtocked with deer, and an uncommon variety of furred animals, eſpecially beavers, whoſe ſkins the Indians exchange for European goods. The ſoil is very fertile, producing all kinds of grain and proviſions; the country is covered with aſh, beech, elm, firs, maple, cedar, and pines, fit for naval uſes; beſides, it abounds with lime-ſtones, and fine quarries for building.

New Britain, or *Terra de Labarador*, and *Hudſon's bay*, are ſeparated from Nova Scotia by the river of St. Lawrence, and part of Canada; extending from 49 to 64 deg. of N. lat. lying between 60 and 90 deg. of W. lon. This cold inhoſpitable country is but thinly inhabited with Indians; and the only part of it planted by any Europeans was the bottom, and the weſt-ſide of Hudſon's bay; where the Engliſh have four or five little forts and factories, the principal being Fort Albany, where the Hudſon's bay company trade for furs and ſkins, to the value of 20,000 l. prime coſt annually; of which three fourths are beaver-ſkins. See *Hudſon's bay company*.

As for the Britiſh iſlands in America, it may be proper to begin with the *Bermuda*, or *Summer Iſlands*, which were diſcovered in 1522 by one Bermuda, a Spaniard; but Sir George Summers happening to run his ſhip a-ground here, in a voyage to Virginia, in the year 1609, found them deſerted; and the Engliſh have been in poſſeſſion of them ever ſince. They are a cluſter of ſmall iſlands, ſuppoſed to be 400 in number, and lying in a very narrow compaſs, almoſt in the ſhape of a ſhepherd's crook, containing only about 20,000 good acres, and not above one eighth part of them inhabited; being ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, in 32 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. and in 65 deg. of W. lon. about 250 leagues eaſt of Charles-town in South Carolina.

Theſe iſlands contain about 10,000 Engliſh people, beſides their ſlaves, being eſteemed the Montpelier of America for health; nor are they more remarkable for their health than their plenty. The inhabitants rear little ſugar or tobacco, and admit no convicts to be tranſported here; but apply themſelves principally to the making of joinery work, building of ſloops for ſale in the Weſt Indies, making hats of palmeto-leaves, raiſing corn, fruit, garden-ſtuff, and other proviſions, which they ſend to the other plantations; beſides theſe, they have commodities of ſilk, ſome cochineal, oranges, tortoiſe-ſhell, ambergreaſe, and pearls: but the European merchandiſes, fit for the Bermudas, are wines, brandy, corn, Iriſh beef, ſtuffs, and cloths.

The government belongs to the crown; and the chief town is that of St. George, ſituated in the N. W. part of theſe iſlands, on an iſland of the ſame name, which is about 16 miles long, and 3 broad, walled round in a manner with rocks; whereby it is rendered inacceſſible to pirates or enemies, there being but two narrow entrances, both of them well guarded by forts.

The iſland of *Newfoundland* is the moſt eaſterly part of North America; being ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, between 47 and 52 deg. of N. lat. and between 55 and 60 deg. of W. lon. ſeparated from New Britain by the narrow ſtreights of Belleiſle, and from Canada by the bay of St. Lawrence, containing 350 miles in length, and 200 in breadth; which was diſcovered by Sebaſtian Cabot in 1497, but more particularly by Thorn and Elliot, of Briſtol, in 1527; and the Engliſh title thereto being renewed, in the name of Queen Elizabeth, in 1583, a colony was ſettled there about thirty years afterwards.

As the French and Portugueſe fiſhed on the coaſts, and carried on a trade with the Indians for ſkins and furs, the Engliſh objected againſt ſuch proceedings, inſiſting on the ſole right of fiſhing on the coaſt, which was conceded to them by the French and Portugueſe in the reign of Ja. I. but, in the reign of Charles II. the French were ſuffered to ſettle at Placentia, and afterwards poſſeſſed themſelves of great part of the iſland: however, by the 13th article of the treaty of Utrecht, they entirely relinquiſhed the whole iſland to the Britiſh crown; reſerving a liberty to catch fiſh, and dry them on the land, from Cape Bonaviſta to the northern point of the iſland, and from thence to Point Riche on the weſtern ſide; tho' the French are not to fortify any place in Newfoundland, or erect any buildings there, beſides ſtages, and huts, uſual for drying of fiſh; nor are they to reſort to the iſland beyond the neceſſary time for fiſhing, and drying of fiſh.

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This iſland is an exceeding mountainous, ſteril country: however, the poverty of the land is compenſated by the abundance of cod, and other fiſh, ſwarming, in innumerable ſhoals, on the adjacent fiſhing-banks; which have proved an inexhauſtible fund of wealth to the Engliſh, French, and other European nations, for 100 years paſt; eſpecially to the former, who thereby bring an increaſe of between 3 and 400,000 l. yearly to the national ſtock, beſides the profits of the merchants, tradeſmen, and mariners; there being ſeldom leſs than 5 or 600 ſail of ſhips of all nations, of which 150 are Engliſh, that load with cod-fiſh here, every ſeaſon, for the Mediterranean, and other parts of Europe. The principal bank lies about 20 leagues from Cape Race, the ſouth-weſt promontory, being about 100 leagues long, and 25 broad. There is another to the weſtward, called Green-bank, about 25 leagues in length, and 12 in breadth; where the fiſhing-ſeaſon continues from the vernal till the autumnal equinox, and of late ſomething longer. The coaſt affords abundance of commodious bays and harbours; and the principal towns are St. John's, Placentia, and Bonaviſta; which are ſmall places, and thinly inhabited. See *Cod-fiſhery*.

The *Bahama*, or *Lucaya Iſlands*, are the moſt eaſterly of all the Antilles; being ſo numerous as to have been computed to be between 4 and 500; ſome of which are 160 miles long, but are only rocks riſing above the water. They are bounded by the Atlantic ocean, and the coaſt of Florida, on the north and eaſt; by the gulph of Florida on the weſt, and by Cuba and Hiſpaniola on the ſouth; ſtretching from N. E. to S. W. between the 21ſt and 27th deg. of N. lat. and between the 73d and 81ſt deg. of W. lon.

The principal iſlands are Bahama, Providence, Eleuthera, and Harbour iſland; Lucayonequa, Andros, and Cigateo, Guanahani, Yumeta, Samana, Mayagnana, Exuma, Ynagua, Caicos, and Triangulo; but the reſt are rather barren rocks than iſlands.

The iſland of Bahama is between 40 and 50 miles long, and about 16 broad; but it is thinly inhabited, and productive of nothing but Indian wheat, fowl, and rabbits.

Providence is the ſeat of government, which is about 25 miles long, and 21 broad, lying in the center of many other iſlands; its principal commerce ariſing from the misfortunes of ſhipwrecked mariners, whom the people of Providence ſupply with proviſions, which they have from Carolina: however, the iſland produces ſome ſalt, and braziletto wood.

Theſe iſlands were the firſt part of America diſcovered by Columbus; when the adjacent ſeas abounded in pearl-fiſheries, in which employment the avaritious Spaniards ſoon exterminated the whole race of Indians in the Bahamas; afterwards Providence, and the neighbouring iſlands, became the refuge of pirates, and buccaneers: however, King Charles II. eſtabliſhed a colony at Providence, which in 1718 was made a royal government, and is commodiouſly ſituated to command the navigation of the gulph of Florida, thro' which the Spaniards convey all their wealth to Europe.

Jamaica is ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, between 76 and 79 deg. of W. lon. and 17 and 19 deg. of N. lat. lying near 5000 miles S. W. of England, about 100 miles S. of Cuba, 70 W. of Hiſpaniola, and upwards of 350 miles to the N. of Porto Bello, and Carthagena, on the coaſt of Terra Firma; containing about 140 miles in length, and about 60 in breadth. This iſland was diſcovered by Columbus in 1493, and ſoon afterwards planted by the Spaniards; who cultivated the plantations, ſtocked the country, erected conſiderable towns, and continued in poſſeſſion till the year 1656; when Admiral Pen and General Venables were ſent by the uſurper Cromwell to reduce Hiſpaniola, where they were diſappointed in their attempt; when, to ſave their reputation, they invaded, and made a compleat conqueſt of Jamaica; which the Spaniards have been ſo far from attempting to recover, that they yielded and confirmed it to Great Britain, by a ſubſequent treaty of peace.

The principal commodities of this iſland are ſugar, rum, tobacco, cocoa, coffee, ginger, indigo, cotton, long pepper, caſſia, tamarines, guaiacum, china-root, ſarſaparilla, venellas gums and roots, ſalt, and piemento. The foreſts afford prickle-pear, and ſeveral other woods, for dying; as well as mahogony, and other timber, both for houſhold ornament, and building of ſhips: the wild bulls and cows of the mountains afford tallow and hides; beſides, the great quantity of tortoiſes that, in certain ſeaſons of the year, reſort the coaſts, are no indifferent object of the Jamaica commerce. However, ſugar, rum, and logwood are the moſt conſiderable articles of their merchandiſe, in both of which the inhabitants have found a conſiderable diminution; becauſe the low value of ſugar may be very juſtly attributed to the great improvement the French have made in their ſugar-colonies, by the encouragement given them; particularly in allowing them to export their commodities to foreign markets, without firſt introducing them into any of the ports of France; and from the lowneſs of their duties, by which, and being under no neceſſity of double voyages, they could afford to underſel the planters of Jamaica. As logwood is the product of Jucutan, a peninſula, on each ſide whereof are the bays of Campeachy and Honduras, the Spaniards have greatly interrupted them in this trade, by ſeizing and confiſcating the ſhips in that employment, which they pretended to be illicit; tho' the Engliſh have frequently aſſerted their right to that branch of traffic, which will be more amply expatiated upon under the article of *Spaniſh America*. But here it may be proper to obſerve the importance of this trade, by the importation of logwood into Great Britain, from the year 1713 to 1716; which was, *communibus annis*, 3741 tons, computed at 60,000 l. a year; beſides, there are generally made 33,000 hogſheads of ſugar annually in Jamaica, and 20,000 hogſheads of rum.

The merchants of Jamaica generally employ 300 ſhips annually in the exportation of their commodities, which are principally ſent to Great Britain; from whence they receive woollen and linen cloths, laces, cambrics, hats, ſhoes, ſtockings, ſilks, ribbands, hardware, wines, brandy, beer, cyder, ſalt fiſh, ſalt fleſh, butter, cheeſe, ſoap, candles, and other commodities; for which they pay a conſiderable ballance in ſpecie. They alſo pay bullion for proviſions, and other goods, from the northern colonies; tho' this bullion is obtained by carrying on a prohibited trade with the inhabitants of Carthagena, Porto Bello, and other places on the Spaniſh main; where they diſpoſe of great quantities of the Britiſh manufactures for Spaniſh coin, and bullion.

Jamaica is very populouſly inhabited, having many commodious harbours; of which Port Royal is the chief, and the ſtation of the royal navy: beſides, there are ſeveral large towns on the iſland; of which Kingſton, and St. Jago de la Vega, or Spaniſh-town, are the principal; tho' the latter is the ſeat of government, which is under the appointment of the crown.

The Britiſh ſettlements among the *Antilles*, or *Caribbee Iſlands*, are St. Chriſtopher's, Antigua, Nevis, Montſerat, Anguilla, Barbuda, and Dominica, as alſo Barbadoes; all of them productive of the ſame ſort of merchandiſe, which generally conſiſts in ſugar, and rum extracted from the molaſſes or droſs of the ſugar.

St. Chriſtopher's is ſituated in 17 deg. 25 min. of N. lat. and in 62 deg. 40 min. W. lon. about 15 leagues W. of Antigua, to which the celebrated Chriſtopher Columbus gave his Chriſtian name; being about 22 miles long, and 7 broad, and formerly jointly poſſeſſed by the Engliſh and French; but the whole iſland was yielded to the Engliſh by the 24th article of the treaty of Utrecht.

The place is well ſtocked with inhabitants, who uſually make about 10,000 hogſheads of ſugar yearly. They alſo raiſe ſome tobacco, indigo, and ginger; but ſugar, rum, and molaſſes, are their principal commodities; the former being in a manner the current money of the iſland, which they ſhip for England, in exchange for the neceſſaries of life; as alſo to the northern colonies, for horſes, timber, negroes, and proviſions.

Antigua lies to the eaſt of Nevis and St. Chriſtopher's, in 62 deg. of W. lon. and 17 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. being about 20 miles long, and as many broad. It produces about 1600 hogſheads of ſugar, tho' not half that quan-

tity of rum; and they have alſo ſome indigo, ginger, and coarſe tobacco.

Nevis is ſituated in 62 deg. of W. lon. and 17 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. being divided from the eaſt-end of St. Chriſtopher's by a narrow channel. It is about 18 miles in circumference, containing about 3000 white people, and 4000 negroes employed in the ſugar-trade, who make about 6000 hogſheads yearly; but the iſland alſo produces ſome tobacco, cotton, and ginger.

Montſerat lies in 62 deg. of W. lon. and 17 deg. of N. lat. about 24 miles S. W. of Antigua; being about 18 miles in compaſs, and producing about 2500 hogſheads of ſugar yearly; as alſo ſome indigo.

Anguilla is ſituated in 63 deg. of W. lon. and 18 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. 100 miles N. of St. Chriſtopher's. Barbuda lies N. E. from Montſerat, being about 15 miles long, and containing about 1200 inhabitants. Dominica lies about 140 miles N. W. of Barbadoes, being about 40 miles long, and as many broad in ſome parts. But theſe 3 iſlands, as well as thoſe of St. Lucia, Tobago, and St. Vincent, are no ways remarkable for trade. The 4 latter have been alternately in poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, the French, and the Dutch; and, notwithſtanding their ſoil is productive of the ſame commodities as the other Antilles, they ſtill remain uncultivated; and the propriety of them is ſtill indeterminately held in ſuſpenſe between the crowns of Great Britain and France, who have called them neutral iſlands: but the French have too much infringed upon this neutrality, by almoſt formally ſettling in theſe iſlands.

Barbadoes, is imagined to have received its name from the Spaniards, or Portugueſe, who pretended that the original inhabitants were barbarians, as well as thoſe of the adjacent iſlands, who were erroneouſly eſteemed canibals; which occaſioned their country to be denominated the Caribbees. This iſland is the moſt conſiderable of all the Britiſh iſlands in America, excepting Jamaica: it is ſituated in 13 deg. of N. lat. and 59 deg of W. lon. being 25 miles long, and 15 broad; the whole country being almoſt an entire plantation of ſugar-canes; though they have ſome cotton, indico, ginger, piemento, lignum-vitæ, maſtic, and fuſtick. The firſt colonization of this iſland was in the reign of K. Cha I. who granted the propriety of it to James Earl of Carliſle; but K. Cha. II. in 1661, purchaſed the propriety of the Lord Kinoul, heir to the Earl of Carliſle; ſince which time it has been a government under the crown. Sugar, and alſo fruit in general, are become the ſtaple commodities of Barbadoes, which abounds in all ſorts of oranges and lemons, citrons, limes, tamarinds, pine-apples, and others. It has alſo the cotton, cedar, maſtic, cocoa, fig, and bulley-trees; as likewiſe the locuſt tree, lignum-vitæ, and red-wood: beſides plants of ginger, and red-pepper. Barbadoes receives from Great Britain and Ireland, linen and woollen goods, ſilks and ſtuffs, laces, braſs and copper wares, iron utenſils, for the ſugar-works; peaſe, beans, and oats; butter, cheeſe, and candles; wine, beer, and ale; hard-ware, gun-powder, and ſhot: India goods, millinary wares, toys, coals, and hoops. The Barbadians alſo receive corn, flour, rice, tobacco, cattle, fleſh, and ſalted fiſh, from the northern colonies: and wine from Madeira and the Azores.

The exports of Barbadoes conſiſt in ſugar, rum, moloſſes, cotton, indigo, lignum-vitæ, ginger, fruit, and citron-water; which formerly employed 400 ſail of ſhips, whoſe cargo amounted to 350,000 l. yearly: but the French colonies have greatly diminiſhed this trade: however there were, in 1730, 22,769 hogſheads of ſugar exported from this iſland to Great Britain, which ought to produce 14,000 hogſheads of rum; becauſe, 3 hogſheads of ſugar ought to produce 2 hogſheads of rum.

There are about 20,000 white inhabitants on this iſland; and about 100,000 negro ſlaves. The principal town is Bridge-town, in Carliſle bay; which is a convenient port, and the only one of ſecurity belonging to the iſland: nor have they any ſtream that deſerves the name of a river.

Remarks on the BRITISH *colonies in America.* There were originally three ſorts of governments eſtabliſhed by the Engliſh in America; being royal governments, governments by charter, and proprietary governments. A royal government is properly ſo called, becauſe the colony is immediately dependant on the crown, and the King remains ſovereign of the province; appointing the governor, council, and officers of ſtate; the people only electing their repreſentatives: ſuch are the governments of Virginia, New Hampſhire, New York, New Jerſey, both Carolinas, and all the principal iſlands in the Weſt Indies, where the ſalary of the government is paid by the coloniſts. A charter government was a company incorporated by the royal charter, inveſted with a ſort of ſovereign authority, to eſtabliſh what ſort of government they ſaw moſt expedient: and theſe charter governments have generally thought fit to transfer their authority to the populace; for, in theſe governments, the freemen not only elect their repreſentatives, but annually chuſe their governor, council, and magiſtrates; making laws without the concurrence, or even knowledge, of the King; being under no other reſtraint than to enact no law contrary to thoſe of England; for if they do, their charters are liable to be forfeited: ſuch is the government of Rhode iſland; but the other colonies in New England have ſome alteration in their original conſtitution; for though the appointment of the governor is reſerved for the crown, yet the houſe of repreſentatives chuſe the council, and the governor and council appoint the magiſtrates and officers of ſtate: from whence it appears, that the government of the Maſſachuſets is, in ſome inſtances, different from either of the two former ſpecies of government; or rather a mixture of both. A proprietary government, is where the proprietor is veſted with ſovereign authority, appointing the governor, council, and magiſtrates; the repreſentatives of the people being ſummoned in his name; when he, by their advice, enacts laws without the concurrence of the crown: but, by a late ſtatute, the proprietor muſt have the conſent of his Britannic Majeſty in the appointing a governor, when the proprietor does not perſonally reſide in the plantation; and of a deputy governor, when he does. And by another ſtatute, all the governors of the plantations are liable to be called to an account for male-adminiſtration by the court of king's bench in England: but Maryland and Penſylvania, are the only proprietary governments now exiſting; except Barbuda, which belongs to Chriſtopher Codrington, Eſq.

It has been the invariable maxim of all the politer nations, to regulate their government to the beſt advantage of their trading intereſt: becauſe, the opulence, and potency, of any trading nation are principally dependant on its commerce; the increaſe of wealth, and power, having generally been proportionate to the enlargement of trade; and hiſtory fully proves that ruin and deſolation have always attended the loſs of it: the moſt flouriſhing countries are indebted to it for their grandeur; and the moſt opulent, and powerful, have been impoveriſhed, and ſubjugated, by neglecting it: of which Great Britain, and the republic of the United Provinces, are remarkable inſtances of the one; as the ſtates of Venice, and Genoa, are of the other. Great Britain has enjoyed the benefit of a moſt extenſive commerce ſince the diſcovery of America; which, if properly attended to, will contribute more to its future intereſt than any other branches of trade; by enlarging the demand for all its manufactures, and increaſing the means of its naval force: wherefore, it may be proper to take a curſory view of the principal benefits ariſing to Great Britain from the trade of the colonies.

The American plantations take off, and conſume, above one ſixth part of the woollen manufactures exported from Great Britain; which is the chief ſtaple of England, and main ſupport of the landed intereſt. They take off, and conſume, more than double that value in linen, and calicoes, which are either the product of Britain and Ireland, or partly the profitable returns made for that product carried to foreign countries. The luxury of the colonies, which increaſes daily, conſumes great quantities of Engliſh manufactured ſilk, haberdaſhery, houſhold-furniture, and trinkets of all ſorts; as alſo a very conſiderable value in Eaſt India goods.

A great revenue is raiſed to the Britiſh government by returns made in the produce of the plantations; eſpecially in tobacco, which, at the ſame, enables England to bring

her unprofitable trade with France nearer to a balance. Theſe colonies promote the intereſt and trade of Britain, by a vaſt increaſe of ſhipping and ſeamen; which enables them to carry great quantities of fiſh to Spain, Portugal, Italy, and Turky; as alſo furs, logwood, and rice to Holland; whereby they are particularly contributary to Great Britain in enhancing the balance of trade with thoſe countries. If reaſonably encouraged, the colonies are now in a condition to furniſh Great Britain with naval ſtores, oil, roſin, copper-ore, and with pig and bar iron, as much as it can demand; by which means the balance of trade to Ruſſia, Sweden, and Norway, may be conſiderably reduced in favour of Great Britain. The profits ariſing to all theſe colonies by trade, is returned in bullion, or other uſeful effects, to Great Britain; where the ſuperfluous caſh, and other riches, acquired in America muſt center; which is not one of the leaſt ſecurities that Great Britain has to keep the colonies always in due ſubjection. The colonies upon the northern continent are the granaries of America, and a neceſſary ſupport to the ſugar plantations; which could not ſubſiſt without them. Never any people were poſſeſſed of ſo fine a country, and ſo happily ſituated, as that which is ſubject to the crown of Great Britain on the other ſide of the Atlantic ocean; a country of 1,500 miles extent; where every thing that is neceſſary, every thing deſirable in life, is, or may be, produced, in the greateſt abundance, and brought to the metropolis of Great Britain with as little labour and expence almoſt as they may be brought from any diſtant county in England; it being but a ſix weeks voyage in an open ſea, not ſubject to the interruptions and accidents of coaſting voyages.

The eaſtern ſhores of America, on which the Britiſh colonies are ſituated, abound in commodious harbours and navigable rivers; inſomuch that ſhips take in their lading in many places at the planters doors, and then falling down into the ocean, ſail directly home: whereas both the French and Spaniards have a much longer and more difficult navigation to and from thoſe parts of that continent which are poſſeſſed by them.

It is evident, to a demonſtration, that, in theſe countries, it is in the power of Great Britain to raiſe ſilk, hemp, flax, pitch, tar, wine, oil, raiſins, and other fruits; and that the ſugar and tobacco colonies, and fiſheries, ſhe already has in that part of the world, bring in an inconceivable treaſure: but it is as evident theſe articles are not conſidered with that attention their importance ſeems to demand. Every one who has any calculation of the national expences of Great Britain, knows that ſhe lays out annually with foreigners four millions of money and upwards, in ſilks, linen, lace, wine, naval ſtores, and other merchandiſe; which ſhe might make herſelf, if her colonies were encouraged to raiſe materials; and it is computed that thoſe materials would employ half a million of people at home, who are now a burthen to their country. It ſhould alſo be conſidered, that the riches of the Britiſh plantations are the riches of Great Britain; their forces her forces, and their ſhipping her ſhipping; as theſe proſper, ſo will their mother country proſper of courſe; for hither all their wealth flows in the end. The coloniſts either bring their eſtates over to England, if they meet with ſucceſs; or they live in an elegant manner there, and import the Britiſh manufactures. Great Britain would need ſcarce any other foreign trade, therefore would want nothing that other countries produce, if the plantations were fully encouraged; for the materials they might raiſe would abundantly employ all the idle hands in Great Britain, and furniſh them with every thing that contributes to the ſupport or conveniencies of life. Can Great Britain then do too much for her colonies; when, in ſupporting them, ſhe moſt effectually ſerves herſelf? Therefore Great Britain has no reaſon to be afraid of leſſening the revenue by prohibiting foreign manufactures, if it tends to inrich the nation; for the richer the people are, the better able will they be to ſupport the government, and the legiſlature can never be at a loſs for ways and means to raiſe money, if the people have it in their purſes.

But the legiſlature ſhould be cautious of laying high duties on their own produce and manufactures, whether at home or in their colonies; for this has totally deſtroyed ſome branches of their trade, and prevents others from flouriſhing: by this the people of Jamaica were intirely beat out of the cacao, or chocolate trade; other nations being able to afford it cheaper than they could, on account of the duties: by the like conduct, it is apprehended, the ſugar and tobacco trades may be loſt, the duties on which are ſo conſiderable a branch of the revenue. But is it not better to take a ſmall duty, than to loſe all the duties and the trade together? And in Great Britain, is it not the duty on paper made there, that damps the progreſs of the manufacture, and ſtill obliges the merchants to import moſt of their paper from abroad? Indeed, Great Britain may ruin all her trade, and all her manufactures, by high duties; and, when that is done, how is the government to be ſupported? How can money be found to purchaſe even neceſſaries of foreigners? And how are thoſe multitudes of poor to be maintained, that a failure in their manufactures, and plantation trade, may occaſion? But next to high duties, nothing ſurely can be a greater diſadvantage to the Britiſh manufactures, or plantation trade, than the locking up money in banks and funds; which, till theſe were eſtabliſhed, were employed in commerce. The man who lives purely on the intereſt of his money in theſe banks, is the moſt contemptible and uſeleſs member in the commonwealth: inſtead of increaſing his own, and the common ſtock, he chuſes a ſlothful indolent way of life; he takes no pains to ſerve himſelf, his friends, or his country; but, like a certain animal he reſembles, is only uſeful when he dies, and his ſubſtance is transferred to perſons of a more public ſpirit.

From this recapitulation it may be underſtood, that theſe colonies can be very beneficially employed both for Great Britain and themſelves, without interfering with any of the ſtaple commodities of England; which has been one of the principal objections againſt the colony of New England, where the inhabitants have been diſcouraged from raiſing naval ſtores, and have ſet up ſeveral manufactures, which muſt neceſſarily interfere with thoſe of Great Britain. Therefore, it is highly requiſite to encourage a trade with theſe plantations, in all ſuch articles as ſhall make for the mutual benefit of the mother country, and her colonies; for a mutual benefit is a mutual dependence: from whence it follows, that the culture of coffee, cocoa, cohineal, indico, and pimento, ought eſpecially to be encouraged in the mountainous inland part of Jamaica; as alſo the manufacture of bar iron, and raiſing of hemp, flax, indico, and raw ſilk, in the countries between and beyond the mountains, on the back of Georgia, Carolina, Virginia, Maryland, and Penſylvania, and the other northern provinces: for the great complaint againſt the trade to ſome of theſe colonies long has been, that it is inferior to the mercantile profits to be reaped from the navigation of the Baltic; which is more advantageous to the merchant, though very detrimental to his country.

It has been imagined, that the government of the Britiſh northern colonies have been improperly conſtituted; by leaving them diſunited under diſtinct legiſlatures; with ſo remarkable a difference in their religious rites, and their emulation of trade; which ſome gentlemen would have altered to the form of other nations: alledging, that theſe colonies can never defend themſelves againſt the invaſions, and outrages, of the French, and their Indian allies; but by uniting them under one viceroy, or generaliſſimo. The ſame obſervations may be extended to the ſugar colonies, each of them being as much independent upon the other in its polity, as diſtant in its ſituation; not even excepting the iſlands under the governor of the Caribbees: there is little or no intercourſe, and leſs commerce, between thoſe which are ſituated neareſt to the others, and no intercourſe at all between the remoteſt of thoſe iſlands; becauſe, the produce of them all being the ſame, there can be no exchange of commodities, and conſequently no commerce or intercourſe. It has been obſerved, that all princes and ſtates, who have planted colonies, or ſubdued nations, have given the command of them to particular governors in ſubordination to others, who have preſided over the whole, for preventing and ſuppreſſing ſedition; and that each particular government might be ſtrengthened, and

and ſupported, by the reſt, againſt the attacks of their common enemies. It muſt be acknowledged, that in the Roman empire, which contained 120 provinces, and near 300 colonies, there were only 4 prefects, or chief governments, under the emperor: that over thoſe extenſive countries the Spaniards poſſeſs in North and South America, there are but 2 viceroys; that in Canada, and Louiſiana, equal in extent to all the Britiſh colonies, the French have but one governor and chief, or generaliſſimo, who can unite the whole force of the French againſt any one of the Britiſh colonies he pleaſes to attack; while the countries in America poſſeſſed by the Engliſh, ſeem to be in much the ſame ſtate that Great Britain was, on the invaſion of the Romans; divided under ſeveral chiefs, and conſequently eaſily ſubdued, one after another, by the united forces of their enemies. However, the Britiſh government have thought proper to continue their ſettlements under their reſpective conſtitutions; which may contribute to the preſervation of that dependency, and ſubjection, which they owe to their mother country; and prevent any of the provinces from revolting, and ſhaking off their obedience.

By the act of navigation, of the 23d of September 1660, it was ordained, that all the commerce of theſe colonies ſhould be carried on by the way of England: and it is only in time of war that the traders of Boſton and Philadelphia attempt ſending their ſhips directly to the Mediterranean, with the commodities and merchandiſe of their produce. See *Navigation*, *Plantations*, and *Colonies*.

BRITISH *companies of Trade*. See *African Company*, *Eaſt India Company*, *Hamburgh Company*, *Hudſon's Bay Company*, *North Sea Company*, *Ruſſia Company*, *South Sea Company*, and *Turkey Company*.

BROAD, in manufactures, is the breadth of a piece of cloth, ſilk, or ſtuff, or the ſmalleſt extent; the length being the greateſt.

BROAD-*ſide*. A ſea term, for the firing all the guns on one ſide of a ſhip, upon an enemy.

BROCADE. A ſort of ſtuff, or cloth, of gold, ſilver, or ſilk, raiſed, and enriched, with flowers, foliages, or other figures, according to the fancy of the manufacturer; which is prohibited to be imported into Great Britain. See *Embroidery*.

BROCATELLA. A cotton, or coarſe ſilk ſtuff, in imitation of brocade: there are ſome entirely of ſilk, and others intirely of wool: but the Venetian brocatille has been always in moſt eſteem.

BRODERER, *Broiderer*, or *Embroiderer*, a perſon who works devices, with a needle, upon ſilk, or cloth. See *Embroidery*.

BRODERERS *Company of London*, was incorporated, by letters patent in 1561, by the name of The keepers, or wardens, and company of the art or miſtery of the broderers of the city of London: which is a ſociety governed by 2 keepers, or wardens, with 40 aſſiſtants, and 115 members on the livery, who have a ſmall but convenient hall, in Gutter-lane, where they manage their affairs; and their fine is 5 l. upon admiſſion.

BROKAGE, or *Brokerage*, the pay, reward, or allowance, which is given to a broker, or perſon that finds cuſtomers, and ſells them the goods of another perſon; whether a ſtranger or a native.

BROKERS, are of ſeveral kinds; exchange-brokers, ſtock-brokers, pawn-brokers; and common brokers, who ſell houſhold-furniture, and other goods.

Exchange-brokers are a ſort of negotiators, who contrive, make, and conclude bargains, between merchants and tradeſmen, in matters of money, or merchandiſe; for which they have a fee, commiſſion, or premium. They make it their buſineſs to know the alteration of the courſe of exchange; to give the merchants information of its fluctuating condition; and to notify, to thoſe who have money to receive or pay beyond ſea, who are proper perſons for negotiating the exchange with; and when the matter is accompliſhed, that is, when the money is paid, they have 2 s. for every hundred pounds ſterling.

By the ſtatute of the 8th and 9th of W. III. for reſtraining the ill practice of brokers, and ſtock jobbers, it was enacted, that no perſon ſhould exerciſe the employment of an exchange-broker in London, Weſtminſter, or within the bills of mortality; without being admitted, and licenſed, by the Lord Mayor and court of aldermen of London; and having, upon ſuch admiſſion, taken an oath for the due execution of his truſt; and alſo entered into bond to the Lord Mayor, in the penalty of 500 l. for the faithful diſcharge of his office; that the number of ſuch brokers ſhould not, at one time, exceed 100; and the Lord Mayor, and court of aldermen, ſhould cauſe their names, and places of habitation, to be publickly affixed on the Royal Exchange, and other public places: and every ſworn broker, after his admiſſion, ſhould carry about him a ſilver medal, having the King's arms on one ſide, and the arms of the city of London, with his own name, on the other ſide; which he ſhould produce at the concluding of every bargain to the parties concerned, upon pain to forfeit 40 ſhillings for every omiſſion: that if any perſon acted as a broker, not being duly omitted, he ſhould forfeit 25 l. for every offence: and in caſe any perſon knowingly employed another to deal for him as a broker, or ſtock-jobber, who was not legally admitted, ſuch perſon ſhould forfeit 50 l.: and if any perſon, not being a legal broker, ſhould act, and deal, in diſcounting tallies, or bills; or in ſtock-jobbing, in ſelling ſtock, or any ſecurity upon any funds granted by parliament, he ſhould be liable to the forfeiture of 500 l. and to ſtand in the pillory three ſeveral days, for the ſpace of one hour: that every ſworn broker ſhould keep a book or regiſter; and therein enter all contracts, and bargains, he ſhould make between any perſons, on the day the contract was made, under the penalty of 50 l. for any omiſſion.

By the ſtatute of the 6th of Q. Anne it was enacted, That all perſons acting as exchange-brokers within London, ſhould, upon their admiſſion, pay to the chamberlain 40 s.; and ſhould alſo annually pay 40 s. upon the 29th of September, for the uſe of the chamber. Every exchange-broker, by the 10th of Q. Anne, is to take no reward exceeding 2 s. for every 100 l. under forfeiture of 20 l.; and if any broker deals for himſelf in the exchange, or remittance of monies; or buys any tallies, orders, bills, or ſhares, in any joint ſtock, for his own uſe; or buys goods, or merchandiſes, to ſell again; or makes any profit, in buying, or ſelling, any goods, more than the brokage allowed; he is to forfeit 200 l. and be for ever incapacitated from acting as a broker.

The ſtatute of the 3d of George II. regulates the number of exchange brokers within the city of Briſtol, and the method of their negotiating buſineſs.

In France, till the middle of the 17th century, their exchange brokers were called *courtiers de change*; but, by an arret of council, in 1639, the name was changed for that more creditable one of agents *de change*, *banque*, *and finance*: and, in the beginning of the 18th century, to render the office ſtill more honourable, the title of *King's counſellors* was added. See *Agent*, and *Factor*.

The exchange-brokers at Amſterdam, called *makelaers*, are of two kinds; the one like the Engliſh, called *ſworn brokers*, becauſe of the oath they take before the burgomaſters; the others negotiate without any commiſſion, and are called *walking brokers*. The firſt are 395 in number, whereof 375 are Chriſtians, and 20 Jews; the others are near double that number: ſo that, in Amſterdam, there are about 1000 exchange brokers. The difference between the two conſiſts in this; that the books, and perſons, of the former are allowed as evidence in the courts of juſtice; whereas, in caſe of diſputes, the latter are diſowned, and their bargains diſannulled.

At Grand Cairo, and ſeveral places of the Levant, the Arabs, who undertake the office of exchange-brokers, are honoured with the appellation of cenſals. See *Cenſals*.

In the other Eaſtern countries, all affairs are tranſacted by a ſort of brokers, whom the Perſians call *delal*, or great talkers. The manner of making their markets is very ſingular; for after the brokers have launched out into long, and uſually impertinent, diſcourſes; coming towards a concluſion, they only converſe with their fingers. The brokers, belonging to the buyer and ſeller, each take the other by the right-hand, which they cover with their coat, or a handkerchief: the finger ſtretched out, ſtands for 6; bent, for 5; the tip of the finger for one; the whole hand

for 100; and the hand clenched for 1000: they will expreſs even pounds, ſhillings, and pence, by their hands; and, during all this myſtic commerce, the two brokers appear as cold and compoſed as if there were nothing tranſacting between them.

Stock-BROKERS, are thoſe employed to buy and ſell ſhares in the joint ſtock of a company, or corporation. The ſtatute of the 7th of Geo. II. regulates the method of ſtock-jobbing; which was made perpetual by the 10th of Geo. II. See *Stock*.

Pawn-BROKERS, are perſons who keep ſhops, and lend out money to neceſſitous people upon pledges, generally on uſurious conditions; and are ſometimes called pawn-takers, or tallymen; as alſo fripers, or friperers. Theſe ſort of people are very numerous in London and Weſtminſter, where they are tolerated under ſeveral reſtrictions; being allowed to take the intereſt of 6 d. a month for the loan of 20 s.: however, by the ſtatute of the 1ſt of James I. it was enacted, That the ſale of goods, wrongfully gotten, to any broker, within 2 miles of London, ſhould not alter the property: and if any broker having received ſuch goods, ſhould not, upon the requeſt of the true owner, truly diſcover them how and when he came by them, and to whom they are conveyed; he is to forfeit double the value thereof to the owner.

In ſeveral cities of Italy, there are companies eſtabliſhed by authority, for the letting out money on pawns, called *mounts of piety*; an honourable title like that of the charitable corporation in England; but little becoming ſuch inſtitutions; becauſe the loan is not *gratis*, but more uſurious than the charitable corporation erected in London under Q. Anne, for the relief of the induſtrious poor, when 30,000 l. was raiſed for enabling indigent manufacturers and traders to take up money at common and legal intereſt. See *Charitable Corporation*.

BRONZE. A factitious metal, compoſed of the mixture of ſeveral others.

For the making of beautiful bronze ſtatues, the allay is made with one half of red copper, and the other of braſs: but the Egyptians, to whom ſome attribute the invention of this art, uſed two thirds braſs, and the other third copper.

In ordinary bronze the allay is with tin, and ſometimes with lead: but there is a kind of compoſition of copper, which is, in reality, bronze, with the ſole difference of the quantity of tin mixed therein; the proportion of the allay for the metal being from 12 to 25 *per cent.*

Bronze, beſides its uſe for the making of ſtatues, medals, veſſels, mortars, cannons, and bells, furniſhes alſo medicine with ſome remedies; its lees, or ſediment, called *diphryes*, being of ſome uſe.

BROOMING, or *Breaming of a ſhip*, the burning off the filth ſhe has contracted on her ſides with ſtraw, reeds, broom, or the like; when ſhe is on a careen, or on the ground. See *Careening*.

BROUAGE. A fortreſs in the territory of Santoign, in France, ſituated in 1 deg of W. lon. and 45 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. on a bay, affording great quantities of the beſt ſort of ſalt; from thence called bay-ſalt. See *Salt*.

BROUERSHAVEN. A port-town of the United Provinces, in the province of Zealand, and iſland of Schouen, ſituated on a bay of the ſea, in 3 deg. 55 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 50 min. of N. lat.

BRUGES. A city, and port-town, of the Auſtrian Netherlands, ſituated in 3 deg. 5 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. of N. lat. See *Netherlands*.

BRUNSBUTTLE. A port-town of Holſtein, in the circle of Lower Saxony, in Germany; ſituated in 8 deg. 42 min. of E. lon. and 54 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. at the mouth of the river Elbe. See *Germany*.

BRUNSWICK. A dutchy in the circle of Lower Saxony. See *Germany*.

BRUNTIS-*Iſland*, on the coaſt of Fife, in Scotland, is ſituated in 3 deg. of E. lon. and 56 deg. 12 min. of N. lat.

BRUSSELS, the capital of Brabant, and of all the Auſtrian Netherlands, ſituated in 4 deg. 6 min. of E. lon. and 50 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. on the river Senne. See *Netherlands*.

BRYONY. A medicinal root, chiefly uſed as an uterine detergent; in which quality it enters the compoſition of an officinal water, denominated, from it, *aqua bryoniæ*; generally preſcribed againſt hyſteric diſorders.

BUBBLE, in commerce, a cant name given to projects for the raiſing of money on imaginary grounds; very frequent in England and France about the years 1719, 1720, and 1721.

The pretended deſign of theſe undertakings was to raiſe a ſtock for the retrieving, ſetting on foot, or carrying on ſome promiſing and uſeful branch of trade, manufacture, machinery, or the like; in order to which propoſals were given out, ſhewing the advantages of the deſign: the ſum neceſſary to carry on the affair, together with the profits expected from it, being divided into a certain number of ſhares, or ſubſcriptions, to be purchaſed by perſons diſpoſed to be adventurers: but the real deſign in ſome, was to raiſe money for the private advantage of the projectors, to be laid out by them in South Sea ſtock, or other funds, in hopes, by the riſe thereof, to be able to refund the ſubſcribers money, with profit to themſelves; though, in others, the deſign was abſolutely to defraud the adventurers of their ſubſcription-money, without any view to reſtitution.

There was a third kind ſomewhat different; the projectors proceeding more ſecurely by propoſals of having books opened, and ſubſcriptions taken at ſome time to come; yet money was taken by way of premium to entitle the admiſſion of ſubſcribers as ſoon as the affair ſhould be ripe, for dividing into ſhares: ſeveral thouſand ſhares being thus very frequently beſpoke in one day; and premiums, from one ſhilling to ſome pounds, paid thereupon to the profits of the projectors.

The number of bubbles, and their qualities, were very extraordinary; ſome of them authoriſed by patents, others formed into corporations for fiſheries, inſurances, digging of mines, and other purpoſes: but poſterity, doubtleſs, will be ſurpriſed to hear of bubbles for cleaning the ſtreets; others for furniſhing ſhoes; others for ſtockings; others for phyſic; others for the maintenance of baſtard children; others for the buying of bad titles; and others for the lending of money. See *Company*, *South Sea Company*, and *Charitable Corporation*.

BUCCANEER, is a perſon who hunts bulls, cows, and boars, in the Weſt Indies, particularly among the French and Spaniards at St. Domingo; and afterwards dries and ſmokes the fleſh, after the manner of the Americans. Theſe buccaneers hunt more for the hides of cattle than the fleſh, and ſend great quantities of the former in packs to France and Spain: but they buccan or dreſs the boars fleſh with ſalt, and ſell it in packs or bundles among the French and Spaniſh colonies, or to the crews of ſhips.

BUCCANEERS, is alſo a term given to the pirates, or free-booters, of America, who formerly infeſted theſe ſeas; compoſed of Engliſh, French, Portugueze, and Dutch: theſe people were very numerous, had ſtrong veſſels, and committed many piratical expeditions on the Spaniſh main; where they plundered many towns, and made terrible devaſtation in the country; returning to Jamaica with their plunder, which was ſo conſiderable, and beneficial to the iſland, that the Engliſh governors, though they did not openly protect and encourage their undertakings, were far from refuſing them an aſylum, while they ſpread ſuch a flow of treaſure in the country; for the gang under Morgan, in their ſeveral expeditions, brought to Jamaica no leſs than 950,000 pieces of eight in ſpecie; beſides cloth, linen, ſilk, ſlaves, and other profitable merchandiſes, to a prodigious value; which occaſioned ſeveral miſunderſtandings between the courts of London and Madrid.

BUCCASSINE. A name formerly given to certain kinds of gummed linnen cloths, dyed with different colours. The Smyrna buccaſines are cotton cloths dreſſed, and calendered with paſte, manufactured uſually at Tyre, and in ſome of the neighbouring villages.

BUCKLE. An inſtrument made of various ſorts of metal, uſed to faſten the harneſs of a horſe; the ſhoes of men and women, and the like; in ſuch faſhion and form, as beſt pleaſes the artificer or cuſtomer.

BUCKRAM, coarſe linen cloth, ſtiffened for the uſe of taylors, upholders, ſtay-makers, and other workers with the

the needle: as alſo for wrappers, or covers, for cloths, ſerges, and other merchandize.

BUDZIAC *Tartary.* See *Tartary.*

BUENOS-AYRES, one of the moſt conſiderable Spaniſh ports in the province of La Plata, on the E. coaſt of S. America, ſituated in 60 deg. of W. lon. and 36 deg. S. lat. on the S. ſhore of the river Plata, 50 leagues within its mouth; though here the river is 7 leagues broad. See *Spaniſh America.*

BUFF, or *Buffle*, a ſort of leather, prepared from the ſkin of the buffalo, a wild animal ſomewhat like an ox; which is common enough about the Levant, particularly near Smyrna and Conſtantinople; as alſo in Egypt, and ſeveral other parts of Aſia and Africa; where, as well as in Italy, it is frequently tamed, and put to labour as oxen are in England.

The ſkin of the buffalo, being dreſſed in oil, after the manner of ſhammy, makes what is called *buff-ſkin*; in uſe among military men for its exceeding thickneſs and firmneſs.

Buff-ſkins, or buff-leather, is a very conſiderable article in the Engliſh, French, and Dutch commerce, at Conſtantinople, Smyrna, and along the coaſts of Africa. The hair, and horns, of the buffalo are alſo uſed in trade; the former for ſtuffing chairs, and other things; the latter for ſnuff-boxes, beads, and in turnery work.

The ſkins of elks, oxen, and other like animals, when dreſſed in oil, and prepared after the ſame manner as that of the buffalo, are likewiſe denominated buff, and uſed for the ſame purpoſes. See *Leather.*

BUGIA. A port-town, capital of a territory of the ſame name, in the kingdom of Algiers, ſituated in 4 deg. of E. lon and 35 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. at the mouth of the river Major, on a bay of the Mediterranean. See *Barbary.*

BUGIE. A port town of Egypt, ſituated in 36 deg. of E. lon. and 22 deg. of N. lat. on the W. ſhore of the Red ſea, almoſt oppoſite to Ziden, the port-town to Mecca.

BUGLES, are long, thin, ſlender, glaſs beads; and the duty on importation is, for the great ſort 4 s. the pound; 6 s. 8 d. for the ſmall, or ſeed-bugle; and 8 s. for the lace. See *Beads.*

BULAC. A town of Egypt, ſituated in 32 deg. of E. lon. and 30 deg. of N. lat. on the E. ſhore of the river Nile, 2 miles W. of Grand Cairo, of which it is the port-town; where all veſſels going up and down the Nile make ſome continuance.

BULBA, more uſually called *Forle*, a ſmall copper coin current in Egypt; 240 of which are equal to 2 s. 6 d. ſterling.

BULDGE. See *Bildge.*

BULK *of a ſhip*, denotes her whole content in the hold, for ſtowage of goods. See *Ship* and *Hold.*

BULK *heads*, are partitions made acroſs a ſhip, with boards of timber; whereby one part is divided from another: the *bulk head afore* being the partition between the fore-caſtle and gratings in the head, and in which are the chaſe-ports.

BULL. See *Cow.*

BULLION, denotes gold, or ſilver uncoined, in the maſs, or billet; being either when ſmelted from the native ore, and not perfectly refined, or when perfectly refined, and caſt into bars or ingots: but the exact value of bullion cannot be known without an aſſay; it being allowed, in every country, to mix a certain proportion of baſer metal with gold and ſilver, as well for bullion as for the ſtandard.

Silver and gold, whether coined or uncoined, though uſed for a common meaſure of other things, are no leſs a commodity than wine, tobacco, or cloth; and may, in ſeveral caſes, be exported as much to national advantage, as any other commodity: for no nation can ever be conſiderable in trade that prohibits the exportation of bullion: but it is more for the public advantage to export gold or ſilver coined, than uncoined; becauſe, in the former, ſuch a nation has the advantage of the manufacture.

Where the national exports are inferior to the imports, or where a nation ſells leſs than it buys from another; the deficiency muſt be made up in money; as is the caſe with the Engliſh and Dutch, in their trade to the Levant and the Eaſt Indies, where they are obliged to make up the difference in ſpecie. The Chineſe are extremely fond of ſilver, and never ſet an equal value upon gold: ſo that in this ſpecie of gold, both in bullion and coin, the Engliſh carry on a large commerce, by exporting and giving ſilver, either coined or in bullion, in exchange for it, with a profit of 40 *per cent.*; by which traffic, after deducting expences and inſurance, there remains to the Engliſh a neat profit of 30 *per cent.*

Bars of ſilver and gold, are imported, by all nations, from Spain and Portugal; where, eſpecially in Spain, it is impoſſible to prevent the extraction, though the penalties extend to forfeiture of life and effects; which will be perpetually the caſe, till Spain is no longer in debt to other nations; a point that is alone attainable by ſelling more than they buy: and this is evident, from what happens in England, where the exportation of gold and ſilver is allowable, with good effect; for, by certain circulations of commerce, ſome portions are drawn out for the Eaſt Indies, Turky, Perſia, Ruſſia, Holland, and other parts, and are entered in the very cuſtom-houſes of England; yet this kingdom is always opulent; for if by one port there goes out ten, by another comes in a hundred pieces; which proceeds from their ſelling more to foreigners in general than it buys; and particularly to Spain and Portugal.

While the Britiſh trade is open, and vaſt quantities of bullion annually imported, it may ſeem ſtrange that ſilver ſhould grow ſcarce; but when it is conſidered how much is carried away to the Eaſt Indies, and how little encouragement the importer hath to ſend it to the mint, when he can ſell it for more to export, than it will come to when coined, the wonder will ceaſe; and except ſome care be taken in this matter, England may ſoon be reduced to ſuch ſtraits, that the manufactures muſt ſtand ſtill; for though gold may ſerve for large payments, it cannot anſwer the occaſions of the manufacturers, who are to make their payments among the poor. As for gold, there is no need to give encouragement to bring it to the mint; becauſe it is only a commodity, and not the ſtandard, as ſilver is: beſides, it is generally worth more in England than in any other country; and it is apparent, from the great quantity which is coined yearly more than of ſilver, that it is the intereſt of every perſon to ſend it to the mint.

By the ſtatute of the 15th Cha. II. it is made lawful to export, out of any port of England or Wales, all bullion of gold or ſilver; firſt making entry thereof in the cuſtom-houſe, without paying any duty.

By the ſtatute of the 6th and 7th of Will. III. no perſon is to caſt ingots or bars of ſilver, in imitation of Spaniſh bars or ingots; nor ſtamp any mark upon any ingot, or bar, in likeneſs of the Spaniſh marks, upon pain to forfeit the ſilver ſo caſt, and 500 l. Any broker, not being a trading goldſmith or refiner, buying or ſelling any bullion, is to ſuffer ſix months impriſonment: and in caſe any perſon enters or ſhips any bullion, allowed to be exported, other than in the name of the true owner or importer, the exporter is to forfeit the ſame, or the value. See *Coin*, as alſo *Gold* and *Silver.*

BULLION, is alſo uſed for the place where the King's exchange is kept; or where gold and ſilver is brought in the lump, to be tried or exchanged.

BUNIAS, or the ſeed of wild turnip, is chiefly uſed in the compoſition of the theriaca: ſometimes the ſeed of the garden turnip is ſubſtituted in its room; but the difference is eaſily known by the taſte, that of the bunias being much more poignant.

BUNT *of a ſail*, is its middle part, purpoſely formed into a kind of bag, or pouch, to catch the more wind; being chiefly uſed in top-ſails; for courſes are uſually cut ſquare, or at leaſt with a ſmall allowance for bunt, or compaſs: ſo that when mariners ſay, *the bunt holds much leeward wind*, they mean it hangs too much to the leeward.

BUNT-*lines*, are ſmall lines, made faſt to the bottom of the ſails, in the middle part of the bolt-rope, to a crengle, and ſo are reeved through a ſmall block ſeized to the yard; their uſe being to trice up the bunt of the ſail, for the better furling it up.

BUOY, at ſea, is a piece of wood, or cork, or ſometimes an empty caſk well cloſed, ſwimming on the ſurface of the

water, and faſtened, by a chain or cord, to a large ſtone, piece of broken cannon, or the like; ſerving to mark the dangerous places near a coaſt; as rocks, ſhoals, wrecks of veſſels, anchors, and other impediments to navigation.

EUOY, is alſo uſed for a piece of wood, or a barrel at ſea, faſtened ſo as to float directly over the anchor, that the men, who go in the boat to weigh the anchor, may certainly know where it lies: and a merchant-ſhip, lying in a harbour, muſt have ſuch a buoy at her anchor; or if not, the maſter is anſwerable for half the damage that may accrue for want of it.

BUOY *in the Nore*, is a buoy in the mouth of the Thames; placed there to direct mariners to avoid a dangerous ſand.

BURAIL, called more uſually *ferrandine*, is a ſtuff woven with ſilk, wool, hair, thread, or cotton. See *Ferrandine*.

BURATINE, are ſilks brought from Perſia, by the way of Ziden; which are weighed by the damaſquin of 600 drachms, amounting to about 4 pounds avoirdupois.

BURBAS. A ſmall coin, ſtruck at Algiers, with the dey's arms, 6 of which were formerly worth an aſper, or a halfpenny, but now are worth only one half. There are alſo ſome coined at Tunis, and current upon the footing of thoſe in Algiers.

BURDEN, or *Burthen*, of a ſhip, ſignifies its content, or the number of tons it will carry: to determine which, it is neceſſary to multiply the length of the keel, taken within board, by the bread of the ſhip within board, taken from the midſhip beam from plank to plank; and the product by the depth of the hold, taken from the plank below the keelſon to the under part of the upper deck plank; and divide the laſt product by 94, when the quotient is the content of the tonnage required. See *Freight*.

The burden of a ſhip is reckoned by the ton, of 2000 lb. weight: thus, if it is ſaid a ſhip is burden 100 ton, it is thereby meant that the ſhip is able to carry in merchandizes, ammunition, proviſions, men, and ballaſt, a weight of 100 times 2000 pounds, or 200,000 lb.

BURGUNDY. A particular kind of fine flavoured wine, of the growth of the province of Burgundy, in France; being of a paliſh red colour, and very animating to the ſpirits.

BURLINGTON. The capital of New Jerſey, in North America, ſituated in 74 deg. of W. lon. and 40 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. See *Britiſh America*.

BURNING-*glaſs*. A piece of glaſs, or metal, ſo ground as to collect the ſeveral rays of the ſun that fall upon it into one point, and thereby render the heat ſo intenſe as to burn whatever lies in its way, or ſphere of activity.

BURNISHED *gold*. See *Gold burniſhed*.

BURNISHER, one who ſmooths, poliſhes, or brightens metal.

BURNT *lead*. See *Lead*.

BURSA, or *Pruſa*, the capital of Bythinia, in Aſia Minor, ſituated in 29 deg. of E. lon. and 40 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. remarkable for ſilk, and a manufacture of tapeſtry. See *Turky*.

BURSE. A different name for an exchange, eſpecially in the Aſiatic countries, where the merchants aſſemble to tranſact their buſineſs. See *Exchange*.

BUSARD, or *Buſſe*, one of the nine kinds of veſſels, or regular caſks, uſed in France; particularly at Anjou, and Poictu, for wines, and others liquors; being the half of a pipe.

BUSHEL, an Engliſh dry meaſure, containing 4 pecks, or 8 gallons, or one eighth of a quarter.

By the 12th of Hen. VII. it was enacted, That a buſhel ſhould contain 8 gallons of wheat; the gallon 8 pounds of wheat troy weight; the pound 12 ounces troy weight; the ounce 20 ſterlings; and the ſterling 32 grains, or corns, of wheat, growing in the midſt of the ear.

At Paris the buſhel is divided into two half buſhels; the half buſhel into two quarts; the quart into two half quarts; the half quart into two litrons; and the litron into two half litrons: but, in other parts of France, the buſhel is more or leſs; and at Boudeaux 38 buſhels of corn is equal to 10 quarters and $\frac{3}{8}$ of London.

BUSIOCHE. A kind of woollen cloth manufactured in Provence, in France.

BUSS, called by the Dutch *Haring buis*, a kind of veſſel, or pink, uſed by the Engliſh, French, and Dutch, for the fiſhing of herrings, being from 48 to 60 tons, and ſometimes more; having two ſmall cabins, one at the prow, and the other at the ſtern. Every buſs, particularly among the Dutch, has its maſter, an aſſiſtant, a mate, and ſeamen in proportion to its ſize: the maſter commands in chief, without whoſe expreſs orders the nets can neither be caſt into, nor taken out of the ſea. The aſſiſtant is ſecond in command; and the mate next to him, who has an eye over the men, and moſt other neceſſaries to be tranſacted aboard the veſſel. See *Herring Fiſhery*.

BUTCHER. A perſon exerciſing the art of butchery, or ſlaughtering of cattle, or expoſing their fleſh to ſale.

BUTCHERS *company of London*, appears to be a very ancient fraternity; for, in the 26th of Henry II. in the year 1180, it was fined in the exchequer, as an adulterine guild, being ſet up without the royal licence: however, it was not incorporated till the 3d of James I. who, by letters-patent in 1605, incorporated the ſame, by the title of The maſter, wardens, and commonalty, of the art, or myſtery, of butchers of the city of London: which is a corporation conſiſting of a maſter, 5 wardens, 21 aſſiſtants, and 214 liverymen; who have a very neat and convenient hall in Pudding-lane, to diſpatch their affairs in; and whoſe fine is 2 l. upon admiſſion.

By the ſtatute of the 4th of Henry VII. it was enacted, That no butcher ſhould ſlay any beaſt within the walls of any city, or walled town in England, except Carliſle, upon pain to forfeit for every ox 12 d. and for every cow and other beaſt 8 d.

By the 1ſt of James I. no butcher is to gaſh, ſlaughter, or cut, any hide of an ox, bull, ſteer, or cow, in flaying thereof, or otherwiſe; whereby the ſame ſhall be impaired and hurt, on the penalty of 20 d. for every hide. No butcher is to water any hide, except in June, July, or Auguſt; or offer to ſale any hide being putrified and rotten: they are not to kill any calf, to ſell, being under five weeks old; nor are they to uſe the craft and myſtery of a tanner.

By the 15th of Cha. II. no butcher is to ſell, or expoſe to ſale, any fat oxen, ſteers, runts, kine, heifers, calves, ſheep, or lambs alive, on pain to forfeit double the value of the cattle.

By the 5th of Q. Anne, no butcher is to ſell, in London and Weſtminſter, or within 10 miles thereof, to any other butcher, any fat cattle, or ſheep, alive, or dead, upon pain to forfeit the value: though, by the 7th of Q. Anne, the above act is not to extend to the ſelling of dead calves, ſheep, or lambs, by one butcher to another.

BUTLERAGE *of wines*, is an impoſition on ſale wine brought into England, which the King's butler in any port, by order of the ſteward of the houſhold, may take of every ſhip; the ſame amounting to 2 s. for every ton imported by ſtrangers.

BUTRINTO. A port-town of the province of Epirus, or Canina in Turky, ſituated in 20 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 39 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. oppoſite to the iſle of Corfu, at the entrance of the gulph of Venice. See *Turky*.

BUTT, is uſed for an Engliſh veſſel, or liquid meaſure, either of wine or beer; the former, otherwiſe called a pipe, containing 2 hogſheads, or 126 gallons; and the latter containing 2 hogſheads, or only 108 gallons: but, in dry meaſure, a butt of currants is from 15 to 22 hundred weight.

BUTT, or *Butt-end*, in the ſea-language, denotes the end of any plank, which joins to another on the outſide of a ſhip under water: hence, when a plank is looſe at one end, they call it *ſpringing a butt*; to prevent which, ſhips are uſually bolted at the butt-heads, that is, at the plank ends.

BUTTER. A fat, unctuous ſubſtance, prepared or ſeparated from milk by beating or churning it, which is one of the principal commodities of Ireland and the United Provinces, from whence the American plantations are generally ſupplied.

In England, that part of Suffolk called High Suffolk, being a rich ſoil, is for a long tract of ground entirely employed in

in dairies; from whence the butter is barrelled, or often pickled up in ſmall caſks, and ſold, not in London only, but ſent to the American plantations; however, Cheſhire and Glouceſterſhire are the moſt celebrated counties for cheeſe. See *Cheeſe*.

The ſtatute of the 13th of Cha. II. regulates the manner of packing butter for ſale: that of the 32d of Cha II. prohibits the importation of butter and cheeſe from Ireland; and that of the 4th and 5th of Will. and Mary contains proper directions for the warehouſe-keepers, weighers, ſearchers, or ſhippers, of butter and cheeſe in any port, to receive all butter and cheeſe, and ſee it carefully ſhipped.

The quantity of butter generally imported every year in the port of London from York, Hull, Scarborough, and Stockton, is about 115,000 firkins, from Newcaſtle upon Tine 15,700 firkins, and from the county of Suffolk 56,700 firkins. There are alſo annually brought to London by land-carriage about 75,000 firkins of Cambridge butter, and about 30,000 firkins from all other parts of the kingdom; the whole amounting to 292,263 firkins; which being reduced to pounds, at 56 lb. the firkin, the ſame will appear to be 16,366,748. See *Cattle*.

BUTTON. A kind of ſmall bowl flatted underneath; being an ornament in dreſs, and uſed for cloſing the two ſides of a coat, or ſome other garment: of which there are ſeveral ſizes, faſhions, and materials; as of gold, ſilver, tin, or braſs, as alſo of ſilver thread, ſilk, goats-hair, linen thread, hemp, horſe-hair, horn, and jet; as likewiſe of precious ſtones, as diamonds, agates, mocos and others.

By the ſtatute of the 4th and 5th of Will. and Mary, no foreign buttons are to be imported, ſold, or exchanged, in Great Britain, upon pain of forfeiting the buttons, and incurring the further penalty of 50 l.

By the 4th of Geo. I. no taylor, or other perſon, is to make, ſell, ſet on, uſe, or bind on any cloaths, buttons, or button-holes, made of, or bound with cloth, ſerge, drugget, frize, camblet, or any ſtuffs that cloaths are uſually made of, on forfeiture of 40 s. for every dozen of ſuch buttons, and button-holes, ſo made or ſold, or in proportion for a leſſer quantity; beſides, ſuch garments expoſed to ſale are to be ſeized and forfeited. And, by the 7th of George I. no perſon is to uſe or wear on any cloaths, buttons, or button-holes, ſo made, on forfeiture of 40 s. for every dozen, or in proportion for a leſſer quantity: however, neither of theſe acts are extended to cloaths made of velvet.

BUTTON's *Bay*, is the north-part of Hudſon's bay in North America; whereby Sir Thomas Button ineffectually attempted to diſcover a N. W. paſſage after Hudſon miſcarried. See *Hudſon's Bay*.

BUTTS. A ſort of tanned hides. See *Hide*.

C.

CAB

CAACHIRA. A name which the native Americans give to the plant of indigo.

CABALLEROS, or *Cavalleros*. A kind of Spaniſh wool.

CABBAGE. A cant word in trade, to expreſs any thing that is pilfered privately; as remnants of cloth or ſilk, retained by tailors, mantua-makers, or others, after finiſhing the garment, or other work.

CABBIN, or *Cabin*, in a ſhip, is a room, or partition, belonging to the captain, mate, or paſſengers, to lie or be in alone.

CABECA, or *Cabeſſa*, is a term among ſuch of the Portugueſe who trade to the Eaſt Indies for ſilks, where they diſtinguiſh theſe goods by the names of cabeca and bariga, or head and belly; the former being the fineſt, and the latter from 15 to 20 *per cent.* inferior to them. The Dutch have alſo a great trade in theſe ſilks, which they diſtinguiſh by the names of the moor cabeſſa, and the common cabeſſa; but the Indians endeavour to impoſe upon all Europeans, by mixing them together, and paſſing the one off for the other.

CABESAS. A particular kind of wool, ſhorn from the ſheep of the province of Eſtramadura, in Spain.

CABIDOS, *Cavidas*, or *Cavidos*. A kind of long meaſure uſed in Portugal, and in the Portugueſe ſettlements in India, for linens, ſtuffs, and other things, being $\frac{3}{4}$ of an Engliſh yard.

CABINDA, or *Cabenda*. A port-town of Congo, in Africa, ſituated in 12 deg. of E. lon. and 4 deg. of S. lat. See *Guinea*.

CABINET. A kind of cheſt, with ſeveral drawers, made of different kinds of the beſt wood, to lay up money, writings, or other valuable effects in, or only uſed for ornament in furniture; from whence is denominated the trade of a cabinet-maker, whoſe buſineſs conſiſts in making all kinds of cabinet-goods; as tables, bureaus, chairs, and other houſhold-furniture.

CABLE. A thick, long, three ſtrand rope, commonly made of hemp; ſerving to hold ſhips faſt at anchor, to tow veſſels in large rivers, and other offices in navigation.

Every cable, of whatever thickneſs it is, ſhould be compoſed of three ſtrands, each ſtrand of three ropes, and each rope of three twiſts; the twiſt containing a certain number of threads of yarn, according to the dimenſions of the cable; but every cable ſhould be three inches in diameter at leaſt, thoſe that are leſs being generally called ropes.

The following is a table, to ſhew the number of threads of which cables ſhould be compoſed, with regard to their circumference, from 3 inches to 20, and from 48 threads to 1943.

Inches.	Threads.	Inches.	Threads.
3	48	12	699
4	77	13	821
5	121	14	952
6	174	15	1093
7	238	16	1244
8	311	17	1404
9	393	18	1574
10	485	19	1754
11	598	20	1943

To find, by this table, the weight that a cable of a certain length given ſhould have, as for inſtance, from 110 to 120 fathoms in length, the thickneſs of the cable muſt be meaſured by its circumference; and in the table muſt be ſeen how many threads, relative to this circumference, it ſhould have; afterwards, the number of threads muſt be multiplied by four, each thread of the neceſſary length for ſpinning out the cable of the propoſed extent being to weigh about 4 lb. and the product of the multiplication

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will give near the matter the weight of the cable. Thus a cable of 20 inches in circumference, which, purſuant to the table, ſhould have 1943 threads, will weigh 7772 pounds; tho' this is to be underſtood of a new cable, not as yet dawbed over with tar.

A TABLE for judging of the weight of a cable by its circumference.

Inches.	wt. or lb.	Inches.	wt. or lb.
3	192	12	2796
4	308	13	3284
5	484	14	3808
6	606	15	4372
7	952	16	4976
8	1244	17	5616
9	1572	18	6296
10	1940	19	7016
11	2392	20	7772

Every merchant-veſſel, how ſmall however, has three cables; being the main, or maſter cable, which is that of the chief anchor; the common cable; and the ſmall one; but the ordinary length of the great cable is 110 or 120 fathoms or braces: hence, at ſea, cable, or cable's length, is alſo uſed for a meaſure of 120 fathoms. See *Fathom*.

By the ſtatute of the 35th of Queen Elizabeth, it was enacted, That if any perſon ſhould make cables of old and over-worn ſtuff, which ſhould contain above 7 inches in compaſs, every perſon ſo offending ſhould forfeit four times the value; and if any perſon ſhould tar any halſers, or other cordage, made within the realm, of ſuch old and over-worn ſtuff, not containing 7 inches in compaſs, and ſhould by retail put to ſale the ſame, being ſo tarred, every perſon ſo offending ſhould forfeit treble the value, and be impriſoned during pleaſure.

The duty on cables imported into Great Britain is 13 s. 4 d. the hundred weight: and, by the ſtatute of the 6th of Queen Anne, no foreign cordage, or cable-yarn, imported, is to have any allowance or draw-back of duties on exportation. See *Stores*.

The cable is well laid, is a term among ſeamen, when it is well wrought.

Serve the cable, or *plant the cable*, ſignifies to bind it about with ropes, or clouts, to keep it from gauling the hauſe.

To ſplice a cable, is to make two pieces faſt together, by working the ſeveral ſtrands of the rope one into another.

To coil the cable, is to roll it up round in a ring; of which the ſeveral rolls, upon one another, are called *cable-tire*.

Pay more cable, is to let it more out from the ſhip, that the boat which carries the anchor may the more ſpeedily paſs.

CABUIA. A kind of hemp, of the growth of the province of Panama, in South America; the plant which produces it having leaves like thoſe of the thiſtle, or the iris, tho' broader, thicker, and greener; when ripe, it is ſteeped in water, as European hemp; afterwards dried, and beaten till nothing remains but the hemp, which the Indians ſpin, and make ſuch very good thread and cords of it, that the thread is uſed as a ſaw for iron, by mounting it on a bow, and putting over it a little fine ſand, according as the work advances.

CACAO. See *Cocoa*.

CACHALOT. A kind of whale with teeth, which is mentioned by Cornelius le Brun, in his voyages to the Eaſt Indies, printed in 1718; wherein he ſpeaks of the commodities got from it; but certainly on memoirs not much to be credited, eſpecially with regard to the drug commonly called *ſperma ceti*, which he takes for a ſalt found in the hinder part of the neck of this monſtrous fiſh; from each of which, he ſays, may be gathered 7 or 8 tons; tho' it is certain that this ſperm is nothing but the brain of the cachalot. But this author, perhaps, is better in-

ſtructed,

ſtructed, when he makes the teeth of this fiſh to be about 5 inches in length; which are uſed for turners work, and ſeveral kinds of toys. See *Whale*, and *Whale-fiſhery*.

CACHAN. A town of Perſia, remarkable for its trade in all ſorts of manufactures. See *Perſia*.

CACHAO, or *Kecio*. The capital of the kingdom of Tonquin, ſituated in 105 deg. of E. lon. and 22 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the W. ſhore of the river Domea, 100 m. N. W. of the mouth of it; where the Engliſh, and other European nations, have factories to purchaſe ſilks, and lacquered ware, as in China. See *India*.

CACHATIN, or *Gum laccachatin*, is one of the ſorts of lacca ſent by European merchants to Smyrna in Turky. See *Lacca*.

CACHE, or *Caſche*, called at China *coyas*, and in ſeveral parts of the Eaſt Indies *cas*, *caſſe*, or *caſſie*, is a ſmall copper coin, 12 of which are worth about a halfpenny ſterling; but the caches of Japan are of different value, a thouſand of them being worth from 8 to 25 s. See *Caxa*.

CACHOOTS. A Portugueſe ſettlement, near the coaſt of Cape Verd in Africa.

CACHOU, or *Cachu*. A medicinal and aromatic drug, ranked among perfumes; but notwithſtanding cachou had been greatly uſed before coffee and tea were introduced, and tho' ſeveral ſtill uſe it, its nature is not therefore the better known, even among the moſt ſkilful phyſicians, and moſt experienced druggiſts.

Some, becauſe it is called in Latin *terra Japonica*, give it a place among medicinal earths; pretending that it is found on the higheſt mountains, covered by the roots of cedars, for which it ſerves as a nouriſhment; and that, after being dug out, waſhed in river-water, and dried in the ſun, a kind of paſte is made of it, and ſo brought into Europe, where it ſerves as a baſis to thoſe kinds of paſtils, or ſmall blackiſh grains, called *cachou*.

Others, with more probability, reckon it among gums; ſaying that it is extracted from a thick decoction of a tree called caious, growing in the Eaſt Indies, particularly in the kingdom of Cochin-China; the tree being of the ſize of a pomegranate, its leaves pretty thick, and of a clear green; its bloſſoms white, like thoſe of the orange-tree, and its fruit of the bigneſs of an apple, of a beautiful yellow without, ſpungy within, and full of a ſweetiſh and aſtringent juice.

Others, upon a more received opinion, think that the cachou is a drug compoſed of ſeveral others, particularly of the juice of areca, an extract of liquorice, calamus aromaticus, and the bark of a tree called by the Indians catechu, which, in all probability, is the ſame with the cachou.

However, be it earth, gum, or compoſition, it is much eſteemed in medicine for colds, as it fortifies the ſtomach, and makes the breath ſweet, after having been reduced to an impalpable powder, and mixed with ambergreaſe, gum adraganth, and ſo made up into paſtils.

Cachou ſhould be choſen of a tanned red on the outſide, and a clear red within, not burnt, and very gloſſy.

CADE. A cag, caſk, or barrel, uſed in the book of rates for a determinate number of ſome ſorts of fiſh: thus a cade of herrings, is a veſſel containing the quantity of 500 herrings, and of ſprats 1000.

CADENE is one of the kinds of carpets brought by Europeans from the Levant, by the way of Smyrna; which are the leaſt of all, and are ſold by the piece, from 4 to 8 s. the carpet.

CADIS. A kind of very narrow, ſlight French ſerge, manufactured at Gevaudan, in the Cevennes, near Puy in Velay, and in ſome other countries bordering upon the province of Languedoc, from whence ſeveral conſiderable cargoes are ſent to foreign countries, by the way of Lyons, the piece being generally about 30 ells in length.

CADIS is alſo another kind of woollen ſtuff, but fine, after the manner of a German ſerge, manufactured in the neighbourhood of Montauban, in the province of Languedoc in France; the pieces containing from 36 to 40 ells in length, and about half an ell in breadth.

CADIZ. A city and port-town of the province of Andaluſia in Spain, ſituated in 6 deg. 40 min. of W. lon. and 36 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. at the N. W. end of the iſland of Leon, oppoſite to Port St. Mary's on the continent. The iſland it ſtands upon is in length about 18 miles, the ſouth-weſt end being about 9 broad; but the north-weſt end, where the town ſtands, is not more than 2. It has a communication with the continent by a bridge; and, with the oppoſite ſhore, forms a bay of 12 m. long, and 6 broad; but about the middle of the bay are two points of land, one on the continent, and the other on the iſland, ſo near together, that the forts upon them command the paſſage; within theſe points being the harbour, which it is impoſſible for an enemy to enter, till theſe forts are taken. See *Spain*.

CADMIA. A mineral ſubſtance, of two kinds, natural and artificial; the natural being of two ſorts; the one containing metallic parts, and called cobalt; the other none, called calamine, or lapis calaminaris.

The artificial kind is prepared from copper in furnaces, being of five ſorts: the 1ſt called botrytis, as of the form of a bunch of grapes; the 2d, oſtracitis, as reſembling a ſea-ſhell; the 3d, placitis, reſembling a cruſt; the 4th, capnitis; and the 5th, calamitis; this laſt hanging round certain iron rods, wherewith the matter of the copper is ſtirred in the furnace, which, being ſhaken off, bears the figure of a quill, called in Latin *calamus*; the cadmia botrytis is found in the middle of the furnace, the oſtracitis at the bottom, the placitis at the top, and the capnitis at the mouth of the furnace; cadmia is deſiccative, and deterſive, generally uſed in ſtinking ulcers; but the botrytis and placitis are good in diſeaſes of the eyes.

CADSAND. An iſland on the coaſt of Dutch Flanders, at the mouth of the river Scheld; which gives the Dutch the command of the navigation of that river. See *United Provinces*.

CAEN. A good trading town of the province of Normandy in France, ſituated in 25 min. of W. lon. and 49 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. having a communication with the Engliſh channel, which lies 7 miles north of it. See *France*.

CAFFA, or *Kaffa*. A city, and port-town of great trade in Turky, ſituated in 37 deg. of E. lon. and 44 deg. 55 min. of N. lat. on the S. E. part of the peninſula of Crim Tartary. See *Turky*.

CAFFA, are cotton-cloths, painted with ſeveral colours, and of different deſigns, manufactured in the Eaſt Indies, and purchaſed at Bengal; but their meaſure is uncertain.

CAFFARD, or *Damaſk Caffards*, are ſeveral kinds of French ſtuffs; ſome of which have the warp of ſilk, or ferret, and the woof of thread; others both the woof and warp of thread, and others entirely of wool.

CAFFILA. A troop of merchants or travellers, or rather a body compoſed of both, aſſembled for traverſing, with more ſafety, the vaſt territories of the Mogul, and other parts of the Indian continent.

There are alſo ſuch caffilas which traverſe a part of the deſarts of Africa; particularly what goes under the denomination of the *Sea of ſand*, between Morocco and Tombut. This voyage, which is about 400 leagues, continues two months in going, and the ſame in returning; the caffila travelling only in the night, upon account of the exceſſive heats; the principal commodities it brings back conſiſting in gold-duſt, called by the natives *antibar*, and by the Europeans *tibir*.

The caffila is much the ſame with the caravan in the dominions of the Grand Signior, Perſia, and other places of the eaſt; or rather the caffila is a private caravan, belonging to ſome particular perſons. See *Caravan*.

CAFFILA is alſo a term, in the different ports ſtill poſſeſſed by the Portugueſe upon the coaſts of the kingdom of Guzarat, in India, for thoſe little fleets of merchant-ſhips which go from theſe ports to Surat, or return from thence, under the convoy of a man of war, which the King of Portugal keeps there for this purpoſe.

CAFFRARIA. A territory on the ſouth of Africa, lying in the form of a creſcent, about the inland country of Monomotapa, between 35 deg. of S. lat. and the tropic of Capricorn; bounded on the E. S. and W. by the Indian and Atlantic oceans, inhabited chiefly by the Hottentots; but moſt of the ſea-coaſts are ſubject to the Dutch, who have built a town and caſtle near the moſt ſouthern promontory called the Cape of Good Hope. See *Lower Ethiopia*.

CAG, or *Keg*. A ſmall wooden veſſel, uſed for containing brandy; as alſo pickled fiſh, ſuch as ſturgeon, oyſters, *&c.*

CAGLIARI, capital of the iſland of Sardinia, is ſituated in 9 deg. 12 min. of E. lon. and 39 deg. of N. lat. on a bay of the Mediterannean, in the ſouth part of the iſland. See *Italian Iſlands*.

CAGOSANGA, is the plant ſo ſovereign againſt a dyſentery, otherwiſe called ipecacuanha. See *Ipecacuanha*.

CAHYS. A corn-meaſure, uſed in ſome parts of Spain, particularly at Seville and Cadiz, four of which make an Engliſh buſhel.

CAJANTES, called alſo *Plumettes*, is a kind of ſtuff manufactured at Liſle, and in ſome other parts of the Netherlands. The breadth of thoſe of Liſle is from 3-4ths to 7-8ths of an ell, and their length from 20 to 40 ells. The other kinds have the ſame length, but are 1 ell 5-4ths broad; and great quantities of them are ſold in Holland.

CAIMACANIS. A kind of fine linen, of the number of Bengal cambraſines. See *Cambraſines*.

CAIMAN *Iſlands*, are ſituated in 81 and 86 deg. of W. lon. and 21 deg. of N. lat. lying S of Cuba, and N. W. from Jamaica; being moſtly conſiderable for the fiſhery of tortoiſes, which the Jamaica-men take here, and carry home alive; keeping then in pens for food, and killing them as they want them. See *Britiſh America*.

CAIRO, or *Grand Cairo*, is the capital of Egypt, in Africa, ſituated in 32 deg of E. long. and 30 deg. of N. lat. in a plain at the foot of a mountain; where the Engliſh, and other Europeans, have their conſuls and factors, for the protection and management of the Turky trade on that ſide. See *Egypt*, and *Turky*.

CALADARIS. A cotton-cloth, ſtriped with red or black, and brought from the Eaſt Indies, particularly from Bengal; the piece being uſually 10 yards in length, and 7-8ths in breadth.

CALAIS. A town of Picardy, in the county of Oye in France, on the coaſt of the Engliſh channel, ſituated in 2 deg. of E. lon. and 51 deg of N. lat. being one of the two ports of that kingdom, fixed for the entry of certain ſtuffs and commodities of the growth and manufacture of England and Holland.

CALAMANCOES. A gloſſy ſtuff, chequered in the warp, whence checks appear only on one ſide: they are uſually made entirely of wool, tho' ſome have a mixture of ſilk in the warp, and others of goats hair.

There are calamancoes of all ſorts of colours and faſhions, ſome plain, others flowered, and others watered; the piece being from 30 to 40 yards long, and from half a yard to three quarters wide; of which there are great manufactures in all parts of Flanders, Brabant, and France, from whence they are ſent abroad, and eſpecially to Spain; their chief uſe being for men and womens wearing apparel. But there is alſo a great manufacture of calamancoes in England, carried on at ſeveral places; particularly at Norwich, Coventry, Kidderminſter, and Halifax, both for domeſtic conſumption, and foreign exportation.

CALAMBOUC. A kind of wood brought from China, and ſold by druggiſts for aloes.

CALAMBOURG. An odorous wood, bordering upon a green colour, but different from the calambouc, and brought from the Eaſt Indies in large and long logs; its uſe being for the making of beads, turnery and cabinet work; as alſo for bagnio-keepers, for giving an agreeable ſcent to their baths.

CALAMINE, *Calaminaris lapis*, or *Calamine ſtone*, is a kind of foſſile, bituminous earth, reputed to be the ore of zink; of ſome uſe in medicine, but more ſo in foundery; being uſed to dye copper yellow, by converting it into braſs.

There are two ſorts of calamine, grey and red: the grey is found in the copper or lead mines of Germany and England; the red is found near Bourges and Saumur in France; but neither the grey nor the red becomes yellow, without baking them like bricks. Beſides theſe two natural, there are two artificial kinds of calamine, the beſt of which is called pompholyx. See *Pompholyx*, and *Zink*.

CALAMITA, in pharmacy, is a term ſometimes uſed for ſtyrax, becauſe antiently put up in canes, or calami, to preſerve it. See *Styrax*.

CALAMITE, is a name for the loadſtone.

CALAMUS *Verus*, called alſo *Calamus aromaticus*, and *Calamus amarus*, is a kind of reed, ruſh, or flag, growing in the Levant, and even in ſeveral parts of England, about the thickneſs of a gooſe-quill, and 2 or 3 feet high. It is called the ſweet cane in England, being much uſed as a cephalic and ſtomachic, and as an ingredient for the theriaca, or Venice treacle. The beſt ſort is greyiſh and reddiſh without, whitiſh within, its pith white, and taſte extremely bitter; but its leaves, as well as roots, well ſcented.

CALASH. A light, open, ſmall chariot, or travelling-coach. See *Coach*.

CALCANTHUM, or *Chalcanthum*, is nothing but vitriol, which ſome pretend to be the ſame thing with colcothar; tho' this is contrary to the ſentiment of the famous druggiſt Pomet, who ſays that the word *calcanthum* ſignifies only vitriol. See *Colcothar*, and *Vitriol*.

CALCEDONY, or *Lapis calcedonius*, is a precious ſtone of great reſemblance to the common agate, whereof it is a ſpecie. See *Agate*.

CALEDONIA. A ſettlement which the Scots made on the weſt-ſide of the gulph or river of Darien, in South America, in 1698, but abandoned it in 1700.

CALENDER. A machine uſed in manufactories for preſſing certain ſtuffs, ſilks, and linens, to make them ſmooth, even, and gloſſy; it is alſo uſed for watering, or giving waves to tabbies and mohairs.

CALF. A common animal for food, whoſe fleſh is called veal, and of whoſe ſkin leather is made for ſhoe-makers, ſaddlers, and bookbinders. Parchment is alſo made of calve-ſkins, and vellum of the ſkins of abortive or very young ſucking calves. See *Leather*.

CALICOULAN, or *Quilon*. A Dutch factory on the Malabar coaſt, in India, ſituated in 75 deg. of E. lon. and 9 deg. of N. lat. See *India*.

CALICUT. An Engliſh factory on the Malabar coaſt, ſituated in 75 deg. of E. lon. and 11 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. which was the firſt land the Portugueſe diſcovered in India, when they found the way by the Cape of Good Hope, in the year 1498; from whence the Engliſh import pepper, and other Indian merchandiſe. See *India*.

CALIFORNIA. An iſland, or peninſula, ſituated between 116 and 138 deg. of W. lon. and between 23 and 46 deg. N. lat. having the Pacific ocean on the north-weſt and ſouth; and the gulph of California, which ſeparates it from the Mexicoes, on the eaſt, unleſs it is joined to that continent by a narrow iſthmus on the north-weſt. See *Spaniſh America*.

CALIN. A kind of metal, finer than lead, but coarſer than tin; or perhaps a mixture of lead and tin with ſome mineral. It is very common in the Eaſt Indies, and in China, where it is uſed like lead in Europe for covering the roofs of houſes; and the tea-boxes which come from China are made of calin.

CALIPATAN. A town of India, remarkable for its pearl-fiſhery. See *India*.

CALK. See *Cauking*.

CALKUTTA, *Calcutta*, or *Fort William*. The preſidency of the Britiſh Eaſt India company on the coaſt of Bengal in India. See *India*.

CALLAO. The port-town of Lima, in Spaniſh America, ſituated in 76 deg. of W. lon. and 12 deg. of S. lat. See *Spaniſh America*.

CALLICOE. One of the general names for the cotton-cloths of India; being a particular kind of cotton, brought from Calicut, and other places, both white and coloured; which was formerly much worn in England, for the garments of women and children; but now prohibited to be worn, printed or coloured, otherwiſe than by needle-work, upon account of its prejudicing the woollen and linen manufactures of Great Britain and Ireland, as alſo the manufacturing of raw ſilk imported from Turky and other countries.

The ſtatutes of the 10th and 12th of Queen Anne, the 3d, 6th, and 7th of Geo. I. and the 9th of Geo. II. regulate the duties on callicoes, the prohibition againſt wearing them in England, and the manner of exportation.

The advocates for prohibiting the wearing of callicoes ſay,

ſay, that the printed and painted callicoes uſually worn in Great Britain, come under four denominations, all pernicious and deſtructive to trade: 1ſt, ſuch as being imported by the Dutch, are printed either in the Indies, or in Holland, and clandeſtinely run into Great Britain, notwithſtanding the prohibition: 2d, ſuch as are imported into Great Britain by the Engliſh Eaſt India company, and prohibited to be worn, becauſe printed in India, which are pretended to be exported, but privately run aſhore again and ſold: 3d, ſuch as being printed in Great Britain, are entered and ſhipped for exportation, in order to draw back the duties on the ſtamps, but are relanded and ſold: laſtly, ſuch as are printed in Great Britain, and legally worn and uſed; yet, under colour of which, all the other frauds are practiſed and concealed.

That the importation of printed callicoes from the Eaſt Indies, and allowing the uſe of them in Great Britain when imported, has all along been found prejudicial to the home conſumption of the woollen and ſilk manufactures in Great Britain, they ſay, needs no other proof than the above mentioned acts of parliament, which were obtained in conſequence of the general application of the manufacturers, as well maſters as workmen, through the whole kingdom, to prohibit and limit their conſumption.

In doing this, the parliament weighed the allegations on every ſide, and obſerved that the weavers cauſe ſupported itſelf: that the nature of the thing pleaded for it, and their own reaſon importuned them to it. The thing was ſelf-evident; the humour of the people, as too often is the fate of nations, ſeemed at that time poſſeſſed againſt their intereſt; and being hurried down the ſtream of fancy, they ran headlong into the greateſt contempt of the growth and manufactures of their own country and people; embracing, with a violence in their temper, not to be reſiſted, the ſilks and callicoes of India, in a manner even ridiculous to themſelves, as well as fatal to their intereſt; which ſtrange infatuation had almoſt been the ruin of their own trade, put a ſtop to the employment of the weavers, and, in a word, had ſtarved the poor: in ſupport of which they brought examples from their neighbours.

It may be aſked, perhaps, whither muſt the vaſt quantities of callicoes which the French Eaſt India company imports go? why, to England, Scotland, and Ireland; where the people are ſo fond of them, and where it is ſo eaſy to get them on ſhore. What then has not Great Britain to fear for her woollen and ſilk manufactures, which are ſo oppreſſed already with the clandeſtine importations of callicoes from abroad, as well as printing them at home, and when the French will not fail to bring in quantities equal to the opportunities which they have to land them? How eaſy this may be done, is evident to any one who is acquainted with the ſhores of England that lie neareſt to France: for are not French brandies, French wines, and French ſilks, to be had almoſt in as great plenty in the port-towns of Great Britain on that ſide of the country, as in ſome parts of France itſelf? and will it not be the ſame thing with India goods? Can Rumney-marſh want callicoes, where all French goods are, as it were, as familiar to them as in France? Can thoſe people who know how to carry off whole freights of wool, the moſt bulky of all merchandiſe, be ignorant to take on ſhore French callicoes, and French Eaſt India goods of all kinds? It cannot be doubted, but when the French come to have a quantity of callicoes by them, and no conſumption for them at home, they will find ways and means to croud them in upon Great Britain with much more eaſe than they do their wines and brandies. What the conſequence of this will be to the Britiſh woollen and ſilk manufactures, is very plain. They muſt be deſtroyed; nothing can prevent it.

Are the Indians or Chineſe, ſay they, prevailed with to lay by their own manufactures for any of Great Britain? No; it is evident that Great Britain is ſo far from being able to place any of her manufactures among them, that they deſpiſe the propoſal; refuſing to ſell thoſe goods, which Great Britain has ſo little need of, but for that ready money which ſhe has ſo little need to part with. And can Britons, without a juſt concern, ſee their own wilfully-poſſeſſed nation dreſſed up in the manufactures of foreigners, and deſpiſing the workmanſhip of their own people; madly ſending their money to India and China, to feed and ſupport heathens and ſavages; rejecting the manufactures of their own country, tho' they ſee the poor families ſtarving for want of work?

On the contrary, it has been urged, that the act paſſed for prohibiting the wearing of callicoes, has certainly done conſiderable prejudice to ſome of the manufactures of England, and particularly to the city of Norwich, for whoſe benefit it was chiefly intended. Of this truth they are fully convinced, the very people of that city being now ſenſible of it themſelves; and one of the chief promoters confeſſed before he died, that he found it one of the worſt acts that ever paſſed. The reaſon is, ſay they, that the prohibition of callicoes in Great Britain made them more plenty in foreign markets, where there uſed to be a demand for Norwich ſtuffs; and when the people abroad found that they could purchaſe callicoes, having the advantage of being new every time they were waſhed, for a ſmall matter more than they could procure Norwich ſtuffs, they choſe rather to get into the wear of this cleaner and neater apparel: ſo that thus there became little or no demand for Norwich ſtuffs abroad, and conſequently, by degrees, a decay of the manufactory at home; beſides which, the revenue loſt above 50,000 l. a year.

CALLICOE *printing*. The ſtaining, painting, or printing of callicoe; the perfection of which conſiſts in bright, fixed, and permanent colours, wherein the Engliſh printers now rival thoſe of India.

CALM. A ceſſation of wind on the ſea; which is never ſo great in the ocean, as in the Mediterranean; becauſe the ebbing and flowing of the ocean always agitate the water, when even there is no wind: but as the Mediterranean has neither a flux, nor reflux, the calm is there ſometimes ſuch, that a looking-glaſs is not ſo tranſparent as the boſom of the ſea; tho' ſuch a calm is an almoſt aſſured preſage of an impending hurricane.

CALMI. A kind of painted linen, manufactured in the territories of the Great Mogul.

CALMUCKS. Wandering tribes, or hords of Tartars, who inhabit the country north of the Caſpian ſea, and ſometimes put themſelves under the protection of Ruſſia, viſiting the city of Aſtracan, and the adjacent country once or twice a year. See *Tartary*.

CALPE *Mountain*, at the foot whereof ſtands Gibraltar, in the province of Andaluſia in Spain, is ſituated in 6 deg. of W. lon. and 36 deg. of N. lat. being antiently one of the pillars of Hercules; the other being Abyla, on the oppoſite coaſt of Africa.

This mountain, or rock of Calpe, which covers Gibraltar on the land-ſide, is half a league in height, and ſo ſteep that there is no approaching on that ſide; whereupon the Spaniards, when they beſieged Gibraltar in 1727, attempted to undermine the rock, and blow it up, which was found impracticable. See *Gibraltar*.

CALQUIER, or the *Calquiers Atlaſſes*, are Indian ſatins; but there are alſo Indian taffetas of this name. See *Atlas*, and *Taffetas*.

CALVI. A port-town of the iſland of Corſica, ſituated in 9 deg. 5 min. of E. lon. and 42 deg. 10 min. of N. lat. on a bay on the weſt-ſide of the iſland.

CAMAIEU. A ſtone, whereon are found various figures, and repreſentations of landſkips, and other appearances, formed by a kind of *luſus naturæ*, or fancy of nature; but the term is alſo applied to thoſe precious ſtones, as the onyx, ſardine, and agate, whereon lapidaries engrave figures.

CAMBAYA, or *Cambay*. A town of the Moguliſtan empire, ſituated in 72 deg of E lon. and 23 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. formerly conſiderable for a great trade, which is now removed to Surat. See *India*.

CAMBAYES, are cotton-cloths, manufactured at Bengal, Madraſs, and ſome other places of the coaſt of Coromandel; their length and breadth, particularly of the common ſort, being 15 cobres by 2, the cobre eſtimated at 17 inches and an half, which make an important article in the trade carried on by the Engliſh from Madraſs to the Manilles.

CAMBIO. An Italian term, ſignifying exchange, uſed in

Provence in France, and by ſome other nations, particularly the Dutch.

CAMBIST. A name derived from the Latin word *cambium*, or the Italian *cambio*; being appropriated to thoſe who negotiate bills of exchange, and regularly reſort the change, to inform themſelves of the currency of money, with regard to the exchange of foreign countries. See *Broker*.

CAMBLET, or *Camlet*. A ſtuff, made ſometimes of wool, ſometimes of ſilk, and ſometimes of hair, eſpecially of goats-hair with wool or ſilk; but in others, the warp is ſilk and wool twiſted together, and the woof hair.

England, France, Holland, and Flanders, are the chief places for this manufacture; but Bruſſels exceeds them all in the beauty and quality of its camblets; where the piece is from 44 to 75 yards long, and three quarters broad; and thoſe in England are reputed the ſecond in quality.

Figured CAMBLETS, are thoſe of one colour, ſtamped with various figures, flowers, and foliages, by means of hot irons, which are a kind of moulds, paſſed together with the ſtuff under a preſs; which are chiefly brought from Amiens in France, and from Flanders; tho' their commerce was formerly much more conſiderable than at preſent.

Water CAMBLETS, thoſe which, after weaving, receive a certain preparation with water; and are ſometimes paſſed under a hot preſs, to give them a ſmoothneſs and luſtre.

Waved CAMBLETS, are thoſe whereon waves are impreſſed, as on tabbies, by means of a calender; under which they are paſſed and repaſſed ſeveral times.

The manufacturers of camblets are to take care they acquire not any falſe and uſeleſs plaits, it being almoſt impoſſible to get them out again.

Camblets are proper for ſeveral uſes, according to their qualities, ſome ſerving for bed curtains, and other houſehold-furniture; and others for wearing apparel, both for men and women.

CAMBODIA. The capital city of a kingdom of the ſame name in Aſia, ſituated in 104 deg. of E. lon. and 12 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. being tributary to Siam. See *India*.

CAMBRASINES. Fine Egyptian linens, ſo called upon account of their reſemblance to cambrics; with which a pretty good trade is driven on at Cairo, Alexandria, and Roſetta; their price being about 18 s. the piece.

There are alſo cambraſines, of two ſorts, from Smyrna in Turky, thoſe brought from Perſia, and thoſe from Mecca: the former retain their name of cambraſines; but the latter are called mamoudis; being yellowiſh, ſofter, and finer than the others. Their uſual length is about 24 yards, and they are ſold for about 15 s. the piece.

Beſides theſe cambraſines of Perſia and Mecca, there are thirty other kinds bearing this name; particularly thoſe of Bengal, which are of different lengths and breadths, and of which two or three kinds are diſtinguiſhad by particular names, as horſe-ſhoes, turbans, and caimancanis.

CAMBRAY. The capital city of the Cambreſis, in the French Netherlands, ſituated in 3 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 50 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. on the river Scheld, near its ſource; being a large, well-built city, in a fruitful country, and conſiderable for its linen manufactory, eſpecially cambrics, which took their denomination from hence. See *France*, and *French Netherlands*.

CAMBRIC. A name given to a very fine, white, linen, manufactured at Cambray, Valenciennes, Arras, Bapoume, Vervins, Peronne, St. Quintin, Noyon, and other parts of the provinces of Hainault, Cambreſis, Artois, and Picardy in France; as alſo in ſeveral places of Germany and the United Provinces, and of late years in Scotland and Ireland; the piece being generally 7 yards 3-4ths long, and 7-8ths wide.

The conſumption of cambrics was very conſiderable in the Britiſh dominions; becauſe there were generally imported, every year, about 120,000 pieces into England, about 2000 into Scotland, and about 3000 into Ireland; which, upon an average, were worth 30 s. a piece; the duty amounting to 5 s. and the profit to the fair trader to about 5 s. a piece: whereby the whole money circulated in that trade amounted to 187,500 l. the duty to upwards of 30,000 l. and the fair profit to an equal ſum, annually. This branch of trade being ſo beneficial to the French, at a time when they are at open war with his Britannic Majeſty, it was ſeaſonably interdicted by an act of parliament paſſed in the year 1745; whereby it was enacted, That, after the 24th of June 1748, it ſhould not be lawful for any perſon to wear in Great Britain, any cambric, or French lawns, under penalty of forfeiting to the informer 5 l. for every offence; and, after the 1ſt of Auguſt 1745, no cambrics, or French lawns, ſhould be imported into Great Britain; tho' after the 1ſt of Auguſt 1746, liberty was given for ſuch importation, on proof made that they were for exportation only, and really the property of Britiſh ſubjects; for which the importer ſhould give ſecurity, in double the value of the goods imported, for payment of 5 l. for each piece which ſhould not be exported out of the kingdom, within three years after entry of the ſame. But, by a ſubſequent act for explaining the former, paſſed in the year 1748, it is declared, That if any wearer of cambric, or French lawn, who ſhould have purchaſed the ſame after the 24th of June 1748, ſhould be proſecuted, and ſhould diſcover and convict, before ſome juſtice, the vender, of having ſold the ſame, after the ſaid day; then, and not otherwiſe, he ſhould be diſcharged from the penalty of the ſaid act; when the penalty on the vender ſhould go to the perſon who informed againſt the wearer. If the offender be a feme-covert, the penalties to be levied on her huſband; and any milliner, ſempſtreſs, or other perſon, who ſhould for hire, after the ſaid 24th of June, make up any cambric, or French lawn, ſhould be liable to the penalties inflicted on the venders.

Theſe acts for prohibiting the wearing and importation of cambrics and French lawns, were certainly calculated with a deſign to diminiſh the trade of France, and contribute to the impoveriſhment of an open enemy at war: but ſurely they were never intended for the emolument of France, and the prejudice of Britain; both of which is now, and long has been, actually the caſe; becauſe the prohibition was not extended to Ireland, where the French have an opportunity of introducing about 16,000 pieces yearly, and 13,000 into Scotland; by which means his Britannic Majeſty is abſolutely defrauded of a conſiderable revenue, and the honeſt tradeſman of a profitable branch of buſineſs; while the French laugh at the ſmall diminution of their ſale, and the ſmuggler collects the rewards properly due to induſtry and honeſty.

Since the termination of the war, it was expected by the dealers in linen, that the act of prohibition would be repealed; which encouraged ſeveral merchants, and eminent tradeſmen, to prefer a petition to parliament, for re-opening that part of their commerce with France. The houſe of commons took the merits of this petition into conſideration, and the petitioners conceived the greateſt expectations of an immediate compliance with their requeſt; but a member of that illuſtrious body intimated that France ought to allow Great Britain ſome compenſation in return for taking off the prohibition, and gave ſome hopes of procuring ſuch an alternative; upon which the petitioners diſcontinued their application, in hopes of obtaining ſome ſpeedy and adequate conceſſion from France; who, in return for retracting this prohibition, would take no impolitic ſtep, in granting Great Britain the permiſſion of introducing into France the hard-wares of the Britiſh manufactures, which is the thing deſired.

CAMBRING, or *Cambering*, is a term among ſeamen, who ſay *a deck lies cambring*, when it does not lie level, but higher in the middle than at either end; they alſo ſay a ſhip is *camber-keeled*, if her keel is bent in the middle upwards; which may happen from her lying aground on a place, where neither her aft nor her fore-part touch it, and from many other reaſons taken from her make.

CAMEL. A domeſtic quadrupede animal, very tame, and well known in ſeveral parts of Aſia and Africa, making the principal riches of the Arabs. See *Caravan*.

The hair of this animal is the only particular belonging to it, which is regarded by Europeans, who make a conſiderable trade of it, being fit, when ſpun, for the making of ſtuffs, or, mixed with other hair, for being an ingredient in the manufacture of hats; as alſo principally uſed for pencils in painting.

CAMERET *Bay*, in the province of Britany in France, forms the harbour of Breſt, and is one of the ſtations for the royal navy. See *France*.

CAMERON *Cape*. A promontory on the north-part of the province of Honduras, in North America.

CAMINHA. A port-town in the province of Entre-minho-duero in Portugal, ſituated in 9 deg. 20 min. of W. lon. and 41 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. at the mouth of the river Minho. See *Portugal*.

CAMINI, in Spaniſh *Yerva-camini*, an herb differing only from the paraguay, or yerva con-palos, in that it is better culled, and without any of the ſtraws with which the other abounds. See *Paraguay*.

CAMMIN. A port-town of Brandenburgh Pomerania, in Germany, ſituated in 15 deg of E. lon. and 54 deg. of N. lat. at the mouth of the river Oder, oppoſite to the iſle of Wollin. See *Germany*.

CAMOMILE. A plant which has fibrous roots, hairy, thin, and ſupple ſtalks, with branches, encircled by a vaſt quantity of very ſmall leaves, crowned on the top by pretty large radiated flowers, hanging by a long ſtalk; the plant, and the oil extracted from its flowers, being drugs proper for medicine. See *Oil*.

CAMP, is a term given by the Siameſe, and ſome other people of the Eaſt Indies, for the quarters they aſſign to foreigners, who come to trade with them; it being in theſe camps, where each nation forms, as it were, a particular town, for carrying on their trade; where they have not only their warehouſes and ſhops, but alſo live with their families, clerks, and factors. However, Europeans are exempted at Siam, and almoſt in every other place, from this ſubjection; being allowed to live in cities, or in the ſuburbs of cities, according as it is moſt convenient for their trade.

CAMPANA. A kind of fringe made of gold, ſilver, or ſilk thread; terminating, at the bottom, by ſmall hoops, reſembling little bells. See *Fringe*.

CAMPANA, is alſo a kind of ſmall, ſlight, and fine lace, uſually of white flax thread, or ſilk of ſeveral colours. See *Lace*.

CAMPANINI. A ſort of marble, hewn out of the mountains of Carrara in Tuſcany; being very hard, but ſubject to crack, and having this denomination, becauſe, in the working, the ſound of a bell is in ſome manner imitated by it. See *Marble*.

CAMPBEL. A port-town of Scotland, ſituated in 5 deg. 10 min. of W. lon. and 55 deg. 35 min. of N. lat. on the E. coaſt of Cantire, in the ſhire of Argyle, 10 m. W. of the iſle of Arran.

CAMPEACHY, is a town ſituated in 93 deg. of W. lon. and 10 deg. of N. lat. on the gulph of Mexico, in North America, to a part of which it gives the name of Campeachy bay.

CAMPEACHY, or *Campeche*. A kind of wood uſed in dying, brought from Campeachy and Yucutan, in North America. See *Logwood*, and *Indian wood*.

CAMPHOR, or *Camphire*. A white, ſhining, tranſparent, friable, inflammable, odoriferous, volatile gum, or reſin, of a bitteriſh taſte, and very hot in the mouth; flowing from a tree of the ſame name, frequent in the iſlands of Borneo and Ceylon, and the neighbouring mountainous coaſts of India, reſembling a walnut tree. But ſome make two different kinds of camphor, according to the different parts of the tree where they are found; and that in the veins of the wood, is ſaid to be different from that which oozes out upon breaking the bark.

The camphor, as is reported, being at firſt red, is whitened either by the ſun or the fire; but there is little of the raw natural camphor in England; the Dutch taking care that it comes all refined by ſublimation, and ready prepared, which ſhould be choſen white, clear, light, and of a ſtrong ſmell.

Crude camphor is brought in ſmall lumps or loaves from the Eaſt Indies; which ſhould be of a good ſcent, dry, clean, white, and brittle, and ſhould be like common white ſalt when crumbled.

But there is another kind of camphor, much inferior in quality, which the Dutch bring from Japan, and mix with the other.

Camphor has various uſes, but eſpecially in medicine, wherein it is the moſt efficacious known diaphoretic.

Artificial CAMPHOR, is prepared with ſandarach, and white vinegar diſtilled, kept twenty days in horſe dung, and afterwards expoſed a month to the ſun to dry; at the end of which the camphor is found in form of the cruſt of a white loaf: but this is alſo called *juniper-gum*, *white varniſh*, and *maſtic*.

By an act of parliament paſſed in the 17th year of King George II. it was enacted, That all camphor refined in Great Britain ſhould have the ſame draw-back on all the duties of exportation, as a like quantity of unrefined camphor.

Refined camphor is ſold at Amſterdam for about 4 s. *per* pound; the tare is purſuant to the weight, and deductions are of 2 *per cent.* for good weight, and of 1 *per cent.* for prompt payment.

CAMPO, or *ſmall Campo*, is a kind of Spaniſh wool brought from Seville and Malaga. See *Wool*.

CANABASSETE. A French ſtuff, of which there are two kinds; the one without ſilk, and the other ſtriped with ſilk.

CANADA *company of France*. See *French Eaſt* and *Weſt India companies*, alſo *India Company*, and *Hudſon's Bay Company*.

CANADAS, or *Cavadas*, a Portugueſe liquid meaſure, 12 whereof make 1 almond, or 4 ½ gallons Wincheſter meaſure.

CANAN. A liquid meaſure, uſed in the kingdom of Siam, called by the Portugueſe choup, containing about a quart.

CANARY *iſlands*, or the *Canaries*, are the ſame with thoſe the ancients knew by the name of the Fortunate iſlands, being, as it is generally believed, firſt diſcovered and planted by the Carthaginians; but were neglected, and ſoon unknown, on the deſtruction of that republic by the Romans, who diſregarded navigation and the encouragement of commerce: however they were afterwards diſcovered again, about the year 1405, by John de Betancour, a Frenchman, in the ſervice of John, King of Caſtile, who firſt eſtabliſhed himſelf there, but poſſeſſed only the five ſmalleſt iſlands; having met with too conſiderable an oppoſition from the natives who inhabited the others; though theſe were afterwards reduced by the Spaniards, whereby the propriety of all the Canaries were annexed to the crown of Spain, and the Spaniards ſtill retain their poſſeſſion.

Theſe iſlands, ſituated to the W. of the coaſt of Biledulgerid, in Africa, lie between 12 and 21 deg. of W. lon. and 27 and 29 deg. of N. lat. the moſt eaſterly of them being 50 leagues from Cape Non in Africa.

There are 12 of theſe iſlands, but only 7 of them of any conſequence; whereof the principal is called the Grand Canary; and the other 6, Palma, Ferro, Gomera, Teneriff, Fortuventura, and Lancerola.

The Grand Canary is about 150 miles in circumference; being very fruitful, and remarkable for its excellent wine, which bears its name. It has alſo great plenty of melons, apples, olives, peaches, plantanes, figs, pomegranates, citrons, and oranges; as likewiſe of fir, dragon, and palm-trees.

Palma is ſituated about 60 miles N. W. of Teneriffe, and 200 miles W. of the continent, being about 80 miles in circumference. Palma is the principal town, which has a ſafe harbour, and is remarkable for its produce of wine, called palm-ſack, or Canary.

Ferro is the moſt weſterly of theſe iſlands; where the firſt meridian was lately fixed in moſt maps; but now almoſt every kingdom makes its capital the firſt meridian, as London is that of Great Britain, which is 19 deg E. of Ferro. The iſland is about 75 miles in circumferenee; but the ſoil is dry and barren, in moſt places, for want of water.

Gomera is ſituated to the W. of Teneriffe, about 200 miles W. of Cape Bajadore, in Africa; being about 70 miles in compaſs. It has a town of the ſame name, with a tolerable haven: but the country is remarkable only for ſmall cattle, and ſome dragon-trees.

Teneriffe is ſituated 350 miles W. of Morocco, and is about 120 miles in circumference: it is a fruitful iſland,

abounding in wines, corn, and oil; as alſo in fruit, cattle, fiſh, and fowl; though much encumbered with mountains, of which the moſt remarkable is that called the Pico, or Peak of Teneriffe, being one of the higheſt mountains in the world, of the form of a ſugar-loaf, the white top whereof may be ſeen at ſea upwards of 100 miles; and through this peak the Dutch formerly placed their firſt meridian. Oratavia is the principal ſea-port on the iſland, where the Engliſh merchants reſide with their conſul; from whence they export the beſt Malmſey wine; as alſo Canary, and Verdona, or green wines.

Fortaventura lies about 120 miles W. of Africa, being about 75 miles long, but of unequal breadth. It abounds in corn, and cattle, eſpecially goats, with whoſe milk they make cheeſe, and make great profit of their ſkins and fat: it has alſo palm, olive, and maſtic trees; orchella for dying; and a kind of fig-trees which yield a balm of ſome virtue in medicine.

Lancerola is about 120 miles in circumference: it produces ſome corn, and has good paſture for cattle.

The ſoil of all theſe iſlands is extremely fertile in all kinds of grain, fruits, and legumes; but more particularly in excellent wines, whereof Europeans annually export great quantities: but the Engliſh and Dutch export moſt; and it is computed, that, one year with another, 16000 tons paſs into England, and as many into Holland: however, other nations alſo drive on a tolerable trade in this commodity; though far inferior to that of theſe two nations. Sugars are likewiſe abundantly cultivated there; the Grand Canary alone has ſufficient to employ continually 12 ſugar mills; and the ſame, in proportion, may be ſaid of the other iſlands.

The other commodities exported from theſe iſlands are barley in abundance, honey, wax, goat-ſkins, and pitch; ſeveral ſorts of freſh, dry, and confected fruits; tame fowl, canary birds, and large and ſmall cattle, which the ſhips, trading there, purchaſe for their refreſhment.

The Engliſh ſhips uſually come directly to Teneriffe, from the time of the vintage of the Malmſey wines, till April. The commodities they bring with them being partly ſtuffs, and utenſils of their own manufactures; and partly what ſerves for the ſuſtenance of life: ſuch as cloths, ordinary camblets, bays, the greater part black, and ſome green; white and black anacoſts; blue everlaſtings; lamperi'les, of all colours; worſted knitted, and woven ſtockings; hats; Flanders linens, of about an ell in breadth, and other coarſer ones from Scotland; fine flax, and other more ordinary kinds; threads of all numeros; ſeveral pieces of wooden furniture, ſuch as bureaus, chairs, and drawers; harnaſſes for horſes; tin; hard, and haberdaſhery, wares; clay, for the making of pipes; Iriſh leather; all kinds of commodities, eſpecially ſilk ſtuffs, ſilk ſtockings for men and women, ribbands of all kinds, and taffetas of all ſorts, though only a few of the latter, becauſe they are brought from Spain at a cheaper rate; Engliſh and Iriſh wheat; barley of the ſame countries; herrings and pilchards; beef and pork; butter, cheeſe, and candles; and laſtly flour, from New England.

The other iſlands uſually bring from Teneriffe the European commodities they have an occaſion for.

The principal return of the Engliſh conſiſts in wines; whereof, during the war for the ſucceſſion of Spain, they exported almoſt three fourths leſs than when they joined Spain againſt France: but, ſince the peace of Utrecht, it may be ſaid, that they load to the amount of 4000 pipes of malmſey of the firſt quality; which they purchaſe, for the moſt part, in exchange for their commodities, and pay the overplus in the term of 12 or 18 months, either *per* week or month, till the whole is diſcharged; and the reſt conſiſt in ſack wines.

When the Engliſh were, in ſome reſpects, maſters of the Canary trade, they confined it not to the iſlands alone; their principal view being to facilitate that of the Weſt Indies, by the means of the regiſter-ſhips which uſually take in a loading there for the coaſts of Spaniſh America. It was therefore, upon this account, that they then kept there large ware-houſes, always well ſtored with their manufactures; which they readily found an occaſion to export, notwithſtanding the prohibition to the contrary; and whoſe returns they received in money, fruits, and commodities of the Weſt Indies; which they afterwards ſent into England.

It is certain that the commodities exported by Engliſh merchants, from the Canaries, ſcarce defray their coſt when brought into England; which undoubtedly might give them a diſtaſte for this trade, had not they indemnified themſelves in their imports, by which they gain from 60 to 70 *per cent.* in time of peace, and much more in time of war: but it is alſo true, that the ſale is tedious, and that they are obliged to contract ſome bad debts.

When the vintage turns out well in the Canaries, the iſland of Teneriffe alone affords upwards of 30,000 pipes, whereof about one third is of Malmſey wine, and the two other thirds of ſack: the reſt of the iſlands, as the Grand Canary, the iſlands of Palma, and Ferro, alſo afford ſcarce leſs than 15 or 16000 pipes; the greater part being ſack wines.

The price of malmſey, when the vintage is tolerable, is from 8 to 10 l. the pipe; that of ſack from 4 l. 10 s. to 6 l. and that of brandy about 10 l.

Of the regiſter ſhips which freight in the Canary iſlands, for Spaniſh America.

Beſides the regiſter-ſhips authorized with permiſſions from Spain, ſeveral others are alſo freighted at the Canaries, which receive their permits from the officers of his Catholick Majeſty, eſtabliſhed in theſe iſlands: though the permiſſions of theſe are, in reality, leſs extenſive than thoſe of others; being only granted them for bringing to America the produce of the country, ſuch as wines; and for returning with the ſole productions of the Weſt Indies, ſilver, and cochineal excepted, which they are prohibited from making their returns in: however, theſe exceptions are no prevention to them from importing to America all apparently neceſſary commodities; and returning with a quantity of ſilver, and cochineal, together with the other commodities allowed them.

Foreigners, who trade to the Canaries, have a greater ſhare in this contraband commerce than the iſlanders themſelves; whether they have an inclination to undertake it with their own ſhips, or content themſelves to freight the ſhips belonging to the ſubject of his moſt Catholic Majeſty: but, in both caſes, great ſecrecy and caution ſhould be uſed, that the King's officers might have no intelligence; though, in this caſe, even theſe officers are not untractable; it being eaſy to purchaſe their ſilence.

The French have but little commerce to the Canaries, in compariſon to ſome other nations; particularly the Engliſh: yet, as they ſay themſelves, it would be eaſy for them to equal, and perhaps to ſurpaſs others, if they knew how to make uſe of their advantages, eſpecially of the inclination theſe iſlanders have for them, and the diſguſt they have for a conſiderable time conceived of the Engliſh nation; either upon account of the act of navigation paſſed in 1660, which they always thought contrary to the liberty of their commerce; or upon account of the exceſſive duties of entry, which their malmſey and ſack-wines pay in England.

The principal reaſon which has hitherto prevented the French from having a greater ſhare in this trade is, that it conſiſts for the general part in two kinds of wine, whoſe conſumption in France is inconſiderable; where 500 pipes of both are more than ſufficient; and they have nothing to make up their cargo of return. However, as Mr. Savary inculcates, the example of other nations may eaſily remove this obſtacle; when the French, making as well as them their returns in malmſey and ſack-wines, may ſend into France what is ſufficient for the conſumption of the kingdom, and afterwards bring to the Baltic, and the North, the remaining part of their cargo. But, continues he, what ſhould excite the French moſt to undertake this trade is, that the merchandiſe, and manufactures, of their kingdom, are more proper for the Canaries, and the Indies, than the greater part of thoſe of other nations; and which theſe iſlanders can ſcarcely have, but at ſecond hand.

The Canary iſlands yield the King of Spain a conſiderable revenue: they have ſome tolerable fortifications, to protect them from the inſults of enemies; but they have no

good road, or harbour, for the galleons, and rich fleets of Spain, which generally rendezvous at Teneriffe, when outward bound, for wine, freſh water, and proviſions; as alſo, in their return they meet here for intelligence, eſpecially in time of war, when they wait here for a convoy to conduct them to Cadiz.

CANARY-*birds*, are little birds, greatly eſteemed for their muſical pipes, and the variety of their plumage: many of which are bred in Germany, and brought over to England for ſale.

CANASS. A term in uſe at Amſterdam, for the great cheſts, wherein the company's ſhips bring different kinds of teas from China, and the Eaſt Indies; which are generally made of tin, or calin.

CANCANIAS *Atlaſſes*, a kind of ſatin brought from the Eaſt Indies. See *Atlas*.

CANCANUM. A kind of gum lac, of uſe in medicine. See *Lacca*.

CANDIA *iſland*, the antient Crete, is ſituated between 22 and 27 deg. of E. lon. and between 35 and 36 deg. of N. lat. in the Mediterranean ſea; having the Archipelago on the North, Aſia Minor on the N. E. the Morea on the N. W. and Africa on the S. See *Turkiſh Iſlands*.

CANDIA, is alſo a kingdom in the interior part of the iſland of Ceylon. See *Ceylon*.

CANDIIL, *Candile*, or *Candy*, a meaſure uſed at Cambay, and Bengal, in the Eaſt Indies, for the ſelling of rice, and other grain, containing 14 buſhels, and weighing about 500 lb. upon which footing the burden of ſhips is eſtimated, as in Europe by the ton; for when it is ſaid that a ſhip is of 400 candiils burden, it may ſignify that ſhe can carry 200,000 lb. weight, which make 100 tons, the ton being upon the footing of 2,000 lb.

CANDIIL, is alſo a weight uſed in China, and Galanga, whereof there are two ſorts, one called the ſmall candiil, containing about three hundred weight; and the other the large candiil, of about four hundred.

CANDLE. A cotton, or flaxen wick, looſely twiſted, and covered with tallow, wax, or ſperma-ceti, in a cylindrical figure.

A good tallow candle ſhould be equally made of the tallow of bullocks, and of ſheep; that of hogs making them gutter, giving an ill ſmell, and a thick black ſmoak. Theſe candles are of two kinds; the one dipped, the other moulded: the firſt, which are thoſe in ordinary uſe, are of an old ſtanding; the latter are reported to be the invention of the Sieur le Brez, at Paris: but the manufacture of the two kinds is very different; excepting in what relates to melting of the tallow, and making the wick, which is the ſame in both. See *Tallow*.

Wax candles are made of a cotton, or flaxen wick, ſlightly twiſted, and covered with white or yellow wax. See *Wax*, and *Wax-candle*.

The quantity of candles made within the city and ſuburbs of London, generally amounts to 11,644,863 pounds a year: beſides which, great quantities of candles are imported and brought to London from many parts of the kingdom.

By the ſtatute of the 9th of Q. Anne, a duty of 4 pence *per* pound is to be paid on all wax candles imported; and for all tallow candles a half penny *per* pound, to be paid before landing: for all wax candles made in England 4 d. *per* pound; and for all tallow candles a halfpenny *per* pound, to be paid by the maker: however, one moiety of the duty on importation is to be repaid on exportation; which was made perpetual by the 3d of Geo. I. The duties upon imported candles are to be under the direction of the officers of the cuſtoms; and the duties of thoſe made in England are to be under the direction of the officers of exciſe, who may compound with private perſons, making candles to be ſpent in their houſes, at the rate of 1 s. *per* head *per annum*, for every one in the family; and ſuch compounders are not liable to any other duty.

Candles, for which the duty has been paid, may be exported, on giving ſecurity that the ſame ſhall not be relanded in Great Britain, when the exporter is to have a debenture for repaying him the duty on making.

By the ſtatute of 11th of Geo. I. it was enacted, That if any maker of candles, other than compounders, ſhould uſe any place for making or keeping candles or materials, without having made entry thereof at the office of exciſe, he ſhould, for every warehouſe, or copper, forfeit 100 l. See *Cattle*.

Sale, or auction, by inch of CANDLE, is when a piece of candle being lighted, people are allowed to bid while it burns; but, as ſoon as extinct, the commodity is adjudged to the laſt bidder.

CANDO, *Candi*, or *Condi*, a long meaſure uſed in ſeveral parts of the Eaſt Indies; and particularly at Goa, the capital of the places ſtill in poſſeſſion of the Portugueſe; which makes about 26 ells Engliſh.

CANDUAL, one of the Maldivia iſlands. See *Maldivia*.

CANDY, in ſpeaking of ſugar, denotes a preparation of that ſubſtance, made by melting and chryſtalliſing it ſix or ſeven times over, to render it hard and tranſparent.

CANDYING, makes an operation in pharmacy, as well as confectionary; thoſe ſimples which are preſerved in ſubſtance by boiling in ſugar being ſaid to be candied; though this performance is now turned over to the confectioner from the apothecary, to whom it originally belonged. See *Confects*.

CANE, or *Canna*, a long meaſure frequent in Italy, Spain, and the ſouth parts of France, of greater or leſs length, according to the places where it is uſed; being at Naples equal to 7 foot $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches Engliſh meaſure; at Tholouſe, and the Upper Languedoc, it is equal to the vara of Aragon, and contains 5 feet $8\frac{2}{3}$ inches; at Montpellier, in Provence, Dauphine, and the Lower Languedoc, it is equal to 6 Engliſh feet, $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches.

CANE, is alſo a kind of reed, brought from the Eaſt Indies, uſed for walking-ſticks, and other conveniencies: but the moſt beautiful canes brought into Europe come from Bengal; ſome being ſo fine that bowls, or veſſels, are made of them, which, being varniſhed within, by a kind of black, yellow, or ſome other coloured lacca, contain liquids like veſſels of glaſs and porcelain: theſe veſſels being made much after the manner of oſier baſkets, and much eſteemed for their fineneſs.

There are alſo canes ſlit into narrow bits, uſed for making cane-chairs, and hoops for ladies.

The ſugar-cane is the reed from which ſugar is extracted.

CANEA. A port-town on the N. ſide of Candia, ſituated in 24 deg. of E. lon. and 35 deg. of N. lat. being eſteemed the ſecond in the iſland.

CANELLA. A kind of confect, compoſed of a bit of cinnamon, covered with hard and white ſugar: the beſt kind of which is brought from Milan in Italy.

CANESSE DE MORE. A kind of ſilk brought by the Dutch from the Eaſt Indies; but the bariga de more is alſo a ſpecies of this commodity. See *Bariga de more*.

CANG *ſea*, or gulgh of Nankin, lies between China and Tartary, on the E. end of the long wall. See *China*.

CANGETTE. A kind of ſerge, manufactured in ſome parts of Lower Normandy, in France; particularly at Caen, from whence it is denominated: its uſe being for cloathing the common people, as it is both cheap and ſerviceable.

CANICA. A kind of ſpice growing in the iſland of Cuba, in the Weſt Indies, reputed a kind of wild cinnamon; tho' bordering in taſte more upon the clove than the real cinnamon: it is alſo uſed in medicinal caſes, wherein it is ſubſtituted for caſſia, and ſells very well in the Spaniſh iſlands.

CANISTER. A large tin box, in which tea is brought from China, containing from 75 to 100 pounds; but it now commonly means any veſſel, large or ſmall, that holds tea, whether it be made of earth, as china; or metal, as ſilver, tin, lead, or any thing elſe.

CANN. A drinking veſſel made of wood, in the ſhape of a barrel, from whence, at ſea, they call large barrels, or buoys, thrown on ſhoals, for ſea-marks, cann-buoys.

CANNA. See *Cane*.

CANNEQUINS, are white cottons, folded in a ſquare manner, and containing 8 ells in length; which are brought from the Eaſt Indies, being proper for the ſlave trade on the coaſts of Guinea, particularly at Senegal and Gambia.

CANNON. A military engine, or piece of ordnance, for throwing

throwing iron, lead, or ſtone bullets, by force of gun-powder, to a place directly oppoſite to the axis of the cylinder whereof it conſiſts: the firſt ſort of which were called *bombardæ*, from bombus, by reaſon of their noiſe.

The parts and proportions of a cannon about 11 feet long, are its barrel, or cavity 9 feet, its fulcrum, or ſupport, 14, and its axis 7, the bore, or diameter of the mouth 6 inches, and 2 lines the play of the ball; the diameter of the ball is therefore 6 inches, and its weight 33 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb.; the metal is 2 inches thick about the mouth, and 6 at the breech; it weighs about 5600 lb. the charge being from 18 to 20 pounds; it carries point-blank 600 paces, loads ten times in an hour, ſometimes fifteen, and 120 times in a day; its bed is 15 feet broad and 20 long, for the rebound, and it requires twenty horſes to draw it.

Larrey makes braſs cannon the invention of J. Owen, and ſays the firſt known in England were in 1535.

Cannons are made cylindrical, that the motion of the ball might not be retarded in its paſſage, and that the powder, when on fire, might not ſlip between the ball and the ſurface of the cannon, which would hinder its effect: but Wolfius would have the cannon always decreaſe, in proportion to the ſpace thro' which it is expanded; and the new cannons, after the Spaniſh manner, have a cavity, or chamber, at the bottom of the barrel, which helps their effect.

The names of the ſeveral cannon, their length, their weight, and that of their balls, are as in the following table.

Names of cannon.	Wt. of an iron ball.		Wt. of the cannon.	Length of the cannon.
	lb.	oz.	lb.	feet.
Cannon royal	48		8000	12
Demi-cannon large	36		6000	12
Demi-cannon ordinary	32		5600	12
Demi-cannon leaſt	30		5400	11
Culverin largeſt	20		4800	12
Culverin ordinary	17	5	4500	12
Culverin leaſt	15		4000	11
Demi-culverin ordinary	10	11	2700	11
Demi-culverin leaſt	9		2000	10
Saker ordinary	6		1500	10
Saker leaſt	4	12	1400	8
Minion largeſt	3	12	1000	8
Minion ordinary	3	4	800	7
Falcon	2	8	750	7
Falconet	1	5	400	6
Rabinet		8	300	5. 6 dig.
Baſe		5	200	4. 6

For the metal of cannons, it is either iron, or, which is more uſual, a mixture of copper, tin, and braſs; the tin being added to the copper to make the metal more denſe and compact; ſo that the better or heavier the copper is the leſs tin is required. Some to 100 pounds of copper, add 10 of tin, and 8 of braſs; others 10 of tin, 5 of braſs, and 10 of lead.

It is found by experience, that of 2 cannons of equal bore, but different lengths, the longer requires a greater charge of powder than the ſhorter, in order to reach the ſame range.

The ordinary charge of a cannon is, for the weight of its gun-powder, to be half that of the ball; but after each thirty diſcharges, the cannon is to be cooled, with two pints of vinegar, mixed with four of water, poured into the barrel, the touch-hole being firſt ſtopped. See *Ammunition*, *Arms*, and *Artillery*.

CANOE. A denomination given to the little boats uſed by the natives of both Indies; as well as by the Negroes in Guinea, made chiefly of the trunks of trees hollowed, and ſometimes of pieces of bark faſtened together. See *Boat*.

CANORIN. See *Saſſette*.

CANONOR. A fort and factory on the Malabar coaſt, in India, ſituated in 75 deg. of E. lon. and 10 deg. of N. lat. now belonging to the Dutch, who took it from the Portugueſe in the year 1663. See *India*.

CANQUES. A kind of cotton cloth manufactured in China; of which the Chineſe make the firſt part of their dreſs; the canques being properly their ſhirt: but there are two kinds of this cloth, thoſe of Fokian, containing

15 covids, or cobres, in length, and thoſe of Nankin, containing 20 covids in length, the covid being 14 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches.

CANSO. A port-town of Acadia, or Nova Scotia, in North America, ſituated in 62 deg. of W. lon. and 46 deg. of N. lat. on a narrow ſtreight, which ſeparates Acadia from Cape Breton, where there is a fine cod fiſhery, which the French of Cape Breton interrupt when at war with the Engliſh.

CANTAR. A Portugueſe meaſure. See *Alquier*.

CANTARO. A weight uſed in Italy, particularly at Leghorn, for certain kinds of merchandiſe; of which there are three ſorts; the firſt weighing 150 lb. the ſecond 151 lb. and the third 160 lb. The pound of Leghorn being 12 ounces avoirdupois weight: ſo that, upon this footing, theſe three ſorts of cantaros ſhould make in England as follows; that of 150 lb. 103 lb. 8 oz.; that of 151 lb. 104 lb. 3 oz.; and that of 160 lb. 110 lb. 6 oz. 3 drachms, and ſomewhat more.

CANTARO, is alſo a meaſure uſed in Cochinchina, being of three ſorts, which are uſed according to the different kinds of merchandiſe to be meaſured.

CANTHARIDES. A kind of poiſonous inſects, brought from Spain and Italy, with wings and feet like flies, or beetles, much uſed as an epiſpaſtic for the raiſing of bliſters.

There are various kinds of cantharides, but all of a yellow golden hue; the beſt being thoſe which appear with different colours, having yellow lines running acroſs their wings; which are killed by expoſing them over a very ſtrong vinegar, made to boil for that purpoſe; and they are afterwards dried to preſerve them.

Cantharides are ſometimes applied to the temples for the tooth-ach; and farriers uſe them in ſeveral diſeaſes among horſes; but they muſt be choſen new, dry, and whole, for they will not keep above two years without mouldering into a duſt of no uſe.

CANTIN *Cape*. A promontory in the Atlantic ocean, on the coaſt of Morocco, in Africa.

CANTON. A large populous wealthy city, and port-town of the province of Canton, in China, ſituated in 112 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 23 deg. 25 min. of N. lat. See *China*.

CANTOR. A weight uſed in Sardinia, equal to about 86 lb. of London.

CANVAS, or *Canvaſs*, a coarſe ſort of linen cloath, clear, and unbleached, ſerving for ſeveral purpoſes, eſpecially for the ground of tapeſtry work and painting; as alſo for cloathing negroes, covering womens ſtays, ſtiffening cloaths, and making coarſe towels; likewiſe for making ſails for ſhipping. See *Naval Stores*.

Canvas is made both of hemp and flax, and in moſt countries of Europe, particularly the northern parts. The piece for tapeſtry is about 45 ells long, and from a quarter to three quarters wide; that for cloaths is about 60 ells long, and $\frac{5}{6}$ broad; that for towels about 60 ells long, and $\frac{7}{12}$ broad: and that for ſails about 28 ells long and $\frac{2}{3}$ wide.

CAORLO. An iſland ſituated in 13 deg of E. lon. and 46 deg. of N. lat. at the bottom of the gulph of Venice.

CAP, in a ſhip, is a ſquare piece of timber, put over the head, or upper part of a maſt, having a round hole to receive the maſt, by which the top-maſts, and top-gallant maſts, are kept ſteady in the treſſel trees, where their feet ſtand, as thoſe of the lower maſts do in the ſteps.

CAP, is alſo a garment ſerving to cover the head, generally made of wool, cotton, thread, ſilk, brocade, velvet, taffety, or furr.

CAPE, in geography, a promontory, or head land, being a piece of land running out beyond the reſt into the ſea: ſuch as the Cape of Good Hope, and others, particularly deſcribed under their reſpective denominations.

CAPE-*Breton*. See *Breton Cape*.

CAPE *of Good Hope*. See *Bon Eſperance Cape*.

CAPE *Coaſt-caſtle*. A principal fort, and ſettlement, belonging to the Britiſh government, on the coaſt of Guinea, ſituated under the meridian of London, in 5 deg. of N. lat. See *Guinea*.

CAPER, the bud, bloſſom, or fruit, of a ſhrub of the ſame name, gathered green before it is expanded into a flower; dried in a dark place till withered, then infuſed in vinager,

to which at laſt ſalt is added, being uſed chiefly as a pickle in ſauces, and in medicine as an aperitive; all of which are brought from Toulon in France, except ſome ſmall ſalt capers from Majorca, and a few flat ones from about Lyons.

CAPHAR. A toll, or duty, impoſed by the Turks on the Chriſtian merchants, who carry or ſend merchandiſes from Aleppo to Jeruſalem; which was eſtabliſhed by the Chriſtians themſelves, when they were maſters of the Holy-land, for the ſupport of the troops, which they poſted in different paſſages to reconnoitre the Arabs, and put a ſtop to their incurſions: but the Turks uſe it as a ſpecious pretext for extorting arbitrary and conſiderable ſums from Chriſtians, in order to defend them, as they ſay, from the Arabs, with whom, notwithſtanding they not only keep up a correſpondence, but favour their incurſions and robberies.

CAPILLARY, *Capillaceous plants*, or *Maiden-hair*, are thus denominated from their form; being ſuch as have no principal ſtem with branches ſhooting out of the ſame, but growing from the ground like hairs from the head, and bearing their ſeed in little tufts on the backſide of their leaves. All the capillaries are reputed of uſe in medicine; eſpecially in the making of ſyrups, to which wonderful virtues are attributed; but the capillary of Montpellier, or *adianthum album Monpelienſe*; and that of Canada, or *adianthum album Canadenſe*, are the only ſort regularly uſed for that purpoſe; the reſt only ſerving to counterfeit them.

Capillaries of Canada, and Montpellier, ſhould be choſen new, very green, and the leaſt bruiſed as poſſible. As to the ſyrup, it ought to be of an amber colour, good taſte, boiled into a reaſonable conſiſtence, clear, tranſparent, and ſmelling neither ſour nor muſty.

CAPITAL, is the fund or ſtock, of a trading company, or corporation; or the ſum of money they jointly furniſh to be employed in trade. See *Fund*.

CAPITAL, alſo ſignifies the ſtock which a merchant, or trader, firſt adventures in trade on his own account.

The capital of the Eaſt India company at its firſt erection was 369,891 l. ſterling, which was afterwards doubled, and is now much more conſiderable: but 500 l. in the capital ſtock of the company, entitles the perſon to a vote in their general courts. See *Eaſt India Company*.

The power given by parliament, to the South Sea company to encreaſe their capital, was the ſource of all the miſchief in the year 1720. See *South Sea Company*.

CAPITAL-*city*, is the metropolis, or chief city, in a kingdom, in or near which the king or emperor commonly reſides; as, London, in England; Paris, in France; Madrid, in Spain; Vienna, in Germany; and Conſtantinople, in Turky.

CAPLAN. A little fiſh found on the banks of Newfoundland, which the fiſhermen uſe as bait for the cods.

CAPOC. A particular kind of cotton, obtained from a large tree in the Eaſt Indies, being uſed only for beds, cuſhions, or pillows, becauſe it is too fine and too ſhort to be ſpun.

CAPRAIA, or *Capraria*, an iſland of the Tuſcan ſea, ſituated in 11 deg. of E. lon. and 43 deg. of N. lat. 30 miles S. W. of Leghorn.

CAPRI, or *Caprea*. A city and iſland, ſituated in 14 deg. 50 min. of E. lon. and 40 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. at the entrance of the gulph of Naples. See *Italian Iſlands*.

CAPSTAN. A large cylinder, or barrel, placed perpendicularly on the deck of a ſhip, and turned by four leavers, or bars, which croſs it, ſerving, by means of a cable, which winds round the cylinder, to draw up vaſt burdens faſtened to the end of the cable, to keep veſſels in tow, or draw them aſhore, and hoiſt them up to be refitted; as alſo to unload the heavieſt goods, weigh anchors, and hoiſt the ſails.

There are 2 capſtans in a veſſel; the main capſtan, placed behind the main maſt, ſtanding on the firſt deck, and reaching 4 or 5 feet above the ſecond, being alſo called double capſtan, becauſe ſerving 2 decks for drawing of anchors; and becauſe its force may be doubled by applying hands on each deck, having bars, whelps, a pannel, and other things, for turning and ſtopping it.

The jeer capſtan, or little capſtan, ſtands on the ſecond deck, between the main maſt and the mizzen; its uſe being chiefly to heave upon the jeer rope, or to heave upon the viol, to hold off by when the anchor is weighing; and on other occaſions, where a leſs force is required than to weigh the anchors.

There is alſo a flying capſtan, which may be moved from place to place.

The terms belonging to the uſe of the capſtans are, *come up, capſtan*; that is, ſlacken the cable which they heave by. In a like ſenſe they alſo ſay, *launch out the capſtan*; and *pawl out the capſtan* ſignifies, ſtop it from going back.

CAPTAIN *of a ſhip*, is a ſea-officer, whereof there are two kinds; the one of a ſhip of war, the other of a trading veſſel; though, in propriety, the title captain belongs only to the commander of a ſhip of war, galley, fireſhip, or the like: but the captain of a merchant ſhip is only the maſter thereof, or he who has the command, or direction, of the ſhip, her crew, and lading; being an officer more uſually called the maſter, eſpecially in ordinary voyages: on the Mediterranean he is called the patron, or patroon; and in long voyages, as to the Eaſt Indies, he is honoured with the title of captain.

The owner of a mercantile veſſel appoints the captain, or maſter; who is to form the crew, chuſe and hire the pilots, mates, ſeamen, and other things; though, when the owner and maſter reſide on the ſame ſpot, this is uſually done in concert with the owner. See *Ship*.

CAPTIVE. A ſlave, or perſon, taken by the enemy, particularly by a pirate or corſair. See *Slave*, *Corſair*, and *Pirate*.

CAPTURE. A prize, or prey; particularly that of a ſhip, taken at ſea. The number of prizes during the continuance of the laſt war between the crowns of Great Britain, Spain, and France, were very conſiderable; for Great Britain had 1360 ſhips taken by the Spaniards, and 1878 taken by the French, making together 3238: the Spaniards loſt 1249 ſhips, and the French 2185, being together 3434, which were 196 leſs than thoſe taken by the Engliſh: ſeveral of the Spaniſh prizes were immenſely rich, a great number of the French were of conſiderable value, and ſo were many of the Engliſh; but the ballance was almoſt two millions in favour of the latter; which is a remarkable inſtance of the ſuperiority of the maritime force of Great Britain. See *Prize-ſhips*.

CAPUCHIN. A plant growing in the Eaſt Indies; and, when pickled, is ſomewhat like the caper.

CARABE, or *Powder of amber*, is yellow amber pulverized. See *Amber*.

CARABINE, or *Carbine*. A ſmall ſort of fire-arm, ſhorter than a fuſee; carrying a ball of 24 in the pound, being a medium between the piſtol and the muſket; which was formerly made with a match-lock, but of late only with a flint-lock. The barrel is two feet and a half long, and is ſometimes furrowed ſpirally within, which is ſaid to add to the range of the piece. See *Arms*.

CARACAOS, *Caracas*, or *Curaſſow*. A town on the coaſt of Terra firma, in South America, to a part of which country it gives the name of Caracca, ſituated in 67 deg. of W. lon. and 10 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. where the beſt cocoa, or chocolate nuts grow. See *Spaniſh America*.

CARACCA. A name ſometimes given to the cocoa of the continent. See *Cocoa*.

CARACOLI. A kind of metal, whereof the natives of the Antilles make a ſort of ornament in the form of a creſcent, which they alſo call caracoli; but the metal comes from Terra firma; and the common opinion is, that it is compoſed of ſilver, copper, and gold. The mixture of theſe metals is ſo perfect, that it has a never-fading colour, tho' remaining ever ſo long a time under ground, or in the ſea. It is grainy, and brittle; and thoſe who work it, are obliged to employ a mixture of gold to make it more malleable.

The Engliſh and French goldſmiths have made ſeveral experiments in imitation of it; thoſe who came neareſt putting to fix parts of ſilver three parts of purified copper, and one part of gold: but tho' ſkilful perſons found this allay very beautiful, it is much inferior to that of the In-

dians. However, father Labat thinks that the caracoli is a ſimple metal, of which rings, buckles, cane heads, and ſuch like trinkets, are made in the Antilles.

CARACT, or *Carat*. A denomination given to the weight, expreſſing the degree of goodneſs, fineneſs, perfection, or imperfection of gold. See *Gold*.

The mints have fixed the higheſt purity and perfection of gold at 24 caracts, the ſeveral degrees being eſtimated from the diviſions thereof, called *grains*; tho' it muſt be obſerved, that whatever care is taken to purify gold, and clear it from droſs, it can never be brought to 24 caracts, but ſtill comes ſhort at leaſt 1-4th of a caract, or a grain, which they call a ſixteenth, and ſubdivide it into 2-8ths, as they do each of thoſe 8ths into 2-16ths; on which calculation, they ſay, gold may be purified as far as the 1ſt 16th of the ſecond 8th, but no further. See *Grain*.

The ſtandard-gold of England is 22 caracts of fine gold, 1 of ſilver, and 1 of copper; which make 24 caracts, or 1 ounce troy; and goldſmiths generally work in gold of 22 caracts.

Caract fine, is the 24th part of the goodneſs of a piece of true gold; and *caract price* is the 24th part of the value of an ounce; tho' they alſo ſometimes ſay the *caract weight*, which is the 24th part of the weight of the ounce, or mark, 2 troy grains making a caract grain.

CARACT, is alſo the weight uſed in weighing diamonds, pearls, and precious ſtones, where it conſiſts of 4 grains; each of theſe grains being divided into halves, fourths, eighths, ſixteenths, and ſo on; upon which footing precious ſtones and pearls are eſtimated: and Tavernier relates, that the diamond of the Grand Mogul, deemed the largeſt in the world, weighs 272 caracts 9-16ths. See *Diamond* and *Grain*.

CARAGACH. A kind of cotton brought from Smyrna.

CARAGACH *thread*, is a name given at Smyrna to the fineſt ſpun cotton, which comes from Jaſſelaſſar, and the neighbouring places.

CARAGI, is a term in Turky, and all the ſtates of the Grand Signior, for the duties of importation and exportation paid for merchandiſe; the former of which are paid but once, and at the cuſtomhouſe only, where the merchandiſe is firſt unloaded; traders being allowed, if they have not ſold them, to tranſport them elſewhere; or, on ſhewing the firſt receipt for the duty, there is an exemption from any other cuſtomhouſe duties.

CARAGI, is alſo the name of the cuſtomhouſe officers, where the duties are paid; the general cuſtomhouſe officer, or chief director of the cuſtom-houſe, being called caragi-baſhaw.

CARAGNA, or *Karagna*. A very rare kind of gum brought from New Spain; the tree from which it oozes being like the palm-tree; and the gum, at its firſt iſſuing out, is white, but ſome time after becomes greyiſh, with a tincture of green; which is the ſort ſent into Europe, the white being but ſeldom met with.

It is imported moſt commonly in lumps, wrapped up in red leaves; which, to be of the beſt quality, ſhould be ſoft, like unguents for plaiſters; yet of a good conſiſtence, of an aromatic agreeable ſmell, and as white as poſſible; but the ſcarcity and dearneſs of this gum occaſions its frequent ſophiſtication, or a ſubſtitution of others, which have neither its properties, nor virtues: applied to the head, it baniſhes aching; its effect is the ſame with regard to rheumatic pains; and it is ſo highly eſteemed in medicine, as to give room to the proverb in pharmacy, "that what the "tacamahaca cannot cure, the caragna will." Beſides, the Americans compoſe a ſovereign balſam of this gum, as they pretend, for the healing of wounds and hemorrhoids.

CARAGROUCH. A ſilver coin, current in Germany, and worth about 2 s. 4 d. ſterling.

CARAGUATA *Maca*. See *Karata*.

CARAMANGCE. A medicinal drug, brought from China, and in great eſtimation among the Tonquineſe; who pay the Chineſe, at Tonquin, 12 tales, and 5 mace, or 4 l. 3 s. 4 d. ſterling, for what coſts the Chineſe at Canton only 6 tales and 2 mace, or 2 l. 1 s. 8 d. ſterling.

CARAMEL, is a ſugar, baked to a hard conſiſtence, and more than half burnt; being a ſpecies of black ſugar candy, with which ſeveral ſorts of fruits are candied, or covered, as almonds, filberts, and piſtachoe-nuts.

CARAPACE. The ſhell which covers the turtle, of which tortoiſe-ſhell is made.

CARAQUE, or *Carac*. A name given to the beſt kind of cocoa from the Caraccas. See *Cocoa*.

CARAQUE, or *Caracca*, is alſo the name which the Portugueze formerly gave to the largeſt ſhips they ſent to the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, laden with European merchandiſes, and for which they made their return with thoſe of Aſia and America; the caraque being uſually of 2000 tons, and having ſometimes ſeven or eight decks: but finding, by experience, the inconvenience of them, as well as the advantage of middling veſſels, they begun to make a reform, by laying aſide veſſels of this extraordinary magnitude.

The Dutch call the fineſt porcelains *kroak-porcelain*; becauſe the firſt oriental porcelain brought into Europe, was imported by the Portugueze caraques.

CARARA. A weight uſed in ſome places of Italy, particularly at Leghorn, for the ſale of wool and cod-fiſh; being about 115 lb. avoirdupois of London.

CARAVAN, in the eaſt countries, is a troop, or company, of travellers, merchants, and pilgrims, who, for their greater ſecurity, march in a body through the deſarts, and other dangerous places, infeſted with Arabs and robbers, accompanied by a chief, or aga, who commands each caravan, and has under him a number of janizaries, or other ſoldiers, ſufficient for their defence.

In Aſia, for forming a caravan, it is neceſſary to have, in writing, the permiſſion of a ſovereign prince, approved by two other neighbouring ſovereigns; which permiſſion ſhould contain the number of men, carriages, and quantity of merchandiſe, to compoſe the caravan; but thoſe to whom the caravan belongs, have it in their power to chuſe the officers, and to regulate every thing regarding the orders to be obſerved during the journey.

There are uſually four principal officers; the caravan bachi, or chief of the caravan, who commands abſolutely all the reſt, and gives them his orders; the captain conveyancer, who is abſolute during the march; the captain of repoſe, who exerciſes his employment when the caravan ſtops, and continues any time in one place; and the captain of diſtribution, whoſe buſineſs it is to diſpoſe all the parts of the caravan in caſe of attack, or battle, and to look to the management of the proviſions.

There is alſo a paymaſter or treaſurer, who has ſeveral clerks and interpreters under him, for keeping journals of all that paſſes; by which journals, ſigned by the ſuperior officers, the parties concerned in the caravan judge whether they have been faithfully ſerved.

But there is alſo another kind of officers, called Arabian mathematicians, being uſually three in large caravans, who act both in quality of quarter-maſters, and aids-de-camp; guiding the troops when the caravan is attacked, and appointing the quarters where they are to encamp.

There are five diſtinct kinds of caravans; the heavy caravans, compoſed of elephants, dromedaries, camels, and horſes; the light caravans, wherein are but few elephants; the ordinary caravans, where there are no elephants at all; the horſe caravans, wherein neither camels nor dromedaries are uſed; and laſtly, ſea caravans, that is, a fleet of merchant-ſhips convoyed by ſhips of war, ſuch as the caravan of veſſels from Conſtantinople to Alexandria.

The proportion obſerved in the heavy caravans is, that when there are 500 elephants, there are at leaſt 1000 dromedaries, and 2000 horſes employed; when the eſcorte is of 4000 horſemen, two men being required for the conducting of an elephant, five for three dromedaries, and ſeven for twelve camels; which multitude of ſervants, joined to the officers and paſſengers, whoſe number is not fixed, ſpirit up the eſcorte in caſe of a battle, making the caravan more formidable and ſafe: tho' paſſengers are not obliged to fight; yet, if they decline fighting, they are not to depend upon any proviſions from the caravan.

There are elephants which ſerve only for fighting; and, as ſuch, an elephant, in good condition, is worth 180 l. ſterling; being brought from the Eaſt Indies, where their beauty and whiteneſs increaſes their price.

The dromedaries are found in the mountains of Golconda, each of which is worth 70 l. ſterling.

A good camel is worth about 14 l. ſterling, which is an animal abundantly found in Perſia, and the territories of the Mogul; but the beſt come from Arabia Felix.

The equipage of an elephant coſts about 16 l. ſterling, that of a dromedary about 8 l. and that of a camel about 4 l. ſterling.

The expences of an elephant amount to about 16 s. a day whilſt on a journey: a dromedary expends on a journey 5 abaſſis, and a camel 3 abaſſis a day, each abaſſi being about 16 d. The feeding of a horſe is an abaſſi a day; and it will coſt a man on journies thro' inhabited countries, where caravanſeras are met with every night, two abaſſis; but twice as much on journies acroſs deſarts, becauſe the carrying of drink adds to the expence.

The payment of the officers and ſervants, beginning with the meaneſt, is made on Monday, unleſs it be full, or new moon; in which caſe it is referred till the next day.

The arms for the convoy are a carabine, a half pike, two piſtols, a ſabre, a bayonet, and a calot of iron to place under their caps or turbans.

A nick, that is, a child, of about 9 or 10 years old, fitted for this exerciſe, is mounted on each elephant, whom he conducts, and ſpurs on, to animate it for the battle; and he alſo charges the arms of two ſoldiers, who mount the elephant with him; but the day ſpecified for departure is never changed.

For ſuſtaining the exceſſive heats, ſtockings and drawers are worn, made of a kind of cotton, extracted from that ſtone which the antients called *amianthus*; and which, when beaten, has the property of being ſpun, and ſuppoſed incombuſtible.

As the greater part of the Arabian princes have no other funds to ſubſiſt upon but plunder, they diſpatch ſpies to inform them of the departure of the caravans, which they attack very often with ſuperior forces; making their greateſt efforts againſt the center, to cut it off with the van-guard, which they often ſucceſsfully effect; but, when repulſed, they come to an agreement, and are pretty obſervant of their conditions; tho', if the caravan is defeated, it is abſolutely pillaged, and all the eſcorte made ſlaves: however, ſtrangers are treated with more clemency; for ſometimes the capture of a ſingle caravan is ſufficient to enrich theſe princes.

The plague being very common in the eaſt, great precaution is uſed that the caravans might not communicate it to the places through which they paſs, or be infected therewith themſelves; ſo that, upon arriving near towns, mutual queſtions are put concerning the ſtate of health; and, if there is the leaſt apprehenſion of any diſtemper, victuals are furniſhed over the walls; nor is any reciprocal communication allowed.

The profits made in theſe caravans, while on the road, are often incredible: and Monſieur Bugnon relates, that, by different repetitions of exchange, one of his friends had gained to the amount of 20,000 crowns, by a gold watch that had coſt him 30 louis-d'ors, which he gave for two rough diamonds to a merchant of the caravan with whom he travelled; ſo that for what coſt him only 28 l. 9 s. 6 d. he made 4834 l. ſterling.

A great number of caravans, ſome more, and others leſs conſiderable, depart uſually in the month of September, from Erzerum, the capital of Turkiſh Armenia, with ſilks and furs, to Tocat, Smyrna, and Conſtantinople.

Beſides, as Erzerum is a great thorough-fare from Perſia and India to Conſtantinople, by the way of Trepiſond, and the Black ſea, the merchants chuſe this way to avoid the Arabs who lie on the road to Aleppo; upon which account a caravan ſets out every week from hence to Tocat, Teflis, Tauris, Trepiſond, or Aleppo; but the Curdes, or the natives of Curdiſtan, or Aſſyria, who ramble about with their flocks and herds, as far as the ſource of the Euphrates, are almoſt as troubleſome to the merchants as the Arabs, frequently extorting money from the caravans on one pretence or other: and notwithſtanding theſe Curdes call themſelves Jaſides, or followers of Jeſus, they have a great deal of ſuperſtition, and very little religion among them; acknowledging neither the Turks or Perſians for their ſovereigns, and retiring, when they are attacked, to their cold inacceſſible mountains; ſo that neither of theſe powers think it worth their while to make an entire conqueſt of them.

There are alſo caravans which carry on a commerce between Ruſſia and China, by traverſing the extenſive country of Siberia; and there are likewiſe caravans for carrying on a trade from the coaſts of Barbary, and other parts of Africa, to Egypt.

CARAVAN, is alſo an appellation given to the voyages, or campaigns, which the knights of Malta are obliged to make at ſea, againſt the Turks and Corſairs, in order to arrive at the commanderies and dignities of the order; which denomination was occaſioned by the knights frequently ſeizing the caravan going from Alexandria to Conſtantinople.

CARAVANSERA, is a large public building, or inn, in the oriental countries, deſtined to receive and lodge the caravans, as alſo people of all religions and countries, without any queſtions aſked, or money required.

Though the caravanſeras ſerve in lieu of inns; yet there is this eſſential difference between them and the European inns, that the traveller finds nothing at all in the caravanſera, neither for himſelf nor his cattle; but muſt carry all his proviſions and neceſſaries with him. There are few cities in the eaſt without their caravanſera, eſpecially within the dominions of Turky, Perſia, and the Great Mogul; where thoſe of Conſtantinople, Iſpahan, and Agra, the capitals of the three empires, are diſtinguiſhed for their magnificence and utility: however, there are ſeveral of them in other cities which ſerve not only as inns, but as ſhops, warehouſes, and even exchanges.

Theſe caravanſeras are uſually great ſquare buildings, containing very ſpacious courts; under whoſe piazzas there is a kind of bank, raiſed ſome feet above the level ground, whereon merchants and travellers reſt themſelves, and their equipage, as well as they can, the beaſts of burden being faſtened to the foot of the bank; but over the doors, opening into the court-yard, there are ſometimes ſmall chambers, which the ſtewards of the caravanſera let at an exceſſive rate, to thoſe who are willing to be in private.

The greater part of theſe buildings are the effects of Mahometan charity; the greateſt lords, either through devotion or oſtentation, laying out prodigious ſums on them, eſpecially if built in dry and deſart places, where there is a neceſſity of bringing water from a great diſtance, and at vaſt expence; no caravanſera being without its fountain.

CARAVANSERASKIER, is the director, ſteward, or intendant, of a caravanſera; and at Iſpahan, where there are caravanſeras, in manner of halls, or exchanges, for laying up goods, and expoſing them to ſale, the caravanſeraſkier is accountable for them, in conſideration of a certain fee.

CARAVEL, or *Carvel*. The name of a trading veſſel uſed by the French in the Mediterranean ſea, as alſo for their herring-fiſhery; having a ſquare poop, and being rigged like a galley, of about 30 tons burden.

CARAWAY, or *Caroway*. A medicinal ſeed, produced from a plant of the ſame name, chiefly in Provence and Languedoc in France; being narrow, longiſh, furrowed on the back, and of a briſk aromatic taſte; which is of great uſe in England and Germany, particularly for making biſkets, ſeed-cakes, and confections.

CARBEQUI, or *Copper aſper*. A coin current in Aſiatic Georgia, particularly in Teflis, the capital, worth about 1 s. 4 d. Sterling. See *Abagi*.

CARBOUILLON, or rather *Quart-Bouillon*, is a duty raiſed on white ſalt in Normandy.

CARBUNCLE, among modern lapidaries, is a ſtone of the ruby kind, very rare, and of a rich glowing blood red colour; though ſome ſay it is not intitled to the appellation unleſs it exceed twenty carats weight. See *Ruby*.

CARCHEO *Company*, was a Portugueſe company of African merchants. See *Portugueſe African Companies*.

CARD. See *Cards*.

CARDAMOMUM, or *Cardamum*. A medicinal ſeed, of the aromatic kind, contained in the pods of a plant brought from the coaſt of Malabar in the Eaſt Indies, and from the iſle of St. Mary, near Madagaſcar; being uſed in the compoſition

compoſition of Venice treacle. The ſeed is diſtinguiſhed into three kinds, according to the ſeveral ſizes of the pods, as majus, minus, and maximum; but the taſte, ſmell, colour, and form of the grain, is the ſame in all; which is a purple colour, angular, of a ſharp biting taſte, and a ſtrong penetrating ſmell; but the laſt kind is alſo called grains of paradiſe; though the firſt excels the reſt, both in ſmell, taſte, and virtue; their chief uſe being in diſeaſes of the brain, ſtomach, and womb; as alſo to ſeaſon rice in the eaſtern countries.

CARDER. A perſon who cards wool, flax, wad, hair, cotton, or ſilk, for ſpinning.

CARDIGAN. A port-town of Wales, ſituated in 4 deg. 40 min. of W. lon. and 52 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. near the mouth of the river Tivy, on a bay of its own name, in the Iriſh channel.

CARDINAL *points*, in coſmography, are the four interſections of the horizon with the meridian, and the prime verticle; of theſe, two are called north and ſouth, with regard to the poles they are directed to, being the interſections of the horizon and meridian; and the other two are called eaſt and weſt, being the interſections of the horizon and firſt vertical: the cardinal points, therefore, coincide with the four cardinal regions of the heavens, and are ninety degrees diſtant from each other.

CARDINAL *winds*, are thoſe that blow from the cardinal points.

CARDING. A preparation of wool, cotton, hair, or flax, by paſſing it between the iron points, or teeth, of two inſtruments, called cards, to comb, diſentangle, and range the hairs or fibres thereof; as alſo to diſpoſe it for ſpinning: but, before the wool is carded, it is greaſed with oil, whereof one fourth of the weight of the wool is required, for wool deſtined for the woof of ſtuffs, and one eighth for that of the warp.

CARDS, are the above mentioned inſtruments uſed in carding; which, by the ſtatutes of the 3d of Edward IV. the 1ſt of Richard III. the 39th of Elizabeth, and the 3d of Charles I. are not to be imported; nor the wire taken out of old cards be put into new leather and boards, in order for ſale, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, if not ſeized: but, by the ſtatutes of the 14th of Charles II. and the 2d of William and Mary, they may be amended for the proprietor's own uſe, or for exportation only.

CARDS, for play, are little pieces of fine paſteboard, made of ſeveral ſheets of paper paſted together, and cut in oblong ſquares of three inches and a half in length, and one inch and a half in breadth; on which ſeveral figures and points are painted, and of which ſeveral numbers are put together, according to the games for which they are deſigned.

In the commerce of cards, a pack is 52 of them wrapped up in a paper, ſtamped with the name, ſign, place of abode, and device of him who ſells them; the half-dozen of cards making ſix packs, and a groſs of cards being 12 half-dozens.

By the ſtatutes of the 10th of Queen Anne, and the 5th of George I. cards and dice may, upon ſufficient ſecurity, be exported without payment of the ſtamp-duty; but no playing cards are to be imported. See *Stamps*.

CARDMAKERS *Company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of Charles I. on the 22d of October 1629, by the name of The maſter, wardens, and commonalty of the myſtery of the makers of playing-cards of the city of London; being a corporation governed by a maſter, two wardens, and 18 aſſiſtants, who have neither livery, nor hall to tranſact their affairs in.

CAREENING. A term, in the ſea language, uſed for the laying a veſſel on one ſide, to caulk, ſtop up leaks, refit, or trim the other ſide.

A ſhip is ſaid to be brought to a *careen*, when the greateſt part of her lading is taken out, and a pontoon, or another veſſel lower than herſelf, laid by her ſide; ſo that ſhe is haled down to it, as low as occaſion requires, either a fourth or fifth ſtrake, and there kept, by the weight of ballaſt, and ordnance, as well as by ropes, leſt it ſhould ſtrain her maſts too much.

This is done with deſign to trim her ſides or bottom, to caulk her ſeams, or to mend any fault ſhe has under the water: hence, when a ſhip lies on one ſide in ſailing, ſhe is ſaid to *ſail on the careen*.

Ships of war are generally careened every three years; and the half careen is when they can only careen half the ſhip, not being able to reach ſo low as her bottom.

CARELSCROON. A port-town, and excellent harbour, in the province of Gothland, ſituated on the coaſt of the Baltic, in 15 deg. of E. lon. and 56 deg 20 min. of N. lat. where the Swedes lay up their royal navy. See *Sweden*.

CARGADORS, is a name given at Amſterdam, to a kind of ſhip-brokers; whoſe ſole buſineſs is to inquire after a freight for ſuch ſhips as are ready fitted out; or to give notice to merchants, who have goods to ſend by ſea, of the ſhips ready for departure, and the places of their deſtination. See *Broker*.

CARGAMON. A kind of ſpice, very ſcarce and precious, growing only in Viſapour, in India.

CARGO, or *Cargoe*, ſignifies ſeveral things with regard to commerce: ſometimes it is underſtood of the entire lading of a ſhip, very often of the invoice of merchandiſe wherewith a ſhip is laden, and ſometimes for expreſſing the proper time for loading ſhips with different kinds of merchandiſe; in which laſt ſenſe it is ſaid, this month is the time for the cargo of wines, oil, cod-fiſh, and of other commodities. See *Freight*.

Or a cargo commonly implies all the lading of a ſhip, excluſive of the crew, rigging, furniture, and proviſions: thus, it is ſaid, a ſhip has its cargo, when it is fully laden, or its half cargo, when half laden; and it is called a rich cargo, when the lading conſiſts of a great and valuable quantity of merchandiſe, ſuch as are generally on board the ſhips belonging to the Eaſt India and Turky companies.

Book of CARGO. See *Book-keeping*.

CARGO, or *Cargue*, is alſo a weight or meaſure uſed at Marſeilles, in France, ſignifying a load, weighing about 261 lb. of London avoirdupois, and is uſed in the ſale of Levant and Turky goods.

CARIBBEE *Iſlands*, or the *Antilles*, are ſituated in the Atlantic ocean in America, between 59 and 63 degrees of W. lon. and between 11 and 18 deg. of N. lat; comprehending the ſeveral iſlands of Barbadoes, St Vincent, St Lucia, Martinico, Dominica, Guardaloupe, Marigalante, Deſeada, Montſerat, Redonda, Antigua, Nevis, St. Chriſtopher's, Barbuda, Euſtatia, St. Bartholomew, Saba, St. Martin, Anguilla, Sombrero, Anegada, and ſome other conſiderable places, which are alſo diſtinguiſhed by the names of the Leeward and Windward iſlands; the former including all the iſlands from Anegada to Guardaloupe, and the latter all thoſe from Dominica to Barbadoes: beſides, the iſlands of St. Vincent, St. Lucia, and Dominica, as well as Tabago, are denominated the Neutral iſlands, on account of a mutual claim being laid to them by the crowns of Great Britain and France, who agreed that they ſhould remain unfortified, as neutral places, till their propriety was determined. See *Britiſh America* under *Great Britain*, *French America* under *France*, and *Dutch America* under the *United Provinces*.

CARIDOW. One of the Maldivia iſlands. See *Maldivia Iſlands*.

CARISSEL, or *Creſean*. A kind of coarſe cloth, uſed for making of tapeſtry; being either white, or dyed of ſeveral colours, and ſomewhat like canvas.

CARLA. An Indian cloth, manufactured in a village of the ſame name, about a league from Cananor, pretty near Tellicherry, on the coaſt of Malabar; which Monſieur Savary, and Mr. Poſtlethwayt after him, have miſtaken for Pondicherry.

CARLIN. A ſmall ſilver coin, current in the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily; the former being worth 4 d. ſterling, and the latter only three halfpence.

CARLINA, *Carolina*, or *Chamæleon*. A medicinal plant, reputed as a ſovereign againſt poiſon and the plague, tho' uſed for the cure of ſeveral other maladies; of which there are two ſorts, the white and the black, differing hardly in any thing more than colour; tho' the white puſhes out no ſtalk, and the black riſes to a reaſonable height. They both grow on the Alps, Pyreneans, and on the Mount d'Or in

in Auvergne, in ſuch abundance as to be a great article of food for the peaſants, who partly live upon their roots, and a kind of artichokes, of which they are productive. However, there is another kind, whoſe bloſſoms are of a purple colour; but this is known only to botaniſts.

The roots of black and white carlina, to be good, ſhould be new, plump, of a ſweet taſte, and aromatic ſmell; the root of the black being half open, and lighter than that of the white.

CARLINGFORD. A port-town of Ireland, ſituated in 6 deg. 23 min. of W. lon. and 54 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. on Carlingford bay, in the county of Louth, and province of Leinſter. See *Ireland*.

CARLINGS, or *Carlines*, in a ſhip, are two pieces of timber lying fore and aft, along from one beam to another, directly over the keel, ſerving as a foundation for the whole body of the ſhip: for on theſe the ledges reſt, whereon the planks of the deck, and other matters of carpentry, are made faſt; the carlings having their ends let into the beams called *culver-tail-wiſe*.

CARLING *knees*, are timbers going athwart the ſhip, from the ſides to the hatchway; ſerving to ſuſtain the deck on both ſides.

CARLOCK. A kind of blubber, made out of the ſturgeon's bladder, and brought from Archangel, in Ruſſia; its principal uſe being to clear wine; tho' it is uſed for dying: but the beſt ſort comes from Aſtracan, a city of Ruſſia, on the mouth of the Volga, where there is a conſiderable ſturgeon fiſhery.

CARMEN, are ſuch perſons who are employed in loading, carrying, and unloading goods, and merchandiſes, in carriages called cars.

CARMENS *company of London*, were, in the reign of Henry VIII. by an act of common council, conſtituted a fellowſhip of the city; and by letters patent of James I. in 1606, were incorporated with the fraternity of fuellers, under the appellation of woodmongers; with whom they continued till the year 1668, when the woodmongers were by parliament convicted of many enormous and grievous frauds in the ſale of coals, and other fuel; and, being apprehenſive of a puniſhment adequate to their crimes, threw up their charter to avoid the ſame: whereupon the carmen were, by an act of common council, re-appointed a fellowſhip of the city, under the title of The free carmen of the city of London; being governed by a maſter, 2 wardens, and 41 aſſiſtants, under the direction of the Lord Mayor and court of aldermen; but they have neither hall or livery.

To this fellowſhip belong 420 cars, or carts, for the carrying of goods and merchandiſe to and from all parts within the city and ſuburbs; the rule and government of which are, by an act of common council, veſted in the preſident and governors of Chriſt's hoſpital, under the following regulations and reſtrictions.

1ſt. That no more than 420 cars, or carts, be allowed to work within the city of London, and liberties thereof; every perſon preſuming to work a ſupernumerary car, or cart, contrary to the tenor of this injunction, being, for every ſuch offence, to forfeit 40 ſhillings. 2d, That no car, or cart, be kept by the fellowſhip, but ſuch as ſhould be duly licenſed by the preſident and governors of Chriſt's hoſpital, upon penalty of 40 ſhillings. 3d, That a fine of 20 s. be paid upon the admittance, or alienation of every car or cart, and 17 s. 4 d. annually for a licence to work, in default of which every offender is to be ſuſpended and diſabled from working. 4th, That, for the more effectually preventing all abuſes and impoſitions upon the citizens, by the carmen, or workers of carts, every car, or cart, is to have a number cut in braſs upon it.

The following rates or prices aſcertained by act of common council, are to be paid for the carriage of goods to and from the ſeveral places following.

1ſt. From any wharf between the Tower and London-bridge, to Tower-ſtreet, Grace-church-ſtreet, Fen-church ſtreet, Leadenhall-ſtreet, Cornhill, Biſhopſgate-ſtreet within, and places of the like diſtance up hill, with 18 hundred weight, not exceeding 20 hundred wt. 2 s. 8 d.; and being above 20 hundred wt. 2 d. for every hundred; provided the carmen help to load and unload their carts. 2d, From any wharf aforeſaid, to Broad-ſtreet, Lothbury, Old-jewry, Baſſiſhaw, Coleman-ſtreet, Ironmonger-lane, St. Lawrence-jewry, Milk-ſtreet, Aldermanbury, Cheapſide, Wood-ſtreet, Friday-ſtreet, Bread-ſtreet, and places of like diſtance, for the like weight as aforeſaid, 2 s. 6 d. 3d. For every half chaldron of coals, and for every hundred of faggots, 1 s. and 4 d. 4th, From any of the wharfs aforeſaid to Smithfield-bars, Holborn-bars, Temple-bar, or any of the bars on the north ſide of the city, and places of like diſtance, up the hill, with 18 hundred wt. 3 s. 4 d. for every load; and going beyond the ſaid places the parties to agree with the carmen. 5th, From any of the wharfs aforeſaid, to Tower-ſtreet, Fenchurch-ſtreet, Leadenhall ſtreet, Biſhops-gate-ſtreet, and places of the like diſtance, with a load of 15 hundred, not exceeding 18 hundred weight, 1 s. 8 d. and ſo in proportion for the reſt.

But, if a carman exacts more than the rates aforeſaid, upon due proof before the Lord Mayor, or any two juſtices of the peace, he is to ſuffer impriſonment for 21 days, without bail or main-prize; and complaints of the abuſes of carmen may be made every Tueſday, at 2 o'clock in the afternoon, to the court ſitting in Chriſt's hoſpital.

Carmen, porters, or watermen, aſſiſting in the landing of goods, without a warrant and an officer, may be committed to goal for the firſt offence, till they find ſecurity for their good behaviour; and for the ſecond offence to be impriſoned two months without bail, or pay 5 l. to the ſheriff.

CARMINE. A bright red, or crimſon colour, bordering ſomewhat on purple; which is uſed by woollen drapers to colour and hide thoſe places in ſcarlet cloth which are defective: it is alſo uſed by painters in miniature, and ſometimes by painters in oil; tho' rarely by the latter, upon account of its exceſſive price; this being the moſt valuable product of the cochineal meſtique; and to be good it ſhould be almoſt an impalpable powder, and of a high colour. See *Cochineal*.

Some make carmine with braſil wood, fernam bone, and gold leaf, beat in a mortar, and ſteeped in white-wine vinegar; the ſcum which ariſes from this mixture upon boiling, and when dried, making this ſort of carmine, which is much inferior to the former.

CARNARVON *Bay*, lies between two points, at the ſouth entrance of the channel, which runs between the county of Carnarvon and the Iſle of Angleſea, in Wales.

CARNEL, or *Carnel-work*, is a term uſed for the building of ſhips firſt with their timber and beams, and after bringing on their planks, to diſtinguiſh it from clinch-work.

Veſſels alſo which go with mizen-ſails, inſtead of main-ſails, are by ſome called carnels.

CAROBS, or *Carouge*, a kind of beans, growing abundantly in the iſland of Cyprus, being partly the food of ſeveral of its inhabitants: but notwithſtanding the great conſumption they make of them, for their own eating, and that of their cattle, inſtead of giving them barley or oats; the carobs alſo make a conſiderable article in the commerce of this iſland, whence vaſt quantities are annually exported for all the iſlands of the Archipelago.

CAROLINE. A Swediſh ſilver coin, worth 1 s. 2 d. ſterl.

CAROLUS. An ancient Engliſh broad piece of gold, ſtruck under King Charles I. whoſe image and name it bears; its value of late has been eſtimated at twenty three ſhillings ſterling; tho', at the time when it was coined, it is ſaid only to have been rated at 20 s.: but it is now out of uſe.

CAROLUS, is alſo a ſmall copper coin of France, allayed with a little ſilver, being ſo called becauſe it was ſtruck during the reign of Charles VIII. being worth 10 deniers, or ſomewhat leſs than a halfpenny ſterling: but they are no longer current except in Lorrain, and ſome of the neighbouring provinces.

CARPENTER, is a perſon whoſe employment conſiſts in cutting, framing, and joining large pieces of wood, for the uſes of building, or carpentry; which is one of the trades ſubſervient to architecture, and is divided into two branches, houſe-carpentry, and ſhip-carpentry: the firſt employed in raiſing, framing, roofing, and flooring of houſes: the ſecond in the conſtruction of veſſels for ſea; ſuch as ſhips, barks, barges, and boats.

The rules and practices in carpentry, as to planing, ſawing, morteſſing, tenanting, ſcribling, paring, and moulding, are much the ſame as thoſe in joinery; ſo likewiſe are the tools, or inſtruments; and the ſtuff the ſame in both; all the difference between the two trades conſiſting in this, that joinery is uſed in the ſmaller, and more curious works; and carpentry in the larger, ſtronger, and coarſer. See *Joinery*.

Fr. Pyrard aſſures us, that the art of carpentry is in its greateſt perfection in the Maldivia iſlands; their works there, he obſerves, being ſo artfully managed, that they will hold right and firm without nails or pins; and adds, that they are ſo curiouſly put together, as no body can take them aſunder but thoſe who are acquainted with the myſtery.

CARPENTERS *company of London*, was incorporated on the 7th of July 1344, by letters-patent of Edward III. by the ſtile of the maſter, wardens, aſſiſtants, and commonalty of The miſtery of freemen of the carpentry of the city of London, with a power to make by-laws for their better regulation; which is a company governed by a maſter, 3 wardens, and 20 aſſiſtants; to whom belong a livery of 100 members, who have a beautiful hall at London-wall, in which they manage their affairs, and pay a fine of 8 l. each upon their admiſſion.

CARPET. A ſort of covering, worked either with the needle, or on a loom, to be ſpread on a table or trunk; but chiefly on a floor or paſſage.

The beſt carpets are made in Perſia and Turky; the warp and woof holding the ſilk and wool very tight, which are cut very cloſe, and form a kind of pluſh or velvet of different colours: but they are ſometimes mixed with gold and ſilver thread, frizzled, or curled, which increaſes the price, as it adds to the beauty of the manufacture.

The Turky carpets are either hairy or ſhorn; that is, either with long or ſhort hair, and are chiefly imported from Smyrna, where they diſtinguiſh three ſorts. The moſquets, which are ſold according to their ſize and quality, from 1 l. to 5 l. the piece, being the moſt beautiful of all. The pics, which are the largeſt kind, being ſold in ſquares at 1 s. 10 d. the ſquare-pic. And the cadene, or the worſt ſort, which are ſold from 3 s. 7 d. to 7 s. 2 d. the piece.

There are alſo carpets made in ſeveral parts of France, ſome in Germany, and of late years in England, where the Wilton carpets are in much eſteem.

CARPO-BALSAMUM, the berry, or fruit, of the tree which yields the true balm, or balſam of the Levant: the berry being oblong, with a ſhort footſtalk, a brown wrinkled rind, marked with four ribs, of a grateful taſte and ſmell: but the genuine ſort is ſeldom found in ſhops; that commonly ſold in its place being only Jamaica pepper; though others ſubſtitute cubebs for it. See *Cubebs*.

CARRE, called alſo *Carſe*, is a corn meaſure uſed at Briare in France, weighing about 20 lb.

CARRIAGE, is a vehicle for the conveyance of perſons, and goods, from one place to another, either by land or water; ſuch as waggons and carts, barges and boats.

In Europe, horſes, mules, and aſſes, are uſed in land-carriage; but in Lapland and Siberia the elk or rain-deer is uſed: in Aſia, and Africa, the caravans and cafilas, are made up of elephants, dromedaries, and camels: and in the ſouthern parts of America, the vigonnas, lamas, and alpagnas, are uſed as beaſts of carriage.

Water-carriages, are thoſe veſſels which ſerve for the conveyance of perſons or goods by rivers, lakes, or canals; being either ſailed, rowed, or drawn by men or horſes: but freight implies ſea-carriage.

Several acts of parliament have been paſt for the regulating of carriages in G. Britain, being thoſe of the 3d of Will. and Mary, the 9th of Q. Anne, the 1ſt, 3d, 5th, and 6th of Geo. I. and particularly an act paſt in the year 1750, intitled, An act for the more effectual preſervation of the turnpike roads in that part of Great Britain called England; and for the diſpoſition of penalties given by acts of parliament relating to the highways, in that part of Great Britain called England, and for enforcing the recovery thereof; and for the more effectual preventing of miſchief, occaſioned by the drivers riding upon carts, drays, cars, and waggons, in the city of London, and within ten miles thereof. The preamble reciting, that though great ſums of money have been expended in repairing the turnpike roads, yet they cannot be kept in ſufficient repair; and are in many places become ruinous, by the great and exceſſive weights, which the number of horſes, allowed by law to draw waggons and other carriages, enable carriers, and other perſons, uſing the ſaid roads, to carry upon the ſame. For remedy whereof it was enacted, That the truſtees of the roads ſhould, after the 1ſt of July 1752, take 20 ſhillings, for every hundred exceeding 60 hundred in every waggon or other carriage drawn by ſix horſes, paſſing through any turnpike, over and above the tolls already granted; or in caſe any horſe was taken from any waggon or carriage, to avoid the additional toll, the perſon ſo offending ſhould forfeit 5 l. to the informer: but this act was not to extend to any other carriages than thoſe commonly hired for the conveyance of goods: that the truſtees for the roads ſhould erect engines for weighing carriages, within their reſpective diſtricts; and ſhould receive ſuch additional toll of 20 ſhillings the hundred, as was directed to be taken by them purſuant to the act of the 14th of George II.: but this part of the act was not to extend to any places above 30 miles from London, or where the tolls did not amount to 50 l. annually: however, any carriages, drawing up ſteep hills might uſe as many horſes as the juſtices at the quarter ſeſſions ſhould think neceſſary, and direct; which order is to be kept by the reſpective clerks of the peace among the records of the ſeſſions, to which all perſons ſhould have recourſe, without fee or reward. And by a ſubſequent act, no waggon is to draw with more than five horſes, except in going up hills.

CARRIAGE, alſo ſignifies the money paid to a carrier for conveying goods from one place to another.

Bill, or letter of CARRIAGE, is a note, or writing, given to a carrier, containing an account of the goods, that he may demand payment for the carriage, and that the perſon to whom they are directed may ſee that they are delivered in good condition.

CARRIAGE *of a cannon*, is the timber-work, or frame, on which it is mounted.

CARRICKFERGUS *bay*, lies in the county of Antrim, and province of Ulſter, in Ireland, 14 miles eaſt of Antrim, and 85 north of Dublin.

CARRIED *over*, in books of accompt, is a term when the ſum total at the bottom of one page is carried to the top of another, where it is ſaid brought over.

CARRIER, is a perſon who carries goods from one place to another, either in waggons, carts, or other carriages, or on pack-horſes: thoſe goods which are of a bulky ſolid ſubſtance, in bales, cheſts, or the like, paying according to the pound weight, which is more or leſs according to the diſtance; and thoſe which are liquid paying according to the ſize of the caſk.

CART. A land carriage with two wheels, commonly uſed by higlers.

CART-WRIGHT. A perſon who makes carts. See *Wheel-wright*.

CARTE, or *Quarte*, a corn meaſure uſed in ſome places of Savoy; that of Conflans weighing 35 pounds avoirdupoiſe; and that of St. John de Maurienne only 21 pounds avoirdupoiſe.

CARTEL. A corn meaſure uſed at Rocroy, Mezieres, and other places in France; that of wheat weighing at Rocroy 35 pounds avoirdupoiſe; that of maſlin-corn 34; and that of rye 33.

CARTHAGE *Cape*, is ſituated in 9 deg. of E. lon. and 36 deg. of N. lat. on a peninſula on the coaſt of the Mediterranean, in the kingdom of Tunis in Africa.

CARTHAGENA. A city, and one of the beſt harbours in Spain, ſituated in 1 deg. 5 min. of W lon. and 37 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. on a fine bay of the Mediterranean, in the province of Murcia. See *Spain*.

CARTHAGENA, or *New Carthage*, one of the largeſt and beſt fortified towns of South America, with a very ſecure and capacious harbour; the entrance whereof is ſo very narrow, that no more than one ſhip can enter it at a time; being well defended by caſtles and platforms of guns, and ſituated

ſituated in 77 deg. of W. lon. and 11 deg. of N. lat. See *Spaniſh America*.

CARVEL. See *Caravel*.

CARWAR. A town on the coaſt of Malabar, in the Hither India, ſituated in 73 deg. of E. lon. and 15 deg. of N. lat. 60 miles S. of Goa; where the Engliſh Eaſt India company have a factory, from whence they import pepper. See *India*.

CAS. See *Caxa*.

CASCHE. See *Cache*.

CASE-HARDENING, is an inferior degree of ſteel-making.

CASE-*ſhot*, are muſket-bullets, ſtones, old pieces of iron, or the like, put into caſes, and ſhot out of great guns, being chiefly uſed at ſea, to clear the enemies decks when they are full of men.

CASH, the ſtock of ready money which a banker, merchant, or other perſon, has in his preſent diſpoſal to negotiate.

The management of the caſh of a company is of great importance, being that whereon its good or ill ſucceſs chiefly depends.

The partners of a company ſhould apply themſelves to the things for which they are the beſt fitted; as well with regard to the purchaſe, as the ſale of merchandiſe; beſides the keeping of the caſh, books, and the management of other particulars He who is of an active diſpoſition is more proper for buying and ſelling, than he who loves his repoſe; wherefore, the moſt active of the partners ſhould be employed in the purchaſe and ſale of merchandiſe; and the other ſhould be the caſh, and book-keeper; becauſe, having leſs vivacity, he can, with more caution, and prudence, conduct himſelf in the diſpatch of ſedentary buſineſs.

Sir William Petty was of opinion, that the caſh, or circulating money in a ſtate, is equal to the tenth part of the annual product of the land.

CASH-*book*. See *Book-keeping*.

CASHIER. The caſh-keeper, who is charged with receiving and paying money, on the account of a company, or ſociety.

CASHOO, is a medicinal and aromatic drug, extracted by decoction from the cattee-tree, which grows in the kingdom of Bahar, in India, of which there are two ſorts; the rough and the refined; the former is brought to Bengal, where it is refined, and afterwards ſent into Europe, in the form of lozenges, about the bigneſs of half a crown.

Caſhoo is eſteemed for ſtrengthening the ſtomach, ſtopping coughs, and ſweetening the breath: it is frequently mixed with other perfumes, and ſhould be of a tanned red without, of a bright red within, not burnt, and very gloſſy.

CASK. A common name for veſſels of different kinds, in contradiſtinction from the liquor, or other matter, contained therein: thus a hogſhead of ſpirits is ſaid to weigh 4 c. $\frac{1}{2}$ and 22 lb. caſk and liquor; and a puncheon 6 c. $\frac{1}{4}$ and 2 lb. caſk and liquor: but a caſk of ſugar is a barrel of that commodity, containing from 8 to 11 hundred weight; and a caſk of almonds is about 3 hundred wt. A caſk in ſtaves is when the ſtaves are ready made, and want only to be joined and hooped; which are thus commonly ſent to America for the ſake of room.

CASPIAN *ſea*, is bounded by the province of Aſtracan, and the country of the Calmuc Tartars on the north; by the Bocharas, and part of Perſia, on the eaſt; by another part of Perſia on the ſouth; and by another part of Perſia, and Circaſſia, on the weſt; being upwards of 400 miles in length from north to ſouth, and 300 miles broad from eaſt to weſt; in which, though the great river Volga, and ſeveral others, diſcharge themſelves, the waters are generally about the ſame depth, and no tides obſerved; but once in 15 or 16 years it riſes a great many fathoms, and drowns the adjacent countries: however, this conſiderable maſs of waters is properly a lake; becauſe it has no viſible communication with any other ſea. The Ruſſians have the ſole navigation of the Caſpian, carrying on a conſiderable trade between Aſtracan and Reſhd, where the Perſians ſupply them with great quantities of ſilk, which they diſpoſe of to the Engliſh factors in Ruſſia.

CASSAVA, or *Manihot*, is a crooked knotty ſhrub, with ſoft and brittle wood, common in America; of whoſe root the natives make a kind of bread.

CASSEL, or *Heſſe-caſſel*. See *Germany*.

CASSIA. A purgative fruit brought from the Eaſt and Weſt Indies; being the produce of a tree of the ſame name, called in Engliſh the *pudding pipe tree*.

There are four kinds of caſſia, alike in properties, and nearly in figure; all in long black pods, but very different, if conſidered with regard to the trees that produce them; being the caſſia of the Levant, that of Egypt, that of Braſil, and that of the Antilles iſlands.

Caſſia of the Levant, muſt be choſen new, in large pods, heavy, and of a tan colour; the bark, when broke, fine, white within, and full of a black ſoft pulp of a ſweetiſh taſte.

Caſſia of Egypt, is like that of the Levant, except that the fruit is ſmaller, and the bark ſofter.

Caſſia of Braſil, is the largeſt of all, ſome of the pods being found 4 or 5 inches in circumference: but this kind is not very common in the ſhops.

Caſſia of the Antilles, is now chiefly uſed, being produced there in ſuch abundance that the veſſels, in their home voyages, uſe it as ballaſt, whereby it is frequently found foul and dirty; but it ſhould be choſen in the ſame manner as that of the Levant.

When the pod is entire, and the pulp not yet taken out, it is moſt commonly called *caſſia fiſtula*, or *caſſia in the cane*; for uſing whereof the pulp is taken out, and ſifted; though apothecaries uſe little of this kind, but what is old and boiled up with ſugar to make it keep.

Caſſia, when green, as alſo the flowers of the caſſia tree, are confected both in the Levant and the Antilles iſlands; having almoſt the ſame effects with the common caſſia, the baſis of moſt purgative electuaries.

The tincture of caſſia is a ſlight infuſion of the pulp with the ſeed; and the extract of caſſia is nothing but the pulp, ſeparated from the ſhell and the ſeeds, with the addition of a certain quantity of ſugar to preſerve it from turning ſour.

CASSIA *lignea*, or *Xylocaſſia*, is the bark of a tree, reſembling that which bears the cinnamon, growing promiſcuouſly with it in the iſland of Ceylon.

Both the barks are gathered and dried in the ſame manner, their ſmell and taſte being nearly alike; for they are equally ſweet, poignant, and agreeable, with ſcarce any difference in their colour and form; but the caſſia is fatter, and alſo more mucilaginous than cinnamon; and, in chewing, diſſolves in the mouth, without leaving any thing woody behind; whereas the woody part of cinnamon will ſtick tho' ever ſo well chewed: ſome authors will have the tree that bears cinnamon to bear the caſſia too; making this only difference between them, that the firſt comes from Ceylon, and the latter from the coaſt of Coromandel.

Caſſia lignea is uſed in the compoſition of Venice treacle, and alſo frequently uſed for adulterating cinnamon.

CASSIDONY. A kind of mineral, or precious ſtone, uſed for making vaſes, and veined with ſeveral colours.

CASSIMBUZAR, *Caſſumbazar*, or *Kaſſumbazar*, is properly a part of the ſuburbs of the city of Muxadevat, the capital of the province of Bengal, in India, ſituated on the river Ganges, in 87 deg. of E. lon. and 24 deg. of N. lat. where there is a Britiſh factory, ſubordinate to the government of Fort William. See *India*.

CASTAMBOULI. A town of Turky. See *Turky*.

CASTILLAN. A gold coin current in Spain, for 14 rials, or about 6 s. 3 d. ſterling.

CASTILLAN, or *Caſtillian*, is alſo a weight uſed in Spain for weighing gold, being the hundredth part of a pound Spaniſh weight; which is about three *per cent*. heavier than the pound avoirdupoiſe London.

The caſtillan is likewiſe in uſe at Buenos-Aires, in the mines of Chili and Potoſi; as alſo in all the reſt of Spaniſh America.

What is uſually called in Spain a weight of gold, is always underſtood of a caſtillan: thus, when it is ſaid ten thouſand weight of gold, the weight of ten thouſand caſtillans of gold is underſtood.

CASTING, in foundery, and plumbery, is the running of

iron and lead into a mould prepared for that purpoſe, for making iron veſſels, and leaden pipes.

CASTLE, in the ſea-language, denotes an elevation on the deck of a veſſel; or a part of the deck, fore and aft, raiſed above the reſt. See *Deck*.

Fore-CASTLE. See *Fore*-caſtle.

Hind-CASTLE. See *Hind* caſtle.

CASTOR. See *Beaver*.

CASTOR *company*. See *Hudſon's Bay Company*, and *Canada Company*.

CASTOREUM. A liquid matter incloſed in bags, or purſes, near the anus of the caſtor or beaver, falſely taken for the teſticles of that animal.

The beſt caſtoreum is brought from Dantzic; that of Canada being much inferior: but the largeſt lumps, and thoſe that ſmell ſtrongeſt, are the moſt eſteemed, eſpecially when heavy and well fleſhed.

Care ſhould be taken that it is not adulterated with honey, or other drugs, to increaſe its weight; which is known by ſqueezing it, the ſophiſticated being ſoftiſh, and yielding a liquid ſtinking honey; but the natural is hard and heavy, of a brown colour, of a briſk ſmell, and full of ſmall filaments.

Caſtoreum is uſed in the compoſition of Venice treacle, and mithridate; as alſo in various other hyſteric and cephalic medicines: beſides, an oil is extracted from it called *oil of caſtor*; which is likewiſe uſed while in its liquid ſtate, to make ſeveral kinds of unguents.

CASTOS, is a term at Japan, for the duties paid on the importation and exportation of goods into that country; or rather the caſtos are the preſents which Europeans were accuſtomed to make yearly for their reception, before the Dutch had engroſſed all the commerce of theſe iſlands.

CATANIA. A city and port-town of the province of Demona; in Sicily, ſituated in 15 deg. of E. lon. and 38 deg. of N. lat. on a bay of the Mediterranean, which forms a good harbour. See *Italian Iſlands*.

CATAPULTA. A plant, from whoſe ſeed an oil is extracted, which is uſed in the compoſition of ſome plaiſters.

CATASTRO, is a tax in the province of Catalonia, in Spain, which extends to merchants, manufacturers, handicraftmen, and labourers, who have an eſtimate made of their gains, and are charged 10 *per cent.* upon them; a proportion which ſeems ſo very oppreſſive, that it muſt be an onerous clog upon the manufactures, and highly injurious to the commercial intereſt of Spain.

CATEE. The tree which produces caſhoo. See *Caſhoo*.

CATEGATE, or *Scagerac ſea*, is the paſſage from the ocean to the Sound, or entrance into the Baltic ſea, between Sweden and Denmark. See *Denmark*.

CATERGI. A name given to the public carriers on the roads in Turky.

CATHOLICON. A ſoft and purgative electuary, being a kind of univerſal remedy, of which there are ſeveral ſorts, diſtinguiſhed by the name of the inventors; ſuch as that of Fernel; and that of Nicholas from Salerne, called ſimply, by way of excellence, *catholicon*.

CATI, or *Catty*, a Chineſe weight, particularly uſed at Canton, which is about 1 lb. 5 oz. Engliſh avoirdupois.

CATI, is alſo the only weight of Japan; though it is uſed likewiſe at Batavia, and in other parts of the Indies, where it weighs more or leſs, according to the number of taels it conſiſts of: as for inſtance, the cati of Java being worth 20 taels, and that of Cambay 27; each tael being 4 ounces and 10 drachms avoirdupois.

CATI, is likewiſe a ſmall weight, uſed by the lapidaries of the Eaſt for weighing emeralds, being 3 grains.

CATI, is alſo a money of accompt uſed at Java, and in ſome neighbouring iſlands, amounting to about 1 l. 13 s. 3 d. ſterling.

CATIANG. A kind of pulſe growing in ſome places of the Eaſt Indies, particularly upon the coaſts of Malabar, where the Engliſh and Dutch, who keep factories in theſe parts, annually buy up great quantities, which they diſtribute in all the parts of the Indies, not productive of this pulſe; where it ſerves them in exchange for ſuch other merchandiſe, as they load their ſhips with for Europe.

CATIMARON, or *Catimaran*, a kind of float, or raft, uſed by the Indians along the coaſt of Coromandel, for fiſhing, conſiſting of two or three poles tied together with ropes, having a triangular ſail in the middle made of mats: there is alſo another kind, made of two or three canoes faſtened together, which are uſed for carrying goods.

CATOCH *Cape*, lies in the province of Yucatan in Mexico, in North America.

CATT, or *Catt-head*, in a ſhip, is a large piece of timber faſtened aloft, right under the hawſe, with two ſhivers at the end thereof, wherein is put a block, and a rope, with a large iron hook, whoſe uſe is to raiſe the anchor from the hawſe.

CATTLE. Under this denomination are generally included all ſorts of horſes, mares, oxen, bulls, cows, and calves, which are called black or great cattle; ſheep, lambs, ſwine, goats, and kids, which are called ſmall cattle; for the preſervation of which there are ſeveral prudent proviſions made by the Britiſh legiſlature. For by the ſtatute of the 3d and 4th of Edward VI. no perſon is to buy any oxen, ſteers, ronts, kine, heifers, or calves, but only in open fair, or market, except for proviſion for their houſehold, team, or dairy: nor are the butchers to buy them with an intent to ſell them again alive, under forfeiture of the cattle.

By the ſtatute of 2d and 3d of Philip and Mary, every perſon keeping above ſixſcore ſheep, for the moſt part of the year, upon his ſeveral paſtures or farms apt for milch kine, and wherein no other perſon hath common, ſhall yearly, for every threeſcore ſheep keep one milch cow; and ſhall rear up yearly, for every ſixſcore ſheep, one calf, upon pain of forfeiting 20 ſhillings every month, for every cow ſo neglected to be kept, and 20 ſhillings for every calf ſo neglected to be reared. That every perſon keeping above 20 oxen, runts, ſchrubs, ſteers, heifers, or kine, ſhall, for every ten beaſts, keep one milch cow; and rear yearly one calf for every two milch kine, under the penalties aforeſaid; which act was made perpetual by the 13th of Q. Elizabeth, and by the 7th of James I. extended to all grounds apt for milch kine, and not to be laid open to common at any time of the year.

By the ſtatute of the 18th of Charles II. it is declared, That the importation of cattle ſhall be adjudged a public nuſance; and if any great cattle, ſheep, or ſwine, or any beef, pork, or bacon, ſhall be imported, the ſame ſhall be forfeited, except they are for the neceſſary proviſion of ſhips in which the ſame ſhall be brought, without expoſing the ſame to ſale: but nothing in this act was to hinder the annual importation of 600 head of cattle from the Iſle of Man, on condition that they were of the breed of that iſland, and ſhould be landed only at the ports of Cheſter and Liverpool; though they may be ſeized by conſtables, or any perſon whatever, and kept forty eight hours in ſome public place: but if, within that time, the owner makes it appear to ſome juſtice of the peace, by the oaths of two credible witneſſes, that they were not imported from beyond the ſeas, they may, upon ſuch juſtices warrant, be forthwith delivered, otherwiſe they are forfeited: beſides, Britiſh or other cattle, driven or intermixed with Iriſh, and ſeized together, are to be deemed Iriſh, and to be forfeited accordingly.

By the ſtatute of the 20th of Charles II. it was enacted, That if the officers or inhabitants where ſuch cattle or goods ſhould be firſt imported, neglected to make a ſeizure, they ſhould forfeit 100 l.; which by a ſubſequent act was altered to 40 s. for every one of the great cattle, and 10 s. for every ſheep or ſwine: that every veſſel, with all her tackle, in which any ſuch cattle or goods ſhould be imported, and out of which they ſhould be put on ſhore, ſhould be forfeited, and ſeized any time within one year after ſuch importation: beſides which, the maſters and ſeamen belonging to the veſſel, as alſo every other perſon employed in the landing of ſuch cattle and goods, are to be impriſoned for 3 months.

By the ſtatute of the 22d of Charles II. it was declared lawful to tranſport, by way of merchandiſe, horſes or mares, beeves and ſwine, as alſo beef, pork, and bacon, to any place in amity with Great Britain, on paying a duty of one ſhilling for every ox, ſteer, cow, or heifer; and

and two pence for each hog; but five ſhillings are to be paid for every horſe or mare: however, by the ſtatute of the 3d of William and Mary, all perſons are at liberty to export out of England, Wales, or Berwick, to any part in amity, beef, pork, bacon, butter, cheeſe, or candles, free from cuſtom, or impoſition; though four pence is to be paid for every pound of bacon imported.

Cattle are the chief ſtock of a farm; they ſerve either for food, or for tilling the ground; and they who rear cattle for ſale are called graziers; thoſe who kill them for ſale being called butchers. Beſides the fleſh of cattle, they afford hides, tallow, wool, hair, butter and cheeſe, for trade: Great Britain being the moſt remarkable for ſheep, and Ireland for beeves.

CAVADAS, or *Canadas*, a meaſure uſed in Portugal for oil. See *Canadas*.

CAVALLO. A ſmall braſs coin of Italy, ſo called from the impreſſion of a horſe on one ſide; the firſt of which were ſtruck in Piedmont in 1616, 12 of them being worth about a halfpenny.

CAVAN. A meaſure uſed in ſome of the Philippine iſlands, particularly at Manilla, for meaſuring rice; of which the cavan weighs about 48 pounds Engliſh avoirdupoiſe.

CAVELIN, is a term in trade at Amſterdam, for a parcel of goods put up to ſale, being the ſame with what is called in England a lot.

CAVIA, *Caviac*, or *Cavear*, a kind of food or pickle, in great uſe and repute throughout Muſcovy, and introduced upon the Engliſh table; being the roe, or ſpawn, of the ſturgeon and bolluca, taken out, ſalted, and dried in the ſun, or by the fire; which to be good ſhould be of a reddiſh brown colour, and very dry.

The Italian merchants ſettled at Moſcow drive an incredible trade with cavear; the fiſh being caught in prodigious quantities at the mouth of the Volga, and other rivers that empty themſelves in the Caſpian ſea; as alſo in the black ſea: but the Engliſh import conſiderable quantities of this commodity from Archangel; tho' not ſo much for home conſumption as to ſupply the French and Italians. See *Sturgeon-fiſhery*.

CAUKING, or *caulking of a ſhip*, implies the driving in oakum, or ſomewhat of that kind, into the ſeams, or commiſſures of the planks, to prevent the ſhip from leaking.

CAURIS, called alſo *Bugis*, or wrote more commonly *Coris*, is a kind of ſmall white ſhell brought from the Eaſt Indies, and current there in ſeveral places for money. See *Coris*.

CAXA. A little leaden coin, mixed with ſcoria of copper, ſtruck in China, but current chiefly at Bantam, and in the reſt of the iſland of Java; as alſo in ſome of the neighbouring iſlands; though the Malais call them cas, and the Javeſe pitis, being ſomewhat ſmaller than the French double, and having a ſquare hole through the middle, by means whereof ſeveral of them are hung on the ſame ſtring: this ſtring, which they call ſanta, containing 200 caxas, or 3 farthings ſterling; and 5 ſantas tied together, that is 1000 caxas, make a ſapacou.

Nothing can exceed the brittleneſs of the caxa; for a ſtring never falls to the ground without breaking 10 or 12 pieces: but leaving them a night ſteeped in ſalt-water, they cling ſo faſt to one another that they are not to be ſeparated without breaking one half of them.

CAYANG. A plant growing in the kingdom of Bengal, in India, producing a kind of pulſe like peaſe, which Europeans uſe for food among the mariners.

CAYELAC. A kind of ſweet-ſcented wood growing in the kingdom of Siam, which the Siameſe, and Chineſe, burn in their temples, in honour of their pagods; and it alſo makes a part of the commodities exported from Siam for China.

CAYENNE. A town ſituated on a ſmall iſland of the ſame name, near the coaſt of S. America, in 53 deg. of W. lon. and 5 deg. of N. lat. being the capital of the French ſettlements there, to which the French have given the name of equinoctial France, from its ſituation under or near the equator. See *French America*.

CAZUMA. A river on the coaſt of Cape-verd in Africa.

CEBU, one of the moſt ſoutherly Phillippine iſlands, ſituated between the iſland of Layte on the weſt, and Negroon the eaſt, in the Indian ocean. See *Philippine Iſlands*.

CEDAR. A large tree, whoſe timber is uſed by Europeans in inlaid-work, and that of turners; as alſo in the wainſcotting and cielings of magnificent edifices: but, in the places where it grows, it is uſed in building houſes, and ſhips, as ordinary carpenters timber: though that of America is alſo uſed in ſhip-building; eſpecially by the Spaniards, who ſay that cedar has an excellent quality peculiar to itſelf; becauſe, in an engagement, it ſucks in the ball; ſo that they are not expoſed to the miſchiefs done by the ſplinters of European ſhips, which uſually wound, and even kill great numbers.

This tree bears berries like the juniper, which are large and round like myrtle berries; the wood is red and odorous, which paſſes for incorruptible, either upon account of its extreme bitterneſs or hardneſs: the tree delighting in cold places, and mountains, being generally green, living a long time, but dies as ſoon as its top is cut off: they are in Turky, the iſles of Cyprus and Candia; as alſo in ſome parts of Aſia, in ſome places of Africa, and in many in America.

The cedar of Lebanus is another kind ſtill more precious, growing to a prodigious height, and in figure pyramidical; the bark being ſmooth, the leaves green, ſmall and narrow, the fruit ſimilar to the pine-apple, and the berry to that of the cypruſ. From the trunk, and large branches of this tree, a white, clear and tranſparent reſin, called cedar gum, or *manna maſticina*, oozes of itſelf, during the great heats, without inciſions: but the largeſt trees yield ſcarce more than ſix ounces a day. When the gum has ceaſed to flow of itſelf, an inciſion is made in the tree, from whence an unctuous humour proceeds, which dries as it runs along the trunk; which is the cedar reſin ſold by druggiſts; being of a beautiful yellow, friable, lucid, tranſparent, and well ſcented.

The cedar alſo furniſhes a third drug called *turpentine of cedar*, which is a clear, and white liquor like water, of a ſtrong active ſmell, and contained in ſmall bubbles like bladders, which the exceſſive heat of the ſun ſublimes from the trunk of the tree.

CEDAR *of Phœnicia*, called otherwiſe *Oxycedar*, is a kind of cedar growing in Phenicia and Cilicia, much reſembling the juniper tree. See *Oxycedar*.

CEDRA, or *Cedrat*, a kind of citron tree, growing plentifully in Italy, whoſe fruit is of a good ſmell, being made into a liquid confect, when ſmall; as alſo into a dry confect when large, and ſliced into quarters.

The water of cedrat, eſteemed extremely upon account of its excellent perfume, is called by ſome Barbadoes water: but they have this difference, the water of cedrat being pure, and the Barbadoes water a mixture of brandy rectified with a mixture of pure cedrat-water.

Beſides the uſe of cedrat for the compoſition of Barbadoes water, it is uſed for perfuming tobacco, and other things; as alſo for being an ingredient in ſome remedies.

CEDRIA is a term ſometimes given to the gum or reſin oozing from the cedar, whoſe good quality conſiſts in being fat, thick, tranſparent, of a ſtrong ſcent, and when poured out falling equally drop by drop.

CEER, or *Seer*, is both a weight and a meaſure uſed upon the coaſt of Coromandel, in India; 40 of which make the maund of 25 lb. Engliſh avoirdupoiſe.

CELEBES, or *Macaſſar*, an iſland ſituated between 116 and 124 deg. of E. lon. and between 2 deg. N. and 6 deg. S. lat. being 500 m. lon. and generally 200 broad, which communicates the general name of Celebes to ſeveral other iſlands lying cloſe together: the other iſlands being thoſe of Gilolo, Ceram, Flores, Timor, Solor, Miſacomby, Bouton, Bouro, and ſome others; all of them ſurrounding the iſlands of Molucca and Banda, being ſometimes called the little Moluccas. See *Moluccas*.

The name of Maccaſſar is from one of its kingdoms, the moſt fertile of all, and, in ſome reſpects, the only place of trade for Europeans. The capital city, remarkable for its magnitude, the number of its inhabitants, and the beauty of its buildings, all almoſt in the European taſte, is ſituated in the ſouth part of the iſland of Celebes, 5 deg. 6 min. from the line; where the Portugueſe formerly kept on footing one of their moſt conſiderable India trades: however the Dutch eſtabliſhed themſelves there afterwards;

and, with the conſent of the king of Macaſſar, who ſeemed haraſſed with the kind of ſervitude the Portugueſe kept him in, built Panakoke and Samboupo, two forts which inſured their trade; and, as they made the inhabitants of Macaſſar believe, the liberty of their country: but, theſe new gueſts becoming ſcarce more tractable than the antient, in matters of commerce, and full of acting the maſter at Macaſſar; as alſo of excluding all other nations, the Portugueſe regained their credit, and the Dutch were upon the point of being expelled; when, for the preventing their enemies deſigns, which they were apprehenſive of, they appeared before Macaſſar in 1660, with a fleet of 33 ſhips, and after having been equally victorious by ſea, where they took, burnt or ſunk, ſix large Portugueſe ſhips richly laden; as alſo by land, where, in a deſcent, they forced ſword in hand, two forts at the entrance of the city; they ſo intimidated the king and his people, tho' the braveſt of the Indians, that they obliged themſelves, by a treaty concluded at Batavia, the ſame year, to ſuffer no longer the Portugueſe in their kingdom, and to leave the Dutch in poſſeſſion of their forts and commerce.

However it was not, till the year 1669, that the Dutch entirely reduced this turbulent nation; who, in deſpight of the treaty of 1660, and another of 1667, troubled them continually in the ſpice commerce, ſending privately, on the coaſts of the Banda iſlands and Moluccas, little veſſels to treat with the inhabitants for cloves and nutmegs, which they afterwards ſold to the Engliſh, keeping up, as it was ſaid, a correſpondence with the enemies of the Dutch company, to rob them of Amboyna, one of their ſix grand Indian governments.

The Dutch, notwithſtanding ſo much expence, and ſuch an effuſion of blood, could not eſtabliſh an excluſive trade at Macaſſar; the port and the town having remained open to all the nations of the Indies and Europe, except the Portugueſe, who come there, however, to trade like others, ſince, upon account of their weakneſs in the Indies, they are no longer objects of Dutch jealouſy: but what attracts there a great number of traders, is the free port; merchandiſe paying no duty, either of importation or exportation.

The principal commodities exported from thence are, rice in great abundance, whereof the Dutch make conſiderable cargoes for the Moluccas, and the iſlands of Banda; as alſo gold, ivory, ſandal, cotton, camphire, iron, ſeveral kinds of hardware of this metal, arms fit for the Indians, ginger, long pepper, opium, and pearls, which are fiſhed for on ſome coaſts of the Celebes: the imported commodities conſiſting in ſcarlet, gold and ſilver cloths, Cambay cloths, tin, and copper.

Gilolo, or *Batochina*, is ſituated between 125 and 128 deg. of E. lon. and from 1 deg. of S. lat. to 2 deg. of N. lat. being about 200 leagues in circumference; where the Dutch eſtabliſhed themſelves; having in it the forts Tacome, and Tabou; though leſs for keeping on footing a trade with the natives, than for hindering the culture of cloves, which grow there in a tolerable condition: but the beſt commodity they export from it is the ſago; of which there is a great conſumption among the inhabitants of the little Moluccas, and the Banda iſlands, who uſe it inſtead of rice, and even make drink of it.

The ſago is the pith of a kind of tree not unlike that of the fir, which is raſped, and reduced into a ſweet flour, whereof the Moluccqueſe make a kind of broad thin cakes, either on a fire, in an iron baking pan, or before the ſun, leaving them expoſed to it till they dry; though they alſo make a kind of ſoup of it, which is glutinous, but of a pretty good taſte, very nouriſhing, and when ſteeped in water it ſerves as a drink: however, rice and ſeveral other ſorts of proviſions, are exported from Gilolo.

Ceram, is another of theſe iſlands, ſituated between 126 and 129 deg. of E. lon. and 3 deg. S. lat. being about 150 miles long, and 60 broad. It is a mountainous woody country; a part of the coaſts whereof for a long time belonged to the King of Ternate, which was the cauſe of a tedious war between this prince and the Dutch, upon account of the cloves cultivated there; but, ſince the peace between them in 1638, Ceram has had the ſame fortune with Ternate, and the other iſlands depending on it; for the clove-trees have been rooted up, and the Dutch, in ſeveral parts, have raiſed redoubts and forts, either for putting a ſtop to this trade, or for making themſelves maſters of it.

Bouton, is ſituated in 124 deg. of E. lon. and between 4 and 5 deg. of S. lat. about 12 miles from the S. E. part of the iſland of Macaſſar. It contains about 80 leagues in circumference, being productive of no rice, but having a good ſlave trade, with a little ambergreaſe of an indifferent quality.

The beſt trade is that of tamettes, a kind of linen manufactured there, and ſelling well in the Moluccas; of which the Dutch buy up great quantities every year, together with the caxas, a ſmall Indian copper or leaden coin.

Till 1612 there was no coin current in this iſland; but the Dutch, by the treaty there made that year with the King, who received them favourably, obliged themſelves to import caxes, and other copper ſpecie; which they executed with great profit, giving them a currency upon a higher footing than they had actually in Java, and the reſt of the Indies.

Timor, and *Solor*, lie between the advanced part of the iſland of Celebes and Flores, where the Dutch have alſo ſome forts and trade. At Timor there is a commerce of ſlaves, wax, and ſantal wood; of which laſt there is ſold every year about 2000 bars, of 560 lb. weight the bar; it being principally for this wood that the Dutch company keeps this eſtabliſhment, upon account of the great vent it has in China. The commerce of Solor is ſtill leſs conſiderable than that of Timor; tho' the ſame commodities are brought from it, as alſo what is called in medicine the *Solor-ſtone*, which is a kind of bezoar, thought ſovereign againſt poiſons: but the other iſlands are no ways remarkable for trade.

CEMENT, in a general ſenſe, is any compoſition, of a glutinous or tenacious nature, proper to bind, unite, or keep things in coheſion. M. Felibien obſerves, that what the ancient architects called cement, was a very different thing from that at preſent; the name *cement*, with them, ſtanding for a kind of maſonry, or the manner of laying the ſtones, and even the quality of the ſtones, as when the walls were built of rude, unequal ſtones; tho', in reality, the ſtones were cut for ſuch work, neither ſquared nor uniform; ſo that cement ſtood oppoſed to ſquared ſtones. Mortar, ſolder, and glue, are cements; and the bitumen brought from the Levant is ſaid to have been the cement uſed in the walls of Babylon; but equal quantities of powder-glaſs, ſea-ſalt, and iron-filings, mixed and fermented, make one of the hardeſt and moſt durable cements that is known; and M. Perault affirms that the juice of garlic is a cement for broken glaſs.

CEMENT, is particularly uſed in architecture, for a ſtrong, binding ſort of mortar, uſed to bind or unite bricks or ſtones together for ſome kind of mouldings, or to make a block of bricks, for the carving of ſcrolls, capitals, and the like. This cement is of two ſorts, the hot and the cold; the former, which is moſt common, is made of roſin, bees-wax, brick-duſt, and chalk, boiled together, the bricks to be cemented being heated, and rubbed one upon another with cement between; the latter is made of Cheſhire cheeſe, milk, quick-lime, and whites of eggs: though cement is alſo uſed among goldſmiths, engravers, jewellers, and other artificers, for a compoſition of fine brick-duſt well ſifted, roſin, and bees-wax, of great ſervice in keeping the metals to be engraven or wrought on firm to the block, and alſo to fill up what is to be chiſeled.

CEMENT, in chemiſtry, is a compound maſs, or moiſtened powder, uſed for the purifying of gold, by conſuming the impurer metals mixed therewith; which is prepared of ſuch ſalts, and other ingredients, as by their acrimony corrode and ſeparate the ſilver, copper, or other matters from the body of the gold. Some authors make but two kinds of this cement; the common, and royal; the firſt is made of brick-duſt, nitre, and verdigreaſe; the ſecond of ſal gemmæ and armoniac, of each one part, two parts of common

common ſalt, and four of bole, the whole reduced into a paſte with urine; but many other compoſitions are given by Le Mort, Le Febure, and others.

CENSAL. A term uſed on the coaſts of Provence in France, and in the ports of the Levant, ſignifying the ſame thing as broker; merchants paying one half *per cent.* to the cenſal, for his cenſery fee, or brokerage. See *Broker*.

Moſt of the Levant cenſals, but particularly thoſe who exerciſe that profeſſion at Grand Cairo, are Arabs; whoſe negotiations are carried on between European merchants and thoſe of the country, either for the purchaſe or ſale of merchandiſe, which are all tranſacted in grimaces, when the cenſal would feign oblige the European merchant to pay for his countryman's merchandiſe at the firſt word, or at leaſt to abate but little.

When the European has made his offer always under what the vender demands, the Arabian cenſal feigns to put himſelf in a paſſion, bawls and cries like a madman, advancing, as it were, to ſtrangle the foreign merchant, yet does not touch him. If this firſt ſcene is unſucceſsful, he falls upon himſelf, tears his cloaths, ſtrikes furiouſly on his breaſt, and, rolling on the ground, cries out, in a terrible tone of voice, that a merchant of honour has been inſulted, and that his merchandiſe has not been ſtolen, to offer at ſo low a rate. However, the European trader, accuſtomed to this burleſque negotiation, being eaſy, and offering nothing more, the cenſal reſumes alſo his tranquillity; when ſtretching him his hand, and embracing him tenderly as a token of the bargain concluded, he puts an end to this farce by ſaying, *Halla quebar, Halla quebir*, God is great, and very great; which he pronounces very diſpaſſionately, as if he had not counterfeited all the contorſions and cries of a demoniac.

CENT, is an abridgment of the Latin word *centum*, ſignifying a hundred: thus *cent* is ſaid of a certain fixed weight, called in ſeveral places quintal, or hundred, compoſed of 100 lb. the pound being more or leſs heavy, according to the difference of places; ſome merchandiſes being ſold by the hundred pieces, and others ſold by the hundred weight.

CENT, is alſo a term frequently uſed in commerce, for expreſſing the profit or loſs, ariſing from the ſale of a commodity: ſo that when it is ſaid there was 10 *per cent.* profit or loſs, it ſignifies that 10 l. in the 100 l. was either loſs or gain.

To gain *cent. per cent.* in trade, is to double the capital; and to loſe 50 *per cent.* is to diminiſh it by one half.

CENT, is likewiſe a term uſed in the negotiation of money, ſignifying the intereſt thereof: thus money is ſaid to be worth 5 *per cent.*

CENT, laſtly, is ſaid with regard to remittances of money from one place to another; as it will coſt two and an half *per cent.* for remitting to ſuch a town; ſo much *per cent.* for ſtipulations and remittances of money, being called the price of the exchange. An agent or factor charges 2 *per cent.* for his commiſſion; and a broker has 2 s. 6 d. for every 100 l. from each party, which is 5 s. for every 100 l. and 2 l. 10 s. for every 1000 l.

In books of accompt, the rate *per cent.* is abbreviated in this manner, 2 *p* $^{c}_{o}$, or 2 *pr ct.* which ſignifies 2 *per cent.*

CENTAURY *the Leſſer*, is a ſmall ſhrubby plant, with leaves growing by pairs, and a flower conſiſting of a purple petal, cut into five ſegments, and a tubulous calyx divided in like manner; its leaves being eſteemed a good bitter, and very ſerviceable to the ſtomach, as it expels viſcid humours, is good againſt worms, and by ſome extolled as an alexipharmic febrifuge.

CEPHALONIA, is an iſland and town of the ſame name, ſituated in 21 deg. of E. lon. and 38 deg. 30 min of N. lat. in the Mediterranean, near the coaſt of Epirus, and ſubject to the Venetians. See *Italian Iſlands*.

CERAM, is one of the iſlands of the Celebes, or Little Moluccas, in the Indian ocean, ſituated in 126 and 129 deg. of E. lon. and 3 deg. of S. lat. having the iſlands of Molucca and Gilolo on the north, with Amboyna and the Banda iſlands on the ſouth, being about 150 miles long, and 60 broad. See *Celebes*.

CERIGO, or *Cytherea*. An iſland in the Turkiſh Archipelago, ſituated in 23 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 36 deg. of N. lat. near the eaſt part of the Morea, 50 miles N. of the iſle of Candia, being between 40 and 50 miles in circumference. See *Turkiſh Iſlands*.

CERTIFICATE. A writing, to aſſure or aſcertain the truth of a fact done; eſpecially in mercantile affairs, for the allowance of exportation or importation of goods, the obtaining of bounties, or other things neceſſary to be obſerved: but it is alſo a licence, or permiſſion, to do certain things therein related.

CERTIFICATE *of franchiſe*, is an act which declares certain merchandiſe free, and exempted from the duties of exportation; becauſe purchaſed, and taken away, during the time of the franchiſe of fairs.

By the ſtatute of Henry VII. all cuſtomers not mentioning the colour, length, content, weight, and value of foreign goods in coaſt-certificates, are to forfeit their office, and to be fined at the King's pleaſure.

By the ſtatutes of the 33d of Henry VIII. and the 13th and 14th of Charles II. all officers of the cuſtoms in Great Britain, granting a falſe coaſt-certificate, forfeit their office, and 50 l. to be impriſoned a year without bail, as alſo to ſuffer ſuch corporal puniſhment as the court of exchequer ſhall think fit, and to be incapable of ſerving again in the cuſtoms.

CERTIFICATE *in bankruptcy*. See *Bankrupt*.

CERTIFICATE-*cocket*. See *Entry*.

CERVIA. A city and port of Romagna, in Italy, ſituated in 13 deg. of E. lon. and 44 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the gulph of Venice, and ſubject to the Pope. See *Italy*.

CERUSSE, or *Ceruſe*. A white calx of lead, made by calcining that metal in the vapour of vinegar, and uſed in painting and coſmetics. The beſt ſort is that of Venice; but this is ſcarce; that chiefly uſed being either Engliſh or Dutch, both of which have more chalk in them than white lead: however, the latter is the better of the two, which ſhould be white, fine, clean, ſoft, and friable.

CESS. To tax, rate, or lay a mulct, or fine, upon a perſon, diſtrict, or diviſion.

CETTE. A port-town of France, in the province of Languedoc, ſituated in 3 deg. 16 min. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 25 min. of N. lat. on the bay of Maguelone, in the Mediterranean. See *France*.

CEYLON, or *Cinnamon Iſlands*, are the iſlands of Ceylon proper, Ramanakoiel, and four other little iſlands, ſituated in the Indian ocean; but the latter are inconſiderable places, lying between the N. W. part of Ceylon, and the coaſt of Coromandel in India.

The iſland of Ceylon is ſeparated, by a very narrow ſtrait, from Cape Comorin, the ſouthern promontory of the hither India, and the coaſt of Coromandel, from which it is diſtant about 45 miles to the ſouth-eaſt, lying between the 6th and 10th deg. of N. lat. and between the 79th and 82d deg. of E. lon. being about 250 miles in length, and 200 broad; which is one of the nobleſt acquiſitions the Dutch have in theſe remote regions, being the only country in the world which produces the true cinnamon in any conſiderable quantity.

The deſcendants of the ancient inhabitants, of whom the bulk of the people ſtill conſiſt, are called Cingaſſes, who are Pagans, and governed by their own prince: however, there are alſo great numbers of Moors, Malabars, Portugueſe, and Dutch, upon the iſland. No nation had a more conſiderable foreign trade antiently than the inhabitants of Ceylon, their cinnamon bringing the Egyptians, Arabians, Perſians, and all the people of the eaſt, here once in two or three years. The Portugueſe diſcovered this iſland about the year 1505, under the conduct of Lawrence d'Almeida; but it was twelve years afterwards before they began to ſettle a trade and factories there. About the year 1550, they erected a fort near Columbo, the principal port on the weſt part of the iſland; at which the King was alarmed, and immediately laid ſiege to it: but the Portugueſe having eſtabliſhed themſelves in ſo formidable a manner, that it would be extremely difficult to diſpoſſeſs them of their ſettlement, a treaty was entered into between the King of Ceylon and the Portugueſe; whereby that monarch was to deliver them a quantity of cinnamon annually at a certain price. After the concluſion of this

treaty,

treaty, ſo good a correſpondence ſubſiſted between the two nations, that the Ceyloneſe monarch ſent an ambaſſador to Portugal, and a very ſtrict alliance was entered into; inſomuch that ſeveral of the moſt conſiderable inhabitants embraced Chriſtianity, and put themſelves under the protection of the Portugueſe, who extended their ſettlements along the principal part of the country; but they behaving themſelves very cruelly and inſolently to the natives, and the Dutch General Spilbergen arriving on the coaſt in 1602, the Ceyloneſe entered into an offenſive and defenſive alliance with the Dutch; who gradually diminiſhed the power of the Portugueſe, till they abſolutely extirpated them out of the iſland, by the reduction of Columbo, their principal ſettlement, in the year 1655.

The Dutch obtained their opulent acquiſitions in the Eaſt Indies, more by ſtratagem and perfidy, than by bravery and ſtrength; for they would permit their generals and ambaſſadors to the Indian princes, to ſtipulate any thing, in order to bring them into their meaſures; but when their ends were accompliſhed, they pretended that their commanders had not full power to treat; by which artifices they prevailed on thoſe princes to unite their forces with the Dutch, who got into poſſeſſion of their ſtrongeſt fortreſſes, and at length became maſters of the country, where they exerciſed an unlimited authority. The Dutch prudently took care to form defenſible ſettlements along the principal maritime parts of the iſland, leaving the King to reſide in his capital of Candia, in the interior mountainous part of the country; where he is confined, like a tributary prince, to ſuch places as are unenvied by the Dutch, who monopoliſe the trade of the iſland, without paying any duties, or acknowledging the leaſt ſubjection to the King.

The whole coaſt is generally under the ſubjection of the Dutch; whoſe principal towns are Columbo, which lies on the ſouth-weſt part of the iſland; Negumbo, about eight leagues north of Columbo; Chilas, one of the beſt harbours in the iſland, 20 miles north of Negumbo; Jafnapatan, on the moſt northerly part of the iſland; Trinquamale, or Crankanella, on the eaſt part of the iſland; Battacalao, on the ſouth part of the iſland; with Punt de Galle, and ſeveral other fortifications, in the ſouth part of the iſland, inſomuch that the country is perfectly ſurrounded with their forts; whereby the Dutch have all the cinnamon-plantations to themſelves, and are the ſole venders of that commodity to the Europeans. They are alſo poſſeſſed of the pearl-fiſhery, between Jafnapatan and Madura, on the continent; tho' this has been lately neglected: however, they carry a great number of elephants over to the continent of India, where they are in ſuch great eſtimation as to bring 500 guilders for the leaſt, or 43 l. 15 s. ſterling, and 800, or 70 l. ſterling, for the ſtrongeſt of theſe noble animals, which are numerous in the woods of Ceylon.

The cinnamon-tree, ſo peculiar to this iſland, is as common as any other in the woods, on the ſouth weſt part of the iſland, near Columbo; but there is little or none to be found towards the north part: however, the Dutch have ſecured all the bays and mouths of the rivers round the iſland, to prevent other nations ſettling here, as the French attempted to do in the year 1673, or having any commerce with the Ceyloneſe. The quantity of cinnamon produced in this iſland, is ſufficient to ſupply all the world: but the Dutch are anxious to reduce the cinnamon-groves to a narrow compaſs, ſince they have monopoliſed them, and can exact what exorbitant price they pleaſe upon this ſpice. Beſides, the leſs extenſive theſe woods are, they will be the better enabled to defend their poſſeſſion, to which force is their ſuperior title. There are cinnamon-trees alſo upon the coaſt of Malabar, on the continent of India, whoſe bark reſembles the Ceylon cinnamon, both in colour and taſte; for which reaſon the Dutch deſtroy as much as they can of it, becauſe other nations uſed to mix them, and paſs both off together as true cinnamon.

One of the principal officers of the Dutch company, who brought back the India merchant fleet in 1688, ſeemed to be perſuaded, in the report he made the ſame year to the general directors, concerning the ſtate of the Dutch commerce in the Indies, that the great number of ports, forts, and habitations, poſſeſſed by the Dutch on the coaſts of Ceylon, with the extraordinary number of factors, clerks, and garriſons, they were obliged to keep up, conſumed over and above the product of the profits of the cinnamon-trade, and the other commodities exported from the iſlands; and that it would be adviſable to ſuppreſs ſome of them; which however could not be effected, as long as the bad underſtanding ſubſiſted between them and the King of Candia, who, as far as lay in him, interrupted, by frequent inroads, the cinnamon-harveſt.

The iſland of Ceylon produces ſeveral other things, whereby the inhabitants may drive on a conſiderable trade, either abroad or at home, if they were allowed it with ſtrangers, or if their natural indolence, and the hard ſervitude the King and the grandees keep them in, were not an obſtacle to an application to trade among themſelves, amaſſing every thing properly for their maſters, not for themſelves; and conſequently having no public markets, but ſome poor ſhops, where they ſell fruits, and a few neceſſaries for life.

However, their manufactures of cotton and ſtuffs may be excepted, which they ſend into ſuch provinces where there are none, and exchange for other productions of the country. 'Tis the chitics, that is, the weavers, who promote this trade; each family being entirely of the ſame profeſſion, and the laws prohibiting the ſons to quit that of their father.

The commodities met with commonly, and almoſt without any difficulty, in ſeveral parts of the iſland, are long pepper, cotton, ivory, ſeveral drugs, and roots for dying and medicine; cardamum, mirabolans, ſilk, tobacco, ebony, excellent timber for building, lead, betel, wild honey, muſk, wax, cryſtal, ſaltpetre, ſulphur, ſugar, corcoma, and rice, whereof the Dutch export great quantities for the coaſt of Coromandel; iron, ſteel, copper, gold, and ſilver; all kinds of precious ſtones, except diamonds; laſtly, cinnamon, and elephants.

Moſt of theſe things are found abundantly in the upper part of the iſland, ſubject to the King of Candia, but cannot be had from the natives, when prohibited to interfere with the Dutch, among which are gold and ſilver, precious ſtones, ſulphur, and ſaltpetre, which the King particularly reſerves to himſelf; ſo that cinnamon properly conſtitutes the Dutch commerce, and that only with ſuch of the inhabitants who are kept in reſpect by the dread of their garriſons.

There are three kinds of cinnamon, the fine, the midling, and the coarſe; the younger trees producing the fine, being always of an inferior quality, according to their age; and the bark to be good ſhould be at leaſt two or three years old; but the tree multiplies ſo abundantly, and almoſt without any culture, that the Dutch, to make it dearer, hinder its multiplication.

The uſual price the Dutch company give to ſuch of the inhabitants as are ſubject to them for cinnamon, is 48 ſtivers, or 4 s. 4 d. ſterling, the quintal of 120 lb. See *Cinnamon*.

Beſides elephants, there are great numbers of other animals, both wild and tame, in this iſland; ſuch as, bears, tigers, jackals, monkeys, deer, and hares, oxen and buffaloes, goats and hogs; but no other horſes, aſſes, or ſheep, than what are imported by Europeans; nor have they any navigable rivers. See *Cinnamon*, *Spice*, and *United Provinces*.

CHA. A ſlight ſilk ſtuff, manufactured among the Chineſe, and wore by them for a ſummer apparel, which has a great reſemblance to the French taffety, but is leſs cloſe and gloſſy.

CHA, is alſo a name given to the tea-bloſſom. See *Tea*.

CHABNAM, or *Roſee*. A kind of muſlin, or very fine and clear cotton cloth; the piece containing 16 ells in length, and 2-3ds or 3-4ths in breadth, which is brought from the Eaſt Indies, and particularly from Bengal.

CHACART. A kind of cotton cloth, chequered with different colours, brought from the Eaſt Indies, particularly from Surat; the piece being eleven ells and a half in length, and three quarters in breadth.

CHADECQ. One of the four ſorts of oranges found in the French American iſlands, and brought alſo from Barbadoes; the leaves, bloſſoms, and fruit of the tree being of an

an extraordinary bigneſs; the fruit, eaten raw, is ſomewhat diſagreeable, but is pretty good when confected.

CHAFFER *Connees*. Printed linens, manufactured at Surat in India.

CHAGRE. A fort at the mouth of the river Chagre, in the province of Darien in Spaniſh America, ſituated in 82 deg. of W. lon. and 9 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. which was taken ſeveral times by the buccaneers, and laſtly by Admiral Vernon in 1740, where he found ſome rich merchandiſe; moſt of the goods laden on board the galleons being ſent down the river hither from Panama, except the plate, in order to be ſhipped at Porto Bello.

CHAIN. A long piece of metal, compoſed of ſeveral rings; being made either of gold, ſilver, copper, braſs, or tin; either round, flat, or ſquare; ſingle, double, or treble; ſerving for watches, jacks, and other things.

CHAIN is alſo a meaſure of content in France, and uſed for ſurveying of land in England.

CHAIN-SHOT. Two bullets, or rather half bullets, linked together by a chain, uſed at ſea to ſhoot down yards or maſts, or to cut the ſhrouds, or any other rigging of a ſhip.

CHAIRMAN. The preſiding member, or officer, in a public aſſembly, particularly in thoſe of trading companies: thus, by an act of parliament of the 1742, the directors of the bank of England, in the abſence of the governor, or deputy governor, may chuſe a chairman to act in their ſtead. See *Bank of England*.

CHAISE. A ſmall, light ſort of open chariot, commonly made with two wheels.

CHALCANTHUM. See *Calcanthum*.

CHALCITIS. A kind of vitriolic mineral, reddiſh, like copper, friable, and having yellow ſhining veins within, otherwiſe called colcothar: it has the taſte of vitriol, melts alone in a crucible, and diſſolves very eaſily in aqueous liquor. See *Vitriol*, and *Colcothar*.

But there are two other minerals, called miſi, and ſory, much reſembling the chalcitis, which the antients confounded together, and not only the miſi and ſory, but alſo the melanteria; or rather they imagined a ſucceſſive tranſmutation of the four minerals, which, beginning with chalcitis, became miſi, then melanteria, and laſtly ſory, where it fixed. However, the moderns make theſe four diſtinct matters; tho' the chief difference between them is ſuppoſed to lie in the different tenuity or groſſneſs of their ſubſtance.

Some ſay the miſi is formed on the chalcitis, as verdigreaſe is on copper, being properly its ruſt; and that chalcitis is formed in the ſame manner on the ſory. It is certain they are all found in copper-mines; but modern druggiſts know little of any of them, except the chalcitis, which is brought from Germany, being very cauſtic and eſcharotic; ſo that it is chiefly uſed in the compoſition of Venice treacle; but, in lieu of it, calcanthum rubified, or copperas, or calamita, are frequently ſubſtituted.

CHALDRON, *Chalder*, or *Chaudron, of coals*. A dry Engliſh meaſure, conſiſting of 36 buſhels, heaped up, according to the ſealed buſhel kept at Guild-hall, London; by which the chaldron ſhould weigh 2000 pounds; tho' it is uſually divided into 12 ſacks, each holding 3 buſhels, weighing about a ton and a half: but on ſhip-board 21 chaldron of coals are allowed to the ſcore, and 8 chaldron at Newcaſtle makes at London 15 chaldrons. However, in Wales, and other places, they reckon 12 barrels, or pitchers, to the ton or chaldron, and 29 hundred weight, of 120 pounds, to the ton. See *Coal*, and *Sack*.

CHALK. A white, foſſile ſubſtance, uſually reckoned, but improperly, a ſtone; being of two ſorts; the firſt, a hard, dry, ſtrong chalk, uſed for making of lime; the other a ſoft, unctuous chalk, uſed to manure lands, as eaſily diſſolving with rain and froſt.

It is likewiſe uſed for the whitening of plate, leather, and woollen ſtuffs; as alſo for marking or deſigning the works of artificers.

There are great quantities of chalk in ſeveral parts of England; but the beſt they have in France is from Champagne, where they build their houſes of it, particularly at Rheims, and in the greater part of the neighbouring villages.

The chalk of the antients was brought from the iſland of Crete, or Candia; whence this iſland had its denomination, diſtinguiſhed into three ſorts, the white, the greeniſh, and the black; but they uſed only the white in medicine.

Moderns alſo uſe it, in ſome reſpects, as a topic remedy; or taken inwardly, by the vehicle of ſome liquor: applied outwardly, it is deemed deſiccative, deterſive, and proper for cicatrizing wounds and ulcers, and inwardly for curing the heart-burn.

Briançon CHALK, is a kind of ſtone met with in France, much of the nature of talc, except that it is ſcaly, and more hard; of which there are two ſorts, the white and the green, uſed chiefly for taking greaſe out of ſilks.

Red CHALK, is a kind of common Armenian bole; but in all reſpects inferior to the real, being very brittle, and eaſily broke; the beſt ſort whereof comes from Egypt, and about Carthage; as alſo ſome from the Weſt Indies; but the better part of what is imported, is only ochre burnt, and converted into chalk; which carpenters, and joiners, formerly uſed for marking their work; from whence it was denominated, in Latin, *rubrica fabrilis*.

CHALYBEAT, ſomething that partakes of the nature of ſteel, or iron; or that is impregnated with particles of thoſe metals, as chalybeat waters.

CHAM, or *Khan*. The title given to the ſovereign princes of Tartary, ſignifying, in the Perſian language, mighty Lord; and Emperor, in the Sclavonian.

CHAMBERLAIN, is an officer in moſt of the Engliſh corporate places; ſuch as the chamberlain of London, who is an officer intruſted with the city-money, which is laid up in one of the apartments in Guild hall, called the chamber of London; he alſo preſides over the affairs of maſters and apprentices, and admits citizens to their freedom; but his office continues only for a year, being choſen annually on Midſummer-day; tho' the cuſtom uſually obtains, to re-appoint the ſame perſon, unleſs he has been chargeable with any miſdemeanor in his office.

CHAMBERS *of Commerce*, are aſſemblies of merchants and traders, where they treat about matters relating to commerce; of which there are ſeveral eſtabliſhed in moſt of the principal cities in France, by virtue of an arret of the 10th of Auguſt 1701; tho' there were ſome before this general eſtabliſhment, particularly one at Marſeilles, and another at Dunkirk. Theſe chambers carefully ſuperintend every branch of the French commerce, and lay their obſervations thereon before the royal council; who, in purſuance thereof, have taken ſuch prudential meaſures for the encouragement of trade, that the French commerce is now become a very formidable rival to that of Great Britain, where there ſeems ſome other eſtabliſhment wanting beſides the board of trade and plantations for the promotion of the trading intereſt; and ſome of our moſt ſenſible merchants have thought that we ought to follow the example of the French nation, in eſtabliſhing chambers of commerce; of which we have ſeen a ſmall attempt, in the chambers belonging to the herring-fiſhery.

CHAMOIS. See *Shammy*.

CHAMPLAIN *Lake*, lies on the north of the province of New York in North America.

CHAN, or *Kan*, is a term uſed in ſome places of the Levant, particularly in Syria, for public places, built at the expence of the Grand Signior, or the charity of private perſons, for the more commodious lodging of merchants and travellers; which are much of the ſame nature with the caravanſeras, being built in the form of cloiſters, near villages, or even deſarts, at a reaſonable diſtance, that the traveller, or merchant, might not proceeed too far from the high road. All paſſengers may retire there, by paying a little, and often nothing; which is a great conveniency in countries where there are no houſes of entertainment; yet no other accommodation is uſually to be met with but the four walls; all perſons being obliged, before their arrival, to provide themſelves with meat, drink, beds, fire, and forage. See *Caravanſera*.

CHANDLER. A trader or dealer in many ſorts of commodities, but commonly meant of trifling dealers; ſometimes it is reſtrained to one commodity, as wax or tallow chandlers, whoſe principal buſineſs is to make and ſell wax

and tallow candles; likewiſe to corn-chandlers, who ſell all kinds of grain; and ſometimes to thoſe who ſell all ſorts of ſhips ſtores.

CHANGE. See *Exchange*.

CHANGER, or *Chaunger*. An officer belonging to the mint of his Britannic Majeſty, who changes money for gold or ſilver bullion. See *Mint*.

Money-CHANGER, is a banker, who deals in exchange, receipts, and payment of money. See *Banker*.

CHANNEL, imports the bed of a river; tho' it is alſo applied to ſeveral arms of the ſea, where the water runs within the land; or to certain narrow ſeas, confined between two adjacent continents, or between an iſland and continent; in which ſenſe it is ſaid St. George's channel, the Britiſh channel, the Iriſh channel, the channel of the Black ſea, of Conſtantinople, and other places.

CHAOUL. A town of India, remarkable for its ſilk. See *India*.

CHAOURI, called alſo *Sain*. A ſilver coin current at Teflis, the capital of Georgia in Armenia, worth about 4 d. halfpenny ſterling.

CHAPMAN. A buyer of any ſorts of goods, or a cuſtomer to a merchant or tradeſman.

Petty CHAPMAN, is a perſon who hawks, or retails goods, in ſmall quantities. See *Hawker*.

CHAPPA-DELLALA, is a term uſed on the coaſt of Coromandel in India, particularly in the kingdom of Golconda, for a duty paid for the marking of cloth; which is impoſed only upon the people of the country, and wherefrom Europeans are exempted, being 12 *per cent.* of the price of the cloth.

CHARABON. A ſea-port town, ſituated in 108 deg of E. lon. and 6 deg. of S. lat. on the north coaſt of the iſland of Java, in the Indian ocean. See *Sunda iſlands*.

CHARACTERS, in commerce, are certain abbreviations for the more expeditious expreſſion of particular words; thoſe being

D° for ditto, the ſame	C. or ℔, hundred weight, or 112 pounds
N° numero, or number	q^r quarter, or 28 pounds
F° folio, or page	℔ *per*, or *by*, as ℔ *ann.* by the year, and ℔ *cent.* in the hundred
R° recto } folio	R^x rixdollar
V° verſo } folio	D^d ducat
£. ſterling, or pound ſterling	P. S. poſtſcript
s. ſhillings	
ꝑ or d. pence.	
℔. pound weight	

CHARACTERS uſed in medicine, pharmacy, and chemiſtry, are as follows.

℞. recipe	♎. ſulphur
♁ antimony	♀ ſpirit of wine
Æ. aquafortis	♀ or S.V.R. ſpirit of wine rectified
Æ. aqua regia	☾. ſilver
MB. balneum mariæ	♃. tartar
☤. calx viva	℔. a pound, or a pint
⊛. caput mortuum	℥. an ounce
♀. copper	ʒ. a drachm
⊖. common ſalt	℈. a ſcruple.
σ. diſtil	gr. grains
☉. gold	ß. half of any thing
CC. hart's-horn	Cong. a gallon
CCC. hart's-horn calcined	Cochl. a ſpoonful
♂. iron.	M. a handful
aaa. amalgamate	P. a pugil
SSS. ſtratum ſuper ſtratum	P. E. equal quantities
♃. Jupiter, tin	S. A. according to art
♄. lead	q s. a ſufficient quantity
☿. Mercury	q. pl. quantum placet, as much as you pleaſe
☿ — ſublimate	P. P. pulvis patriam, the Jeſuits bark
☿ — precipitate	
☉. nitre	
*. ſal armoniac	
⊕. vitriol	

CHARAG. The annual tribute, which Chriſtians and Jews in Turky pay to the Grand Signior, according to the eſtate of the party, which men begin to pay at 9 or 16 years old; but women are diſpenſed with, as alſo the clergy.

CHARCANAS. A ſilk and cotton ſtuff, manufactured in the Eaſt Indies; the length of it being from about 7 to 8 ells, and the breadth always 5-6ths.

CHARCOAL. A ſort of artificial coal, or fuel, conſiſting of wood half burnt, chiefly uſed where a clear ſtrong fire, without ſmoke, is required.

Charcoal is made in woods and foreſts; the middlemoſt branches of trees being cut for this purpoſe, uſually of two feet and a half in length, and diſpoſed pyramidally in a round, broad, and deep ditch, covered exactly with earth; where a ſmall opening is made for putting in fire, which is afterwards cloſed up, when the wood is ſuppoſed to be ſufficiently conſumed, and, by being extinguiſhed for want of air, is brought to the conſiſtence of good charcoal, retaining the ſulphur, which otherwiſe would have evaporated.

A charcoal fire is very active, and therefore uſed for the melting of metals; but perſons ſhould be greatly on their guard againſt its vapour, which is capable of preying upon the brain, and cauſing a ſudden death.

CHARENTE. A river of France, riſing in Limoſin, which runs weſtward by Angouleſme and Saintes, falling into the bay of Biſcay oppoſite the iſland of Oleron.

Tonnai CHARENTE. A village of France. See *France*.

CHARIBBEE *iſlands*. See *Caribbee Iſlands*.

CHARIOT. A light coach, or carriage by horſes, of pleaſure. See *Coach*.

CHARITABLE *Corporation*, was a company incorporated by letters-patent of the ſixth of Q. Anne, in 1708, by the ſtyle of The charitable corporation for the relief of induſtrious poor, by aſſiſting them with ſmall ſums, upon pledges at legal intereſt. To enable the members of the corporation to anſwer their title, they were empowered to raiſe a fund, not leſs than 20, nor more than 30000l. but this fund afterwards, by additional grants, being increaſed to 600,000 l. the ſame, inſtead of being employed to the advantage of the proprietors, was wickedly embezzled by their caſhier, and other officers, who eſcaped into France: on which occaſion the unfortunate proprietors applied to parliament for redreſs, who granted them a power to make a lottery for 500,000 l. whereby they cleared about 80,000 l. and were enabled to continue their office in Spring Garden, Charing-Croſs, where their buſineſs is tranſacted purſuant to the regulations of their charter; by which they were, upon pain of diſſolution, injoined not to interfere with the bank of England, by diſcounting of bills, either foreign or domeſtic, or keeping other caſh than their own; nor to traffic, or deal in buſineſs, any other than that of lending money upon pledges, which they were to advance upon legal intereſt, and a reaſonable allowance for charges.

The affairs of this company are under the direction of a committee of ſeven of the proprietors, three or more whereof conſtitute a court, who, in conjunction with others, may call a general court, which is to conſiſt of ſeventeen at leaſt, who are empowered to make bye-laws for the better government of the company, and to appoint their caſhier, warehouſe-keeper, accomptant, clerks, or other officers.

CHARLES *Cape*, in Virginia, in North America, makes the north-ſide of the ſtrait entering the bay of Cheaſepeak.

CHARLES *Cape*, is alſo another promontory in North America, on the ſouth-weſt part of the ſtrait entering into Hudſon's bay.

CHARLES-TOWN. The capital city of South Carolina in North America, ſituated in 79 deg. of W. lon. and 32 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on a peninſula, formed by Aſhley and Cooper rivers; the former of which is navigable for ſhips 20 miles above the town. See *British America*.

CHARLETON. An iſland at the bottom of Hudſon's bay in North America, ſituated in 80 deg. of W. lon. and 59 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. being ſubject to Great Britain.

CHART, or *Sea-Chart*. A hydrographical map, or a projection of ſome part of the ſea *in plano*, for the uſe of navigation; the invention of theſe charts being attributed to Henry, ſon of John King of Portugal; but all ſea-charts are not of the ſame kind; ſome going under the denomination of *plain charts*, others *reduced*, or *Mercator's charts*, and others *globular charts*.

Plain CHARTS, are thoſe wherein the meridians and parallels are exhibited by right lines, parallel to each other: but

theſe Ptolemy, in his geography, rejects for the following faults, tho' their inventor judged them of good uſe; and experience has confirmed his judgment, eſpecially in ſhort voyages; their defects being, 1. That ſince, in reality, all the meridians meet in the poles, it is abſurd to repreſent them, eſpecially in large charts, by parallel right lines; 2. That plain charts exhibit the degrees of the ſeveral parallels, equal to thoſe of the equator; and, of conſequence, the diſtances of places lying eaſt and weſt much larger than they ſhould be; and, 3. That, in a plain chart, while the ſame rhumb is kept, the veſſel appears to ſail in a great circle, which is yet falſe.

However, notwithſtanding theſe defects in the plain chart, the eaſineſs of its application has ſo reconciled it to mariners, that it is uſed almoſt alone, in excluſion of the more accurate ones: but, for the application of the plain chart in ſailing, ſee *Plain-ſailing*.

Reduced CHART, or *Chart of reduction*, is that wherein the meridians are repreſented by right lines, parallel to one another, but unequal; which therefore, as appears by their conſtruction, muſt correct the errors of the plain charts. But ſince the parallels ſhould cut the meridians at right angles, theſe charts are defective, in as much as they exhibit the parallels inclined to the meridians: hence another kind of reduced charts has been invented; wherein the meridians are parallel, but the degrees thereof unequal, called *Mercator's charts*.

Mercator's CHART, is that wherein the meridians and parallels are repreſented by parallel right lines; but the degrees of the meridians are unequal, ſtill increaſing as they approach the pole, in the ſame proportion as thoſe of the parallels decreaſe; by means whereof the ſame proportion is preſerved between them as on the globe; which chart has its name from N. Mercator the author, who firſt propoſed it for uſe, and made the firſt chart of this projection; tho' that thought was not originally his, as it was hinted by Ptolemy near 2000 years ago: nor is the projection of it owing to him; Mr. Wright, an Engliſhman, being the firſt who demonſtrated it, and ſhewed a ready way for its conſtruction, by enlarging the meridian line with the continual addition of ſecants: but, for the uſe of Mercator's charts in ſailing, ſee *Mercator's ſailing*.

Globular CHART, is a projection ſo called, from the conformity it bears to the globe itſelf; being a repreſentation of the ſurface, or ſome part of the ſurface, of the terraqueous globe, upon a plane; wherein the parallels of latitude are circles nearly concentric, the meridians curves bending towards the poles, and the rhumb-lines alſo curves.

The merit of which conſiſts in this, that the diſtances between places upon the rhumb, are all meaſured by the ſame ſcale of equal parts; and the diſtance of any two places in the arch of the great circle, is nearly repreſented in this chart by a ſtraight line. Hence land-maps, made according to this projection, would indiſputably have great advantages above thoſe made any other way. But for ſea-charts, and the uſes of navigation, it is yet controverted, whether the globular chart be preferable to Mercator's, where the meridians, parallels, and particularly the rhumb-lines, are all ſtraight lines, inaſmuch as ſtraight lines are found more eaſy to draw and manage than curves, eſpecially ſuch as are the rhumb-lines on the globular chart.

This projection is not new, tho' not much taken notice of till of late; for it is mentioned by Ptolemy in his geography, as alſo by Blundeville in his exerciſes.

CHARTS *compoſed by rhumbs and diſtances*, are thoſe that have no meridians or parallels; but all is effected by the rhumbs, and the ſcale of miles; theſe being chiefly uſed by the French, eſpecially in the Mediterranean, which are patched up, without any great art, from the obſervations of the mariners, and are only uſed in ſhort voyages.

CHARTER, is an inſtrument, or written evidence, of a thing, under the ſeal of a prince; whereby he makes a grant to a perſon, or community, of ſome particular and excluſive privileges, under certain limitations. See *Company*, and *Corporation*.

CHARTER-*Party*, in commerce, denotes the inſtrument of freightage, or articles of agreement for the hire of a veſſel; which ſhould be in writing, to be ſigned both by the owner or maſter of the ſhip, and the merchant who freights it; wherein muſt be contained the name and burden of the veſſel, thoſe of the maſter and the freighter, the price or rate of freight, the time of loading and unloading, and the other conditions agreed on.

The Preſident Boyer ſays the word comes from hence, that *per medium charta incidebatur, et ſic fiebat charta partita*; becauſe, in the time when notaries were leſs common, there was only one inſtrument made for both parties, which they cut in two, and gave each his portion, joining them together at their return, to know if each had done his part; and this he obſerves to have ſeen in his time, agreeable to the method of the Romans, who, in their ſtipulations, uſed to break a ſtaff, each party retaining a moiety thereof as a mark.

The charter-party is properly a deed or policy, whereby the maſter or owner of a veſſel engages to furniſh immediately, a good tight veſſel, well equipped, caulked, ſtopped, provided with anchors, ſails, cordage, and all other furniture, to make the voyage required; as equipage, hands, pilots, victuals, and other munitions, as alſo for the taking in and delivering out of the loading, in conſideration of a certain ſum to be paid by the merchants for the freight: but the ſhip, with all its furniture, and the cargo, are reſpectively ſubjected to the conditions of the charter-party; which differs from a bill of lading, in that the charter party is for the entire freight or lading, both for the going and returning; whereas the latter is only for a part of the freight, or at moſt only for the voyage one way.

It has been determined by the civil law, that if any goods are put on board a veſſel, without agreeing for the freight by charter-party, the maſter ſhall have freight according to cuſtom; and, if the goods are ſent to the ſhip ſecretly, the ſame may be ſubjected to what freight the maſter thinks proper. When coffers, packs, veſſels, or other marked goods, are delivered on board, cloſe packed or ſealed, and afterwards ſhall be received open and looſe, the maſter is to be charged for ſuch goods and merchandiſe, until he is acquitted by law; beſides, he muſt anſwer for the damage committed by the rats on board his ſhip to any merchandiſe, for want of keeping a cat, as well as for any other damage.

The common law always conſtrues charter-parties as near as poſſible, according to the intention and deſign of them, and not according to the literal ſenſe of traders, or thoſe that merchandiſe by ſea; but they muſt be regularly pleaded: and, if the maſter of a ſhip enters into a charter party for himſelf and owners, the maſter, in that caſe, may releaſe the freighters, without adviſing with the owners; tho' if the owners let out to freight ſuch a ſhip, and the maſter only covenants at the bottom, and ſubſcribes his name, here his releaſe will not bind or affect the owners of the ſhip; but their releaſe, on the other hand, ſhall conclude the maſter; and the reaſon is, for that he is not a proper party to the indenture of charter-party; which was adjudged in Trin. 29 Eliz. B. R. 2 Inſt. 673.

CHARYBDIS. A rock in the ſtreight of Meſſina, between the continent of Italy, and the iſland of Sicily, being formerly very dangerous to mariners, on account of a rapid eddy about this place, which violently drove the veſſels on the rock of Scylla, when the ſeamen endeavoured to avoid Charybdis; but, now navigation is better underſtood, the modern ſailors find no ſuch inconvenience here.

CHASE, in the ſea-language, is to purſue a ſhip; which is alſo called *giving chaſe*.

Stern-CHASE, is when the chaſer follows the chaſed a ſtern, directly upon the ſame point of the compaſs.

To lie with a ſhip's fore-foot in a chaſe, is to ſail, and meet with her, by the neareſt diſtance, ſo to croſs her in her way, or to come acroſs her fore-foot.

A ſhip is ſaid to have *a good chaſe*, when ſhe is ſo built forward on, or a-ſtern, that ſhe can carry many guns to ſhoot forwards or backwards; according to which ſhe is ſaid to have *a good forward*, or *good ſtern-chaſe*.

CHASE-*Guns*, are ſuch whoſe ports are either in the head, when they are uſed in chaſing of others; or in the ſtern, which

which are only uſeful when they are purſued or chaſed by any other ſhip.

CHASER. A perſon whoſe buſineſs conſiſts in chaſing, which is a method of working, or enriching gold, ſilver, or other metals, properly called *enchaſing*. See *Enchaſing*.

CHATHAM. A port-town of Kent, adjoining to Rocheſter, ſituated in 40 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. on the river Medway, 30 miles S. E. of London, being the principal ſtation of the royal navy of Great Britain, furniſhed with timber, rope-yards, and naval ſtores, ſufficient for the building and fitting out of the largeſt fleet. See *Great Britain*.

CHATHAM *Cheſt*, is a fund appropriated for the uſe of wounded and decayed ſeamen on board the Britiſh fleet, their widows, and children, in the ſame manner as that for ſeamen in the mercantile ſervice, under the direction of the Trinity-houſe.

By the ſtatute of the 1ſt of James II. it was enacted, That all foreign built ſhips which ſhould be bought and brought into England, Wales, or Berwick, and employed in carrying any goods from port to port in the inland-trade, for every voyage ſhould pay to his Majeſty at the port of delivery of their lading, before the delivery, over and above all duties payable by Engliſh built ſhips, 5 s. *per* ton; one moiety for the cheſt at Chatham; the other moiety to the maſter, wardens, and aſſiſtants, of the Trinity houſe of Deptford-ſtrond, for relief of wounded and decayed ſeamen, their widows and children. See *Trinity houſe*.

And, by the ſtatute of the 1ſt of George I. it was enacted, That all the fines ariſing from ſuch ſeamen who ſhould be found guilty of committing any diſturbances in his Majeſty's yards, or about the office of the treaſurer of the navy, on pay-days, in London, Portſmouth, and other places, ſhould be paid to this cheſt for the uſe of the maimed ſeamen.

CHATTELS. A Norman term, under which were antiently comprehended all moveable goods; thoſe immoveable being termed fief, or, according to the modern appellation, fee: but now the word implies all ſorts of goods, moveable or immoveable, except ſuch as are in the nature of freehold, or parcel thereof.

CHATTELS *perſonal*, are ſuch as either belong immediately to the perſon of a man; as his horſe, ſword, or ſuch things as being injuriouſly with-held from him, a man has no way to recover but by perſonal action.

CHATTELS *real*, are either ſuch as do not appertain immediately to the perſon, but to ſome other thing, by way of dependance; as charters of lands, and apples upon a tree; or ſuch as neceſſarily iſſue out of ſome immoveable thing to a perſon, as a leaſe, or rent for years.

CHATTIGNAN. A port-town of India, ſituated in 91 deg. of E. lon. and 23 deg. of N. lat. at the mouth of the moſt eaſterly branch of the Ganges, and ſubject to the Mogul. See *India*.

CHAUF, *Chouf*, or *Chaufettes*, are Perſian ſilks, brought from ſeveral port towns of the Levant, particularly by the way of Aleppo, where they are weighed by the rotulo, of 680 drachms, or 4 lb. 9 oz. Engliſh avoirdupois.

CHAY. A plant, which grows only in the kingdom of Golconda in India, and is productive of that beautiful red colour, for which Maſulipatan callicoes are ſo highly eſteemed, being valued in this part of the Indies, as cochineal is in other places, and particularly in Europe; yet with this difference, that the oftener callicoes painted with chay are waſhed, the more the vivacity of the colour increaſes, which is never ſubject to be effaced.

CHAYE, *Shahee*, or *Chay*. The ſmalleſt ſilver coin that is ſtruck and current in Perſia, worth 4 d. ſterling.

CHEASEPEAK *Bay*, runs about 300 miles up into the country, between Virginia and Maryland, in North America, navigable almoſt all the way, for large ſhips; being about 20 miles broad, at the entrance between Cape Charles and Cape Henry; and between 20 and 30 broad afterwards; having abundance of navigable rivers falling into it, whereby ſhips go up to the very doors of the planters, and take in their lading of tobacco and other goods. See *Britiſh America*.

CHECK, *Clerk of the Check*, is the name of an officer in the yards appointed for the ſervice of the royal navy; as at Plymouth, Portſmouth, and Deptford, who has the check or controulment of the workmen.

CHEDA. A tin-coin ſtruck and current in a kingdom of the ſame name, in the Eaſt Indies, in the neighbourhood of the Mogul's territories, worth about a penny ſterling.

CHEESE. A popular food, being a preparation of milk curdled by means of rennet, dried and hardened; or it is nothing but milk purged of its ſerum, or whey; and ſometimes too of the cream, or butyrous part of the milk. There are ſo many ſorts, and of ſuch different names, that it would be a difficult matter to enumerate them all; ſo that it will be ſufficient to give an account of the moſt conſiderable in trade.

Great quantities of cheeſe are made in ſeveral counties of England; but the moſt excellent ſorts are made in Cheſhire and Glouceſterſhire.

By the ſtatute of the 17th of George I. it was enacted, That if any ſhip, or veſſel, employed by the cheeſemongers of the city of London, in the cheeſe trade, to the city of Cheſter, ſhould not go up to the city, or within any parts of the intended works of navigation; but ſhould have their lading put on board ſuch ſhip or veſſel by boats or keels; two pence *per* ton ſhould be paid to the river Dee company, by the maſter or owner of every ſuch boat, or keel, carrying cheeſe to be put on board ſuch ſhip or veſſel, in full ſatisfaction of all duties and tonnage whatſoever to the company. See *Butter*, and *Dee Company*.

The quantity of cheeſe annually imported in London is about 5,760 ton of Cheſhire cheeſe; thin cheeſe, from Hull and Gainſborough, 1400 tons; from Suffolk 980; and from Newbury, Abingdon, and other places, by barges, 2,400 tons; being together 10,523 tons, or twenty one millions and ſixty ſix thouſand pounds.

Of all kinds of cheeſe the Italian is moſt in eſteem, and is imported to other parts of Europe in large round forms, between 5 and 6 inches thick, and weighing from 50 to 90 pounds: of which there is a conſiderable trade in all parts of Europe, eſpecially in France; and ſome pretend that the French have given it the name of Parmeſan, becauſe a princeſs of Parma had firſt brought it into their dominions; tho' it is known in Italy under the name only of *Lodi*, a territory adjacent to the Parmeſan, abounding in excellent paſture, and conſequently productive of a great quantity of theſe ſorts of cheeſe; the good qualities of which are, to be new, of a yellow taſte, cloſe, and without eyes: but though the Normans endeavoured to counterfeit it, all their attempts were unſucceſsful.

Switzerland makes a large quantity of cheeſe, brought from Griers, a bourg of the dioceſs of Loſanne, in the canton of Fribourg; and from Bern the capital of another canton of the ſame name: but the cheeſe of Griers is eſteemed the better ſort; and both kinds, to be good, ſhould be new, the paſte yellow, the eyes large, and the whole well ſeaſoned with ſalt.

Holland furniſhes ſeveral countries with a prodigious quanty of cheeſe, whoſe form has a great reſemblance to a ſkittle bowl, ſomewhat flatted on both ſides; of which there are two kinds, ſome painted red, and others painted white; but the red is reputed the better ſort, upon account of the yellow, hard, and cloſe paſte, like the parmeſan.

The cheeſe made in France is moſtly conſumed in that kingdom, whereof the moſt remarkable provinces for its production are Dauphiny, Languedoc, Foreſt, and Auvergne.

CHEGOS. A weight uſed by the Portugueſe in the Indies, for weighing pearls; 4 chegos making a carat.

CHEIT-A-BUND. A kind of ſilk in the Mogul's territories, holding the ſecond rank among the ſix kinds gathered there.

CHELLES. Cotton cloths checquered with different colours, brought from the Eaſt Indies, particularly from Surat: the piece containing about 13 or 14 ells in length, and $\frac{3}{4}$ in breadth.

CHELSEA *water-works*. See *Waterworks*.

CHEMBALIS. A ſort of Turky leather.

CHEMIST, or *Chymiſt*, a perſon who practiſes the art of chemiſtry

chemiſtry, which teaches the manner of performing certain phyſical operations, whereby bodies cognizable to the ſenſes, or capable of being rendered cognizable, and of being contained in veſſels, are ſo changed, by means of proper inſtruments, as to produce certain determined effects, and diſcover the cauſes thereof, which have been converted to many uſes in trade; but particularly ſo in medicine.

CHEPELIO. An iſland in the bay of Panama, and province of Darien, in North America, ſituated in 81 deg. of W. lon. and 9 deg. of N. lat. about a league from the city of Panama, which it ſupplies with proviſions and fruit. See *Spaniſh America*.

CHEQUI, or *Chique*, one of the four weights uſed in the ports of the Levant, particularly at Smyrna, being 5 lb. 6 oz. Engliſh avoirdupoiſe.

CHERAFIS, called otherwiſe *Tela*, a kind of gold medal ſtruck in Perſia, ſignifying noble in the Perſian tongue, upon account of the excellence of the metal: ſome travellers have been of opinion that the cherafis was a current coin; but it is certain that no gold ſpecie is coined in Perſia. See *Tela*.

CHERAFS, are Banian factors eſtabliſhed in Perſia; particularly at Scamachi, near the Caſpian ſea, who are reputed ſo ſubtle in trade as to exceed even the Jews. See *Banian*.

CHERBURG. A port-town of France, in the province of Normandy, ſituated in 1 deg. 40 min. of W. lon. and 49 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. on a bay of the Engliſh channel.

CHERIF. A gold coin ſtruck and current in Egypt, being worth about 3 s. 8 d. ſterling.

CHERRY-*brandy*, is a liquor produced by ſteeping cherries in brandy. See *Brandy*.

CHERRY-*Iſle*, is an iſland ſituated in 20 deg. of E. lon. and 75 deg. of N. lat. in the N. or frozen ocean, between Norway and Greenland.

CHERSO. An iſland in the gu'ph of Venice, ſituated in 15 deg. of E. lon. and 42 deg. 25 min. of N. lat. being ſubject to the Venetians. See *Italian iſlands*.

CHESNUT. The fruit of a tree well known, of the produce of ſeveral countries; but particularly abounding in Limoſin and Perigord in France; whence, by the way of Bourdeaux, great quantities are ſent into foreign countries, eſpecially to the Dutch, who tranſport them to the north.

CHEST. A kind of meaſure, containing an uncertain quantity of ſeveral commodities: a cheſt of ſugar being from 10 to 15 hundred weight; a cheſt of glaſs from 200 to 300 feet; of ſoap from 2 ½ to 3 hundred weight; and of indigo from 1 ½ to 2 hundred weight, five ſcore to the hundred.

Chatham CHEST. See *Chatham*.

CHIARENSA. A port-town, ſituated in 21 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 37 deg. 35 min. of N. lat. on the N. W. coaſt of the Morea, oppoſite to the iſland of Zant, in the Mediterranean, and ſubject to the Turks. See *Turky*.

CHIARVATAR. A term in ſome parts of Perſia, particularly at Bander-Congo, for what Europeans call a cuſtom-houſe officer.

CHILOE *iſland*, is ſituated near the coaſt of Chili, in South America. See *Spaniſh America*.

CHIMAY. An extenſive lake, lying between India and China, in the country of Acham.

CHINA, and *Great Tartary*, are now united, and compoſe one extenſive empire, comprehending all the eaſtern ſide of the continent of Aſia; China being conquered by the Tartars about 100 years ago. The moſt ſouthern part of China lies in the latitude of 21 degrees, and the moſt northerly part of Chineſian Tartary is ſituated in 55 degrees; the whole lying between 95 and 135 degrees of E longitude; being bounded by Ruſſian Tartary on the north; by the Pacific ocean on the eaſt and ſouth; and by Tonquin, Tibet, and the territories of Ruſſia on the weſt, from which it is ſeparated by the river Argun; being about 2000 miles in length from north to ſouth; and 1500 broad, from eaſt to weſt. The whole country is uſually divided into 16 provinces, in which there are computed to be 155 capital cities, 1312 of the ſecond rank, 2352 fortified towns, and innumerable villages, containing upwards of 10 millions of families, and 58 millions of people, who are all pagans; the annual revenues of the crown amounting to 21 millions ſterling.

There are ſeveral large navigable rivers in China; particularly the Kyam, or blue river; the Hoambo, or yellow river; the Kinxa, or golden river; the Ta, and others; but where theſe are wanting, the whole country is cut through with navigable canals, and a briſk trade is driven on them from one end of the empire to the other: for, through every province, there is one grand canal, which ſerves as a high road; the banks whereof are lined with great ſquare ſtones, of coarſe marble, where the people walk who draw the veſſels; and from this great canal are cut ſeveral ſmaller, which are again branched out into rivulets generally terminating at ſome town or village. One of theſe, called the grand canal, extends from Canton, the moſt ſoutherly part of China, to Pekin, the imperial city in the north; being upwards of 1200 miles: there is ſcarcely a city, or village, through the whole empire, eſpecially in the ſouthern provinces, but enjoys the conveniency of ſome navigable river, lake, canal, or arm of the ſea; where there are almoſt as many people live upon the water, as upon the land: for wherever there is a town upon the ſhore, there is another of boats upon the water; and ſome ports are ſo blocked up with veſſels, that it will take up ſeveral hours to get acroſs them to land. However, their ſhips for the ſea ſervice are not comparable to thoſe of Europe; and their ſkill in navigation extends only to coaſting and piloting.

The imperial city of Pekin is ſituated in the interior part of China, about the 40th degree of N. latitude: it conſiſts of two cities joined in one, like London and Weſtminſter; being about 18 miles in circumference, and containing, according to Le Compte, two millions of inhabitants; which is certainly above double the number to be found either in Paris or London.

Nankin is almoſt as conſiderable a place as Pekin, both in extent and number of inhabitants; and both theſe cities have a communication, by their rivers, with the Cang ſea, or gulph of Nankin. But the principal port frequented by the Europeans is Canton, the capital of Quamtung, the moſt ſouthern province of China, which lies under, or very near, the tropic of Cancer, about 50 m. from the mouth of the river Ta; and is reported to be the beſt harbour in China: however, there was formerly a great trade to Macao, an iſland to the ſouth of Canton, poſſeſſed by the Portugueſe, who are now in a ſort of ſubjection to the Chineſe. North-eaſt of Canton, in the province of Fokien, is another port called Amoy, from the iſland that forms it; but this is now little frequented. The moſt eaſterly port on the continent of China is Nimpo, a large and populous city, but two days ſail diſtant from Japan, where they maintain a great trade, exporting their ſilks, and other manufactures, among the Japaneſe; for which they receive gold, ſilver, braſs, japan cabinets, porcelain, and ſeveral other commodities.

The Chineſe formerly would have no trade with foreign nations; though now they not only admit all people into their ports, but alſo carry their merchandiſe themſelves to India, Japan, the Philippines, Java, and other iſlands in the Indian ſeas, where a conſiderable number of Chineſe merchants have taken up their ſettlements: yet they were never accuſtomed to make a voyage to any diſtant country; for they hardly ever heard of any other part of the world but Aſia, till the Europeans diſcovered the paſſage thither by the Cape of Good Hope. The veſſels on their rivers, and canals, are boats and jonks, which are flat-bottomed: thoſe that go to ſea are deeper and more capacious; ſome of which have two maſts, and others three, with ſquare heads and ſterns, the largeſt being above a thouſand tons burden; each maſt is but one rough piece of timber, ſupported on each ſide; their ſails are made of matting, ſtrengthened with ſplit cane, at about two feet diſtance, which they let down upon deck inſtead of going up to furl, and fold them up like a fan; having no yards, like European ſhips.

The anchors are made of a hard wood, called *iron-wood*: they have no pumps; and, inſtead of pitch, they caulk

their ſhips with a particular kind of gum: their ſailors are good-coaſting pilots, but very bad ones in the main ſea; and they ſteer by that point of the compaſs which leads directly to the place where they are bound. They carry their ſea-idol, or Neptune, with them in all their voyages, and make great vows to him when they are in danger; every evening a gilt paper being lighted before him, and thrown into the ſea as an offering, with ringing of bells, and playing upon muſical inſtruments.

The principal commodities brought by the Europeans from China are tea, gold, quickſilver, vermilion, China-root, rhubarb, raw and wrought ſilks, copper in bars like ſticks of ſealing wax, camphire, ſugar-candy, fans, pictures, lacquered-wares, porcelain, or china-ware, ink, ſoy, borax, lapis lazuli, galingal, genſen, toys, tutanaque, which is a ſort of coarſe tin, and ſeveral other kinds of merchandiſes, eſpecially thoſe of Japan, are purchaſed at Canton as cheap as in the countries that produce them. Goods uſually exported from Europe to China, are ſilver coin, or bullion, cloth, cloth-raſh, perpetuanoes, camblets of ſcarlet, black, blue, ſad, and violet colours, which are of late ſo lightly ſet by, that to bear the duties, and bring the prime coſt, is as much as can be reaſonably expected: lead turns to a good account; and a private trader may carry coral in branches; clear amber-beads, thin flint ware; ordinary horſe-piſtols with gilt barrels; ſword-blades of about 14 s. a dozen; ſpectacles ſet in horn of about 8 s. 6 d. a dozen; clocks and watches of a good appearance, but of ſmall price; as alſo any new toy that has not been carried thither before, which if he can get aſhore without paying the duties, he may make a better voyage than with all ſilver, otherwiſe the charge and trouble will be more than the profits.

The principal manufacture of China is that of ſilk, being held in greater eſtimation than that of any other country; of which the natives account the beſt to be wrought in the province of Nanking, of Chekiang ſilk; but that of Quamtung is highly valued by foreigners. Beſides taffety, gold tiſſue, and ſeveral other ſorts of ſilk, the Chineſe alſo make pluſh, velvet, crapes, druggets, ſerges, and tammies: but though wool is very plentiful, eſpecially in the provinces of Xenſi, and Xanſi, which abound in ſheep of the Turkiſh kind, they make no woollen cloth; notwithſtanding they have a great value for Engliſh cloth, which is ſold dearer at Canton than the richeſt ſilks: however, they make blankets of their own wool, and a ſort of ruſſet cloth. They have a great deal of cotton linen, and linen produced from another ſort of plant called *co*, which is tranſparent, cool, and light. China is remarkable for a kind of white wax, not made by bees, but gathered from trees, which they have in ſuch abundance, that it ſerves the whole empire; being generally found in the provinces of Huquam and Xantung, where it is produced by an inſect not bigger than a flea, which has a ſting ſharp enough to pierce the bark and even the body of the trees.

For their own conſumption, the Chineſe have large quantities of rice, and all kinds of grain; as alſo all kinds of fruits, and fleſh proviſions: their ſeas, rivers, and canals, abound in fiſh; and from hence the Portugueſe firſt introduced the oranges, called China oranges, into Europe. Sugar-canes grow in great abundance in this country; as alſo great quantities of ginger, growing wild in ſeveral places near the ſea. The province of Quangſi produces ſome cinnamon, cloves, nutmegs, and mace; but in too ſmall quantities to ſupply even their own conſumption. Their tame animals are camels, horſes, mules, aſſes, oxen, cows, hogs, and ſheep; and their wild beaſts are elephants, tygers, bears, wolves, and other creatures of prey, beſides deer and hares. They have mines of gold, tin, iron, and copper; as alſo ſome little quantities of ſilver, and lead: but their gold mines are never permited to be opened; for the gold which they have in ſuch plenty is reported to need no refining, and is waſhed down by torrents from the mountains in the rainy ſeaſons.

The port of Canton is in the greateſt reputation with the Engliſh merchants of any port in China: but Amoy was formerly more uſed, till the extortions of the Mandarins were grown to ſuch a height, that the merchants could gain little profit by trading thither. Another inducement which the European merchants have to frequent Canton is, that whole fleets may be freighted in a ſhort time there, and are not in danger of being delayed till the monſoon ſets in to prevent their return till another ſeaſon: but preſents muſt be made to the hoppous, or cuſtom houſe officers; and, as the Chineſe are of a very cheating diſpoſition, they muſt be carefully attended in all their proceedings.

Lead is almoſt the only commodity wherein European merchants get more than their prime coſt: for the gains ariſe from the goods imported from China, and not by what are carried thither. Silver is the next moſt material article for trading in this country, which is ſometimes in ſuch piaſtres as come from Mexico to the Philippine iſlands, or in bars as the Dutch bring it from Japan, or in coin or bullion as exported from Europe; for as the Chineſe have no mines of this metal, they highly eſteem it, and give their gold and beſt merchandiſes in exchange for it; which is of conſiderable advantage to the Europeans, when it is conſidered that ſilver is there to gold as one to ten, and moſt commonly in Europe as one to fifteen. Indeed, the exportation of gold is prohibited in China; but the magiſtrates, notwithſtanding, will privately ſell it to the Europeans: where ten tale weight of gold touch 92, bought at touch for touch, the moſt governing price, amounts to one hundred and eleven ounces, 8 pennyweights, and 5 grains, of current ſilver, at 5 s. 6 d. the ounce, which is 30 l. 12 s. 8 d. for which the Europeans receive 12 ounces, 2 pennyweights, and 4 grains of gold, worth about 4 l. an ounce, being 48 l. 8 s. 8 d. Silver, in any form, paſſes current by weight, inſtead of money; reckoning, from a tale decimally, or 4 oz. 10 drams, to the ſmalleſt part imaginable: but in payments made with tankards, diſhes, bowls, baſons, plates, ſpoons, and ſilver porrengers, the Chineſe will cut a piece out of the ſides of what they think is not ſufficiently fine, and try it immediately by aſſay; and afterwards, if they agree in the touch, reduce it into the current ſilver, by multiplying the quality by the touch.

The duty uſually paid by European ſhips, in the river of Canton, is according to their tonnage; nor can any ſhip purchaſe naval ſtores, or proviſions, without a licence from the Viceroy; who is always ſollicited by the mediation of the principal Chineſe merchants; which frequently throws inſuperable difficulties on the Europeans. So arbitrary are they in the collection of their duties, that when Commodore Anſon entred the river, with the Centurion man of war, after he had taken the Manila galeon in 1743, the officers inſiſted upon collecting their duty even from a man of war, which the commodore refuſed, and nobly ſupported the character of his nation, the honour of his royal maſter, and the glory of the Britiſh flag.

CHINESE *iſlands*. The principal iſlands ſubject to China are the following: 1ſt. Formoſa, a large iſland lying in the latitude of 22 north, about 4 or 500 miles in circumference, and about 20 leagues diſtant from the province of Fokien: the Spaniards from Manila ſettled themſelves here; and after them the Dutch, who defended their poſſeſſion a conſiderable time againſt the attacks of the Chineſe; but were, at laſt, overpowered, and compelled to abandon the country: 2d, Aynan, or Hainan, about the latitude of 18 or 19 north, which lies about 50 miles to the ſouth of China, and is about 300 miles in circumference: having both gold and ſilver mines in it, with a pearl fiſhery. 3d, Macao, a little iſland near the coaſt of Quamtum, at the entrance of the river of Canton, which was formerly very rich and populous, and capable of defending itſelf againſt the power of the adjacent Chineſe governors: but at preſent it is much fallen from its ancient ſplendor; for though it is inhabited by Portugueſe, and hath a governor nominated by the King of Portugal, yet it ſubſiſts merely by the ſufferance of the Chineſe, who can ſtarve the place, and diſpoſſeſs the Portugueſe whenever they pleaſe. Beſides theſe, there are the iſlands of Xitum, Xamuen, Tenchew, Yuxa, and Tungna, in the gulph of Nankin, on the N. E. part of China; Iſongming, Chuſan, and ſeveral other little iſlands on the eaſtern coaſt; Amoy, Tygers iſle, Lempeco,

peco, and ſome others on the ſouthern coaſt; but none of theſe iſlands are any ways remarkable for trade. See *Eaſt India Company.*

The Chineſe are very deceitful in their dealings, uſing falſe weights, ſelling bad meaſure, adulterating, and often changing the goods in packing. The worſt ſort of tea pays the ſame ſort of freight as the beſt, and many times the ſame cuſtom; being a very profitable commodity from Canton to all parts of the world, where it is uſed.

Canton is the port where all the Chineſe jonks take in their cargoes for foreign parts, and where they import their returns: the places where they uſually trade to being Cochin-china, Cambodia, Tonquin, Siam, Batavia, Japan, Manila, Surat, the Maldives, and Acham.

The Chineſe veſſels depart from Canton the beginning of the month of March, and arrive at Cochin-china about the 15th of the ſame month; they return for Canton the beginning of July, and arrive there in about 20 days. The Chineſe export to Cochin-china gold ſtuffs, crapes, ſatins, porcelain, all kinds of medicinal drugs, coarſe paper, glaſs bracelets, iron cauldrons, gold in plates, and caxas. The merchandiſe brought from Cochin-china to Canton conſiſts in gold ingots, agracaramba wood, black wood, Japan wood, arrack, pepper, coarſe ſilk ſtuffs, ſkins of ſea dogs, horns of the rhinoceros, buffalo, and cow, with white and candied ſugar.

The Chineſe veſſels depart from Canton for Cambodia about the beginning of January, and arrive there the ſame month; returning in June, and arriving at Canton in July. The goods exported by the Chineſe to Cambodia are porcelain, anchors, umbrellas, mats, and all kinds of fruit. The principal returns from Cambodia being elephants teeth, lacca for varniſhing, loung for yellow paint; ſkins of buffaloes, camels, cows, and ſtags; horns, feathers, and medicinal drugs.

The voyage from Canton to Tonquin takes up about 15 days in going, and as many in returning; the jonks ſetting out at the beginning of January, and returning to Canton about the beginning of July. The Chineſe take to Tonquin caxas, porcelain, iron cauldrons, ſmall caſt cannons, pewter, many drugs, cloves, crape, gauze, glaſs bracelets, vermillion, allum, and fruit. The merchandiſe brought from Tonquin to Canton being raw yellow ſilk, mudis, or ſtuffs of the bark of a tree, taffeties, cotton cloths, Japan wood, cinnamon, and aniſe.

The Chineſe veſſels depart from Canton for Siam about the middle of November, and are 30 or 40 days in the voyage: they leave Siam in June, and return to Canton about the end of July. The Chineſe export to Siam wrought and unwrought iron, wrought copper, copper-wire, iron-wire, copper-baſons, ciſterns of caſt copper, iron cauldrons, allum, and white ſugar; all of which ſerve for ballaſt; ſatins, taffeties, ſewing ſilk, gold thread, marelle or red paint, drugs, fruit, and quickſilver. The goods brought from Siam to Canton are elephants teeth, lead, pewter, areca, ſapan wood, and tafouſſa, a medicinal drug; which ſerve for ballaſt: lacca, hides, horſes, cows, and buffaloes, horns of the buffalo and rhinoceros, myrrh, loung, frankincenſe, feathers, and cayelac, a ſweet-ſcented wood for burning before the pagods.

The jonks depart from Canton to Batavia, the capital of the Dutch ſettlements in India, on the iſland of Java, at the beginning of December: they return from Batavia the beginning of June, and arrive at Canton about the middle of July. The Chineſe merchandiſe for Batavia conſiſts in gold, porcelain, teas, gold thread, ſatins chiefly black, taffeties, ſewing ſilk, aniſe, quickſilver, muſk, rhubarb, borax, glaſs, iron cauldrons, and copper baſons. The Chineſe receive in return, lead, pewter, coral, camphor, pepper, frankincenſe, nutmegs, cloves, amber, myrrh, aſſa fœtida, other drugs, and matts.

The commerce of Canton to Japan is begun about the beginning of May, when the jonks ſet out for that iſland, where they arrive in about 25 days: they return about the 10th of October, and arrive at Canton in the middle of November. The Chineſe commodities proper for Japan, are, coral in grain, agracaramba, ultramarine, enamel, allum, iron, tutenac, white and brown ſugar, taffeties, crapes, cotton cloths, raw ſilk, galanga, lacca, bark of areca, benjoin, eagle wood, frankincenſe, myrrh, loung, muſk, rhubarb, cinnamon, ſaffron, and other drugs. The Chineſe receive from Japan, varniſh, porcelain, fine pearls, ſteel, wrought copper, and a particular kind of camphor proper for China.

The trade from Canton to Manila, or the Philippine iſlands, begins in March, and the veſſels return in July. The Chineſe export to Manila ſilks, ſtuffs, linens, tutenac, iron, and porcelain. They receive from thence ſapan wood, ſtags fleſh ſalted, ſulphur, and pearls.

The Chineſe ſet out for the Maldivia iſlands about the end of October, in order to arrive at Achen in Sumatra, from the 1ſt to the 10th of December, and proceed from thence to the Maldives. Their cargo is white ſugar, ſugar-candy, tutenac, Japaneſe copper, quickſilver, and many European goods, which are ſold at Achen; gold, coarſe porcelains, copper baſons, Chineſe tobacco, gold thread, taffeties, and ſilks, ſold in the Maldives. The Chineſe receive from the Maldives, coris, dry fiſh of Achen, and hemp made from the palm-tree for cables.

The Engliſh ſhips depart from Madras for Canton in the month of July, and arrive there in the months of Auguſt and September: but ſometimes they loſe their paſſage, being obliged to expect the Engliſh ſhipping from Europe, in order to have ſilver, without which they cannot trade to China.

Ships return from Canton to Madras in the months of January and February; and the voyage, either going or coming, is between 45 and 60 days.

The merchandiſe ſent by the Engliſh to Canton, conſiſts of Engliſh lead, Pegu lead, Pegu pewter, liquid ſtorax of Malacca, incenſe, aſſa fœtida, red wood of Madras, myrrh, puchoc, and fine pearls of all ſorts.

All which produce from 50 to 100 *per cent.* profit.

The merchandiſe of return conſiſts in gold, Japaneſe copper, Canton copper, in imitation of that of Japan, tutenac, allum, quick-ſilver, vermillion, coarſe porcelains for the uſe of the Moors, white ſugar, and Chineſe ſugar-candy.

The profits in theſe being from 100 to 200 *per cent.*

The ſame goods as are ſent from Madras are alſo ſent by the Engliſh from Surat to Canton; beſides, a conſiderable quantity of cotton. Such as return from China to Surat are alſo the ſame, except gold: but the profits from China to Surat are 30 *per cent.* more than thoſe to Madras.

Ships depart from Surat for Canton in the months of May and June, in order to arrive there in the month of Auguſt: and the return from Canton to Surat is about the 15th of December, to be there in the month of March.

They have no gold nor ſilver coined in China, the inhabitants making all their payments in lumps of gold and ſilver by weight, which they diſtinguiſh by talents and meaſure.

In trade, every man carries about him a pair of ſheers to cut and divide the money; as alſo weights and ſcales to weigh it, which is proportioned to the value of the commodities bought. Their gold is reckoned worth 3l. 3s. ſterling the ounce: they weigh all monies by dodgins, like ſtilliards, and take none but good ſilver; an Engliſh crown being worth 8 mace. Their coins are the caxa, 10 of which make a caſh, and 10 caſh make the candarin, or a penny ſterling; 10 candarins make the mace, and 10 mace the tale, or 6 s. 8 d. ſterling. Their weights are alſo the candarin, the mace, and tale, with the catty and picul: 10 candarins make the mace, and 10 mace the tale, or 4 ounces ten drams Engliſh weight; 46 tale make the catty, and 100 catties the picul, or 133 lb. Engliſh. Their meaſure is the covid of 14 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches.

The kingdom of Corea, called alſo *Caoli*, and *Tiocencouk*, extends from the latitude of 36 to 42, and is frequently accounted a province of China. To the ſouth it is very near Japan, from which it is ſeparated by an arm of the ſea; and to the north it touches China by a high mountain, which makes Corea a peninſula.

The country is not equally fertile; the north part ſcarce producing a ſufficiency for the ſuſtenance of the inhabitants, who live upon a kind of indifferent barley, and cloath themſelves with the ſkins of animals.

The reſt of the kingdom, on the contrary, produces abun-

dantly

dantly all the neceſſaries of life; among others, rice and corn of different ſorts, cotton, hemp, and even ſilk, which the natives know not how to prepare. There are likewiſe found in Corea ſilver, lead, tigers ſkins, niſy-root, ſo much eſteemed by the Tartars and Chineſe; with an abundance of large and ſmall cattle, eſpecially horſes, cows, and hogs.

The Coreaſians ſeldom trade with any but the Japaneſe, and the inhabitants of the iſland Suiſſima, ſituated between Japan and Corea: the latter having even a warehouſe for their merchandiſe to the S. E. in the town of Pouſant.

The merchandiſes imported to Corea are pepper, ſapan wood, allum, buffaloes horns, ſtags, and goats ſkins; as alſo European merchandiſe, which the Dutch and Chineſe ſell to the Japaneſe: all theſe merchandiſes being exchanged for the manufactures and productions of the country.

The Coreaſians have alſo ſomething of a direct commerce to Pekin, and to the north parts of China; but this trade is ſo expenſive, becauſe carried on all by land, and on horſeback, that none but able merchants can undertake it. Thoſe of Sior are ſuch as reſort chiefly to China, and they are not leſs than three months in their journey: their whole trade conſiſts in cotton and hemp cloths; and the principal merchants pay ready money for what they purchaſe; but the poorer ſort trade only with rice, and the other productions of their country.

There is but one weight and one meaſure in the kingdom; but both are greatly abuſed by traders, notwithſtanding the precautions and regulations of the governors. They know no money but the caxas, current upon the frontiers of China; and they give ſilver by the weight, in ſmall ingots, as is practiſed by the Japaneſe.

CHINA-CHINA. A name ſometimes given to the quinquina, or peruvian bark. See *Quinquina*.

CHINA-*orange*. A ſweet kind of orange, originally brought by the Portugueſe from China, but now very common in Europe, eſpecially in Portugal.

CHINA-*root*. A medicinal root brought from the Eaſt Indies; though it has been alſo lately introduced from Peru, and New Spain; which is of a ruddy brown colour, bordering on a black, on the outſide, and white, or reddiſh within; growing chiefly in fenny places, uſually covered with the ſea, which, upon its withdrawing, leaves great quantities on the ſhore: the beſt ſort being firm, ruddy, and freſh; which is held to be a ſweetener of the blood, good againſt the ſciatica, and ſovereign againſt the aſthma and dropſy.

CHINA-*ware*. A fine ſort of earthen-ware, originally brought from China; but more properly called *porcelain*. See *Porcelain*.

CHINT, or *Chints*, white cotton cloths, of the manufacture of India, whereof there are ſeveral ſorts, diſtinguiſhed by the name of the places where they are manufactured, and by their aulnage: as the chint-ſeronges, whereof the piece contains about 6 ells in length, and $\frac{3}{4}$ in breadth.

The chint-mamodes, containing 7 ells and $\frac{1}{2}$ in length, and $\frac{1}{2}$ in breadth.

The broad-chint of the ſame length as the mamodes, and $\frac{3}{4}$ in breadth.

The chint-ſurat, 8 ells in length, and of the ſame breadth as the broad-chint.

The chint-cadix-ſmals, 6 ells long, and $\frac{2}{3}$ broad.

The chint-jaffercon, 8 ells long, and $\frac{3}{4}$ broad.

The chint-ramauls, 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ ells long, and $\frac{3}{3}$ broad; all of which are fit for handkerchiefs.

CHINTAL, or *Quintal*. A kind of weight uſed by the Portugueſe of Goa, in the Eaſt Indies, being about 124 lb. Engliſh avoirdupoiſe.

CHIOS, *Xio*, or *Sio*, an iſland called by the Turks *Saki Saduci*, ſituated in 27 deg. of E. lon. and 38 deg. of N. lat. near the coaſt of Ionia, in the Leſſer Aſia, about 100 miles W. of Smyrna. See *Turkiſh Iſlands*.

CHIOZZO, or *Chioggio*, an iſland in the gulph of Venice, by which there is a paſſage into the Lagunes, ſituated 12 miles S. of the city of Venice.

CHITES, are Indian cotton cloths, extremely beautiful, which come from Maſulipatan, a town of the kingdom of Golconda, upon the coaſt of Coromandel; whoſe colouring has no leſs a duration than the cloths themſelves, without loſing in the leaſt their vivacity.

The chites are uſually half a yard long, and 2 inches broad: beſides the great quantity of chites brought into Europe, conſiderable parcels are alſo bought up for the commerce of both Indies, by the Engliſh and Dutch; the former eſpecially ſend them in abundance to the Philippine iſlands, where they are ſold from 120 to 200 piaſtres; or from 21 l. 10 s. to 35 l. 16 s. ſterling the piece.

CHITES *of Amadabat*, and *Chites of Seronges*, are painted cottons brought from Surat; being the moſt beautiful ſort manufactured in the Mogul's territories.

CHOCOLATE. A kind of cake, or confection, prepared of certain drugs, the baſis or principal whereof is the cocoa-nut.

The name chocolate is alſo given to a drink prepared from this cake, of a dusky colour, ſoft and oily, uſually drank hot; eſteemed not only an excellent food, as being very nouriſhing, but alſo a good medicine; at leaſt a diet for keeping up the warmth of the ſtomach, and aſſiſting digeſtion.

The Spaniards were the firſt who brought chocolate into uſe in Europe, and that, perhaps, as much out of intereſt, to have the better market for their cocoa-nuts, achiott, vanilla, and other drugs which their Weſt Indies furniſh, and which enter the compoſition of chocolate; as out of regard to thoſe extraordinary virtues which their authors ſo amply enumerate. The qualities above-mentioned, however, being what the generality of phyſicians, and others, allow it.

The method of making chocolate, as firſt uſed by the Spaniards, was very ſimple, and the ſame with that in uſe among the Indians: they only uſed cocoa-nuts, maiſe, and raw ſugar, as expreſſed from the canes, with a little achiott, or rocou, to give it a colour. Of theſe 4 drugs, ground between two ſtones, and mixed together in a certain proportion, the Indians made a kind of bread, which ſerved them equally for ſolid food, and for drink, eating it dry when hungry, and ſteeping it in hot water when thirſty. This drink the Mexicans call chocolate, from *chocao*, ſound, and *alte*, or *atte*, water; as if they ſaid, water that makes a noiſe, from the noiſe which the inſtrument uſed to mill and prepare the liquor made in the water. But the Spaniards, and other nations, have ſince added a great number of other ingredients to the compoſition of chocolate; all of which, vanilla only excepted, ſpoil rather than mend it; the vanilla being a ſhell full of a luſcious juice, with little black ſeeds of a moſt agreeable odour, gathered from a tree of the ſame name in New Spain.

The method of making chocolate, now in uſe among the Spaniards of Mexico, is thus: the fruit being gathered from the cocoa-tree, is dried in the ſun, and the kernel taken out, and roaſted at the fire, in an iron pan pierced full of holes; then pounded in a mortar; then ground on a marble ſtone, with a grinder of the ſame matter, till it is brought to the conſiſtence of a paſte, mixing with it more or leſs ſugar, as it is to be more or leſs ſweet. In proportion as the paſte advances, they add ſome long pepper, a little achiott, and laſtly vanilla: ſome add cinnamon, cloves, and aniſe; and thoſe who love perfumes, muſk, and ambergreaſe. There is alſo a kind of Mexican chocolate, in the compoſition whereof are put almonds and filberts; but this is rather to ſpare the cocoa, than to render the chocolate better; and, accordingly, this is looked upon as ſophiſticated chocolate.

The chocolate made in New Spain differs ſomewhat from that made in Mexico; for, beſides the drugs uſed in this laſt, they add two or three kinds of flowers, pods of campeche, and generally almonds and hazle-nuts. The uſual proportion, at Madrid, is to 100 kernels of cocoa, to add two grains of chilé, or Mexican pepper, a handful of aniſe, as many flowers, called by the natives *vinacaxtlides*, or little ears, ſix white roſes in powder, a little machuſia, a pod of campeche, two drachms of cinnamon, a dozen almonds, and as many hazle nuts; with achiott enough to give it a reddiſh tincture: the ſugar and vanilla are mixed at diſcretion; as are alſo the muſk and ambergreaſe. They

They frequently work their paſte with orange-water, which they think gives it a greater conſiſtence and firmneſs: the paſte being uſually made up into cakes, ſometimes into large rolls, and ſometimes the cakes are made up of pure cholocate, without any mixture; thoſe who uſe it being to add what quantity they pleaſe of ſugar, cinnamon, and vanilla, when in the water.

In England, the chocolate is uſually made ſimple and unmixed of the kernel of the cocoa; excepting, that ſometimes ſugar, and ſometimes vanilla, is added, any other ingredients being ſcarcely known.

The neweſt chocolate is eſteemed the beſt, the drug never keeping well above two years, and uſually degenerating much ſooner. It is kept in brown paper, put up in a box, and that in another in a dry place.

The quantity of chocolate made in New Spain is ſuch, that there are annually uſed twelve millions of pounds of ſugar in the preparation thereof; the Spaniards eſteeming it the laſt misfortune that can befal a man, to be reduced to want chocolate; and they are never known to leave it, except for ſome intoxicating liquor. See *Cocoa* and *Coffee*, for the regulations of the duty.

CHOPINE. A French meaſure uſed at Paris, for wine, brandy, and other liquors, even for olives ſold by retail, being half a pint.

At Lyons they make uſe of a ſmall liquid meaſure, called fouillette, much of the ſame contents with the Paris chopine; but at St. Dennis the chopine is near double that of Paris.

CHOUAN. See *Kouan*.

CHOUPAR. A town of India, remarkable for its ſaltpetre. See *India*.

CHREMNITZ. The chief of the mine-towns of Upper Hungary, ſituated in 19 deg. of E. long. and 48 deg. 45 min. of N. lat.

CHRISTAL. See *Cryſtal*.

CHRISTIANOPLE. A port-town of Sweden, ſituated in 15 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 57 deg. of N. lat. on the Baltic ſea, in the territory of Bleking, and province of S. Gothland. See *Sweden*.

CHRIST's *Hoſpital*, principally eſtabliſhed for teaching boys the theory of navigation. See Chriſt's *Hoſpital*.

CHRISTINA. A Swediſh ſilver coin, of very baſe allay, worth about 7 d. ſterling. There are alſo half chriſtina's, worth 20 runſtacs, or about 3 d. ſterling.

CHRISTMAS *Roſe*. See *Hellebore*.

CHRISTOPHERS, St. One of the Caribbee iſlands, ſituated in 62 deg. of W. lon. and 17 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. to which Columbus gave his Chriſtian name. See *Britiſh America*.

CHRYSOBERIL. A precious ſtone, which is nothing elſe but a kind of pale beryl, tinctured with a gold colour. See *Beryl*.

CHRYSOCOLLA. A mineral ſalt, uſed by the antients in the ſoldering of gold and other metals; as it was alſo frequently in phyſic, for an eſcharotic, reſolvent, and drier.

Chryſocolla, according to Pliny, is found in mines of gold, ſilver, copper, and lead; its colour being various, purſuant to that of the matter in which it is found; as yellow, if among gold; white, in ſilver; green, in copper; and black, in lead.

The Arabs, and the inhabitants of Guzarat in India, call it tincar, or tincal; the beſt ſort of which is found in copper-mines, and the worſt in thoſe of lead; tho', in Europe, it is confounded with borax. See *Borax*.

CHRYSOLITE. A precious ſtone of a yellow colour, being the topaz of the moderns. See *Topaz*.

CHRYSOPRASIN. A precious ſtone of a greeniſh colour, which is a kind of beryl. See *Beryl*.

CHUSAN, or *Cheuxan*. An iſland on the coaſt of China, ſituated in 124 deg. of E. lon. and 30 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. near the province of Chekiam; where the Engliſh Eaſt India company had a factory, but were obliged, by the extortions of the natives, to remove.

CHYMIST. See *Chemiſt*.

CIDER. See *Cyder*.

CIENTO, or *Cientos*, is a tax levied throughout all the provinces of Spain, of 4 *per cent.* upon all manner of merchandiſe bartered or ſold.

CIFALU, or *Cefaledi*. A port-town of Sicily, in the province of Valdemona, ſituated in 13 deg. of E. lon. and 38 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on a cape or promontory 36 miles E. of Palermo. See *Italy*.

CIGALES, called by the Spaniards *cigarros*, a kind of tobacco cultivated in ſome parts of the iſland of Cuba, and ſmoaked uſually without a pipe; being only the leaves of this plant twiſted in the form of a horn, and ſet fire to at one end.

CINDERS, are coals burnt till the ſulphur is evaporated out of them. See *Coal*.

CINNABAR. A mineral ſtone, red, heavy, and brilliant, found chiefly in quickſilver mines; being of two ſorts, the native, and the factitious.

Natural or mineral cinnabar is found in moſt places where there are quickſilver mines; yet it has alſo mines of its own; of which thoſe in Spain are very remarkable; and the French too have theirs in Normandy: there are alſo ſome in Hungary, and others in the Eaſt Indies. It may be eſteemed as marcaſite of quickſilver, or rather as quickſilver petrified and fixed by means of ſulphur, and a ſubterraneous heat; chemiſtry being found to reduce it, without much trouble or loſs, to the nature of mercury.

Each pound of good cinnabar yields fourteen ounces of mercury; accordingly, the principal property and uſe of this mineral, is to yield a moſt excellent mercury; but the beſt mineral cinnabar, is of a high colour, brilliant, and free from the ſtone, which is ſold either in lumps or pounded.

Factitious, or *artificial* CINNABAR, is formed of a mixture of mercury and ſulphur, ſublimed, and thus reduced into a kind of fine red glebe; the beſt ſort being of a high colour, and full of fibres, like needles.

This cinnabar, called alſo by painters vermillion, is rendered more beautiful by grinding it with gum-water and a little ſaffron, thoſe two drugs preventing its growing black.

There is alſo a blue cinnabar, made by mixing two parts of ſulphur with three of quickſilver, and one of ſal ammoniac; theſe being ſublimed, produce a beautiful blue ſubſtance; whereas quickſilver and ſulphur alone produce a red.

But chemiſts prepare other kinds of artificial cinnabar, as cinnabar of antimony, being a compoſition of mercury, common ſulphur, and crude antimony ſublimed.

CINNAMON. An agreeable aromatic ſpice, being the bark of a tree, growing in the iſland of Ceylon; and, as ſome ſay, alſo in the iſland of Java, and on the coaſt of Malabar, in the Eaſt Indies.

This tree has a thick trunk, and divides into many branches: the bark is at firſt green, but grows reddiſh with age, and binds itſelf cloſe to the wood, which is whitiſh, firm, and without ſmell. The leaves are like thoſe of the bay-tree, and the flowers are ſmall and white. The woods and foreſts of Ceylon are full of theſe trees, where the bark is ſtript off in the ſpring and autumn every two or three years.

The leaves of the cinnamon-tree are called *folia Malabathri*, and yield a bitteriſh aromatic oil, called *oleum Malabathri*, reputed excellent againſt cephalagia's.

The chief virtue of the cinnamon-tree is in its bark; which, when green, appears to be double; its exterior ſurface being browniſh, and the inner of the common cinnamon-colour. It is then diviſible into two barks of different colours; but theſe drying together, become inſeparable, and paſs for the ſame bark, the browniſh colour changing in proportion as it dries.

The cinnamon, taken freſh from the tree, is flat, has little taſte, ſmell, or colour; but it twiſts, or convolves, as it dries, in form of a ſtick, or cane; whence the French call it *canelle*. By thus exhaling its ſuperfluous humidity, it acquires a ſweet, briſk ſmell, and a ſharp, pungent taſte.

Some hold that the ſmall branches of the tree make the caſſia; but that muſt be a miſtake: however, the natives draw from the roots of the tree a liquor in all reſpects reſembling

ſembling camphor, and which, in reality, is a true camphor. See *Camphor*.

Cinnamon, to be good, muſt have a briſk, agreeable taſte, and a bright, brown colour. There is a great conſumption for it in Europe as a ſpice; and it is alſo uſed in medicine as an aſtringent.

From cinnamon an oil is extracted, called its eſſence, or quinteſſence; but the Dutch are ſaid to have a method of preparing, or rather adulterating, oil of cinnamon, which is kept a ſecret among themſelves; and the common cinnamon is often adulterated with that out of which this eſſence has been extracted.

Cinnamon, by means of fire, furniſhes waters, extracts, and ſalts; out of which are compounded ſyrups and paſtils, called *oleo ſaccharo*; together with an eſſence that ſerves to turn all manner of wines, white and red, into hypocras.

CINNAMON-*Water*, is made by diſtilling the bark, firſt infuſed in barley-water, in ſpirit of wine, or white wine.

All the cinnamon conſumed in Europe comes from the Dutch, who have got its whole commerce into their own hands, by becoming maſters of the iſle of Ceylon, and deſtroying all the other cinnamon-trees about the kingdom of Cochin; ſo that they ſell it at Amſterdam from 3 s. 6 d. to 5 s. 3 d. the pound. See *Ceylon*.

Clove-CINNAMON, is alſo the bark of a tree growing in Braſil and Madagaſcar, where it is known under the name of ravendfara; but the Portugueſe call it cravo de Marenham; the bark of which pulveriſed, is ſometimes ſubſtituted for real cloves, tho' far inferior in reſpect of quality. See *Cloves*.

Saſſafras is ſometimes alſo called cinnamon-wood. See *Saſſafras*.

White CINNAMON, which ſome call *coſtus corticus*, or *cortex Winteri*, Winter's bark, from the perſon's name who firſt brought it into England, is the bark of a tree reſembling the olive-tree, frequent in the iſlands of St. Domingo, Guardaloupe, and Madagaſcar, called by the natives *ſimpli*. See *Cortex Winteranus*.

The bark, which dries like that of cinnamon, is at firſt browniſh, of a ſharp biting taſte, like pepper, and a ſmell like muſk, which whitens as it dries. Some uſe it in lieu of nutmeg; but, in medicine, it is uſed as a ſtomachic, and ſometimes as an antiſcorbutic.

The ſame tree alſo yields a gum, called alouch, and ſometimes bdellium, which is no diſagreeable perfume. See *Bdellium*, and *Spice*.

CINNAMON *iſlands*. See *Ceylon*.

CINQUE-*Ports*, or *Quinque-ports*, are five havens, lying on the coaſt of Kent and Suſſex, on the eaſt part of England, towards France, ſo called by way of eminence, on account of their ſuperior importance, as having been thought by the Kings of England to merit a particular regard, for their preſervation againſt an invading enemy. Hence they have a particular policy, being governed by a keeper, with the title of Lord Warden of the cinque-ports, who has the authority of an admiral among them, and iſſues writs in his own name.

William the Conqueror firſt appointed a warden of the cinque-ports; but their privileges were not granted till the reign of King John, who did it upon condition that they ſhould provide 80 ſhips at their own charge for 40 days, as often as the King ſhould have occaſion in the wars; he being, at that time, ſtraitened in a navy to recover Normandy.

The five ports are Haſtings, Romney, Hythe, Dover, and Sandwich. To Haſtings belonged Seaford, Pevenſey, Hedney, Winchelſea, Rye, Hamine, Wakeſbourn, Creneth, and Forthclip; which were to furniſh 21 veſſels, and in each 21 men. To Romney belonged Broomhall, Lyde, Oſwarſtone, Dangemares, and Romenhal; which were to provide 5 ſhips, and in each 24 men. To Hythe belonged W(ſtmeath, which were to furniſh 5 ſhips, and in each 21 ſeamen. To Dover belonged Folkſtone, Feverſham, and Marge; which were to furniſh the ſame number as Haſtings. And to Sandwich belonged Fordiwic, Reculver, Serre, and Deal, which were to provide the ſame with Hythe.

CINTRA *Cape*, uſually called the Rock of Liſbon, lies in the province of Eſtramadura in Portugal, on the north-ſide of the entrance of the river Tagus.

CIPHER, or *Cypher*, in trade, is a kind of enigmatic character, compoſed of ſeveral letters interwoven, which are ordinarily the initial letters of the perſons names for whom the cypher is intended, and frequently uſed on ſeals; as alſo on bales, bags, boxes, and other parcels of goods. Antiently merchants and tradeſmen were not allowed to bear arms in England: but, in lieu thereof, they bore their cyphers, or the initial letters of their names, artfully interwoven about a croſs.

CIRCASSIA. See *Turky*.

CIRCLES *of Germany*, are ſuch provinces and principalities of the empire, as have a right to be preſent at diets. See *Germany*.

CIRCULAR *ſailing*, is that performed in the arch of a great circle; which, of all others, goes the neareſt or ſhorteſt way; and yet there are ſuch advantages in ſailing by rhumbs, that this latter is generally preferred. See *Rhumb*, and *Sailing*.

CIRCULATION *of Money*, is that quantity of money which is employed in trade, or other negotiations. See *Caſh*.

CIRSAKAS. An Indian ſtuff, almoſt entirely of cotton, with a very little mixture of ſilk; the length of which is from 8 to 40 ells, or thereabouts, and the breadth from 2-3ds to 5-6ths.

CITRON. An agreeable fruit, brought chiefly from Italy, in colour, taſte, and ſmell, reſembling a lemon, and ſerving like that to cool and quench the thirſt; being produced by a tree of the ſame name, which is like the lemon-tree. But the citron-fruit is different from the lemon, being bigger, its pulp firmer, its ſmell briſker, and colour higher, which is excellent againſt poiſons: diſtillers, perfumers, and confectioners, alſo procure ſeveral things from citrons, as eſſences, oils, confections, and waters.

The citron-juice is uſed by dyers; and the ſmall Madeira citrons are candied, as are alſo thoſe of Martinico; the peels of the large citrons of thoſe iſlands are likewiſe candied, which are called citronnade, being cut into pieces for the European conſumption; and ſhould be new, clear, and tranſparent, green without, well glazed within, plump, eaſy to cut, and not pricked.

Citron-wood is a term given by Europeans to the American candle-wood, which ſome druggiſts ſell for ſantal; but the billets of the real ſantal weigh only 100 lb. and thoſe of the citron-wood are 1000 lb. weight: beſides, the ſantal is of an agreeable taſte; but the citron-wood is oily, and of a ſtrong ſmell.

CITTADELLA. The capital of the iſland of Minorca, in the Mediterranean, ſituated in 3 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 40 deg. of N. lat. See *Minorca*.

CITY. A large, walled town, endowed with particular prileges: it was antiently appropriated to thoſe towns that were biſhops ſees only, and ſeems ſtill to retain that diſtinction in England, tho' not always in other countries. See *Borough*, and *Town*.

CIVET. A kind of perfume, bearing the name of the animal from which it is taken, and f rmed like a kind of greaſe, or thick ſcum, in an aperture, or bag, under his tail, between the anus and pudenda.

There is a very conſiderable traffic of civet, from Baſſora, Calicut, and other places in India, where the animal that produces it is bred, as alſo from the Levant, Braſil, and Guinea; though the beſt civet is furniſhed by the Dutch, who bring up a conſiderable number of theſe animals in Holland; where it is ſold for about 2 l. 10 s. an ounce.

Civet muſt be choſen new, of a good conſiſtence, a whitiſh colour, and a ſtrong diſagreeable ſmell. It is of little uſe in medicine, but much uſed by confectioners.

CIVIL *Law*, *Lex civilis*, is defined in the inſtitutes to be the laws peculiar to each city, or each people: but, in the modern uſe, it properly implies the Roman law, contained in the digeſt, the code, and the inſtitutes, otherwiſe called lex ſcripta, or the written law.

The Emperor Juſtinian, finding the authority of the Roman law almoſt aboliſhed in the weſt, by the declenſion of the

the empire, reſolved to make a general collection of the whole Roman juriſprudence out of their writings, which made no leſs than 2000 volumes; and committed the care of it to his chancellor Trebonius, who, in conſequence thereof, choſe 16 juriſconſulti, or lawyers, to work upon the ſame. Theſe, accordingly, took out the beſt and fineſt deciſions from the voluminous writings of the antient juriſconſulti, and reduced them all into one body, which was publiſhed in the year 533, under the name of the *digeſt*; to which the Emperor gave the force of a law, by a letter, at the head of the work, ſerving it as a preface: ſo that this digeſt makes the firſt part of the Roman law, and the firſt volume of the corpus, or body of the civil law. The code was publiſhed in the year 534, which is compriſed in 12 books, and makes the ſecond part of the civil or Roman law. The inſtitutes were alſo publiſhed about the ſame time, which conſtitutes the laſt part of the corpus juris civilis, being a compendium, or ſummary, of the whole body of the civil law, in four books. All theſe together make the corpus juris civilis, or body of the civil law, as reduced by the order of Juſtinian.

For the ſpace of 300 years, this ſyſtem of law obtained without any innovation: but the new conſtitutions, made by the Emperors from time to time, at length occaſioning ſome alterations, the Emperor Baſil, and Leo his ſon, compoſed a new body of the Roman law, chiefly from the Juſtinian, in the Greek language; dividing it into ſeven volumes, and 60 books, under the title of *Baſilica*; from which time the Baſilica ſupplanted the credit of the body compoſed by Juſtinian, in the eaſt. In the weſt, the civil law had a different fortune; for it is generally ſuppoſed to have been there unknown till the year 600; when Lotharius II. finding the book at the taking of Melphi, a town in Naples, made a preſent of it to the city of Piſa, though it may be found quoted in ſeveral Latin works long before Lotharius: it is true, however, it was never publicly taught till the 12th century; when Irnerius firſt made profeſſion of it at Bologna, in 1128; whence it was carried, by his diſciples, into other countries; and, in a little time, was taught in all the univerſities.

It is allowed that the civil law contains all the principles of natural equity, and that nothing can be better calculated to form good ſenſe, and ſound judgment: hence, though in ſeveral countries it has no other validity but that of reaſon and juſtice, it is every where referred to for authority, and is that alone taught in univerſities as the law of nations: but it is not received, at this day, in any country without ſome alterations; ſometimes the feudal law being mixed with it, or general and particular cuſtoms, and frequently ordinances and ſtatutes cut off a part of it.

In Turkey the Baſilics are only uſed; in Italy, the canon law, and cuſtoms, have excluded a conſiderable part of it; for in Venice, cuſtom hath almoſt an abſolute government; in the Milaneſe, the feudal law, and particular cuſtoms, bear ſway; and in Naples and Sicily, the conſtitutions and laws of the Lombards are ſtill prevalent. In Germany and Holland, the civil law is eſteemed to be the municipal, or eſtabliſhed law; yet many parts of it are there grown obſolete; and others are altered, either by the canon law, or a different uſage. In Friezeland it is obſerved with more punctuality; but, in the northern parts of Germany, the jus Saxonicum, Lubecenſe, or Culmenſe, is preferred to it. In Denmark and Sweden it hath ſcarce any authority at all. In France only a part of it is received, and that part is in ſome places as a cuſtomary law; though, in thoſe provinces adjacent to Italy, it has the force of a municipal law: however, in criminal cauſes, the civil law is more regarded in France; but the manner of trial is regulated by ordonnances and edicts. In Spain and Portugal, the civil law is connected with the jus regium, and cuſtom. In Scotland, the ſtatutes of the ſederunt, part of the regiæ majeſtatis, and their cuſtoms, controul the civil law. And in England it is uſed in the eccleſiaſtical courts, in the courts of admiralty, and in the two univerſities; yet in all theſe reſtrained and directed by the common law.

CIVILIANS, are ſtudents, profeſſors, or doctors, of the civil law; who have a

College of CIVILIANS *in London*, commonly called Doctors Commons, founded by Dr. Harvey, dean of the arches, for the profeſſors dwelling in the city; where uſually reſide the judge of the admiralty, with other civilians, who all live, as to diet and lodging, in a collegiate manner, commoning together; whence the appellation of Doctors Commons: and to this college belong 34 proctors, who make themſelves parties for clients, and manage all maritime cauſes.

CIVIL *Liſt*, is a term given for the annual allowance granted by the Britiſh parliament for the private uſes of the crown. See *Fund*.

CIVITTA VECCHIA. A town on the bay of the Tuſcan ſea, ſituated in 12 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 42 deg. of N. lat. in the papal territories, which was declared a free port by the pope. See *Italy*.

CLAM. The ſmalleſt weight uſed in the kingdom of Siam, weighing 12 grains, and 768 grains make the tale, or $1\frac{3}{4}$ lb. Engliſh weight.

CLAM, is alſo a money of accompt, worth about a farthing; and it is worthy of obſervation, that in Siam, China, and ſeveral other parts of Aſia, the ſilver coins, or at leaſt the bits of ſilver which ſerve there for coins, ſerve alſo for weights.

CLAMP *in a ſhip*, is a piece of timber applied to a maſt, or yard, to ſtrengthen it, and prevent the wood from burſting. See *Maſt*.

CLAMP-*nails*, are ſuch nails as are uſed to faſten on clamps, in building and repairing of ſhips.

CLAP-*board*. A ſtaff, or board, cut ready for the coopers uſe to make caſks with; which is a conſiderable part of the commerce from the northern colonies of America to the Weſt India iſlands; as alſo between Norway, and other countries adjacent to the Baltic, with other European nations.

By the ſtatute of the 35th Eliz. it was enacted, That all perſons tranſporting beer beyond the ſeas for merchandiſe, ſhould, if a ſtranger before tranſporting, if a ſubject born then within four months after, bring into the realm for every ſix tons of beer, 200 of clapboards, fit for to make caſk of, in length 3 feet and 2 inches; or elſe the ſame caſk again, or ſo much other good caſk; or, if the tranſporting be into Ireland, then to bring ſo much ſhaffold-board as the clapboard amounted to. That no ſtranger ſhould tranſport beyond the ſeas, any pilchards, or other fiſh, in caſk, unleſs the ſame perſon had brought into the realm, for every ſix tons of fiſh, according to the rate aforeſaid of clapboard or caſk, upon pain of forfeiture of the beer, pilchards, and caſk. That it ſhould not be lawful to tranſport wine-caſk out of the realm with beer or eager-beer, nor any wine-caſk ſhaken, except for the victualling of any ſhip, or of the Engliſh garriſons and forces, upon pain of forfeiture of 40 s. for every tun of caſk. But this act was not extended to the tranſportation of herrings in caſks, and was continued indefinitely by the 3d and 16th of Charles I.

CLARA, St. An iſland of Peru in South America, ſituated in 80 deg. of W. lon. and 3 deg. 30 min. of S. lat. on the bay of Guiaquil. See *Spaniſh America*.

CLARET, or *Clairet*, pale red, a name which the French give to ſuch of their red wines as are not of a deep or high colour. See *Wine*.

CLAY, in natural hiſtory, a ſoft viſcous earth, found in various places, and uſed for various purpoſes, of ſeveral kinds and properties.

Dr. Liſter, in the philoſophical tranſactions, gives a table of 22 ſeveral clays found in the ſeveral counties of England; five whereof he calls pure, that is, ſuch as are ſoft, like butter, to the teeth, with little or no grittineſs in them. 1. Fuller's earth, which he diſtinguiſhes by its colour into yellowiſh, brown, and white; 2. Boles; 3. Pale yellow clay; 4. Cowſhot clay; 5. Dark blue clay, or marle. The other ſeventeen impure; whereof eight are hard and duſty when dry; as, 1. Creta, or milk-white clay; 2. Potters pale yellow clay; 3. Blue potters clay; 4. Blue clay, wherein is found the aſtroites; 5. Yellow clay; 6. Fine red clay; 7. Soft chalky blue clay; 8. Soft chalky red clay. Three are ſtony when dry; 1. A red ſtony clay; 2. A blue ſtony clay; 3. A white ſtony clay. Three are mixed with ſand, or pebbles; 1. A yel-

low

low loam; 2. A ſandy red clay; 3. A ſecond ſpecies of the ſame kind. Laſtly, three are mixed with flat or thin ſand, glittering with mica; 1. Crouch, or white clay; 2. Grey, or bluiſh tobacco pipe clay; and, 3 Red clay.

CLAYS are uſed for making bricks, tyles, tobacco-pipes, earthen ware, porcelain, and glaſs. See *Porcelain*.

CLEAR *Cape*, or *Cape Clear*, is a promontory on a little iſland, on the ſouth-weſt coaſt of Ireland.

CLEPSYDRA. An inſtrument to meaſure time by water, like a clock or hour-glaſs, much uſed formerly, as well by ſea as land.

CLERK, in trade or buſineſs, is a perſon employed in exerciſing the pen, by merchants, lawyers, public companies, bankers, or in the revenues.

CLERMONT. A city of France. See *France*.

CLICKER. A cant term for a perſon who ſtands at a ſhoemaker's door, to invite cuſtomers.

CLOCK. A kind of movement, or machine, ſerving to meaſure and ſtrike time.

The uſual chronometers are watches and clocks; the former, in ſtrictneſs, are ſuch as ſhew the parts of time; the latter, ſuch as publiſh it by ſtriking; though the name watch is often appropriated to pocket clocks, and that of clocks to larger machines, whether they ſtrike or not. See *Watch*.

The invention of clocks with wheels, is referred to Pacificus archdeacon of Verona, who lived in the time of Lotharius, ſon of Louis the Debonnair, about the year 840; but Mr. Derham makes clock-work of a much older ſtanding; ranking the ſphere of Archimedes, mentioned by Claudian, and that of Poſidonius, mentioned by Cicero, among the machines of this kind: however, it is certain the art of making clocks, ſuch as are now in uſe, was either invented, or at leaſt retrieved, in Germany, about 200 years ago.

The diſcovery of pendulum-clocks is owing to the happy induſtry of the laſt age. The honour of which is diſputed between Huygens and Galileo; but, whoever was the inventor, the invention never flouriſhed till it came into the hands of Huygens. The firſt pendulum-clock made in England, was in the year 1622, by M. Fromantil, a Dutchman: but clocks and watches now compoſe no inconſiderable branch of the commerce carried on by the Europeans to the Eaſt Indies and the Levant.

By the ſtatute of the 9th and 10th of King William III. it was enacted, That no perſon ſhould export, or endeavour to export, out of the kingdom, any outward or inward box, caſe, or dial plate, of gold, ſilver, braſs, or other metal, for clock or watch, without the movement in, or with the ſame, made up fit for uſe, with the maker's name engraven thereon; nor ſhould any perſon make up any clock or watch, without putting the name and place of abode, or freedom, and no other name or place on every clock or watch, on penalty of forfeiting 20 l. and alſo every ſuch empty box, caſe, and dial plate, clock, and watch, not made up and engraven as aforeſaid.

CLOCK-MAKER. A perſon who makes clocks.

CLOCK-MAKERS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of Charles I. dated the 20th of Auguſt 1632, by the name of The maſter, wardens, and ſociety of the art of clock-makers of the city of London; which is an incorporation conſiſting of a maſter, 3 wardens, and 21 aſſiſtants; but they have neither livery nor hall.

CLOISTER, is a name given to the factory, or ware-houſe, which ſome towns of Germany have in the city of Bergen, the moſt conſiderable port of Norway; where a trade of ſalt, and dry fiſh, is carried on in ſo great a quantity, as to be in a manner ſufficient for all Muſcovy, Sweden, Poland, Denmark, and Germany, ſetting aſide what is imported on Engliſh, Dutch, and French bottoms.

The merchants reſiding in this cloiſter, are obliged to celibacy during their reſidence, and are upon that account called monks, tho' of the proteſtant profeſſion.

CLOTH, in its general ſenſe, includes all kinds of ſtuffs wove or manufactured on the loom, whether their threads are of wool, hemp, or flax; and is more particularly applied to a web, or tiſſue, of woollen threads interwoven, whereof ſome, called the *warp*, are extended lengthwiſe, from one end of the piece to the other; the reſt, called *woof*, being diſpoſed acroſs the firſt, or breadthwiſe of the piece.

Woollen cloths are woven on looms as well as linens, druggets, ſerges, camblets, and ſuch like, being of various qualities; as fine, coarſe, and ſtrong: ſome of wool, of different colours; the wools being dyed, and dreſſed, are firſt ſpun and then wove; others are wrought white, deſtined to be dyed in ſcarlet, black, blue, green, yellow, and other colours: but their breadths and lengths are various, according to the places of their manufacture. See *Wool*, *Woollen cloths*, *Stuffs*, and *Fuſtian*, *Linen-cloth*, *Sail-cloth*, and *Weaver*.

Cloth, is ſaid alſo of all rich gold and ſilver ſtuffs; as plain, faſhioned, frized, wrought, even of thoſe whoſe ground is of gold and ſilver, variegated with flowers or foliages of ſilk of different colours and ſhades. See *Embroidery*.

Tho' ſtuffs of gold and ſilver are ranked among cloths of gold and ſilver; yet they are uſually called gold and ſilver tiſſues. See *Tiſſue*.

CLOTHIER, *Cloth-worker*, or *Sheerman*, one whoſe buſineſs it is to make woollen cloth fit and ready for uſe. See *Wool*, and *Woollen trade*.

CLOTH-WORKERS *company of London*, is a fraternity incorporated by letters-patent of Edward IV. dated the 28th of April 1482, by the appellation of the fraternity of the aſſumption of the bleſſed Virgin Mary of the ſheermen of London, which was confirmed by Hen. VIII. in 1528. but they being re-incorporated by Queen Elizabeth, ſhe changed their firſt title to that of The maſter, wardens, and commonalty of freemen of the art and miſtery of cloth-workers in the city of London, which charter was confirmed by Charles I. in the year 1634.

This company has a very large eſtate, out of which is annually paid to the poor about 1400 l. a year: and, for the government of the incorporation, they have a maſter, 4 wardens, and 33 aſſiſtants, with a livery of 154 members, each of whom, upon his admiſſion, pays a fine of 20 l. and the company has a ſtately hall in Mincing-lane, where they tranſact their affairs.

ST. CLOUD. See *France*.

CLOVE, an aromatic fruit, growing on a tree of the ſame name, which was formerly very common in the Molucca iſlands, where all the European nations, who traffic in ſpices to the Eaſt Indies, furniſhed themſelves with what quantity of cloves they required: though at preſent ſcarce any are found but in the iſland of Ternate: for the Dutch, to render themſelves maſters of that merchandiſe, have dug up the clove-trees in the reſt of the Molucca iſlands, and tranſplanted them to Ternate; ſo that none are now to be had but through their hands.

The tree is about 20 feet high, with leaves like thoſe of the bay-tree. When the cloves begin firſt to appear, they are of a greeniſh white colour, and, as they ripen, grow brown, being gathered from October to the middle of February, when they are placed on hurdles, with a ſmall fire under them, and afterwards dried in the ſun. They muſt be choſen dry, brittle, harſh to the touch, well grown, of a duſky red colour, a hot aromatic taſte, an agreeable ſmell, and, if poſſible, with the ſhank on. Such of the fruit as eſcape the gatherers, grow and ſwell on the tree, whereby they become full of a gum uſed in medicine, called *mother of cloves*.

There is alſo an oil drawn from cloves by diſtillation, uſed as a ſovereign remedy for the tooth-ach, and in medicinal compoſitions with the ſame view as the fruit: beſides, it is alſo much uſed among perfumers. See *Spice*.

CLOVE, is alſo an Engliſh weight for wool, being 7 lb.

CLOUGH, or *Draught*, in trade, an allowance of two pounds in every hundred weight, for the turn of the ſcale, that the commodity may hold out weight when ſold by retail.

CLYDE. A river of Scotland, riſing in Annandale, and running N. W. through Clydeſdale, paſſes by Lanerk, Hamilton, and Glaſgow, falling into the frith of Clyde, oppoſite the iſle of Bute.

COACH. A vehicle for commodious travelling, invented by the French in the time of Francis I. who reigned in the year 1515, which was afterwards introduced among all the politer nations of Europe, and is now one of their principal articles of luxury; though Lewis XIV. of France made ſeveral ſumptuary laws for reſtraining the exceſſive magnificence of theſe carriages, which have had the fate to be neglected.

Coaches are diſtinguiſhed with regard to their ſtructure, into coaches, properly ſo called, chariots, calaſhes, and berlins: beſides theſe, there are hackney coaches, expoſed to hire in the ſtreets of London, and ſome other capital cities, at rates fixed by authority; and ſtage coaches, which are thoſe appointed for the conveyance of travellers, from one city, or town, to another.

Hackney coaches in London are 800 in number, under the direction of commiſſioners, who take cognizance of all cauſes and diſputes ariſing thereupon. They are diſtinguiſhed by numbers affixed to the coach-doors: their fares, or rates, were ſettled by a ſtatute of the 14th of Charles II. and confirmed by another in the 5th and 6th of William III. whereby the fare is ſettled at 10 s for a whole day of 12 hours; for a ſingle hour 1 s. 6 d. and 1 s. for every hour after the firſt; and, at theſe rates, they are obliged to carry paſſengers any where, within ten miles of London, under a penalty not exceeding 3 l. nor under 10 ſhillings, in caſe of refuſal to go, or an exaction of more than the fare.

COACH-MAKERS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of Charles II. dated the 20th of Auguſt 1677, by the name of The maſter, wardens, aſſiſtants, and commonalty of the company of coach and coach-harneſs makers of London, conſiſting of a maſter, 3 wardens, 23 aſſiſtants, and 104 liverymen, who, upon their admiſſion, pay each a fine of 10 l. and have a ſpacious hall in Noble-ſtreet, in which they diſpatch their affairs.

COAGIS. A term uſed in the Levant among traders, ſignifying a factor, or commiſſioner; in which quality there are Engliſh, French, Dutch, and Italians eſtabliſhed in thoſe ports, trading by commiſſion, each upon the account of the merchants of their reſpective nation. See *Factor*.

COAL. A black, ſulphurous, inflammable matter, dug out of the earth, ſerving, in many countries, as common fuel; being ſometimes called pit-coal, Scotch-coal, Welch-coal, cannel-coal, foſſil-coal, earth coal, and natural-coal, to diſtinguiſh it from charcoal, and ſmall-coal; and, in places where it is brought by ſea, it is called ſea-coal. See *Charcoal*, and *Small-coal*.

Cannel, or canole-coal, is a ſort of foſſil coal found in ſeveral of the northern counties of England, very hard, gloſſy, and light, apt to cleave into thin flakes, and, when kindled, yields a continual blaze till it is burnt out.

Pit-coal is ranked among the number of minerals, and the places it is dug out of are called *coal-mines*, or *coal-pits*, being common in moſt of the European countries; though the Engliſh coal is of moſt repute, even in foreign countries, notwithſtanding it is pretended that the coal of the Foſſe of Auvergne in France is nothing inferior to it.

Scotch-coal is dug in great quantities in many parts of England, particularly about Lymington in Hamphire; it burns briskly into aſhes, without turning into cinders.

Welch-coal, ſometimes alſo called Scotch-coal, is very plentiful in Wales, and many parts of England; it burns without much ſmoak, but makes cinders. Tanfield-moor coal is the ſame as Newcaſtle coal, which principally ſupplies London.

The goodneſs of coal conſiſts in its being as free as poſſible from ſulphur, in its heating iron well, and in its burning a long time in the forge: but the Engliſh coal has this quality peculiar to it, that it never lights ſo perfectly as when water is thrown on it.

The commerce of coal is very conſiderable in England, for the mines at Newcaſtle, in Northumberland, and Whitehaven, in Cumberland, not only ſupply the conſumption of London and the ſouthern counties, but alſo afford large quantities for Ireland, eſpecially from Whitehaven; and Newcaſtle loads a conſiderable number of ſhipping with this commodity for Britanny and Normandy in France; as alſo to ſome parts of Holland: the meaſure whereby it is ſold being the chaldron, containing 36 buſhels.

In the year 1536 coals were ſold at Newcaſtle for 2 s. 2 d. the chaldron, and 4 s. the chaldron in London, which now generally exceed 30 s. the chaldron in London. There are generally above 1500 ſhips annually employed in this trade between Newcaſtle and London, which is the principal nurſery of the Britiſh ſeamen: there are about 2000 ſeamen employed from Whitehaven, and many thouſand colliers employed in the mines; as alſo a great number of people in land-carriage: but all coal for the conſumption of London is to have no other than ſea carriage to it; the amount of which upon an average is annually 474,717 chaldrons.

By the ſtatute of the 12th of Q. Anne, the coal-buſhel is to be round, with a plain bottom, and to be 19 inches and a half from out to out, containing one Wincheſter buſhel, and one quart of water: and all ſea coals and culm, chargeable with duties by Wincheſter meaſure, are to be chargeable, ſold, and meaſured, by the chaldron, containing 36 buſhels heaped; and the commiſſioners of the treaſury were to cauſe a buſhel to be made of braſs, of theſe dimenſions, to be ſealed and kept in the exchequer.

By the ſtatute of the 9th and 10th of William III. a duty of 5 s. *per* ton, or 7 s. 6 d. *per* chaldron, for coals ſold by meaſure, is to be paid by the importer of coals, brought from Scotland, or any parts beyond ſea; 3 s. 4 d. *per* ton for coals laid on board in Engliſh ports, and 5 s. *per* chaldron for culm imported. By the 6th of Q. Anne coals exported in foreign bottoms are to pay 10 s. *per* chaldron, in Britiſh bottoms only 3 s. By the 8th of Q. Anne an additional duty of 3 s. *per* ton, and 4 s. 6 d. *per* chaldron was laid on foreign coals; and 3 s. *per* chaldron for water-born coals. By the 9th of Q. Anne coals exported to Ireland were to pay 1 s. *per* chaldron; to the plantations 2 s.; coals imported from foreign parts 2 s. *per* ton, and 3 s. *per* chaldron; carried from port to port 4 s. *per* ton, and 2 s. *per* chaldron.

By the laws now in being, the maſters of all veſſels employed in carrying coals, culm, and cinders, coaſtwiſe, from port to port within Great Britain, are to enter into bond with ſecurity, at the ports where the ſame are ſhipped, for delivery of the ſaid lading in ſome other port or creek in Great Britain. But as ſeveral maſters of theſe veſſels, under pretence of being forced by contrary winds and ſtreſs of weather, carried and diſpoſed of their ſaid lading in foreign ports, without having firſt paid the cuſtoms and overſea duties, upon the exportation thereof: it was, therefore enacted, in the 22d year of K. Geo. II. That no officer of the cuſtoms ſhould clear outwards any ſhip or veſſel wherein coals, culm, or cinders ſhould have been exported from any place in Great Britain to any parts beyond the ſeas, or permit ſuch veſſel to go out of any port in Great Britain, till all the cuſtoms and duties for ſuch coals, culm, or cinders, be paid; or until an authentic certificate ſhould be produced, ſignifying the payment of the ſaid duties, under penalty of 100 l. for every ſuch offence committed by the officers of the cuſtoms, contrary to the term of this act; that if any maſter, or other perſon, taking charge of any veſſel, whereon coals, culm, and cinders, ſhall be laden in Great Britain to be carried coaſtwiſe, ſhould proceed with the ſaid loading to parts beyond the ſeas, and there unlade and diſpoſe of the ſame, not being compelled thereto by ſtreſs of weather, or other lawful neceſſity, he ſhould pay 5 s for every chaldron thereof ſo exported or unladen, over and above all other duties.

By an act made in the 16th and 17th year of King Cha. II. The Lord Mayor of London, and the court of aldermen, for the time being, and the juſtices of the peace of the ſeveral counties and places where coals, brought into the river Thames, are ſold by retail, were empowered to ſet the prices of all ſuch coals as ſhould be ſold by retail, as they ſhould judge reaſonable, allowing a competent profit to the retailer, beyond the price paid by him to the importer, and the ordinary charges thereupon accruing.

And by an act of the 17th of Geo. II. the above act was extended to be put in execution by all the juſtices of the peace of the ſeveral counties in England and Wales, upon any coals brought into any other rivers, creeks, havens, or ports, and ſold by retail after landed; and if any ingroſſer or retailer of ſuch coals, ſhould refuſe to ſell as aforeſaid, the juſtices were authoriſed to enter their wharfs, and ſell the coals at the limited price.

The ſtatutes of the 9th of Q. Anne, and the 3d and 10th of Geo. II. are the other acts for regulating the coal trade: and, by an ancient cuſtom in the port of London, one chaldron, called the ingrain, is allowed in every ſcore bought on board a ſhip.

COAL-METERS *office*, is an office kept in Church-alley, St. Dunſtan's hill, where are entered the names of all the ſhips that arrive in the port of London with coals, to which belong 15 maſter-meters, or meaſurers, who appoint a ſufficient number of perſons to meaſure the coals brought by the ſaid ſhips, to prevent impoſitions, which would otherwiſe happen both to the king and ſubject, in reſpect to the duty and meaſure.

Notwithſtanding the laws in force for the regulation of the coal-trade, many frauds and abuſes were daily committed in the admeaſurement of coals, and the coal trade, within Weſtminſter and the parts adjacent: for remedy whereof an act was made in the 19th of Geo. II. for erecting one public office, called land coal-meters office, to be continued within Weſtminſter for the city and liberty thereof, which ſhould be managed by two perſons, to be appointed by his Majeſty, with the title of The principal land coal meters of the city and liberty of Weſtminſter. The principal land coal meters, or either of them, are to appoint a ſufficient number of labouring coal-meters within the ſaid city, to attend the coal-wharfs, ware-houſes, or other places of ſale within the ſaid city, who are to be ſworn "to meaſure coals between buyer and ſeller, without favour or ill-will." If the lighterman, or other perſon, ſhall break bulk, after coals ſhall have been delivered on board any lighter or craft, from out of any ſhip, before the time of delivery at the wharf, in the abſence of a meter, or of the conſumer, or his agent in caſes where the meter is not obliged to attend the delivery, he ſhall forfeit 50 l. All contracts for coals to be delivered within the ſaid city, directly from the lighter to the conſumer, not being leſs than five chaldron, ſhall be for pool meaſure, including the ingrain of one chaldron in every ſcore. Four pence *per* chaldron, for every chaldron of coals ſold at any wharf in Weſtminſter, is to be paid by the ſeller to the principals or labouring coal-meters, one moiety of which is for the principals, and the other for the labourers, who thereupon are to give the ſeller of ſuch coals, or to the carmen who ſhall carry them, a ticket ſpecifying the quantity, quality, price, and other conditions of the ſale; and if any cart loaded with above 8 buſhels of coals, ſhall be ſent from any wharf in Weſtminſter, without having firſt obtained ſuch ticket, the vender is to forfeit 50 l. and the carman 5 l.

COAST. A ſea-ſhore, or a country adjoining to the edge of the ſea.

COASTING, that part of navigation wherein the places ſailed to and from are not far diſtant; ſo that a ſhip may ſail in ſight of the land, or within ſounding between them: ſuch are the voyages on the narrow, or Britiſh ſeas, between England, Holland, and France; alſo thoſe about the Britiſh ſeas, and in the Mediterranean; for the performance whereof, a good knowledge of the land is only required, the uſe of the compaſs, and of the lead or ſounding-line.

COASTING *ſhips*. See *Ship*.

COASTWISE *goods*, are ſuch as are brought from one port to another port in the ſame country. See *Goods coaſtwiſe*.

COBALT. A kind of marcaſite, ſuppoſed to be the cadmia of the ancients, from which arſenic and ſmalt are extracted; uſually containing a little ſilver, ſome copper, but much arſenic: of which there are ſeveral mines, eſpecially in Saxony; as alſo ſome in France and England. See *Marcaſite*.

COBALT is uſed in making glaſs, of a ſapphire colour: the veſſels in which it is contained having ſeveral marks; as O. C. for the ordinary cobalt; M. C. for the middling ſort; F. C. for the fine; F. F. C. for the finer; and F. F. F. C. for the fineſt of all, which is very ſcarce and valuable.

COBIT, or *Covid*. A long meaſure uſed in ſeveral parts of the Eaſt Indies; but not alike in all places, being uſed like the ell, in different places of Europe: but it is generally about half a yard Engliſh meaſure.

COBLER, any unſkilful workman, particularly applied to thoſe men who make it an employ to patch, or mend old ſhoes, tho' it is done curiouſly. See *Cordwainers company*.

COBLON. A port-town of the Hither India, in Aſia, ſituated in 80 deg. of E. lon. and 12 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. on the coaſt of Coromandel, 12 m. S. of Fort St. George, which was the only ſettlement the Oſtend Eaſt India company had in India; and this they were obliged to abandon to the Engliſh and Dutch Eaſt India companies.

COBRE. A kind of long meaſure uſed in China, particularly at Canton, for ſtuffs, cottons, and ſuch like merchandiſe, 10 of which make about 3 ells Engliſh.

COBRISSO, is a term given to the ſilver mines in Chili, and Peru, when they contain copper; becauſe they are then tinged with a green colour, and hard to be worked, upon account of the mixture.

COCA. A Peruvian plant, whoſe fruit, when dry, ſerve as the cacao of Mexico, for money, among the Indian mountaineers, who uſe it in their traffic of cloths, cattle, and other ways of bartering.

COCHIN. A port-town of India, on the Malabar coaſt, ſituated in 75 deg. of E. lon. and 9 deg 30 min. of N. lat. where the Dutch have a factory, and a very ſtrong fort. See *India*.

COCHIN-CHINA, or *Weſt China*, is a kingdom of India, beyond the Ganges, ſituated between 104 and 109 deg. of E. lon. and between 10 and 17 deg. of N. lat. See *India*.

COCHINEAL, or *Cochineel*. A drug uſed by dyers, and painters, for giving red colours, eſpecially crimſons, and ſcarlet; and likewiſe in medicine, as a cardiac and alexipharmic; which is brought from the Weſt Indies in a body of an irregular figure, oblong, convex on one ſide, and concave on the other: but authors are divided as to its nature, ſome taking it to be a kind of worm, and others for the berry of a tree or plant called *opuntia*: though Dampier, with ſome probability, ſays, that there is both a cochineal a worm, and another a berry. However, there are whole plantations of the cochineal tree about Guatimala, Chepe, and Guaxaca, in the kingdom of Mexico, where the berry yields a dye almoſt as beautiful as that of the inſect; but the deception in them is eaſily made, and the latter is in much greater eſtimation: it is of a deep purple colour, very light and friable.

The Spaniards of Mexico take great care in the preſervation of theſe animals, by placing them at proper ſeaſons on the opuntia-tree, where they breed, and ſuck in its juices, which are of a purple colour. There are three gatherings of theſe inſects in a year; and after the laſt the boughs of the opuntia are cut off, to preſerve the remaining inſects for the next year. The Spaniards import generally 8 or 900,000 lb. weight of cochineal into Europe; and it is to be lamented that the Britiſh colonies are not yet ſufficiently, or at all, productive of this uſeful commodity. See *Drug*.

COCKET, or *cocquet*. A ſcroll of parchment ſealed and delivered, by the officers of the cuſtom-houſe, to the merchants upon entering their goods, certifying that the goods were cuſtomed, and duly entered. See *Cuſtoms* and *Entry*.

Certificate-COCKET. See *Entry*.

COCKIEN. A kind of Japaneſe money of accompt, about 18 s. ſterling.

COCK-SWAIN, or *Cockſon*, an officer on board a man of war, who hath the care of the boat, or ſloop, and all things belonging to it; to be always ready with his boat's gang, or crew, and to man the boat on all occaſions; having a whiſtle to call and encourage his men; and his place being in the ſtern of the boat, where he is to ſteer.

COCOA, or *Cacao*. A kind of nut, about the ſize of a moderate almond, being the ſeed, or fruit, of a tree of the

the ſame name, much reſembling the cherry-tree, and growing in ſeveral parts of America; particularly in the provinces of Guatimala, and Nicaragua; at Maragnan, in the north part of Brazil; as alſo in ſome of the Caribbe iſlands; and in the iſles of Magdalen, in the gulph of St. Lawrence in Canada: the Spaniards making ſo conſiderable a trade of it that there are ſome who make 500 l. ſterling a year, from a ſingle plantation of this valuable fruit; the trees being generally from 500 to 2000 in a plantation, and in full vigour when ſix years old.

There are two kinds of cocoa; the moſt common, which is likewiſe the beſt, being round, and of a dark colour, bordering on red; the other, called *Patlaxe*, is white, larger, thicker, flatter, and its quality deſiccative; but they are both brought to Europe in bags or in casks. Some druggiſts, however, ſell four kinds; the great and little cocoa of the Caraccas, and the great and little cocoa of the Caribbe iſlands, which may be probably reduced to the two kinds above mentioned; the greatneſs and ſmallneſs only multiplying the names and kinds.

The cocoa nuts are eſteemed by the Mexicans as anodyne, and uſed, eaten raw, to aſſwage pains of the bowels; they alſo procure a kind of butter, or oil, from them, as ſweet as that of almonds, and drawn in the ſame manner, which is excellent for burns.

In ſome parts of America, particularly in the bay of Campeachy, the cocoa-nuts are uſed by the Indians as money, 12 or 14 being held equivalent to a Spaniſh rial, or 5 d. halfpenny ſterling; and in the Caribbee iſlands they make ſweet-meats of cocoa.

Of this nut, with the addition of vanilla, and ſome other ingredients, the Spaniards, and other Europeans after their example, prepare a kind of conſerve, or cake; which diluted in hot water, makes that delicious wholſome drink called chocolate. See *Chocolate*, and *Vanilla*.

According to Dampier, the largeſt ſort of the cocoa-tree has a body about a foot and a half thick, and ſeven or eight feet high to the branches, which are large and ſpreading like an oak, with a pretty thick, ſmooth, dark, green leaf, ſhaped like that of a plumb-tree, but larger. The nuts are incloſed in cods, as big as both a man's fiſts put together; at the broad end of which there is a ſmall tough limber ſtalk, by which they hang from the body of the tree, in all parts of it, from top to bottom, ſcattered at irregular diſtances, and from the greater branches a little way up, eſpecially at the joints of them, or partings, where they hang thickeſt, but never on the ſmaller boughs. There may be ordinarily about 20 or 30 of theſe cods upon a well-bearing tree; and they have two crops of them in a year, one in December, but the beſt in June. The cods neither ripen, nor are gathered at once; but for three weeks, or a month, when the ſeaſon is, the overſeers of the plantation go every day about to ſee which are turned yellow, cutting at once, perhaps, not above one from a tree. The cods thus gathered, they lay in ſeveral heaps to ſweat; and then, burſting the ſhell with their hands, they pull out the nuts, being generally near a hundred in a cod; in proportion to the greatneſs of which, for it varies, the nuts are bigger or leſs

He alſo obſerves, that the cocoa tree grows no where about the north ſeas of America, but in the bay of Campeachy, on Coſta Rica, between Porto Bello and Nicaragua, chiefly up Carpenter's river, and on the coaſt of Caraccas, as high as the iſland of Trinidada. In the South ſeas, he ſays, it grows on the river of Guiaquil, a little to the ſouthward of the line, and in the valley of Colima, on the ſouth-ſide of the continent of Mexico. Beſides theſe, Dampier is confident there is no part in the world where the cocoa grows, except in Jamaica; of which there are now but few remaining, of many and large walks or plantations of them, found there by the Engliſh at their firſt arrival, and ſince planted by them: but even theſe, though there is a great deal of care and pains beſtowed upon them, ſeldom come to any thing, being generally blighted.

The King of Spain, taking into conſideration the ruin of the cocoa trade, between that kingdom and the Indies, in the flotas, galeons, and regiſter-ſhips, owing to the exceſſive duties chargeable at the port of Cadiz, and afterwards the inland duties, which were the cauſe that this conſiderable branch of commerce had been engroſſed by foreigners; who exported it to their reſpective countries, and afterwards brought it back to the Spaniſh ports, nay, ſometimes directly from the Indies, and could introduce it there by an advantage in the admeaſurement and indulgencies in the duties, excluſive of fraud; being privileges, which the Spaniards had not, as they imported it regiſtered, from the Indies to Cadiz, under an obligation to conſign it there, according to the tenor of the regiſter: his majeſty therefore ordered a reduction of thoſe duties, and made other proviſions, in order to bring back this branch of commerce, as may be ſeen in the diſpatch dated the 20th of September 1720, ſigned by his own hand; the ſubſtance whereof contains many uſeful obſervations upon the good conduct of trade, being to the following purport.

His Majeſty reflecting upon the vaſt quantities of cocoa wanted, and conſumed in Spain; as alſo of its being the readieſt, and, as it were, the only freight of the galeons, and regiſter ſhips, on their return, ordered the Marquis de Campo Florido, preſident of the council of the revenue, to give him an account of the duties chargeable on every pound of cocoa brought to Cadiz from the Indies, in the flotas, galeons, and regiſter-ſhips. Whereupon the marquis, in obedience to the royal mandate, repreſented, that, upon cocoa imported for the inland conſumption as far as Madrid, the duties would amount to 135 maravedis, or 10½ d. ſterling *per* pound; ſixteen of which were generally demanded at the cuſtomhouſe, where it was collected and regiſtered, that is, ten for the almoxarifargo of the Indies at entry; and the remaining ſix maravedis, impoſed by the ſtates of the kingdom, in the year 1632, upon every pound that ſhould be entered and conſumed, without excepting preſents; 8 maravedis and a half, impoſed in 1672, on the ſame terms; 34 maravedis, which, in 1693, were ordered to be charged for a time upon every pound of cocoa, and chocolate, that ſhould be expended; 59½ maravedis chargeable in the cuſtomhouſe at Madrid, of which 34 were appropriated to their exciſes, 8½ were lately impoſed for the building of barracks, and the remaining 17 for the alcavala and cientos, paid at the time of ſale. Beſides, that every pound of cocoa pays 75½ maravedis, in the manner aforeſaid, at its going out of the cuſtomhouſe of Cadiz; which amount, with the ſums above, raiſed it ſo high, that when an account was drawn out of what every pound coſt the Spaniſh merchants in the place where they bought, or bartered for it, the duties paid there, freight, and the other charges of entry and ſale, which were alſo increaſed in the inland parts, where there were arbitrios, and an alcalvala, it not only left the proprietors no profit; but, after it had exhauſted the whole of what it was ſold for, he had money to pay to make up the ſurplus of the duties: for the amount of the firſt coſt, and the charges, exceeded the value of the cocoa a third part; which loſs obliged the Spaniſh merchants to abandon this commerce, and reſign it to foreigners.

To prevent theſe, and other injurious conſequences, his Majeſty was pleaſed to reſolve, and decree, by the above ordinance, That all the cocoa imported from America, by his Majeſty's natural ſubjects, ſhould be chargeable at entry in Cadiz, and his cuſtomhouſe, at the rate of 33 maravedis, or 2¾ d. ſterling, *per* pound, 10 of them to the almoxarifargo of the Indies, with a declaration, that as this ſum is nearly equivalent to the two dollars charged *per* quintal, by the ordinance of April 5. in the ſame year 1720, it ſhould be underſtood, that the above two dollars were comprehended in the 10 maravedis, laid upon every pound, and ſhould be ſo appropriated, and aſſigned over to the chamber of the Indies; ſix maravedis for the almoxarifargo mayor, and the other 17 which the ſtates granted in 1632, upon which impoſts the penſions were charged: but that the impoſition of 51 maravedis, the 8½ in the year 1672, the 34 in 1693, and the remaining 8½, which the corn-magazine at Madrid received formerly, but were at that time appropriated to the building of

of barracks, upon which there were no penſions, or any other claims, ſhould be entirely ſuppreſſed; it being underſtood, that after the ſaid 33 maravedis were paid at Cadiz by the proprietor, under the diſtinctions already explained, no other duty ſhould be demanded on account of the crown; and they might freely diſpoſe of it in any part of the kingdom, without being ſubject to any further impoſition, ſave the arbitrio, if any ſhould be, where it ſhould be ſold; and the alcavala and cientos that ariſe from the ſale.

As a further encouragement to this commerce by the hands of the Spaniards, his Majeſty reſolved, that ſuch natives of the kingdom as were inclined to go from Cadiz, under a regiſter directly to the Caraccas, Cumana, Maracaybo, and other provinces, which produce this fruit, on the terms his Majeſty ſhould judge convenient to grant them licences, ſhould be exempt from paying any duty or gratuity, on account of a permit, or for tonnage, with certain precautions to guard againſt abuſes; beſides which, there are other proviſions, calculated to revive and improve this commerce in Spain, more largely ſet forth in the above royal ordinance.

The Spaniards pretend to confiſcate all European ſhips in America with cocoa on board; though this fruit is produced by the Engliſh in Jamaica, and by the French in Martinico. But as chocolate has ſuch a great conſumption in Europe, perhaps it may be for the advantage of the Britiſh colonies to cultivate cocoa, which is very profitable, 20 negroes being ſufficient to manage a plantation of 50,000 cocoa-trees; and theſe trees, one year with another, may produce 100,000 lb. of nuts, which, at $4\frac{1}{2}$ d. a pound, the loweſt price in America, would produce 1874 l. 19 s. 8 d. ſterling.

The cocoa of the Caraccas is ſold at Amſterdam for $8\frac{1}{2}$ ſtivers, or 9 d. ſterling, the pound; and the cocoa of Martinico is ſold for about 7 d. ſterling the pound.

By the ſtatute of the 10th of Geo. I. it was enacted, That no chocolate ready made, or cocoa-paſte, ſhould be imported into Great Britain, on pain of forfeiture thereof, together with double the value, and the package; and an inland duty of 1 s. 6 d. is to be paid for every pound of chocolate made or ſold in Great Britain, to be paid by the makers or ſellers; with other regulations for putting chocolate-makers under the laws of exciſe; whereby all chocolate ſhould be tied up with thread in papers, containing one pound of chocolate each, and ſhould have ſuch a mark or ſtamp affixed as the commiſſioners of exciſe ſhould appoint: and all chocolate found in the cuſtody of any maker or ſeller thereof, without ſuch a mark, except ſuch for which the duties ſhould not become due, ſhould be forfeited, and ſuch maker or ſeller ſhould forfeit 20 s. for every pound ſo found in his cuſtody; all chocolate found removing from one place to another without ſuch mark ſhould be forfeited, together with the package; and if any perſon ſhould counterfeit ſuch mark, or knowingly ſell any chocolate with ſuch counterfeit mark, he ſhould forfeit 500 l. and be committed to the next county-goal for twelve months: and it was alſo enacted, That no perſon ſhould be permitted to make into chocolate for private uſe any quantity of cocoa-nuts, leſs than half an hundred weight at a time. See *Chocolate*.

By the ſtatute of the 12th of Geo. I. it was enacted, That no dealer in cocoa-nuts ſhould ſell or deliver out leſs than 28 pounds weight at one time, on forfeiture of 20 l. for every pound of cocoa-nuts ſold or delivered out in any parcel not amounting to 28 pounds: but for other regulations, ſee *Coffee*.

Cocos, or *Coco*, is alſo a name for a nut, whoſe ſhell is frequently uſed by turners, carvers, and others, for ſeveral works; the tree of which yields fruit twice a year, and thoſe ſometimes as big as a man's head; inſomuch that many travellers aver, that from a ſingle cocos tree, and its fruit, a ſhip might be built, equipped, and laden with merchandiſe and proviſion.

The cocos of the Antilles are not ſo large as thoſe of the Eaſt Indies, Africa, and Arabia; the trees ſeldom exceeding 25 feet in height, and the fruits in proportion, which are thoſe generally uſed in England.

The cocos fruit, dried, and emptied of its pulp, ſerves in the kingdom of Siam, as a meaſure both for things liquid and dry: but as theſe ſhells are not all of the ſame capacity, ſome being more, and others leſs, their content is firſt meaſured with coris, thoſe little Maldivia ſhells, which ſerve as ſmall money in ſeveral ſtates of the Indies; ſome cocos containing 1000 coris, others 500.

COCULUS *Indiæ*. See *Cuculi*.

COD *Cape*, lies on the coaſt of New England, near the entrance into the harbour of Boſton.

Code, or *Codex*. A collection of the laws and conſtitutions of the Roman Emperors, made by order of Juſtinian. See *Civil Law*.

Cod-*fiſh*, and *Cod-fiſhery*. See *Cod-fiſhery*.

COFFEE. A ſeed, or berry, brought from Arabia Felix and Turky, uſed for making a drink of the ſame name, very familiar in Europe for the laſt century, and among the Turks almoſt a century before; which is alſo produced in ſeveral parts of the Britiſh colonies in America; for the raiſing whereof the parliament has given proper encouragement: however, that from the Levant is moſt eſte med; being greener, heavier, and appearing riper and plumper than that from Mocha, which is larger, lighter, and whiter. The tree that produces the coffee, is a kind of Arabic jeſſamin; and the berry, when ripe, is found as hard as horn; which occaſioned an opinion that the people of the kingdom of Yemen in Arabia Felix, where it is cultivated, ſteeped in boiling water, or baked in a furnace, all the coffee they ſold abroad, to prevent its growing any where elſe.

For coffee-berries, ſome ſubſtitute peas, beans, rye, and barley; which, when roaſted, yield an oily matter, reſembling coffee in flavour, but leſs agreeable; though the oily matter that ſeparates from the coffee, and appears on its ſurface when roaſted, and its particular ſmell, readily diſtinguiſh it, and are to be real indications of its effects.

Coffee is ſaid to yield a very conſiderable revenue to the Grand Signior; for in Great Britain and Ireland there are annually expended 100 ton of coffee-berries, and in England alone 70; which, at 300 l. *per* ton, a moderate price, amounts to 21,000 l. ſterling.

By the ſtatute of the 5th of George I. if any perſon ſhould, at the roaſting of coffee, or before or after, make uſe of water, greaſe, butter, or other material, which will increaſe the weight, or damnify the coffee, he ſhould forfeit 20 l.; and if any dealer in coffee ſhould knowingly buy or ſell ſuch coffee, he ſhould forfeit 20 l. The inland duty on coffee is hereby declared to be 2 s. the pound, over and above cuſtoms payable upon importation: and the regulations are made for putting this branch of trade, as alſo thoſe of tea, chocolate, and cocoa, under the regulations of exciſe; whereby none of theſe commodities, exceeding 6 pounds weight, are to be removed, by land or water, without a permit: that all coffee imported ſhould be rated at 7 l. for every hundred weight, and all cocoa nuts at 50 s. for the like weight, and the ſubſidy at 12 d. *per* pound ſhould be paid according to ſuch rates; as alſo, ſhould the further ſubſidy, the one third, the two third ſubſidies, and additional impoſt, payable over and above the inland duties.

By the ſtatute of the 11th of George I. it was enacted, That every perſon keeping a public houſe, ſhop, cellar, or warehouſe, for ſelling of brandy or ſtrong waters, and ſhould have in his cuſtody any coffee, tea, or chocolate, or cocoa-nuts, exceeding ſix pounds of any of the ſaid commodities, ſhould be deemed a dealer therein within the act made in the preceding year.

By the ſtatute of the 5th of George II. it was enacted, That coffee of the growth of the Britiſh plantations in America ſhould, in lieu of the inland duty of 2 s. a pound, pay only an inland duty of 1 s. 6 d. a pound: that no commander of any ſhip ſhould take in at America, or at ſea or ſhould land in any of the ſaid plantations, any coffee of the growth of any foreign country, except ſuch as ſhould be exported from Great Britain, on pain of forfeiting ſuch coffee, and 200 l. and likewiſe twelve months impriſonment. And, by the ſtatute of the 19th of Geo. II. this act was continued to the year 1753.

COFFILA. One of the weights uſed at Mocha for merchandiſe; 10 of which make a tuckea, and 40 tuckeas make a maund, or 3 lb. Engliſh avoirdupois.

COGE. See *Denmark*.

COGMORIA. A very fine muſlin brought from the Eaſt Indies, about 16 ells in length, and 7-8ths in breadth.

COGNIAC. A town of France, 44 miles S. E. of Rochelle, remarkable for its excellent brandy. See *France*, and *Brandy*.

COHI. A corn-meaſure, uſed in the kingdom of Siam, containing about 5000 lb. Engliſh avoirdupois.

COIN is generally uſed for a piece of metal, converted into money by the impreſſing of certain marks or figures thereon; which may be defined a ſpecies of money, ſtruck either with a hammer, or mill. Hence coin differs from money, as the ſpecies does from the genus; money being any matter, as metal, wood, leather, glaſs, horn, paper, fruits, ſhells, or kernels, which have courſe as a medium in commerce: but coins are a particular branch of monies, ſuch as are made of metal, gold, ſilver, or copper, and ſtruck according to a certain proceſs called coinage; the ſtandard, weight, and other circumſtances of which are ſo intimately connected with commercial affairs, that this important matter requires an ample diſcuſſion.

The preciſe epocha of the invention of money is unknown; it is too antient for the Britiſh annals; and, to argue from the obviouſneſs and neceſſity of the thing, muſt be nearly coeval with the world: but whether coins be of equal antiquity, may admit of ſome doubt; eſpecially as moſt of the antient writers are ſo frequent and expreſs in their mention of leathern monies, paper-monies, and wooden-monies. In effect, the very commodities themſelves were the firſt monies, which were current for one another by way of exchange; and it was the difficulty of cutting, or dividing, certain commodities, and the impoſſibility of doing it without great loſs, that firſt put men on the expedient of a general medium: however, thus much may be aſſerted in behalf of coins, that, on this view, it was natural for men to have their firſt recourſe to metals, as being almoſt the only things whoſe goodneſs is not diminiſhed by partition; beſides, their firmneſs, neatneſs, cleanlineſs, durableneſs, and univerſality; as alſo the conveniencies of melting, and returning them again into a maſs of any ſize or weight.

It was probably, then, this property of metals which firſt accuſtomed people, who trafficked together, to account them in lieu of quantities of other merchandiſes in their exchanges, and at length to ſubſtitute them entirely in their ſtead; from whence came the original of money, as it was their other property to preſerve any mark or impreſſion a long time, which confirmed them in the right, and thus became the firſt riſe of coins.

In the firſt ages, each perſon cut his metal into pieces of different ſizes and forms, according to the quantity to be given for any merchandiſe, or according to the demand of the ſeller, or the quantity ſtipulated between them; for which end they went to market, loaden with metal, in proportion to the purchaſe to be made; being furniſhed with inſtruments for portioning it, and with ſcales for dealing it out, as occaſion required.

By degrees it was found more commodious to have pieces ready weighed; and as there were different weights required, according to the value of the different wares, all thoſe of the ſame weight began to be diſtinguiſhed with the ſame mark or figure.

At length, the increaſing commerce of money beginning to be diſtributed with frauds, both in the weights and the matter, the public authority interpoſed; and hence came the firſt ſtamps or impreſſions of money; to which ſucceeded the names of the moniers, and at length the effigy of the prince, the date, legend, and other precautions, to prevent the alterations of the ſpecies; by which coins were completed.

The current ſpecies in the four quarters of the earth, at this day, are either made of metals, or are ſhells, and fruits; the metals being gold, ſilver, copper, tin, and lead; to which may be added billon, a mixture of ſilver and copper in a certain proportion. Europeans uſe only gold, ſilver, copper, and billon; but, in ſome parts of the Eaſt Indies, they alſo uſe tin and lead; though, as to ſhells and fruits, they are the ſmall money of ſeveral nations in Aſia, Africa, and America.

In the time of King Richard I. money coined in the eaſt parts of Germany came in ſpecial requeſt in England, on account of its purity, and was called *eaſterling money*, as all the inhabitants of thoſe parts were called eaſterlings: and, ſoon after, ſome of thoſe people ſkilled in coining, were ſent for to London, to bring the coin to perfection; which ſince has been called ſterling, for eaſterling. King Edward I. eſtabliſhed a certain ſtandard for the ſilver coin of England; but no gold was coined till the reign of King Edward III. who, about the year 1320, when the ſtates of Europe firſt began to coin gold, cauſed ſeveral pieces to be coined called Florences, becauſe they were coined by Florentines; afterwards he coined nobles; then roſe-nobles, current at 6 s. 8 d; half-nobles, at 3 s. 4 d. called half-permies of gold; and quarters, at 20 d. called farthings of gold. The ſucceeding Kings coined roſe-nobles, and double roſe-nobles, great ſovereigns, and half Henry nobles, angels, and ſhillings. King James I. coined unites, double crowns, and Britain crowns; then crowns, half-crowns, ſhillings, ſix-pences, and other inferior pieces; and King Charles II. converted moſt of the antient gold coins into guineas.

On the foot whereon the Engliſh money now ſtands, it is divided into real coin, or effective money; and imaginary money, or money of accompt. See *Money of accompt*.

The current value of a guinea is 1 l. 1 s. and the weight about 5 dwts $9\frac{1}{3}$ grains, 12 ounces of bullion being coined into $44\frac{1}{2}$ guineas. The ſtandard-value of the guinea, at 22 carats fine, is 1 l. and the value of the ſame as bullion, at 4 l. *per* ounce, is 1 l. 1 s. $6\frac{3}{4}$ d. The current value of half a guinea coined, is 10 s. 6 d. the weight about 2 dwts $16\frac{5}{6}$ grains; the ſtandard-value is 10 s. and the value of the ſame as bullion, at 4 l. *per* ounce, is 10 s. $9\frac{7}{8}$ d.

Twelve ounces of bullion ſilver are coined into 62 ſhillings; at which rate the crown-piece weighs about 19 dwts 8,516,129 grains; the current value is 5 s. and the value of the ſame as bullion, at 5 s. *per* ounce, is 4 s. $10\frac{1}{16}$ d. The current value of the half crown coined is 2 s. 6 d. the weight, 9 dwts $16\frac{1}{4}$ grains, and the value of the ſame as bullion 2 s. $5\frac{1}{32}$ d. The current value of a ſhilling is 12 d. the weight 3 dwts $20\frac{8}{10}$ grains; and the value in bullion is $11\frac{1}{2}\frac{9}{10}$ d. The current value of a ſixpence is 6 d. the weight 1 dwt $22\frac{8}{10}$ grains, the value in bullion being $5\frac{3}{4}\frac{9}{20}$ d.

Or the modern coins, or ſpecie, current in Europe, Aſia, Africa, and America, and equivalent to ſterling money, are as follow.

COINS *of Great Britain*, are the guinea and half guinea of gold; the crown, half-crown, ſhilling, and ſixpence, of ſilver; the halfpenny, and farthing of copper.

Guinea	Crown	Shilling	Sixpence	Halfpenny	Farthing	l.	s.	d.
1	$4\frac{1}{5}$	21	42	504	1008	1	1	0
	1	5	10	120	240		5	0
		1	2	24	48		1	0
			1	12	24			6
				1	2			$\frac{1}{2}$
					1			$\frac{1}{4}$

Beſides theſe, there have been alſo pieces of 5 guineas, of 2 guineas, and of a quarter of a guinea; likewiſe broad pieces of 25 s. called the Jacobus, and of 23 s. called the Carolus, or laureat, with their halves and quarters in gold; as alſo 4 pences, 3 pences, 2 pences, and pence, of ſilver; though all of them are now much out of uſe.

In Scotland, by the articles of the Union, it was appointed that all the coins ſhould be reduced to the Engliſh ſtandard: for, till then, Scotland had its pounds, ſhillings, and pence, as in England; but the Scotch pound was only 20 pence Engliſh, and the others in proportion; accordingly their mark was $13\frac{1}{3}$ ſhillings Scotch, current in England at $13\frac{1}{2}$ d. and their noble in proportion.

Beſides theſe they had their turnorer, pence and halfpence; the penny being the $\frac{1}{12}$ of that of England: as alſo baſe money of achiſons, babees, placks, and bodles.

In Ireland the coins are the ſame as in England, with this

difference, that the Engliſh ſhilling paſſes for thirteen pence, and the other coins in proportion, in Ireland, where there is no mint; though halfpence, called harps, or harpers, are peculiarly coined for this country in the tower of London.

In the Iſle of Man there is a particular kind of copper halfpence, coined in the iſland.

And in the Britiſh plantations, where ſeveral foreign coins are current, their different values are regulated by ſtatutes, and proclamations of council: for there are few coins circulating there but French and Spaniſh pieces; though in New England they coin a ſhilling of ſilver, called the New England ſhilling, which is much of the ſame value as the ſhilling of Old England. See *Plantations.*

The COINS *of Holland and the other United Provinces*, are the rixdoller, guilder, or florin, and skilling, of ſilver; the ſtiver, or ſol, of billon; the grote, duyt, and pening, of copper.

Rixdol.	Guilder	Skilling	Stiver	Grote	Duyt	Pening	s.	d.
1	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$8\frac{1}{3}$	50	100	400	800	4	$4\frac{1}{2}$
	1	$3\frac{1}{3}$	20	40	160	320	1	9
		1	6	12	48	96		$6\frac{3}{10}$
			1	4	8	16		$1\frac{1}{20}$
				1	4	8		$\frac{21}{40}$
					1	2		$\frac{21}{160}$
						1		$\frac{21}{320}$

There is alſo the gold ducat of Camphen in Holland, worth 9 s. 3 d. ſterling.

Beſides, there are other Dutch coins of ſilver, as the ducatoon of Holland, or piece of 63 ſtivers, worth 5 s. 5 d. The 3 guilder piece of Holland, or piece of 60 ſtivers, worth 5 s. 2 d. The 10 skilling piece of Zealand, or piece of 60 ſtivers, worth 5 s. 2 d. The lion dollar of Holland, worth 3 s. 7 d. Alſo 3 ſorts of gout guldens, or florin d'ors, worth 2 s. $9\frac{15}{100}$ d. 1 s. $2\frac{72}{100}$ d. and 1 s. $2\frac{26}{100}$ d.

The COINS *of Flanders, and the Auſtrian Netherlands*, are the imperial of gold; the guilder, or gulden, and ſkilling, of ſilver; the ſtiver, blank, grote, and orties of copper.

Imperial	Guilder	Skilling	Stiver	Blank	Grote	Orties	s.	d.
1	7	20	140	$186\frac{2}{3}$	280	560	11	3
	1	$2\frac{6}{7}$	20	$26\frac{2}{3}$	40	80	1	$7\frac{2}{7}$
		1	7	$9\frac{1}{2}$	14	28		$6\frac{3}{4}$
			1	$1\frac{1}{3}$	2	4		$\frac{27}{28}$
				1	$1\frac{1}{1}$	3		$\frac{81}{112}$
					1	2		$\frac{27}{30}$
						1		$\frac{27}{72}$

There are alſo the ſilver ducatoon of Flanders, worth 5 s. $6\frac{14}{100}$ d.

And the ſilver patagon of Flanders, or croſs dollar, worth 4 s. 5 d.

COINS *of France*, are the louis d'or, piſtole, or the Lewis of gold, with its diviſions, which are the $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{4}$; and its multiples, which are the double and quadruple louis; tho' till the year 1700, they had gold lys, and crowns, which are now aboliſhed. The ſilver coins are the crown or ecu, with its fractions. The ſol is of billon, and the liard and denier are of copper.

Louis d'or	Crown Specie	Crown Exch.	Sol	Liard	Denier	s.	d.
1	4	8	480	1920	5760	19	6
	1	2	120	480	1440	4	$10\frac{1}{2}$
		1	60	240	720	2	$5\frac{1}{4}$
			1	4	12		$\frac{39}{80}$
				1	3		$\frac{32}{320}$
					1		$\frac{39}{1280}$

The louis d'or was firſt ſtruck at 10 livres, but has ſince riſen as high as 30.

The fractions of the crown are the $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, or frank, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$ frank, and the $\frac{1}{4}$ frank: beſides, there is alſo another ſilver piece called une-petite piece, current for about a halfpenny ſterling.

There is alſo the double of copper, worth 2 deniers, but the denier is only current in the ſouthern parts of France.

COINS *of Spain*, are the piſtole of gold; the piaſtre, dollar, perſo, or piece of eight, with the piſtarine, rial, and quarto, of ſilver; the ochavo and maravedi of copper.

Piſtole	Piaſtre	Piſtarine	Rial	Quarto	Ochavo	Maravedi	s.	d.
1	5	20	40	680	1360	2720	17	11
	1	4	8	136	272	544	3	7
		1	2	34	68	136		$10\frac{3}{4}$
			1	17	34	68		$5\frac{3}{8}$
				1	2	4		$\frac{43}{136}$
					1	2		$\frac{43}{272}$
						1		$\frac{43}{544}$

There are alſo the old double dubloon of gold, worth 3 l. 7 s. 1 d. ſterling; and the old double piſtole, worth 1 l. 13 s. $6\frac{7}{10}$ d.

There are likewiſe ſix ſorts of piaſtres; the old Seville, new Seville, Mexico, Peru, pillar, and croſs dollars.

The old Seville and Mexico piaſtres are of equal value, and better than the new Seville ones, about 19 l. 18 s. $1\frac{7}{10}$ d. *per cent.*

Than the Peru dollar about 1 l. 17 s. $\frac{4}{9}$ d. *per cent.*

Than the croſs dollars about 2 l. 6 s. $3\frac{7}{9}$ d. *per cent.*

And the pillar dollars are worth more than the old Seville and Mexico dollars about 1 l. 7 s. $6\frac{47}{73}$ d. *per cent.*

Than the new Seville dollars about 20 l. 10 s. $11\frac{37}{73}$ d. *per cent.*

Than the croſs dollar 3 l. 13 s. $\frac{52}{73}$ d. *per cent.*

Than the old dollar of Peru 3 l. 3 s. $11\frac{9}{73}$ *per cent.*

Two rials of Veillon make but one rial of plate; and there muſt be 16 rials of Veillon to make 1 piaſtre of 8 rials.

COINS *of Portugal*, are the moidore, or moeda d'ore, and the pataque, or piece of eight, of gold; the cruſade, or crown, and the teſtoon, of ſilver; the vintin, and reas, of copper.

Moidore	Pataque	Cruſade New	Cruſade Old	Teſtoon	Vintin	Reas	l.	s.	d.
1	8	10	12	48	240	4800	1	7	
	1	$1\frac{1}{4}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	6	30	600		3	$4\frac{1}{2}$
		1	$1\frac{1}{5}$	$4\frac{4}{5}$	24	480		2	$8\frac{2}{5}$
			1	4	20	400		2	3
				1	5	100			$6\frac{3}{4}$
					1	20			$1\frac{7}{20}$
						1			$\frac{27}{400}$

Beſides theſe there are other coins both of gold and ſilver in Portugal; as——*Of* GOLD

The 25 mill 600 reas piece worth 7 l. 4 s. ſterling.

The 24 mill, or 5 moidore piece 6 l. 15 s.

The 12 mill 800 reas piece, or johannes, 3 l. 12 s.

The 12 mill, or $2\frac{1}{2}$ moidore piece, 3 l. 7 s. 6 d.

The 6 mill 400 reas piece, 1 l. 16 s.

The 3 mill 200 reas piece, 18 s.

The 2 mill 400 reas, or $\frac{1}{2}$ moidore, 13 s. 6 d.

The 1 mill 600 reas piece, 9 s.

The 1 mill 200 reas, or $\frac{1}{4}$ moidore piece, 6 s. 9 d.

Of SILVER.

The 800 reas or 8 teſtoon piece, worth 4 s. 6 d.

The 12 vintin piece, worth 1 s. 6 d.

The 5 ditto, $8\frac{3}{4}$ d.

The $2\frac{1}{2}$ ditto, $4\frac{1}{4}$ d.

Coins of ITALY.

Rome, has the piſtole of gold; the crown, or eſcudi ecu, teſtoon, and julio, of ſilver; the bayoc, and quatrin, of copper.

Piſtole	Crown Stamp	Crown Cur.	Teſtoon	Julio	Bayoc	Quatrin	s.	d.
1	$2\frac{1}{2}$	3	10	30	240	960	15	
	1	$3\frac{1}{3}$	4	12	96	384	6	
		1	$3\frac{1}{3}$	10	80	320	5	
			1	3	24	96	1	6
				1	8	32		6
					1	4		$\frac{3}{4}$
						1		$\frac{3}{16}$

Bologna,

Bologna, has the piſtole of gold; the ducat, piaſtre, teſtoon, livre, and julio, of ſilver; the bayoc, and quatrin, of copper.

Piſtole	Ducat	Piaſtre	Teſtoon	Livre	Julio	Bayoc	Quatrin	s.	d.
1	$2\frac{10}{21}$	$3\frac{11}{17}$	$10\frac{1}{3}$	$15\frac{1}{2}$	31	310	1860	15	6
	1	$1\frac{4}{17}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{4}$	$10\frac{1}{2}$	105	630	5	3
		1	$2\frac{5}{6}$	$4\frac{1}{4}$	$8\frac{1}{2}$	85	510	4	3
			1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	3	30	180	1	6
				1	2	20	120	1	0
					1	10	60	0	6
						1	6		$\frac{3}{5}$
							1		$\frac{1}{10}$

Naples, has the piſtole of gold; the ducat, teſtoon, tarin, paul, and carlin of ſilver; the grain and quatrin of copper.

Piſtole	Ducat	Teſtoon	Tarin	Paul	Carlin	Grain	Quatrin	s.	d.
1	$4\frac{1}{2}$	$11\frac{1}{4}$	$22\frac{1}{2}$	$33\frac{3}{4}$	45	450	1350	15	0
	1	$2\frac{1}{2}$	5	$7\frac{1}{2}$	10	100	300	3	4
		1	2	3	4	40	120	1	4
			1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	2	20	60		8
				1	$1\frac{1}{3}$	$13\frac{1}{3}$	40		6
					1	10	30		4
						1	3		$\frac{2}{5}$
							1		$\frac{2}{15}$

Sicily, has the ounce of gold; the ducat, florin, tarin, and carlin of ſilver; the ponti, grain, and pichili of copper.

Ounce	Ducat	Florin	Tarin	Carlin	Ponti	Grain	Pichili	s.	d.
1	$2\frac{4}{13}$	5	30	60	450	600	3600	7	$4\frac{4}{13}$
	1	$2\frac{1}{6}$	13	26	195	260	1560	3	4
		1	6	12	90	120	720	1	$6\frac{6}{13}$
			1	2	15	20	120		$3\frac{1}{13}$
				1	$7\frac{1}{2}$	10	60		$1\frac{7}{13}$
					1	$1\frac{1}{3}$	8		$\frac{8}{39}$
						1	6		$\frac{2}{13}$
							1		$\frac{1}{39}$

Savoy, has the piſtole of gold; the ducatoon, crown, livre, florin, and ſol of ſilver; the quatrin of copper.

Piſtole	Ducatoon	Crown	Livre	Florin	Sol	Quatrin	s.	d.
1	$3\frac{2}{21}$	$3\frac{17}{36}$	13	$21\frac{2}{3}$	260	1040	16	3
	1	$1\frac{1}{6}$	$4\frac{1}{3}$	7	84	336	5	3
		1	$3\frac{3}{5}$	6	72	288	4	6
			1	$1\frac{2}{3}$	20	80	1	3
				1	12	48		9
					1	4		$\frac{3}{4}$
						1		$\frac{3}{16}$

Tuſcany, has the ducat of gold; the piaſtre, or ecu, lire, julio, and grain of ſilver; the ſoldi, quatrin, and denier of copper.

Ducat	Piaſtre	Lire	Julio	Grain	Soldi	Quatrin	Denier	s.	d.
1	$1\frac{1}{4}$	$7\frac{1}{2}$	$11\frac{1}{4}$	90	150	450	1680	15	5
	1	6	9	72	120	360	1440	4	4
		1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	12	20	60	240		$8\frac{2}{3}$
			1	8	$13\frac{1}{3}$	40	160		$5\frac{7}{9}$
				1	$1\frac{2}{3}$	5	20		$\frac{15}{18}$
					1	3	12		$\frac{13}{30}$
						1	4		$\frac{3}{90}$
							1		$\frac{1}{360}$

Venice, has its ſequins, chequeen, or zacheen of gold; the ducat, teſtoon, lire, julio, and groſs of ſilver; the ſoldi, and pichili of copper.

Sequin	Duccat	Teſtoon	Lire	Julio	Groſs	Soldi	Pichili	s.	d.
1	$2\frac{23}{31}$	$6\frac{8}{27}$	17	$18\frac{8}{9}$	$127\frac{13}{16}$	340	4080	9	$1\frac{12}{13}$
	1	$2\frac{8}{27}$	$6\frac{1}{5}$	$6\frac{8}{9}$	$46\frac{1}{2}$	124	1488	3	4
		1	$2\frac{7}{10}$	3	$20\frac{1}{4}$	54	648	1	$5\frac{163}{181}$
			1	$1\frac{1}{9}$	$7\frac{1}{2}$	20	240		$6\frac{104}{111}$
				1	$6\frac{1}{4}$	18	216		$5\frac{175}{181}$
					1	$2\frac{2}{3}$	32		$1\frac{19}{181}$
						1	12		$\frac{60}{181}$
							1		$\frac{5}{181}$

Genoa, has the piſtole of gold; the genouin, or dollar, the peſſo, teſtoon, the livre, and the cavalot, or chavelet, of ſilver; the ſoldi, or ſol, and denier, of copper.

Piſtole	Genouin	Peſſo	Teſtoon	Livre	Cavalot	Soldi	Denier	s.	d.
1	$2\frac{1}{3}$	$2\frac{11}{12}$	$11\frac{2}{3}$	$17\frac{1}{2}$	$87\frac{1}{2}$	350	4800	15	2
	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	5	$7\frac{1}{2}$	$37\frac{1}{2}$	150	1800	6	6
		1	$3\frac{1}{2}$	5	25	100	1200	4	4
			1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$7\frac{1}{2}$	30	360	1	$3\frac{3}{5}$
				1	5	20	240		$10\frac{2}{5}$
					1	4	48		$2\frac{2}{5}$
						1	12		$\frac{12}{25}$
							1		$\frac{1}{300}$

Beſides theſe there are ſeveral other Italian coins, both of gold and ſilver; as, of gold,

The double piſtole of Pope Urban 1685, which weighs 8 dwt. $14\frac{1}{2}$ gr.

———————— of Placentia 8 dwt. 10 gr.

———————— of Genoa, of 1621, 8 dwt. 16 gr.

———————— of Milan 8 dwt. $13\frac{1}{2}$ gr.

The half piſtole of Innocent II. 1685, 2 dwt. 4 gr.

The ſtandard weight of theſe is uncertain; but the ſingle piſtole of gold of Rome, Milan, Venice, Florence, Savoy, and Genoa, is worth about 16 s. 6 d. ſterling: the double ducat of Genoa, and Venice, are worth 18 s. 7 d. ſterling; and the ſingle ducat of Genoa is worth 9 s. 3 d. ſterling.

The other ſilver coins of Italy are the cruſado, croiſat, or St. Mark of Venice, which weighs 20 dwt. 6 gr.

The half ditto 10 dwt. 3 gr.

The quarter, 5 dwt. $1\frac{1}{2}$ gr.

The piaſtre ecu, or crown of Milan, 17 dwt. 21 gr.

The Philip of Milan 20 dwt. 20 gr.

Coins of SWITZERLAND.

Zurich, has the rix-dollar, gulden, batz, or batzen, and ſhilling, of ſilver; the cruitzer, phening, and heller, of copper.

Rix dollar	Gulden	Batz Good	Batz Coarſe	Shilling	Cruitzer	Phening	Heller	s.	d.
1	$1\frac{4}{5}$	24	$28\frac{4}{5}$	72	108	432	864	4	6
	1	$13\frac{1}{3}$	16	40	60	240	480	2	6
		1	$1\frac{1}{5}$	3	$4\frac{1}{2}$	18	36		$2\frac{4}{5}$
			1	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{3}{4}$	15	30		$1\frac{7}{8}$
				1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	6	12		$\frac{3}{4}$
					1	4	8		$\frac{1}{2}$
						1	2		$\frac{1}{8}$
							1		$\frac{1}{16}$

Lucern, has the rixdollar, gulden, batzen, groſs, and plaphart, of ſilver; the ſhilling, cruitzer, and rapen, of copper.

Rixdl.	Gulden	Batzen	Groſs	Plaphart	Shilling	Cruitzer	Rapen	s.	d.
1	$1\frac{4}{5}$	30	36	45	90	120	270	4	6
	1	16	20	25	50	$66\frac{2}{3}$	150	2	6
		1	$1\frac{1}{5}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	3	4	9		$1\frac{4}{5}$
			1	$1\frac{1}{4}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{3}$	$7\frac{1}{2}$		$1\frac{1}{2}$
				1	2	$2\frac{2}{3}$	6		$1\frac{1}{5}$
					1	$1\frac{1}{3}$	3		$\frac{3}{5}$
						1	$2\frac{1}{4}$		$\frac{7}{20}$
							1		$\frac{1}{5}$

St. Gall, has the rix-dollar, gould, ſhilling, and batz of ſilver; the cruitzer, phening, and heller, of copper.

Rix dollar	Gould	Shilling	Batz Good	Batz Current	Cruitzer	Phening	Heller	s.	d.
1	$1\frac{7}{10}$	17	$20\frac{2}{5}$	$25\frac{1}{2}$	102	480	816	4	6
	1	10	12	15	60	240	480	2	3
		1	$1\frac{1}{5}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	6	24	48		$2\frac{7}{10}$
			1	$1\frac{1}{4}$	5	20	40		$2\frac{1}{4}$
				1	4	16	32		$1\frac{4}{5}$
					1	4	8		$\frac{9}{20}$
						1	2		$\frac{9}{80}$
							1		$\frac{9}{160}$

Vienna,

Coins of GERMANY.

Vienna, has the rix-dollar, and the gold, or florin, of ſilver; the ſhilling, or ſol, batzen, or patre, groſs, cruitzer, drier, or dreyer, and phening of copper.

Rixdol.	Gold	Shilling	Batzen	Groſs	Cruitzer	Drier	Phening	s.	d.
1	2	16	30	$34\frac{2}{7}$	120	160	480	4	8
	1	8	15	$17\frac{1}{7}$	60	80	340	2	4
		1	$1\frac{7}{8}$	$2\frac{1}{7}$	$7\frac{1}{2}$	10	30		$2\frac{1}{2}$
			1	$1\frac{1}{7}$	4	$5\frac{1}{3}$	16		$1\frac{13}{15}$
				1	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{2}{3}$	14		$1\frac{19}{30}$
					1	$1\frac{1}{3}$	4		$\frac{7}{15}$
						1	3		$\frac{7}{20}$
							1		$\frac{7}{60}$

Leipſic, has the ſpecie-dollar, the gould, or rix-gilder, the good groſs, and the marien groſs of ſilver; the drier, drier heller, phening, and heller of copper.

Specie Dollar	Gould	Groſs Good	Groſs Marien	Drier Drier	Drier Heller	Phening	Heller	s.	d.
1	2	32	48	128	256	384	768	4	8
	1	16	24	64	128	192	384	2	4
		1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	4	8	12	24		$1\frac{3}{4}$
			1	$2\frac{2}{3}$	$5\frac{1}{3}$	8	16		$1\frac{1}{6}$
				1	2	3	6		$\frac{7}{16}$
					1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	3		$\frac{7}{32}$
						1	2		$\frac{7}{48}$
							1		$\frac{7}{96}$

Hamburgh, has the ſpecie, or rix-dollar, the ſletch-dollar, marc, and ſchilling, or ſtiver, of ſilver; the gros, or grote, phening, ſexling, and thryling, of copper.

Specie Dollar	Sletch Dollar	Marc	Schilling Lubs	Groſs	Phening	Sexling	Thryling	s.	d.
1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	3	48	96	576	1152	2304	4	6
	1	2	32	64	384	768	1536	3	0
		1	16	32	192	384	768	1	6
			1	2	12	24	48		$1\frac{1}{8}$
				1	6	12	24		$\frac{9}{16}$
					1	2	4		$\frac{3}{32}$
						1	2		$\frac{3}{64}$
							1		$\frac{3}{128}$

Frankfort, has the rix-dollar, gould, oort, batzen, and kayſer groſs of ſilver; the cruitzer, phening, and heller, of copper.

Rix Dollar	Gould	Oort Gould	Batzen	Kayſer Groſs	Cruitzer	Phening	Heller	s.	d.
1	2	8	30	32	120	480	960	4	8
	1	4	15	16	60	240	480	2	4
		1	$3\frac{3}{4}$	4	15	60	120		7
			1	$1\frac{1}{3}$	4	16	32		$1\frac{13}{15}$
				1	3	12	24		$1\frac{3}{4}$
					1	4	8		$\frac{7}{15}$
						1	2		$\frac{7}{60}$
							1		$\frac{7}{120}$

Cologne, has the rix-dollar, guilder, copſtuc, and plaphert of ſilver; the ſtiver, albus, and duyt of copper.

Rixdol.	Guilder	Copſtuc	Plaphert	Stiver	Albus	Duyt	s.	d.
1	2	$6\frac{2}{3}$	$26\frac{2}{3}$	80	$106\frac{2}{3}$	640	4	8
	1	$3\frac{1}{3}$	$13\frac{1}{3}$	40	$53\frac{1}{3}$	320	2	4
		1	4	12	16	96		$8\frac{2}{5}$
			1	3	4	24		$2\frac{1}{10}$
				1	$1\frac{1}{3}$	8		$\frac{7}{10}$
					1	6		$\frac{21}{40}$
						1		$\frac{7}{40}$

Beſides, in ſeveral places of Germany, there are ducats of gold; as

The ducat of the biſhop of Liege, worth 9 s. 3 d. ſterling.
——— —— of Brandenburg 9 s. 3 d.
——— —— of Hanover 9 s. 2 d.
And the double ducat of Hanover 18 s. 4 d.
There are alſo double ducats of gold, in ſeveral forms, in Germany, worth 18 s. 4 d.
And ſingle ducats of ſeveral forms, worth 9 s. 2 d.

There are likewiſe other ſilver coins in ſeveral places of Germany, as

The ducatoon of Cologne worth 5 s. 5 d ſterling.
The rixdollar of the emperor Leopold 4 s. $6\frac{1}{4}$ d.
——————— of Ferdinand III. 4 s. $6\frac{1}{4}$ d.
——————— of Ferdinand Archduke of Auſtria 4 s. $5\frac{3}{4}$ d.
The rixdollar or patagon of Cologne 4 s. $4\frac{1}{2}$ d.
——————————— of the biſhop of Liege 4 s. $7\frac{1}{2}$ d.
The rixdollar of Mentz 4 s. $7\frac{1}{4}$.
——————— of Frankfort 4 s. $6\frac{1}{2}$ d.
——————— of the elector palatine of the Rhine and Bavaria, before 1620, 4 s. $5\frac{3}{4}$ d.
——————— of Noremberg 4 s. $7\frac{1}{2}$ d.
——————— of Magdeburgh 4 s. $6\frac{1}{4}$ d.
The old rix dollar of Lunenberg 4 s. $6\frac{3}{4}$ d.
——————— of Hanover 4 s. 7 d.
——————— of Lubec 4 s. $7\frac{1}{2}$ d.
——————— of Brandenburgh 4 s. $7\frac{1}{4}$ d.
The old bank dollar of Hamburgh 4 s. $6\frac{1}{4}$ d.
The double guilder, or gulden, of the elector of Hanover worth 4 s. $8\frac{1}{4}$ d.
The old guilder of Brandenburgh 2 s. $6\frac{1}{2}$ d.
The gulden of the elector of Hanover 2 s. $4\frac{1}{8}$ d.
——————— of the duke of Zell 2 s. $3\frac{1}{16}$ d.
——————— of the biſhop of Hildeſheim 2 s. $6\frac{1}{4}$ d.
——————— of Magdeburg 2 s. $4\frac{3}{4}$ d.
——————— of Brandenburg 2 s $3\frac{3}{4}$ d.
——————— of Saxony 2 s. $4\frac{1}{8}$ d.
The half gulden of the elector of Hanover 1 s. $2\frac{1}{16}$ d.
——————— of Brandenburg 1 s. 2 d.

The coins of Bohemia, Tranſylvania, and the other Auſtrian provinces, on the frontiers of Turky, are the ſame as at Vienna: but in Tranſylvania there is alſo the gold ducat, worth 8 s. $11\frac{1}{13}$ d. ſterling. In Hungary there is the ducat of gold worth 9 s. $3\frac{1}{13}$ d. ſterling; and the double gold ducat worth 18 s. $6\frac{1}{4}$ ſterling: but the other coins are the ſame as at Vienna.

The COINS *of Dantzick*, are the rixdollar of gold; the florin, and the oort, of ſilver; the abras, groſs, polchen, chelon, and denier of copper.

Rixdol.	Florin	Oort	Abras	Groſs	Polchen	Chelon	Denier	s.	d.
1	3	5	60	90	180	270	1620	4	6
	1	$1\frac{1}{3}$	20	30	60	90	540	1	6
		1	12	18	36	54	324		$10\frac{4}{5}$
			1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	3	$4\frac{1}{2}$	27		$\frac{9}{10}$
				1	2	3	18		$\frac{3}{5}$
					1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	9		$\frac{3}{10}$
						1	6		$\frac{1}{5}$
							1		$\frac{1}{30}$

COINS *of Poland*, are the rix dollar, the tinſe, or florin, the chaouſtie, and pence of ſilver; the groſs, or groch, and chelon of copper.

Rixdol.	Tinſe	Chaouſtie	Pence	Groſs	Chelon	s.	d.
1	6	18	60	90	540	4	6
	1	3	20	30	90		9
		1	$6\frac{2}{3}$	10	30		3
			1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$		$\frac{9}{20}$
				1	3		$\frac{3}{10}$
					1		$\frac{1}{10}$

There is alſo the gold ducat worth 9 s 2 d. ſterling: beſides the ſilver rix dollar of Sigiſmond III. and Uladiſlaus IV. worth 4 s. 6 d. ſterling, and the ſilver rix-dollar of Thorn, worth 4 s. $5\frac{3}{4}$ d. ſterl.

COINS *of Denmark and Norway*, are the double dollar, of gold; the rixdollar, dollar, or ſcheſdal, the rix oort or hors, rix mark, and ſlet mark of ſilver; the ſchilling lub, and danſk, of copper.

Dollar Double	Dollar Rix	Dollar	Rix Oort	Rix Marc	Slet Marc	Schilling Lub	Schilling Danſk	s.	d.
1	$1\frac{1}{3}$	2	$5\frac{1}{3}$	$6\frac{2}{5}$	8	64	128	6	0
	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	4	$4\frac{4}{5}$	6	48	96	4	6
		1	$2\frac{2}{3}$	$3\frac{1}{5}$	4	32	64	3	0
			1	$1\frac{1}{5}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	12	24	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$
				1	$1\frac{1}{4}$	10	20		$11\frac{1}{4}$
					1	8	16		9
						1	2		$1\frac{1}{8}$
							1		$\frac{9}{16}$

Beſides

Beſides there are the gold ducat of Denmark, worth 9 s. 3 d. ſterling; the 4 mark piece of coarſe allay, and the 4 mark piece of fine allay, of ſilver, worth 2 s. $8\frac{1}{4}$ d. and 2 s. $8\frac{1}{2}$ d. ſterling; as alſo the glutſtad, or gottorp dutgen, worth $3\frac{1}{2}$ d. ſterling.

Swediſh Coins, are the rix-dollar of gold; the dollar, caroline, and marc of ſilver; the dollar, marc, ore, and runſtuc, of copper.

Dollar Rix	Silver	Caroline	Copper Dollar	Marc Silver	Copper	Ore	Runſtuc	s.	d.
1	3	4	9	12	36	96	288	4	8
	1	$1\frac{1}{3}$	3	4	12	32	96	1	$6\frac{2}{3}$
		1	$2\frac{1}{4}$	3	9	24	72	1	2
			1	$1\frac{1}{3}$	4	$10\frac{2}{3}$	32		$6\frac{2}{9}$
				1	3	8	24		$4\frac{2}{3}$
					1	$2\frac{2}{3}$	8		$1\frac{5}{9}$
						1	3		$\frac{7}{12}$
							1		$\frac{7}{36}$

There is alſo the gold ducat of Sweden, worth 2 rix-dollars, or 9 s. 4 d. ſterling; beſides, there are the 8 marc piece, the 4 marc piece, and the 2 marc piece, of ſilver, worth 5 s. 2 d. 2 s. 7 d. and 1 s. $3\frac{1}{2}$ d. ſterling.

Ruſſian Coins, are the ducat, or chervonitz, of gold; the ruble, poltina, or poltine, grievna, or grievner, copeac, or copec, of ſilver; the denuſca, and poluſca, of copper.

Ducat	Ruble	Poltina	Grievna	Copeac	Denuſca	Poluſca	s.	d.
1	2	4	20	200	400	800	9	0
	1	2	10	100	200	400	4	6
		1	5	50	100	200	2	3
			1	10	20	40	0	$5\frac{2}{3}$
				1	2	4		$\frac{27}{30}$
					1	2		$\frac{27}{100}$
						1		$\frac{27}{200}$

Beſides theſe there is the copeac of gold, worth about 1 s. 7 d. ſterling; as alſo the half and the quarter ruble, with the polpoltin of ſilver, worth 1 s. $1\frac{1}{2}$ d.

Coins *of Turky*, are the zeriff, otherwiſe called the ſcheriff, or the ſequin, or ſultanin, which is of gold; the caragrouch, ſolota, oſlic, beſlic, parac, and aſper of ſilver; the mangurs of copper.

Zeriff	Cara-grouch	Solota	Oſlic	Beſlic	Parac	Aſper	Mangurs	s.	d.
1	$2\frac{1}{6}$	$10\frac{5}{6}$	26	52	$94\frac{1}{9}$	260	1040	9	9
	1	5	12	24	$46\frac{2}{3}$	120	480	4	6
		1	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{4}{5}$	$9\frac{1}{2}$	24	96		$10\frac{4}{5}$
			1	2	$3\frac{1}{3}$	10	40		$4\frac{1}{2}$
				1	$1\frac{2}{3}$	5	20		$2\frac{1}{4}$
					1	3	12		$1\frac{7}{20}$
						1	4		$\frac{9}{20}$
							1		$\frac{3}{20}$

Coins *of Egypt, and the coaſt of Barbary.* The coins current at Alexandria and Cairo in Egypt, are the gold ſultany, xeriff, and chequeen; being all of them about the ſame value, and each of them worth about 9 s. 4 d. 5 d. or 6 d. ſterling. The ſilver coins current, are the Spaniſh dollars, and the Turkiſh meidin; the Spaniſh dollar paſſes from 30 to 40 meidins, and the meidin is about three half pence ſterling.

In Barca, Tripoli, and Tunis, the gold coins current are the ſultany, the Venetian chequeen, and the Spaniſh piſtole; the two firſt paſs for about 9 s. ſterling, and the laſt for about 16 s. ſterling; but they are often changing their value, according to the neceſſities of the people, or the plenty or ſcarcity of the money.

In Algier, and Oran, the current gold coins are the ſultany and chequeen, valued at about 7 s. 6 d. ſterling; and the Spaniſh piſtole, valued at about 13 s. ſterling. The ſilver coins are the Spaniſh piece of eight, which paſſes for about 3 s. 4 d. ſterling

There are alſo gold coins ſtruck in Barbary; as the rubie, equal to 3 s. ſterling; the median, equal to 4 s. 1 d. ſterling; the ziam, equal to 8 s. 2 d. ſterling; and the ducat, with Arabic letters on both ſides in ſquare tablets, worth 9 s. 3 d. ſterling. There are likewiſe ſilver coins

ſtruck there, as the blanquille, equal to $2\frac{1}{4}$ d. ſterling. The copper coins ſtruck there are the felour, 3 of which make the blanquille; and the barba, which is equal to the 12th part of a halfpenny.

Coins *of Morocco.* The gold coin ſtruck at Fez, is the metecal, which is a kind of ducat of different fineneſs, from whence ariſe ſeveral difficulties in commerce; becauſe, as there is no eſtabliſhed mint, the Jews and goldſmiths ſtrike the metecals after their own manner in their ſhops; but they are generally worth about 9 s. ſterling. The ſilver coin is the blanquille, worth about 2 d. ſterling; and the copper coin is the fluce, 20 of which make a blanquille.

Coins *of Guinea, and other parts of Africa.* In Sofala, and the kingdom of Monomatapa, the gold coin is the merigal, worth about 18 s. ſterling; and the ſilver coin is the pardo, which is current in Moſambique, for about 1 s. 3 d. ſterling. In Guinea, and other parts of Africa, they have no coins among the natives, who deal with Europeans, and among themſelves, only by way of bartering one ſort of goods for another. They commonly make payment with ſmall pieces of gold by weight, and where they have not the art of melting it down, they make their payments in gold-duſt, or with kacorawns, which is gold drawn into a ſmall wire, and cut afterwards into very ſmall pieces. In ſome places they make payments with ſmall pieces of iron ſtamped with particular marks; as alſo in cowries; and in Ethiopia pepper paſſes for money.

Perſian Coins, are the abaſſi, worth 1 s. 4 d. ſterling; the mamodie, worth 8 d. ſterling; and the ſhahee, worth 4 d. ſterling, all of ſilver: the caſbaghis or kabeſqui of copper, worth about 4 d. ſterling. The biſti is ſometimes reckoned among the Perſian coins, and is worth 5 farthings ſterling. Beſides, the tela, or cheraſis, is generally ſtruck at the acceſſion of a new King, and at the beginning of every year, though its weight and value are various.

Arabian Coins, are the larins of ſilver; or dollars, and chequeens, of 100 aſpers, or 4 s. ſterling.

Coins *of the Eaſt Indies.* The principal, and thoſe moſt generally current on the continent of India, and its iſlands, are the pagoda, rupee, and fanam, both of gold and ſilver. They have alſo ſeveral little pieces of copper-money, among which is the peca, or pice.

At Surat, 16 pices make the ana of $7\frac{1}{2}$ d. ſterling, and 4 anas make a rupee of 2 s. 6 d. ſterling.

At Bombay, 72 pices make the rupee of 2 s. 6 d. ſterling.

At Goa, the xeraphim is worth 240 Portugal reas, or about 16 d. ſterling; 2 reas make a baſaraco, 15 baſaracos a vintin, 42 vintins a tangus, 4 tangus a paru, $2\frac{1}{2}$ parues a pagoda of gold, or between 3 and 4 l. ſterling.

At Carwar, 6 pices make the juttal, and 48 juttals a pagoda.

At Tellicherry and Calicut, 16 viſims make a fanam; $4\frac{1}{2}$ fanams of Calicut, and 5 of Tellicherry, make a rupee of 2 s. 6 d. ſterling.

At Anjengo, and other parts of the Malabar coaſt, 16 viſims make a fanam, and $5\frac{1}{4}$ fanams make a rupee of 2 s. 6 d. ſterling.

At Madras, or fort St George, and other parts of the coaſt of Coromandel, 80 caſches make a fanam, or 3 d. ſterling; and 36 fanams a ſilver pagoda, or 7 s. 8 d. ſterling.

In Bengal, 12 pices the ana, or $1\frac{7}{8}$ d. ſterling; and 16 anas the rupee of 2 s. 6 d. ſterling.

In Pegu, the fiano of gold weighs about 7 grains, worth 1 s. $5\frac{1}{2}$ d. ſterling; and there is a ſilver coin, worth about 10 d. ſterling.

In Siam, there is a gold coin worth about 10 s. 7 d. ſterling; and a ſilver coin, about the largeneſs of a hazle nut, worth 2 s. 5 d. ſterling.

At Bantam, in the iſland of Java, the coins are pieces of copper minted, with a hole in the middle to hang them on a ſtring, which they call petties, and 1000 petties make 5 s. ſterling.

At Bencoolen, in the iſland of Sumatra, a ſettalee is worth $7\frac{1}{2}$ d. ſterling; 2 ſettalees make 1 ſocoo, or 1 s. 3 d. ſterling; and 4 ſocoos make 1 real, or 5 s. ſterling.

But there are three kinds of ſilver rupees current in India; the rupees Siccas worth 2 s. 11 d. ſterling at Bengal; the rupees of Surat, worth 2 s. 3 d. ſterling; and the rupees

of Madras worth 2 s. 6 d. ſterling: which is to be underſtood of the new rupees, the old ones of each kind being leſs in value; thoſe of Madras being but 1 s. 11 d. ſterling, thoſe of Surat 2 s. and the Siccas 2 s. 4 d.

There are alſo ſeveral other coins ſtruck by the princes of India, tributary to the Mogul, and by the powers bordering on his territories; particularly a ſmall ſilver coin ſtruck by the King of Matucha, whoſe country lies to the north of Agra, 72 of which are equal to a rupee of 2 s. 6 d. ſterling. The Raja of Parta-jajamoula, to the north of Patna, likewiſe ſtrikes ſome little pieces, both ſilver and copper, of ſmall value. The Raja of Ogden, who commands between Brampour, Seronge, and Amadabat, ſtrikes a ſmall ſilver coin equal to 6 d. ſterling; and another of copper, equal to a halfpenny ſterling. The King of Cheda and Pera has a tin-money called cheda. The King of Achen has little ſlight gold pieces, worth about 15 d. ſterling; and tin pieces, 80 of which are equal to the Engliſh penny, current in the iſle of Sumatra. The gold coin of the King of Macaſſar and Celebes, is taken by the Dutch for a florin, or 1 s. 9 d. ſterling. The King of Cambaya ſtrikes only pieces of ſilver and copper; his gold, wherein he abounds, being negotiated by weight.

In China and Tonquin, they have properly no coins of gold or ſilver; payments being made by lumps, or bits, of gold and ſilver by weight, or the tale and mace; the gold being reckoned worth 3 l. 3 s. ſterling an ounce. However, they have a ſmall copper coin, called a candarin; and a ſmall coin of lead, mixed with the ſcum of copper, called caxas, having holes in the middle to ſtring them for the eaſe of numbering. Ten caxas is one candarin, or $\frac{4}{5}$ of a penny ſterling; ten candarins make a mace, or 8 d. ſterling; and 10 mace make a tale, or 6 s. 8 d. ſterling.

COINS *of Japan*. The Japaneſe coins are of gold, ſilver, and copper. The gold coupant is of two kinds; the one worth 61 l. 11 s. 3 d. ſterling, and the other about 21 l. 3 s. 9 d. ſterling; their gold being worth 63 s. an ounce. The ſilver coupant is worth about 4 s. 6 d. ſterling; and they have alſo ſilver in ingots, as in China, worth about 5 s. an ounce. The copper money is like the Chineſe caxas, 600 of which make the tale, or 6 s. 8 d. ſterling. Beſides which, they have a ſmall ſilver coin, in form of a bean, of no determinate weight or value.

Shells current for COINS. Theſe ſerve in many places for money; being brought from the Maldives, and called in the Eaſt Indies *cowries*, or on the coaſts of Africa *bouges*.

In America they take the name of porcelains; but theſe are not the ſame with thoſe of the Maldives, there being ſhells found in the Weſt Indies, much like thoſe of the Eaſt.

In the kingdom of Congo, in Africa, is another kind of ſhells, called zimbi; though ſome will have them the ſame with the coris.

Coris, cowrie, or bouges, are white ſhells, current particularly in the ſtates of the Great Mogul, dug out of the ground by the Maldivians; 65 of which are uſually reckoned equivalent to the pone, a ſmall copper coin worth about a halfpenny ſterling:

Porcelains are nearly on the ſame footing with the coris.

The zimbi are current particularly in the kingdoms of Angola and Congo; 2000 of theſe make what the negroes call a macoute, which is no real money, but uſed for a manner of reckoning: thus two Flemiſh knives they eſteem a macoute; a copper baſon, two pound weight, and 12 inches diameter, 3 macoutes; a fuſee, 10, &c.

Fruits current for COINS. There are three kinds of fruits uſed for coins; two in America, particularly among the Mexicans, which are the cocoa and maiſe; the other in the Eaſt Indies, that is, almonds, brought thither from Lar in Perſia, and growing in the deſarts of Arabia.

Fifteen cocoa-nuts are eſteemed equivalent to a Spaniſh rial, or $5\frac{3}{8}$ d. ſterling.

Maiſe has ceaſed to be a common money, ſince the diſcovery of America by the Europeans.

Almonds are chiefly uſed where the coris are not current; as the year proves more or leſs favourable to this fruit, the value of the money is higher or lower; in a common year forty almonds are ſet againſt a pecha, or halfpenny ſterling, which brings each almond to $\frac{1}{20}$ of a farthing.

National coin ought to be preſerved as pure and inviolable as religion; it is the eye of the republic, and ſhrinks at the gentleſt touch of a hand. No penetration can be aware of the injuries that ariſe from innovations in this caſe, till experience points them out; for as it is the rule and meaſure of all tranſactions of buſineſs, when this is diſconcerted, every body is a ſufferer, trade is diſordered, and the commonwealth, as it were, out of itſelf. On this account, it was a wiſe ſtep in the kingdom of Aragon, after the renunciation of King Peter II. to form an oath, and oblige all their future princes to take it before their coronation, that they would make no alteration in the coin. This is the obligation of a prince, as Pope Innocent III. wrote to the ſame King Peter, when that kingdom was in rebellion about it; and the reaſon is evident; becauſe a prince is ſubject to the law of nations, and ought, as being ſecurity for the public faith, to take care there be no alteration in the current coin, which may be made either in the matter, form, or quantity; for no kingdom can be under good œconomy, where the coinage is not pure and juſt. See *Bullion*, *Gold*, and *Money*.

COINAGE, or *Coining*, is the art or making of money, performed either by the hammer or the mill; the whole coinage of England being now performed in the tower of London, where there is a corporation under the title of The mint; there is alſo a royal mint in Scotland, but none in Ireland, or any of the plantations; and no hammered ſilver coin is reputed to be lawful in Great Britain.

Formerly there were in England, as there are ſtill in other countries, the rights of ſiegnorage and braſſage; but ſince the 18th of King Charles II. there is nothing taken, either for the King, or for the expences of coining; it having been ſettled, by act of parliament, that all money ſhould be ſtruck at the public expence; for which there is a proviſion made on the duties of wines; ſo that weight is returned for weight, to all perſons who carry their gold and ſilver to the Tower; but the ſpecies coined in England are eſteemed contraband goods, and not to be exported: however, there are no ſpecies coined of pure gold or ſilver, but always a quantity of alloy of copper is mixed with them, upon account of the ſcarcity of thoſe two metals, the neceſſity of making them harder by ſome foreign admixture, and to defray the expences of coining, which muſt be conſiderable; for, from the 17th of October 1713 to the 20th of March 1726, the gold coined in the tower of London amounted to 9,105,950 l. and the ſilver to 236,325 l. 8 s.

The rules and proportions in the Engliſh coinage are as follow. 1ſt, The weight of fine gold is to that of fine ſilver, bulk and bulk alike, as 1 to 183,896. 2d, Fine ſilver is to fine gold, according to the ſtandard, as 1 to 14,49; the pound weight of fine gold being worth 48 l. 10 s. 6 d. and the pound weight of fine ſilver worth 3 l. 6 s. $11\frac{1}{4}$ d. 3d, Sterling ſilver is to crown gold, as 1 to 15,431. 4th, Sterling ſilver, at 5 s. *per* ounce, is to the crown gold at 4 l. *per* ounce, as 1 to 16. 5th, Sterling ſilver is to crown gold, according to the current value, as 1 to 15,045. 6th, Fine gold is in value to crown gold, as 1 to, 9167. 7th, Fine ſilver is in value to ſterling ſilver, as 1 to, 9260.

Hammered money was the only current coin of England, till the year 1663, when the pernicious cuſtom of clipping money reduced it to one half its value; therefore another ſort, called milled money, was firſt fabricated to be current in England; which money was, and is now coined in the following manner.

Firſt, the gold or ſilver is caſt out of the melting pot into long flat bars, which are drawn through a mill wrought by a horſe, to produce the juſt thickneſs of the ſeveral pieces; then, with forcible engines called cutters, anſwering exactly to the reſpective diviſions of the money to be made, the ſame pieces are cut from the flat bar; the reſidue whereof, called ſizel, is melted again; when every piece is weighed, and made to agree exactly with the intended weights; after which it is carried to other engines, wrought ſecretly, which put the letters upon the edges of the reſt with a graining. The next thing is the blanching the money, which is making it white or refulgent by nealing or boiling. And, laſtly, every piece is brought

brought to the preſs, which is called the mill, wrought by men, and there receives the impreſſion, which makes it perfect milled money.

The Engliſh ſtandard for gold, is 22 carats of fine gold, and 2 carats of copper; which being melted together, is eſteemed the true ſtandard for gold coin; that is, if any quantity of fine gold, be divided into 24 equal parts, and 22 of thoſe parts be mixed with two of the like parts of copper, the mixture is called ſtandard gold; a ſtandard ounce of gold, when a guinea is valued at 21 s. being worth 3 l. 18 s. $1\frac{81}{1139}$ d. and the pound weight of gold is worth 46 l. 17 s. $8\frac{132}{1139}$ d. which in the reign of Edw. III. was coined only into 14 l. ſterling. The ſtandard for ſilver is eleven ounces and two penny-weight of fine ſilver, melted with eighteen penny-weight of copper, which is called ſterling ſilver. Fine gold is that which loſes nothing of its primitive weight in aſſaying; but if the loſs be $\frac{1}{24}$ part, it is called 23 carats fine, or one carat better than ſtandard; if it loſes $\frac{2}{24}$ parts, it is 22 carats fine, or ſtandard; if $\frac{3}{24}$ parts, it is called one carat worſe than ſtandard, and ſo in proportion as it happens to be better or worſe: but the loſs on aſſaying ſilver is computed by penny-weights, and other ſubordinate denominations.

The coinage of Portugal is the moſt ſimilar to the ſtandard of England, where it is allowed to paſs current; but the French is below the Britiſh ſtandard, and therefore not current.

The Spaniſh coinage is eſteemed one of the moſt imperfect in Europe; being ſettled at Sevil and Segovia, the only cities where gold and ſilver are ſtruck in thoſe dominions; but ſuch vaſt quantities of pieces of eight, and other ſpecies, both of gold and ſilver, are brought from Mexico, Peru, and other provinces of Spaniſh America, that, in this reſpect, it muſt be owned there is no ſtate in the world where ſo much money is coined as in Spain.

The Ruſſian coinage is ſtruck in the cities of Peterſburgh, Moſcow, Novogrod, Twere, and Pleſcou; where the coinage is let out to farm, and makes part of the royal revenue.

The Perſian coinage is all ſtruck with the hammer; and the ſame may be underſtood of the reſt of Aſia and America, the coaſts of Africa, and even Muſcovy; the invention of the mill not being yet gone out of Europe, nor even eſtabliſhed in every part of it.

The coinage of Fez and Tunis is not under any diſcipline; each goldſmith, Jew, and even private perſon, undertaking it at pleaſure; which renders their money exceſſively bad, and their commerce very unſafe.

By the ſtatute of the 1ſt and 2d of Philip and Mary, it was enacted, That if any perſon ſhould bring into the realm of England, or any of its dominions, any falſe and counterfeit money being current within the realm, knowing the ſame to be falſe and counterfeit, to the intent to utter or make payment of the ſame within the realm; ſuch perſons ſo offending, their counſellors and abettors, ſhould be deemed offenders in high treaſon.

By the ſtatute of the 5th of Elizabeth, it was enacted, That clipping, waſhing, rounding, or filing the monies of the realm, or of the dominions thereof, or of the monies of any other realm ſuffered to be current, ſhould be adjudged treaſon; and, by the 18th of the ſame Queen, it is alſo declared treaſon, to impair, diminiſh, falſify, ſcale, or lighten the ſame.

By the ſtatute of the 13th and 14th of Charles II. it was enacted, That no perſon ſhould melt any current ſilver money, upon pain of forfeiture of the ſame, and of the double value; and the perſons offending, if freemen of any city or corporation, ſhould be disfranchiſed; and if they ſhould not be freemen, they ſhould ſuffer ſix months impriſonment.

By the ſtatute of the 6th and 7th of William III. it was enacted, That if any perſon ſhould, at any time, receive or pay any ſilver money unclipt, for more than the ſame ought to go for, he ſhould forfeit 10 l. for every 20 s. and ſo in proportion for any greater or leſſer ſum; and that if any perſon ſhould buy or ſell, and knowingly have in his cuſtody, any clipping, or filings, of the coin; he ſhould forfeit the ſame, and 500 l. and ſhould be alſo branded in the right cheek with the letter R.

By the ſtatute of the 8th and 9th of William III. proper penalties are inflicted upon ſuch as ſhould counterfeit the utenſils of the royal mint; and againſt perſons marking, diminiſhing, or counterfeiting the current coin; as alſo againſt any perſon that ſhould blanch copper for ſale, or mix blanched copper for ſilver; or knowingly buy or ſell, or offer to ſale, blanched copper alone, or mixed with ſilver; or ſhould knowingly and fraudulently buy or ſell, or offer to ſale, any malleable compoſition, which ſhould be heavier than ſilver, and look, and touch, and wear like gold, but be worſe than ſtandard; or ſhould pay, or put off, any counterfeit, or melted money unlawfully diminiſhed, at a lower rate than the ſame ſhould import.

By the ſtatute of the 9th and 10th of Will. III. it was enacted, That it ſhould be lawful for any perſon to whom ſilver money ſhould be tendered, (any piece whereof ſhould be diminiſhed, otherwiſe than by reaſonable wearing; or that by the ſtamp, colour, or weight thereof, he ſhould ſuſpect to be counterfeit), to cut or deface ſuch piece; and if it ſhould appear to be counterfeit, the perſon tendering the ſame ſhould bear the loſs; but if the ſame ſhould be of due weight, and lawful money, the perſon that broke or defaced the ſame, ſhould take it at the rate it was coined for.

By the 4th and 19th of George II. 15,000 l. a year is allowed for the expences of the mint for England and Scotland, payable out of the duties on wine.

By the ſtatute of the 25th and 26th of George II. it was enacted, That if any perſon ſhould waſh, gild, or colour any lawful or counterfeit ſhilling or ſixpence, or add to, or alter, the impreſſion or any part, of either ſide of ſuch lawful or counterfeit coin, with intent to make ſuch ſhilling or ſixpence reſemble a guinea or half guinea; or ſhould any ways alter, or colour, halfpennies or farthings, to make them reſemble a lawful ſhilling or ſixpence, the offenders and their abettors ſhould be adjudged guilty of high treaſon. That if any perſon ſhould tender in payment any counterfeit coin, knowing it to be ſo, the offender ſhould ſuffer ſix months impriſonment, and find ſureties for good behaviour for ſix months longer; for a 2d offence he ſhould ſuffer two years impriſonment, and find ſureties for two years more; and for a 3d offence, ſhould be adjudged guilty of felony, without benefit of clergy. That if any perſon ſhould tender in payment any counterfeit money, knowing it to be ſo; and ſhould either the ſame day, or within ten days after, knowingly tender other falſe money in payment, or at the time of tendering have more in his cuſtody; the offender ſhould ſuffer a year's impriſonment, and find ſureties for good behaviour for two years more; and being convicted a ſecond time, ſhould be adjudged guilty of felony, without benefit of clergy. That if any perſon coin, or counterfeit, braſs or copper halfpence or farthings; the offenders, and their abettors, ſhould ſuffer two years impriſonment, and find ſureties for their good behaviour for two years more. That whoever ſhould apprehend offenders for crimes thereby made high treaſon, and proſecute them to conviction, ſhonld receive 40 l. for every offender, and for every perſon convicted of counterfeiting the copper money, 10 l. within a month after conviction; for the expences of which proſecutions 600 l. a year is allowed out of the coinage-duties on wines; but the copper coin of late years has been greatly counterfeited, and wants the interpoſition of the legiſlature, to remedy ſo public a grievance, eſpecially to the trading part of the kingdom.

COLBERG. A port-town of Pomerania, in Germany, ſituated on the Baltic, in 16 deg. of E. lon. and 54 deg. 15 min. of N. lat.

COLCHESTER. A large borough-town of Eſſex, ſituated in 1 deg. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 55 min. of N. lat. having the greateſt manufacture of bays of any town in England, and allowed to have the beſt way of improving oyſters. See *Great Britain*, and *Oyſter-fiſhery*.

COLCOTHAR, is of two kinds, natural and factitious: the natural, otherwiſe called chalcitis, is a red vitriol, brought from Germany, formed from the common green vitriol, calcined naturally by ſome ſubterraneous fire. See *Chalcitis*.

The artificial colcothar is a green vitriol, calcined a long time by an intenſe fire, and ſo reduced to the redneſs of blood; though common ſulphur being mixed with iron filings, and expoſed to the air, both unite and form a colcothar,

cothar, perfectly like that procured by calcination from vitriol.

Colcothar vitrioli, is a term alſo uſed for the caput mortuum, or remains left at the bottom of the veſſel, after the diſtillation of vitriol. See *Vitriol*.

COLDING. See *Kolding*.

COLIMA. A port-town of North America, in the province of Mexico, and territory of Mechoacan, ſituated in 109 deg. of W. lon. and 19 deg. of N. lat. at the mouth of a river near the Pacific ocean. See *Spaniſh America*.

COLLAR. An ornament wore by the knights of ſeveral military orders, generally conſiſting of a chain of gold enamelled.

COLLAR, is alſo a piece of braſs, or other metal, to put round the necks of dogs, or for other purpoſes. Collar is likewiſe a term uſed for hoops, put to ſeveral inſtruments; and likewiſe for the collars of carriage-horſes.

COLLAR-*maker*, is a perſon whoſe buſineſs conſiſts in making collars for horſes, of wood and leather; as alſo in ſome other neceſſaries for horſes of carriage; as waggoners whips, traces, and other harneſs. He uſes horſes hides for moſt of his work; and is beſides a kind of dog-butcher, by ſelling the horſe-fleſh to ſuch perſons as keep dogs in and about London.

COLLECTOR. A perſon nominated by the commiſſioners of any duty, company of trade, the inhabitants of a pariſh, or the like, to raiſe, gather, or collect any tax, or ſum of money, as the collectors of exciſe, land-tax, and window-lights.

COLLEGE. An aſſemblage of ſeveral bodies, or ſocieties, or even of ſeveral perſons into one ſociety; and among the Romans it was extended to the mechanical arts, or trades; ſo that the word properly ſignified what we call a corporation, or company. Thus in England, our univerſities conſiſt of ſo many colleges or halls. The college of civilians, or Doctors Commons, was founded by Dr. Harvey, dean of the arches, for the profeſſors of the civil law reſiding in London: and the college of phyſicians was incorporated by Hen. VIII. In Holland, the board of admiralty is called the college of the admiralty; and in other countries they have colleges of merchants, particularly in the Hans towns, where they give their exchanges the name of colleges.

Sir Francis Brewſter, who was a very eminent merchant of London in 1690, laments the inattention of the Engliſh gentlemen to trade, and has propoſed to have this remedied by erecting a college in each maritime city, and conſiderable port of the kingdom, in which there may be ſome perſons of experience in trade, to direct and teach others in the myſtery of it to all parts of the world; and that they may have the practice, as well as theory, that every perſon entering himſelf into the ſociety may be obliged to bring in 1000 l. ſtock, which will make a capital of perhaps 20 or 30,000 l. ſterling to traffic with in 30 cities or places in the kingdom: that they be obliged to ſpend five years in the ſociety, and at the end of that term to receive the principal they brought, allowing the caſualty of profit and loſs as it happens; by which means trade will fall into the hands of gentlemen, perſons of learning, and conſideration in the nation. See *Commerce*, *Merchant*, and *Trade*.

COLLIER. One who works in the coal-pits; alſo a dealer in coals; beſides, it is a name commonly given to ſuch ſhips as are employed to carry coals from one place to another, eſpecially from Newcaſtle and Whitehaven to London.

COLLIERY. The pit, mine, or place where coals grow, and out of which they are dug; alſo a ſtore houſe, where large parcels of coals are kept for ſale or uſe.

COLOCHINA. A port-town of Turky in Europe, ſituated in 23 deg. of E. lon. and 36 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the coaſt of the Morea. See *Turky*.

COLOGNE. The capital of the archbiſhopric of Cologne, and of the circle of the Lower Rhine in Germany, ſituated on the Rhine, in 6 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 50 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. being one of the moſt extenſive and elegant cities of Germany; and having a great trade, eſpecially in wines. See *Germany*.

COLONY. A company of people, of all ſexes and conditions, tranſported into a remote province, to cultivate and inhabit it. Colonies have three kinds of diſtinction: the firſt, are thoſe ſerving to eaſe, or diſcharge the inhabitants of a country; where the people are become too numerous, ſo that they cannot any longer conveniently ſubſiſt: the ſecond are thoſe eſtabliſhed by victorious princes and people, in the middle of vanquiſhed nations, to keep them in awe and obedience: and the third are diſtinguiſhed by the name of commercial colonies, becauſe, in effect, trade is the ſole occaſion and object of ſuch ſettlements.

It was by means of the firſt kind of colonies, that, ſome ages after the deluge, the eaſt firſt, and ſucceſſively all the other parts of the earth, became inhabited; and, without mentioning any thing of the Phænician and Grecian colonies, ſo much celebrated in antient hiſtory, it is notorious that it was for the eſtabliſhment of ſuch colonies, that, during the declenſion of the Roman empire, thoſe torrents of barbarous nations, iſſuing for the generality out of the north, over-run Gaul, Italy, and the other ſouthern parts of Europe; where, after ſeveral long and bloody military contentions, they divided the country with the antient inhabitants.

For the ſecond kind of colonies, the Romans uſed them more than any other people, and principally to ſecure the conqueſts they had made from the weſt to the eaſt.

The colonies of commerce are thoſe eſtabliſhed by the Engliſh, French, Spaniards, Portugueſe, and other nations, within theſe two laſt centuries, and which they continue ſtill to eſtabliſh in ſeveral parts of Aſia, Africa, and America, either to keep up a regular commerce with the natives, or to cultivate the ground by planting ſugar-canes, indico, tobacco, and other commodities. The principal of this kind of colonies are on the northern and ſouthern continents, and the iſlands of America; particularly Peru, Mexico, Canada, Virginia, New England, Carolina, Louiſiana, Acadia, Hudſon's bay, the Caribbee iſlands, Jamaica, Cuba, Domingo, and other iſlands. Theſe colonies in Africa are at Madagaſcar, Cape of Good Hope, Cape Verd and its iſlands, and all thoſe vaſt coaſts extended thence as far as to the Red ſea. And in Aſia there are the famous Batavia of the Dutch; Goa and Diu of the Portugueſe; with Pondicherry, Madras, and ſome other leſs conſiderable places of the Engliſh, French, and Danes.

Though ſome of the Britiſh colonies in America, as Carolina, Penſilvania, New York, and New England, are productive of many of the ſame commoditities with which our other continent and iſland colonies are ſupplied from their mother-country; yet they greatly contribute to that general intereſt of trade which reſults from all our American plantations; whereby we export to thoſe colonies goods to the value of about 850,000 l. a year, and import from thence to the value of 2,600,000 l. a year, gaining about 1,750,000 l. upon the balance, which remains in the hands of the people of Great Britain.

The Britiſh colonies in America are of great extent, and contain near a million and half of white inhabitants: they have ſtruggled through many impediments from their firſt eſtabliſhment under Sir Walter Raleigh; and therefore they ſhould be now carefully encouraged in their different branches of trade, and protected from all their neighbouring enemies, eſpecially the French, who of late years have become extremely potent in America. The ſugar, rum, cotton, and ginger of our iſland colonies, are important articles of trade; ſo are the tobacco, rice, and furs, of our plantations on the continent, as well as the Newfoundland fiſhery: beſides, our northern colonies may in time ſupply us with all kinds of naval ſtores, iron, and pot-aſhes; while our iſlands may be made to afford indico, cochineal, and cocoa, as well as ſilk, both here and in the ſouthern colonies on the continent; all of which greatly increaſe the maritime ſtrength of Great Britain, as they employ near 2000 ſhips, and are a continual nurſery for ſeamen.

From theſe conſiderations, the Britiſh colonies ought to be the principal care of the Britiſh government, eſpecially as the French are become our rivals in the ſugar-trade, are now ſupplanting us in the fur-trade, have long ſince excelled

ɛlled us in the cod-fiſhery, and perhaps may endeavour o make their Canada rival our Virginia in tobacco. But for a more particular account of the eſtabliſhments, trade, and intereſt, of the Britiſh colonies, ſee *Plantations*; as alſo Britiſh America under *Great Britain*, French America under *France*, and Spaniſh America under *Spain*.

COLOPHONY. A reſinous ſubſtance, prepared of turpentine, by boiling it in water till cold, when it becomes of a hard conſiſtence. See *Turpentine*.

The chief uſe of this drug is for the cure of venereal diſorders, and ſeminal imbecilities; when apothecaries make it into pills, which they roll in liquorice-powder, or cover over with gold leaf, and call them *turpentine pills*.

The common colophony, or black reſin, is ſaid to be procured from the turpentine of the mountain-pine; the oil whereof being drained from it by diſtillation, what remains in the ſtill is the colophony; which, to be good, muſt be ſhining and odoriferous; and, when thrown on the fire, ſhould render a ſmoke like that of frank-incenſe.

Colophony took its name from Colophon, a city of Ionia, from whence it was firſt brought; but it is frequently called Spaniſh wax, or Grecian reſin, being brought from Greece and Spain; it is found to warm, dry, ſoften, and agglutinate; it uſually enters the compoſition of plaiſters and unguents; though it is alſo uſed by muſicians to rub the hairs of their bow for the violin.

COLOQUINTIDA, or *Colocynthis*, uſually called bitter apple, is the fruit of a plant of the ſame name brought from the Levant, about the bigneſs of a large orange; its colour being a ſort of golden brown, and its inſide full of kernels, to be taken out before uſe; but both the ſeed and pulp are intolerably bitter. It is of conſiderable uſe in medicine, but moſtly in officinal compoſitions; the violence of its operation rendering it unſafe to be given inwardly in extemporaneous preſcriptions, except with great caution.

COLOUR, in dying. There are five ſimple, primary, or mother colours uſed by the dyers; from the mixture whereof all the other colours are formed; which are blue, red, yellow, brown, and black.

Of theſe colours, variouſly mixed and combined, they form the following colours: panſy, blue and red: from the mixture of blue and ſcarlet, are formed amaranth, violet, and panſy: from the ſame mixture of blue and crimſon, are formed the columbine, or dove-colour, purple, crimſon, amaranth, panſy, and crimſon-violet; but it may be obſerved that they give the name crimſon to all colours made with cochineal: of blue and red madder, they likewiſe make purple, pepper colour, tan-colour, and dry roſe: blue and half red crimſon compoſe amaranth, tan-colour, a dry roſe, a brown panſy, and ſurbrun.

Blue and yellow. Theſe two colours mixed together, compoſe a yellow green, ſpring-green, graſs-green, laurel-green, brown-green, dark-green, ſea-green, parrot-green, and cabbage-green; which three laſt colours ought to be leſs boiled than the firſt. With regard to green, there is no ingredient, or drug in nature that will dye it; but the ſtuffs are dyed twice, firſt in blue, then yellow.

Blue and brown. Theſe two colours are never mixed alone; but with the addition of red, either of madder or cochineal, they form ſeveral colours.

Red and yellow. All the ſhades compoſed of theſe two colours, as gold-yellow, aurora, marigold, orange, nacarat, granat-flower, flame-colour, and the reſt, are made with yellow, and red of madder; ſcarlet being leſs proper, as well as too dear.

Red and brown. Of theſe two colours are formed cinnamon-colour, cheſnut, muſk, bear's-hair, and even purple, if the red be that of madder.

Yellow and brown. The colours formed from theſe two are all the ſhades of feuille-morts, and hair-colours: but though it is ſaid there are no colours, or ſhades, made from ſuch and ſuch mixtures, it is not that none can be made, but only that they are more eaſily formed from the mixture of other colours. See *Dying*.

COLOUR, in painting, is applied both to the drugs, and to the tints produced by thoſe drugs, variouſly mixed and applied.

The principal colours uſed by painters, are red and white lead, or ceruſs; yellow ochres, ſeveral kinds of earth, as umber, and the like; orpiment, black lead, cinnabar, gumbooch, lake, vice, verdeter, indico, vermillion, verdigreaſe, ivory, black biſtre, lamp-black, ultramarine, and carmine.

Of which colours, ſome are uſed ground in oil, others only in freſco, others in water, and others for miniature.

Dark and light colours. Under theſe two claſſes the painters reduce all the colours they uſe: under light colours are comprehended white, and all thoſe which approach neareſt it; and under dark colours black, and all thoſe which are obſcure and earthy, as umber, biſtre, and ſuch like.

Simple and mineral colours, is another diviſion among the painters: under ſimple colours they range all thoſe uſed by limners, illuminers, and the like, extracted from vegetables, and which will not bear the fire; as the yellow made of ſaffron, of French berries, lacca, and other tinctures extracted from flowers. The reſt are minerals, drawn from metals, and able to bear the fire, which are uſed chiefly in enamelling.

COLOURING *of ſtrangers goods*, is when a freeman allows a foreigner to enter goods at the cuſtom-houſe in his name. See *Alien*.

COLOURING, and *non-colouring drugs*, are diſtinctions made by dyers among their materials.

The firſt are applicative, and communicate their colours to the matters boiled in them, or paſſed through them; as woad, ſcarlet, grain, cochineal, indico, madder, turmeric, and others.

The other ſerve to prepare and diſpoſe the ſtuff, and other matters; as alſo to extract the colour out of the colouring ingredients; as allum, ſalt, or cryſtal of tartar, arſenic, realgal, ſalt petre, common ſalt, ſal armoniac, ſal gemmæ, agaric, ſpirit of wine, bran, peaſe, flour, wheat, ſtarch, lime, and aſhes. See *Dying*.

COLOURS, at ſea, are flags, or enſigns, on board a ſhip or fleet; each nation having its particulars colours. See *Flag*.

COLT. A young horſe, mare, aſs, or mule.

COLUMBO. A ſea port-town on the S. W. coaſt of the iſland of Ceylon, ſituated in 78 deg. of E. lon. and 7 deg. of N. lat. ſubject to the Dutch. See *Ceylon iſlands*.

COLUMNS, in accompts, are the ſeveral diviſions thereof in the ſame page.

COLURI. A little iſland in the gulph of Engia, in the Egean ſea, ſituated in 24 deg. of E. lon and 38 deg. of N. lat. being ſeparated from the continent by a ſtrait about a mile over, and ſubject to Turky.

COMASSES. Small coins, current at Mocha in Arabia, which are more or leſs in value, according to the neceſſities of the ſtate.

COMB. An inſtrument for diſentangling, adjuſting, and clearing hair, flax, or wool.

Combs are made of ſeveral materials, and of different faſhions; ſome of which are of box, ivory, and tortoiſe-ſhell; there are likewiſe lead combs; as alſo combs made of bones dug out of the ground in ſeveral parts of Muſcovy, which are not in the leaſt inferior to thoſe of ivory.

COMB-*makers company of London*, is a ſociety incorporated by letters-patent of Charles I. dated the 4th of April 1636, by the title of The maſter, wardens, and fellowſhip of the comb-makers of London; conſiſting of a maſter, 2 wardens, and 13 aſſiſtants; but they have neither hall nor livery.

Combing of wool, in trade, is the drawing or paſſing it acroſs the teeth of a kind of card, or comb, to diſpoſe it for ſpinning.

COME. The ſmall fibres, or tails of malt, on its firſt ſhooting forth.

COMFITS. Such ſweet meats, or confections, as are preſerved dry.

COMMANA. A port-town, ſituated in 64 deg. 30 min. of W lon. and 10 deg. 10 min. of N. lat. on the coaſt of the Caraccas, in South America. See *Spaniſh America*.

COMMANDANT. The governor, or commanding officer, of a ſea-port, or port-town.

COMMANDER, is a term differently applied at ſea; as the commander in chief, or admiral, or commodore, of a fleet of men of war, or the captain of a man of war, or privateer. But the term of commander is alſo applied to captains of merchant-ſhips, or veſſels, who have the chief command of the ſhip, and direction of the cargo. See *Captain*.

COMMERCE. The exchange of commodities, or the buying, ſelling, or trafficking of merchandiſe, money, or even paper, for the acquiſition of profit.

As the opulence and potency of every ſtate are dependant on the induſtry of the people, and the extenſion or compaſs of their foreign trade by a continual exchange of all kinds of commodities, it is demonſtrable, from the experience of every man, that buſineſs of this nature cannot be proſecuted, without a due proportion of ſome medium, to be univerſally received among mankind, as the certain meaſure and permanent value of every periſhable commodity they have occaſion to deal in; whereby each individual is enabled to preſerve from decay, and increaſe his own particular ſhare of property and wealth. For this purpoſe, all the civiliſed nations in the world have agreed to put an eſtimate on ſuch goods as they have occaſion to exchange in trade, equal to ſome portion of ſilver or gold of a certain determined fineneſs, which is called the value of the commodity; becauſe it is thereby rendered capable of being every moment compared with all other commodities of any ſpecies or denomination, when their values in like manner come to be reduced to the ſame ſtandard of gold and ſilver; ſo that, when merchants barter and exchange one ſort of goods for another, they complete the bargain according to their reſpective values in money; and when there happens to be any difference, the ballance is paid to the owner in caſh; which, in a trading country, makes it abſolutely neceſſary, that every dealer be conſtantly provided with ſuch a proportion of caſh as is requiſite to tranſact and finiſh ſuch affairs as are continually in a fluctuating uncertain market, where the mercantile profit is dependent on a judicious and nimble exchange of periſhable goods; becauſe frequently he cannot diſpoſe of them without the aſſiſtance of ready money to accommodate the wants of other people, and force the exchange neceſſary to preſerve and meliorate the condition of his eſtate, which is the principal end of all trade.

It is an indubitable fact, that the antiquity of commerce is almoſt coeval with the world: neceſſity was its parent, the deſire of conveniency improved it; while vanity, luxury, and avarice, have brought it to its preſent maturity. At firſt, it only conſiſted in the exchange of things neceſſary for life; the plowman gave his corn, and his pulſe, to the ſhepherd; who returned milk and wool in exchange; which method of commerce is ſtill ſubſiſting in ſeveral places; particularly about the coaſts of Siberia, and the Daniſh and Muſcovite Lapland, among ſeveral nations on the coaſts of Africa, among moſt of thoſe of America, and many of Aſia. See *Coin*, and *Money*.

It is not preciſely known when the commerce by buying and ſelling began; nor when coins, and the ſeveral ſpecies of gold, ſilver, and copper, had their riſe. The firſt monies were wood, leather, or iron; and, even at this day, it is the cuſtom in ſome places of both Indies, to give a certain value in ſea-ſhells and cocoa-nuts, for merchandiſes. The firſt inſtance of this kind of commerce in the ſacred writings, is in the time of the patriarch Abraham. Profane authors uſually fix its epocha to the reign of Saturn and Janus in Italy; and the antient authors, according to Cæſar, attribute its invention to the god Mercury. However, the Egyptians, Phœnicians, and Carthaginians, who were a Tyrian colony, were the firſt, the moſt daring, and moſt experienced traders of all antiquity; at leaſt, it is evident they were the firſt who undertook long and hazardous voyages, and eſtabliſhed a traffic by ſea between coaſts very remote.

Among the antients, commerce did not appear unworthy the applications of perſons of the firſt rank; for Solomon frequently joined his merchant-fleets with thoſe of the King of Tyre, for their voyage to Ophir, and by this means rendered himſelf, though in a little kingdom, the richeſt ſovereign in the univerſe. Under the Aſiatic and Grecian empires, antient hiſtory conveys, from time to time, the traces of a commerce cultivated by ſeveral nations: but it flouriſhed more conſiderably under the dominion of the Romans; which is apparent from the great number of colleges and companies of merchants in the ſeveral cities mentioned in hiſtorians, and antient inſcriptions.

The deſtruction of the Roman empire by the irruptions of the Barbarians, occaſioned the declenſion of commerce, for ſome time ſuſpending its ordinary operation; till, by degrees, it began to recover itſelf, and made a new progreſs, eſpecially in Italy; where the Piſans, Florentines, Genoeſe, and Venetians, who abounded in ſhipping, took occaſion to ſpread themſelves through all the ports of the Levant and Egypt; bringing from thence ſilk, ſpices, and other merchandiſes, with which they furniſhed the greateſt part of Europe: and thus was the modern commerce founded on the ruins of that of the antient Greeks and Romans to the ſame places; by which thoſe famous Italian republics acquired their luſtre and potency.

The Germans, however, had a long time carried on a ſeparate commerce; which, as it was independent of the Romans, ſtill exiſted when theirs was aboliſhed. Towards the end of the twelfth century, the German cities ſituated on the coaſt of the Baltic, and the rivers diſemboguing themſelves into that ſea, had a conſiderable traffic with the neighbouring ſtates; but as their commerce was much interrupted by pirates, 72 of theſe cities united together for their mutual defence, and were thence called hanſeatic, or hans towns, who flouriſhed till the end of the fifteenth century; when a diviſion ariſing among them, the antient Italian and hanſeatic commerce ſunk; which was the more ſpeedily fruſtrated on the diſcovery of a new paſſage to the Eaſt Indies by the Portugueſe, and the ſettlements made on the coaſts of Africa, Arabia, and the Indies; by which means the principal trade came into the hands of the Portugueſe.

The crown of Portugal, being ſubjected to Spain, had not poſſeſſed thoſe different trades above 100 years, when, about the beginning of the 17th century, the Dutch, who had revolted from the Spaniards, began to participate that valuable branch of commerce; and, in a little time, almoſt excluded the Portugueſe from the whole; ſince which time, the Engliſh, French, Danes, Swedes, and Hamburghers, excited by the ſucceſs of the Hollanders, have likewiſe made ſettlements in the Indies, and on the coaſts of Africa; though much leſs conſiderable ones, excepting thoſe of the Engliſh and French.

Laſtly, America, diſcovered by the Spaniards ſoon after the Portugueſe had eſtabliſhed themſelves in the Eaſt Indies, likewiſe became the object of a new, vaſt, and important commerce, for all the nations of Europe, whereof Cadiz and Seville were made the centre. It is true, the firſt conquerors of this new world ſtill poſſeſs the moſt extenſive and opulent parts of it, preſerving their commerce there entirely to themſelves, with extraordinary jealouſy: yet, beſides that the Engliſh, French, Portugueſe, and Dutch, have ſeveral rich and flouriſhing colonies, both in the iſlands and on the continent; it is certain that other nations receive the moſt conſiderable part of the Mexican and Peruvian treaſures, annually conveyed to Europe by the Spaniſh flotas.

The trade of Europe ſuffered no diminution by this new one to America, the north and ſouth having ſtill the ſame occaſion for each other as before. The navigation from the Baltic to the Mediterranean was tedious and difficult: the ſituation of Flanders, and the manufactures which flouriſhed there from the 10th century, together with the free fairs of that country, engaged the merchants, both of the north and ſouth, to eſtabliſh their magazines firſt in Bruges, and then at Antwerp: but the eſtabliſhment of the United Provinces, the favourable reception that republic gave to ſtrangers, and the refuge it afforded to religionaries, drew numbers of manufacturers there, as well as ſtores of manufactures, which ſoon ſunk the commerce of Antwerp; and, for the ſame reaſons, together with the convenience and multitude of the ports of England, the goodneſs of the wool, and the induſtry of the workmen,

a conſiderable part of the European commerce is centered in the Britiſh dominions.

In general, commerce is a profeſſion not leſs honourable than uſeful; and even the French, who ſtick at ſo many punctilios in point of birth, think that commerce derogates nothing from nobility.

The Engliſh very prudently allow the younger ſons of the moſt illuſtrious houſes to enrich themſelves by all ſorts of lawful commerce, for the upholding of a title which would otherwiſe become burdenſome; and a neighbouring nation, more knowing as it thinks in the point of honour, but leſs intelligent in its real intereſt, has often perceived the effects of this inconveniency.

It may be alſo added, to the honour of commerce, that ſome Italian princes look upon themſelves as the principal traders of their ſtates, not diſdaining to uſe their own palaces as ware-houſes for the richeſt manufactures; and even ſeveral Kings of Aſia, as alſo the greater part of thoſe who command on the coaſt of Africa, promote a trade with Europeans, either by their commiſſioners, or themſelves.

Commerce, according to its preſent eſtabliſhment, is divided into commerce by land, and by ſea; which have alſo the further diſtinctions of long voyages and ſhort; inland or domeſtic, and foreign; as alſo wholeſale and retail.

Commerce by land, is that which is carried on from town to town, from province to province, or from kingdom to kingdom, by carts, waggons, and other vehicles; or upon the backs of horſes, mules, camels, and ſuch like animals; or in boats, and barges in rivers, lakes, pools, and canals; or, in northern countries, upon the ice, or thro' ſnows, by rein-deer; or laſtly, in the eaſt, by caravans.

Commerce by ſea, is that which is carried on in all the parts of the world, where ſhips may arrive by ſea, either in the ocean, or Mediterranean, or in particular ſeas; which, however, are but parts of the ocean; ſuch are the Red ſea, the White ſea, the Black ſea, the Baltic, the Frozen ſea, and others.

Commerce of long and ſhort voyages, explain ſufficiently their own nature; ſo alſo does that of domeſtic and foreign.

Commerce by wholeſale, is that when merchandiſes are ſold only in cheſts, bales, or at leaſt in entire pieces.

Commerce by retail, is that when merchandiſes are ſold in ſhops, or even in warehouſes, by the ell, the yard, the pound, the buſhel, the gallon, or their diminutions, purſuant to the different ſpecies, and qualities of things traded in.

Commerce of money, is that of bankers, or merchants, who remit money to diſtant places, in conſequence of ready money received; in lieu whereof, they give a writing, ſigned by them, called a bill of exchange, drawn upon their correſpondents in the ſeveral commercial towns of Europe; that the ſum received ſhould be paid to the bearer of the bill, a deduction being nevertheleſs made of the exchanges, rechanges, or other bank fees.

There is another ſort of money-commerce, prohibited by divine and human laws, called *uſury*; which, without alienating the fund, is lent upon exorbitant intereſt.

Commerce of paper, is that which is carried on without any current ſpecie, in notes, bills of exchange, ſubſcriptions, ordonances, bank-bills, aſſignations, ſhares, or actions of companies, or other ſuch like papers, which the debtor cedes to his creditor, and the creditor conſents to receive willingly, and without loſs, for the payment of what is due to him.

Precarious commerce, is that carried on by two nations at war with each other, by the means of a third which is neuter: thus the Engliſh trade with the Spaniards, when engaged in a war with each other, by the interpoſition of the Portugueſe, if neuters: but this kind of commerce is not very advantageous, upon account of the number of correſpondents, and ſtaples neceſſary to uphold it, which are very expenſive, and conſume moſt of the profits.

All commerce is founded upon the wants, natural or artificial, real or imaginary, which the people of different countries, or the different claſſes of inhabitants of the ſame country, are deſirous, in defect of their own ſingle abilities, to ſupply by mutual intercourſe; and if this commerce be carried on between the inhabitants of the ſame country, with the growth or manufacture of that country only, it is called *home conſumption*; which is ſo far ſerviceable, as it preſerves the ſeveral profeſſions and ſtations of life in their due order; or as it promotes arts and ſciences, with a rotation of induſtry, wealth, and mutual good offices between the members of any community: therefore traffic merely of this kind, is of great importance, though it neither increaſes nor diminiſhes the public ſtock of national treaſure. But providence having intended that there ſhould be a mutual dependence and connection between mankind in general, it is almoſt impoſſible for any particular people to live with tolerable comfort, and in a civiliſed ſtate, independent of all their neighbours: beſides, it is natural for men to extend their views and their wiſhes beyond the limits of a ſingle community, and to be deſirous of enjoying the produce or manufactures of other countries, which they muſt purchaſe by ſome exchange; and this intercourſe with other nations is called *foreign trade*; the whole ſcience of which conſiſts in bringing the ballance of trade in favour of any particular nation. See *Ballance of trade*.

It is notorious, that without an extenſive and profitable commerce, there are not to be found either in monarchies, kingdoms, or republics, a country well peopled, plenty, or ſplendour; nor armies, fleets, or fortreſſes, to protect and render them conſiderable: nor can an extenſive and profitable commerce ſubſiſt, without the concurrence of many good manufactures of ſilk and wool in particular: nor, in moſt countries, can ſuch manufactories be ſet on foot, and preſerved, unleſs favoured by indulgencies and exemptions from duties; at leaſt upon ſome of the eatables conſumed by the working hands, and the materials employed in woven and other commodities, as well as in the ſale of them: to all theſe muſt be added, a well-adjuſted book of rates for the duties upon exports and imports; and, unleſs theſe prudent regulations are made, no nation can experience the neceſſary vent at home and abroad. Commerce is the only thing that can draw gold and ſilver, the main ſprings of action, into any ſtate; which is ſo glaring a truth, that Spain, in whoſe dominions theſe are found in plenty, is in great want of both, from having ſlighted traffic and manufactories; the mines of America being ſcarce ſufficient to pay for the merchandiſe and commodities which other European nations carry to Spain: and, from theſe conſiderations, all commercial governments have granted ſalutary privileges and encouragements to the mercantile and manufacturing parts of the community: becauſe the return of commerce is riches and plenty, which fortifies countries with ſtrength and reputation. See *Treaty* for the ſeveral regulations ſubſiſting between Great Britain and other European powers for the ſecurity and encouragement of commerce. See alſo *Merchant*, *Navigation*, and *Trade*.

COMMISSION, the authority, or power, whereby one perſon tranſacts buſineſs for, or under another. In trade, it ſometimes means this power of acting for another; and ſometimes the premium or reward that a perſon receives for ſo doing, which is $\frac{1}{2}$, 1, 2, 3, or more *per cent.* according to the nature or circumſtance of the affair. See *Broker*, and *Factor*.

COMMISSION *of Bankruptcy*, is a commiſſion under the great ſeal, directed to five or more commiſſioners, to inquire into the particulars of the circumſtances of a perſon who hath failed, or broke, in trade; and to act according to certain ſtatutes made in that behalf. See *Bankrupt*.

COMMISSIONER, he who has a commiſſion; that is, a patent, or other legal warrant, to execute any public office: ſuch as the commiſſioners of the admiralty, treaſury, trade and plantations, cuſtoms, exciſe, navy, victualing office, ſtamps, wine-licences, bankrupts, and hawkers and pedlars. It is alſo uſed for ſuch perſons as are authoriſed by princes, or ſtates, to ſettle any conteſted matters of a public nature: and it is likewiſe privately uſed among merchants for their factor. See *Factor*.

COMMITTEE, in trade, a ſelect number of perſons, to whom any buſineſs or matter is referred, by any particular company,

company, or body of merchants, to inquire into, order, or manage, and report the ſtate thereof to the proprietors, or others empowered to receive the ſame.

COMMODE. A particular ſort of fine head-dreſs for women.

COMMODITIES, uſed as merchandizes by merchants and traders, may properly be diſtinguiſhed into two kinds, being either natural or artificial.

Natural commodities are ſuch as the earth, or animal creation, naturally produce of themſelves, either with or without the labour and induſtry of man: of which kinds are wines, oils, cottons, wools, fruit, grain, raw ſilk, ſpices, drugs, gems, gold, ſilver, and other ſubſtances.

Artificial commodities, are ſuch as are either wrought, or perfected by art or myſtery; of which kind are all fabrics of woollen, linnen, ſilk, and all handicraft utenſils, as well as other goods from their different manufactures.

Theſe natural and artificial commodities may be again diſtinguiſhed into two other ſorts; which are either ſuch as are ſtaple, and laſting commodities, or impairing and periſhable ones: the former being ſuch as continue in their true ſtate, and primitive condition of goodneſs; as gems and metals: the latter being ſuch as are either ſubject to leakage or corruption; as corn, wines, oils, fruits, and fiſh.

To underſtand the different natures, and real qualities, of theſe commodities, requires all the exertion of human ſagacity: the eye, above all the other ſenſes, claims a particular intereſt and prerogative in this diſtinction; for ſeveral things are frequently found ſaleable only on their agreeable appearance to the ſight; which in colours muſt be the ruling principle: other commodities require the ſenſe of feeling for an aſſiſtant to the eye; as where the hand is of neceſſity to be employed in cloth, and ſuch commodities: ſome require the ſenſe of hearing, as where the ear gives aſſiſtance to the eye in metals and minerals: ſome alſo require the ſenſe of ſmelling; as in drugs and perfumes: and, laſtly, ſome have a neceſſity for the ſenſe of taſting; as ſpices, wines, and oils.

A thorough diſtinction of theſe commodities is only acquired by experience, the true mother of knowledge; which is to be obtained by frequently viewing, and carefully examining the qualities and properties of theſe commodities; eſpecially of the beſt and principal ſort: for which purpoſe it is neceſſary to procure, and keep, patterns and ſamples; thereby imprinting the very idea in the mind, that, at the ſight of any thing ſimilar, the ſame may be inſtantly diſcerned: beſides, the ſooner to obtain this knowledge, a perſon muſt be very inquiſitive with men of experience, capable of inſtructing him in the neceſſary commodities; to learn from ſuch what are the principal obſervations requiſite thereto, either in their colours, goodneſs, ſubſtance, virtue, taſte, ſight, or feeling; of which it will be highly material to take proper memorandums; as alſo of their prices, marks, and charges.

COMMODORE, in the navy, an under-admiral, or a captain commiſſioned by an admiral, to command a ſquadron of ſhips in chief.

COMMON-STOCK *of a company*, in trade, ſignifies the whole ſtock common to all.

COMMON *Council*, in a city or town, is a court or aſſembly, of the mayor, aldermen, and common council, wherein are made all by-laws relating to the corporation.

COMMUTATION, the bartering, or exchanging of one thing for another.

COMORIN-*Cape*, the moſt ſouthern promontory of the Hither India, lying in 76 deg. of E. lon. and 8 deg. of N. lat. north weſt of the iſland of Ceylon.

COMORRA, or *Gomorra Iſlands*, near the eaſtern coaſt of Africa, are four in number, called Johanna or Anjouan, Nangaſia, Majota, and Moelie, lying between the coaſt of Zanquebar, and the north end of the iſland of Madagaſcar, from 10 to 15 deg. of S. lat.

The iſland of Johanna is moſt frequented by Europeans, whoſe ſhips generally touch for refreſhment in their paſſage to Bombay, and the Malabarian coaſts of India: the iſland being 30 miles long, and 15 broad: beſides, the people, who are negroes of the Mahometan religion, are extremely hoſpitable, eſpecially to the Engliſh, and live under a monarchical form of government.

The other iſlands of Comorra are much about the ſame dimenſions, and inhabited by the ſame kind of people; producing rice, cocoa-nuts, as alſo roots; and affording fleſh proviſions for ſhipping.

COMPAN. A ſilver coin, current in ſome parts of the Eaſt Indies, worth about 4½ d. ſterling.

COMPANY. A collective term, underſtood of ſeveral perſons aſſembled together in the ſame place, or with the ſame deſign: but is more particularly adapted as a commercial term, ſignifying an aſſociation of ſeveral merchants, or others, united in one common intereſt, contributing by their ſtock, their council, and ſtudy, to the ſetting on foot, or ſupporting, of ſome commercial or lucrative eſtabliſhment.

Though company, and ſociety, or fellowſhip, are, in effect, the ſame thing, yet cuſtom has made a difference between them; ſociety, or partnerſhip, being underſtood of two or three dealers, or not many more, and company of a greater number.

A ſecond difference between companies and partnerſhips is, that the firſt, eſpecially when they have excluſive privileges, cannot be eſtabliſhed without the conceſſion of the prince or ſtate, and require letters-patent, charters, or other public inſtruments, for their formation: whereas it is ſufficient, in partnerſhips, to have the conſent of the members fixed, certified by acts and contracts, and authoriſed by by-laws.

Laſtly, the word company ſeems more peculiarly appropriated to thoſe grand aſſociations, ſet on foot by ſeveral nations, for the commerce of the remote parts of the world; as the ſeveral Eaſt India companies, and Weſt India companies, African companies, Turky companies, South Sea companies, Ruſſia companies, North companies, and Fiſhery companies; as alſo of ſome other inferior bodies, as the merchant-adventurers, Hamburgh company, Eaſtland company, Aſſiento company, Miſſiſippi company, Baſtion company of France, and Iceland company of Denmark; as likewiſe of ſeveral more particular incorporations in England, abſtracted from any commercial intereſt; ſuch as the bank of England, the different inſurance offices, companies for carrying on waterworks, charitable corporation, copper company, lead company, mine company, and river Dee company; as alſo the ſeveral companies of guilds of the city of London: all of which are particularly explained under their reſpective heads.

It has been aſſerted, that public companies, and corporate charters, with excluſive privileges of trade, are the bane and deſtruction of a free commerce; becauſe they are abſolute monopolies: but many ſpecious reaſons have been alſo offered in favour of excluſive companies, which therefore ſeem to require ſome examination.

There are caſes that render an aſſociation, and joint ſtock, of ſeveral wealthy merchants, convenient and neceſſary, to ſettle and proſecute a commerce to advantage; when, for inſtance, their king has no ſovereignty in diſtant countries, where the traffic is to be; nor men of war, or other means, to convoy the merchant ſhips; or he does not think proper to employ his armaments in remote expeditions, and in favour of a trade ſo far off and hazardous: in theſe circumſtances, it is uſually apprehended neceſſary for a certain number of merchants to unite, and raiſe a common fund, to enable them to purchaſe, or build ſhips; to man, victual, and fit them out; to levy troops, and pay them; to purchaſe the proper commodities for the trade; to ſettle colonies by carrying out families; to fortify and ſupply them with ammunition and ſtores; and for other large diſburſements, which cannot be provided for without the opulent funds of ſuch companies.

That ample powers, and moſt extenſive privileges, were, and ſtill are, requiſite to cheriſh, and preſerve the flouriſhing branch of trade belonging to the Dutch Eaſt India company, muſt be readily conceded to; becauſe the proprietors juſtly merited them by their vigilance, fatigue, and expence, in conquering and preſerving all the countries they poſſeſs in thoſe parts of Aſia where their ſettlements are eſtabliſhed; and their fortreſſes on the coaſt of Africa, for

for refreſhment, refitting, and protection of their ſhips. But ſuch extraordinary powers, indulgences, and privileges, though neceſſary for the ſupport of ſo rich a vein of commerce, could not, without great inconvenience, be diſpenſed in monarchies, and other great kingdoms, where companies ſhould be eſtabliſhed with an excluſive right of trade in thoſe provinces, which their ſovereigns and lawful maſters are in peaceable poſſeſſion of: for the ſcheme of ſetting theſe up, with power or permiſſion to plant colonies, and carry on trade in foreign parts, as the Dutch Eaſt India company projected and ſucceeded in, raiſing itſelf upon the ſpoils of the Portugueſe, and afterwards at the expence of the Engliſh, might be attended with great danger and inconvenience; eſpecially if the trade projected on this plan, ſhould prove ſo extenſive as to raiſe the jealouſy of other powers. To theſe may be added other conſiderations, that credit has ſuffered much from theſe commercial aſſociations in many parts of Europe; particularly the Miſſiſippi company in France, and the South Sea company in England: for as both theſe were raiſed to an exceſſive and vain height of expectation by the weakneſs of many, the blind avarice of ſome, and the ſubtile villainy of others, they terminated in a tragedy, that cauſed the clamours, impoveriſhment, and ruin of many, with a deſpair that brought others to a fatal end. Several other companies, of an inferior degree, and leſs character, have alſo miſcarried, eſpecially in England and France, either for want of a ſufficient capital, or becauſe the directors, agents, and other dependents, abuſed the truſt repoſed in them; from whence enſued the ruin of above 30 companies formed in France at ſeveral times, in different provinces, and upon various plans.

The Engliſh, French, Portugueſe, and Dutch, have their reſpective trading companies to Aſia, Africa, and America; but the Spaniards have hitherto eſtabliſhed no ſuch companies; becauſe his moſt Catholic Majeſty employs his maritime force to convoy, and protect, the trade of his ſubjects, in flotas, and galeons, to America, and the Philippine iſlands in the Eaſt Indies; where, from the number and conveniency of the ports, they find reception, ſecurity, and all other encouragements they could deſire, without any expence: ſo that the capital motives for an eſtabliſhment of companies are wanting in Spain, for the navigation and commerce of the Weſt Indies; and the Spaniſh miniſtry have only thought it adviſeable to allow an aſſociation of merchants, diſpoſed to ſettle a navigation, and a limited traffic to the Eaſt Indies, along the coaſts of Africa and Aſia, by means of the Philippine iſlands, at their own charge, and without any riſk to the royal armaments, or treaſury, in a navigation ſo diſtant, and an undertaking ſo precarious; for which a plan had been projected by ſome Spaniſh merchants, though never carried into execution.

It is alſo to be obſerved, that the principal commerce of the French is conducted at the ſole riſk and charge of private perſons; as are alſo many conſiderable branches of the Dutch trade, and not by companies, eſpecially with Spain, France, Germany, England, and other parts of Europe. It is the ſame with the large commerce of the Dutch to the Levant, which has been obſerved to take in moſt of their Mediterranean trade, from the ſtreights of Gibraltar to the right and left, all along the coaſts of Africa and Europe, to thoſe of Aſia in Paleſtine, Syria, and Natolia, where they even trade very largely: for though moſt of their ſhips make theſe remote voyages, under convoy of ſhips of war to certain diſtances, and ſubject to the rules and direction of a chamber eſtabliſhed in Holland for this purpoſe, it is well known that every native or inhabitant of Holland poſſeſſes the privilege of embarking in this commerce at any time, of doing it at his own riſk, and withdrawing whenever it ſhall be convenient, or agreeable to him: and, in this reſpect, they are upon the very footing of the Spaniſh flota, which ſail always under the orders and inſtructions given to the commandant general; every perſon trades upon his own bottom and riſk, without being ſubject to any company; unleſs a few merchants aſſociate by choice for a ſingle voyage, and a determinate quantity of merchandiſe; which they ſometimes do for one or more regiſter ſhips, that ſail independent of the flotas and galeons; eſpecially thoſe that uſually trade to Buenos-Ayres, having firſt obtained a patent from his moſt Catholic Majeſty. See *Monopoly*.

COMPANY *of ſhips*, is uſed for a fleet of merchant veſſels, who make a kind of charter-party among themſelves, whereby, under ſeveral clauſes, and conditions, tending to their common ſafety, they engage not to quit one another, but to defend each other reciprocally during their voyage; though theſe aſſociates in the Mediterranean are called *conſerves*; the chief condition of the charter-party being, that ſuch and ſuch ſhall be owned admiral, vice-admiral, and rear admiral; that thoſe which bear no guns ſhall pay ſo much *per cent.* of their cargo, for the expences of the admiral and the others; that ſuch and ſuch ſignals ſhall be obſerved; and that, if they are attacked, the damages ſhall be reimburſed by the company in general.

COMPASS. The mariners, or nautical compaſs, is an inſtrument uſed by pilots to direct the courſe of their ſhips, conſiſting of a box, which includes a magnetical needle, that always turns to the north, excepting for a little declination, which is various in different places, and even at various times in the ſame place. In the middle of the box, a perpendicular pivot is fixed, which bears a card, or paſte-board, on whoſe upper ſurface are deſcribed ſeveral concentric circles, the outermoſt of which is divided into 360 deg. and the other into 32 points, anſwering to the 32 winds. In the center of this card is fitted a braſs cone, or cap, a little concave, which plays at liberty on the pivot; and along, in the thickneſs of the card, is fitted the needle, which is covered over with a glaſs, that its motions may be obſerved. The whole is encloſed in another box, where it is ſuſtained by braſs hoops to keep the needle horizontal.

The needle, which is, as it were, the ſoul of the compaſs, is made of a thin plate of ſteel, in form of a lozenge: the middle being cut out, ſo as to have nothing but the extremities and an axis in the middle, to which the cap is fitted. To animate, or touch it, it muſt be rubbed on a good loadſtone; the end intended for the north point, on the north pole of the ſtone; and that for the ſouth point on the ſouth pole: but, in rubbing it, care muſt be taken to begin firſt in the middle of the lozenge; drawing it gently to the acute angle of the lozenge intended for the north, never ſuffering it to ſtay at the end when arrived there, nor drawing it back again from the end to the middle; but rubbing it a ſecond, and even a third time, in the ſame manner as the firſt, only beginning a little further and further from the north point.

The invention of the compaſs is uſually aſcribed to Flavio de Melfi, or Flavio Gioia, a Neapolitan, about the year 1302: and hence it is, that the territory of Principato, which makes a part of the kingdom of Naples, where he was born, bears a compaſs for its arms.

Others ſay, that Marcus Paulus, a Venetian, making a journey to China, brought back the invention with him in 1260: and what confirms this conjecture is, that, at firſt, they uſed the compaſs in the ſame manner the Chineſe do now; that is, they let it float on a little piece of cork, inſtead of ſuſpending it on a pivot: it is added, that their emperor Chiningus, a celebrated aſtrologer, had the knowledge of it 1120 years before Chriſt; but the Chineſe divide their compaſs into 24 points only.

Fauchet relates ſome verſes of Guyot de Provence, who lived in France about the year 1200, which ſeem to make mention of the compaſs, under the name of *marinette*, or *mariner's ſtone*: from whence it is inferred, that it was uſed a hundred years before either the Melfite or Venetian: and the French even lay claim to the invention, from the flower de lis, wherewith all nations ſtill diſtinguiſh the north point of the card.

With as much reaſon Doctor Wallis aſcribes it to the Engliſh, from its name compaſs, whereby moſt nations call it, and which, he obſerves, is uſed in many parts of England to ſignify a circle.

The uſe of the compaſs is obvious: for the courſe a ſhip is to ſail in being known by the chart, and the compaſs ſo placed, as that the two parallel ſides of the ſquare box

be diſpoſed according to the length of the ſhip; that is, parallel to a line drawn from the head to the ſtern; the rudder is to be directed accordingly: ſo, if the courſe be found on the chart between the S. W. and S. S. W. that is ſouth-weſt ¼ to the ſouth; the ſtern muſt be turned ſo as that a line from the S. W. ¼ S. exactly anſwer the mark on the middle of the ſide of the box; which is all that is required. See *Sailing*, *Chart*, and *Navigation*.

Some conſiderations towards the Improvement of the mariners compaſs.

The diſcovery of the mariners compaſs has probably been of more general and important uſe to human ſociety, than the invention of any one inſtrument whatſoever: and yet ſo far have they been from ſtudying the improvement of it, that there would be no abſurdity in ſuppoſing, that the firſt which was made might be as much ſuperior to thoſe at preſent in common uſe, as the moſt improved inſtrument we have is ſuperior to its firſt contrivance.

Almoſt all the compaſſes, uſed on board merchant ſhips, have their needles formed of two pieces of ſteel wire, each of which is bent in the middle, ſo as to form an obtuſe angle; and their ends being applied to each other make an acute one: for if a number are examined, they will rarely, if ever, be all found in the ſame direction; but they will all vary more or leſs, not only with regard to the true direction, but from one another.

Theſe irregularities are owing to the ſtructure of the needle; for the wires of which it is compoſed are only hardened at the ends: now if theſe ends are not equally hard, or if one end be hardened up higher than the other, when they come to be put together, in fixing them to the card, that end which is hardeſt will deſtroy much of the virtue of the other; by which means the hardeſt end will have the moſt power in directing the card, and, conſequently, make it vary towards its own direction. And, as the wires are diſpoſed in the form of a lozenge, theſe cards can have but little force; ſo that they will often, when drawn aſide, ſtand at the diſtance of ſeveral degrees on either ſide the point from whence they are drawn; for all magnetical bodies receive an additional ſtrength by being placed in the direction of the earth's magnetiſm, and act proportionably leſs vigorouſly when turned. Wherefore, when theſe kind of needles are drawn aſide from their true point, two of the parallel ſides of the lozenge will conſpire, more directly than before, with the earth's magnetiſm, and the other two will be leſs in their direction; by which means the two firſt ſides will very much impede its return; and the two latter will have that impediment to overcome, as well as the friction, by their own force alone.

The needle uſed on board the men of war, and ſome of the larger trading ſhips, are made of one piece of ſteel, of a ſpring temper, being broad towards the ends, but tapering towards the middle, where a hole is made to receive the cap. At the ends they terminate in an angle, greater or leſs, according to the ſkill or fancy of the workman. Theſe needles, though infinitely preferable to the other, are, however, far from being perfect: for every needle, of this form, has ſix poles inſtead of two; one at each end, two where it becomes tapering, and two at the hole in the middle, which is owing to their ſhape; for, the needle part being very ſlender, it has not ſubſtance enough to conduct the magnetic ſtream quite through, from one end to the other; and all theſe poles appear very diſtinctly, when examined with a glaſs that is ſprinkled over with magnetic ſand. This circumſtance, however, does not hinder the needle from pointing true; but as it has leſs force to move the card, than when the magnetic ſtream moves in large curves from one end to the other, it is certainly an imperfection.

A needle that is quite ſtraight, and ſquare at the ends, has been found to have only two poles; but, about the hole in the middle, the curves are a little confuſed. Theſe, after vibrating a long time, will always point exactly in the ſame direction; and, if drawn ever ſo little on one ſide, will return to it again, without any ſenſible difference. It may therefore be concluded, that a regular parallelopiped is the beſt form for a needle, as well as the ſimpleſt; the holes for the caps being as ſmall as poſſible.

And, as the weight ſhould be removed to the greateſt diſtance from the centre of motion, a circle of braſs of the ſame diameter of the card may be added; as it will ſerve alſo to ſupport the card, which may then be made of thin paper, without any thing to ſtiffen it; ſo that this ring being fixed below the card, and the needle above it, the centre of gravity is placed low enough to admit of the cap being put under the needle, whereby the hole in the needle becomes unneceſſary.

By this means the mariners compaſs may be rendered as free as poſſible from error; as, by the following contrivance, it may be made to ſerve the purpoſes of an azimuth and amplitude compaſs in a manner preferable to any thing contrived.

To make the compaſs uſeful in taking the magnetic amplitude, or azimuth, of the ſun and ſtars, as alſo the bearings of the headlands, ſhips, and other objects at a diſtance; the braſs ring deſigned to ſupport the card, and throw the weight to the greateſt diſtance from the centre of motion, is divided into degrees and halfs, which may be eaſily eſtimated into ſmaller parts if neceſſary. The diviſions are determined by means of a cat-gut line, ſtretched perpendicularly with the box, as near the braſs edge as poſſible; that the parallax ariſing from the different poſition of the obſerver, may be very ſmall.

Underneath the card are two ſmall weights, ſliding on two wires, placed at right angles to each other, which, being moved nearer to, or farther from the centre, counterbalance the dipping of the card in different latitudes, or reſtore the equilibrium of it.

There is alſo added an index on the top of the inner box, which may be put on, or taken off, at pleaſure, and ſerves for all altitudes of objects, conſiſting of a bar, equal in length to the diameter of the inner box, each end being furniſhed with a perpendicular ſtyle, with a ſlit parallel to its ſides: one of the ſlits is narrow, to which the eye is applied; and the other is wider, with a ſmall cat-gut ſtretched up the middle of it, and from thence continued horizontally from the top of one ſtyle to the top of the other. There is alſo a line drawn along the upper ſurface of the bar; and theſe four, the narrow ſlit, the horizontal cat-gut thread, the perpendicular one, and the line on the bar, are in the ſame plane, which diſpoſes itſelf perpendicular to the horizon, when the inner box is at reſt, and hangs free: but this index does not move round, being always placed on ſo as to anſwer the ſame ſide of the box.

When the azimuth of the ſun is deſired, and the rays are not ſtrong enough to caſt a ſhadow, the wooden box ſhould be turned about, till the ſhadow of the horizontal thread; or, if the ſun be too low, till that of the perpendicular thread in one ſtyle, or the light through the ſlit in the other, falls upon the line on the index-bar, or vibrates to an equal diſtance on each ſide of it, gently touching the box, if it vibrates too far, obſerving, at the ſame time, the degree cut on the braſs edge by the cat-gut line. In counting the degree for the azimuth, or any other angle that is reckoned from the meridian, uſe ſhould be made of the outward circle of figures upon the braſs edge; and the ſituation of the index-bar, with regard to the card and needle, will always direct upon what quarter of the compaſs the object is placed.

From what has been ſaid, the other obſervations may be eaſily performed, only care muſt be taken, if the diſtance of the object from the eaſt or weſt be deſired, to reckon the degrees on the inner circle of the card, which are the compliments of the outer, to 90 degrees.

Azimuth COMPASS, differs from the mariners compaſs in this, that there is faſtened on the round box wherein the card is, a broad circle, one half whereof is divided into 90 degrees, and thoſe ſubdivided diagonally into minutes. There is a moveable index, having a ſight moving on a hinge. From the upper part of the ſight, to the middle of the index, is faſtened a fine hypotenuſal luteſtring, to give a ſhadow on a line in the middle of the index. The circle is croſſed at right angles with two threads, from the extremities whereof are drawn four lines on the inſide of the round box; and there are alſo four lines drawn at right angles to each other on the card.

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The uſe of the azimuth compaſs is for finding the ſun's magnetical azimuth, or amplitude; and thence the variation of the compaſs.

COMPASSES, or *Pair of Compaſſes*, a mathematical inſtrument, uſed for the deſcribing of circles, and meaſuring lines; of which there are ſeveral kinds and contrivances, accommodated to the various uſes they are intended for: but the firſt invention of compaſſes is aſcribed to Talaus, nephew of Dædalus.

COMPLEMENT, at ſea, ſo much as is wanting to compleat the number of men requiſite for the manning or navigation of the ſhip.

COMPLEMENT *of the courſe*, in navigation, is the number of points the courſe wants of 90 degrees, or eight points; that is, of a quarter of the compaſs. See *Courſe*.

COMPOSITION, or *Compounding*, in trade, is the contract between an inſolvent debtor and his creditor, whereby the latter agrees to accept a part of the debt in compenſation for the whole, and give a general acquittance accordingly.

COMPOST, in agriculture and gardening, a compound, or mixture, of earths, dungs, &c. applied by way of manure, for the meliorating and improving of ſoils, or aſſiſting the natural earth in vegetation.

COMPOSTELLA *New*, a city of North America, ſituated in 110 deg. of W. lon. and 21 deg. of N. lat. in the province of Mexico, and territory of Xaliſco, near the Pacific ocean. See *Spaniſh America*.

COMPOSTELLA. A large, elegant, trading city of the province of Galicia in Spain, ſituated in 9 deg. 15 min. of W. lon. and 43 deg. of N. lat. being 300 miles N. W. of Madrid, and 47 miles E. of Cape Finiſterre. See *Spain*.

COMPOUND, the reſult, or effect, of a compoſition of different things; particularly of medicines, being uſed in contradiſtinction to ſimple: thus apothecaries prepare ſeveral compounds in phyſic; as alſo compound fomentations, and compound waters.

COMPRINT, to make a piratical impreſſion of a copy, or book, contrary to the conſent or knowledge of the proprietor.

COMPROMISE, in trade, to bring a matter to arbitration, for reconciling any diſputes between traders, ſo as to prevent litigation, by leaving the matter to the reference and award of diſintereſted perſons.

COMPTING-HOUSE, or *Counting-houſe*, an office, room, or place, appointed to take in and ſettle the accompts of a merchant, or company.

COMPTROLLER. See *Controller*.

COMPUTATION, the manner of accompting and eſtimating time, weights, meaſures, and monies.

COMPUTER, or *Computiſt*. See *Accomptant*.

CONCEPTION. A city of Chili, in South America, ſituated in 79 deg. of W. lon. and 37 deg. of S. lat. having a good harbour, and ſubject to Spain. See *Spaniſh America*.

CONCEPTION, is alſo the capital of the province of Veragua, in Mexico, in North America, ſituated in 83 deg. of W. lon. and 10 deg. of N. lat. 100 miles W. of Porto Bello. See *Spaniſh America*.

CONCESSION, in point of commerce, ſignifies, in general, the extent of a country, wherein a company is permitted to eſtabliſh themſelves, or to trade excluſively of all others: but, in particular, it is ſaid of a country allotted to inhabitants for grubbing, cultivating, and planting.

CONCHI. A kind of cinnamon, brought from the Eaſt Indies, by the Red ſea, and making a part of the commerce of Cairo; where there are alſo two other ſorts ſold; the ceylani, which is the real cinnamon of the iſland of Ceylon; and the malabari, which is the grey cinnamon of the Portugueſe, ſold for leſs than the ceylani, and little eſteemed. See *Cinnamon*.

COND, *Con*, or *Conn*, in the ſea-language, ſignifies to conduct a ſhip in her right courſe; the perſon that conds her ſtanding aloft with a compaſs before him, who gives the word of direction to him at the helm how to ſteer. See *Courſe*, and *Steering*.

If the ſhip go before the wind, or, as mariners call it, betwixt the ſheats, the word is either *ſtarboard*, or *port the helm*, according as the conder would have the helm put to the right or left ſide of the ſhip; upon which the ſhip always goes the contrary way.

If he ſays, *helm amid ſhip*, he would have the ſhip go right before the wind, or directly between her two ſheats.

If the ſhip ſails by a wind, or on a quarter wind, the word is, *a loof*, *keep your luff*, *fall not off*, *veer no more*, *keep her to*, *touch the wind*, *have a care of the lee latch*: all which expreſſions are of the ſame import, implying that the ſteerſman ſhould keep the ſhip near the wind.

On the contrary, if he would have her ſail more large, or more before the wind, the word is, *eaſe the helm*, *no near*, or *bear up*.

If he cries *ſteady*, it means keep her from going in and out, or making yaws, as they call it, howſoever ſhe ſails, whether large or before a wind: and when he would have her go juſt as ſhe does, he cries, *keep her thus*, *thus*.

CONDECEDO *Cape*, lies in the province of Yucatan, in North America, in 93 deg. of W. lon. and 21 deg. of N. lat. 100 miles W. of Merida.

CONDERS, are perſons who ſtand on high places, near the ſea coaſt, during the ſeaſon of the herring-fiſhery, to make ſigns, with boughs, and other things, to the fiſhers, which way the ſhoal of herrings paſſes; their courſe being more diſcernable to thoſe who ſtand on high cliffs, by means of a blue colour they occaſion in the water, than to thoſe aboard the veſſels: but theſe conders are alſo called huers, balkers, and directors. See *Herring fiſhery*.

CONDORE, or *Pulo Condore*. A little iſland in the Indian ocean, ſituated in 106 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 9 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. being a fruitful country, with a commodious harbour; which induced the Engliſh Eaſt India company to make a ſettlement here, in 1702; but, not agreeing with the natives, moſt of their factors were murdered by the Cochin-chineſe, and the reſt were expelled from thence in 1705. See *Indian Iſlands*.

CONDORIN, or *Candarin*. A ſort of ſmall weight, uſed by the Chineſe, particularly thoſe of Canton, for weighing and ſelling ſilver, being about 12 Engliſh drams. It is alſo a coin worth about ¾ of a penny.

CONDURI, in the Malayeſe language, or *Loga* in that of Java, is a kind of bean, of a beautiful red, with a black ſpot on the ſide, growing in ſome parts of the Eaſt Indies, and uſed by the Javaneſe and Malayeſe, as a weight for gold and ſilver.

CONES, the fruit of the cypreſs tree. See *Cypreſs*.

CONFECTIONER. A perſon whoſe trade conſiſts in making confects or ſweet-meats.

CONFECTS, *Comfits*, or *Confectionaries*, a denomination given to fruits, flowers, herbs, roots, and juices, when boiled, and prepared with ſugar, or honey, to diſpoſe them to keep, or render them more agreeable to the taſte. The ancients only confected with honey; but ſugar is more frequently uſed at preſent, by which are produced liquid confects, marmalades, jellies, paſtes, dry confects, conſerves, candies, and dragees or ſugar plumbs.

Liquid confects are thoſe whoſe fruits, either whole, in pieces, in ſeeds, or in cluſters, are confected in a fluid tranſparent ſyrup, which takes its colour from that of the fruits boiled in it: there is a good deal of art in preparing theſe well; for if they are too little ſugared they turn; and if too much they candy: the moſt eſteemed of the liquid confects are plumbs, eſpecially thoſe called mirabels; as alſo berberies, quinces, apricots, cherries, orange-flowers, little green citrons from Madeira, green caſſia from the Levant, mirobalans, ginger, and cloves.

Marmalades are a kind of paſtes, half liquid, made of the pulp of fruits, or flowers, that have ſome conſiſtence; as apricots, apples, pears, plumbs, quinces, oranges, and ginger; the laſt of which is brought from the Indies by way of Holland, and is eſteemed good to revive the natural heat in old men.

Jellies, are juices of ſeveral fruits, wherein ſugar has been diſſolved, and the whole, by boiling, reduced into a pretty thick conſiſtence, which are made of various kinds of fruits, eſpecially gooſeberries, apples, currants, and quinces:

ces: however, there are other jellies, made of flesh, fish, and hartshorn; but they are not to be kept, being very subject to corrupt.

Pastes, are a kind of marmalades, thickened to that degree, by boiling, as to assume any form, when put into little molds and dried in the oven: the most in use are those of gooseberries, quinces, apples, apricots, and orange-flowers; those of pistachoes are much esteemed, and those of ginger are brought from the Indies.

Dry confects, are those whose fruits, after having been boiled in the syrup, are taken out again, drained, and put to dry in an oven; which are made of many kinds of fruits, particularly of citron and orange-peel, plumbs, pears, cherries, and apricots.

Conserves, are a kind of dry confects, made with sugar, and parts of flowers, or fruits; the most usual being those of betony, mallows, rosemary, capillary herbs, orange-flowers, violets, jessamin, pistachoes, citrons, and roses.

Candies, are ordinarily entire fruits candied over with sugar, after having been boiled in the syrup, which renders them like little rocks crystallized, of various figures and colours, according to the fruits inclosed within them; but the best sort are brought from Italy.

Sugar-plumbs, are a kind of little dry confects, made of small fruits or seeds, little pieces of bark, or odoriferous and aromatic roots, incrusted and covered over with a hard sugar, commonly very white; of which there are several kinds, distinguished by various names, some being made of rasberries, others of berberries, melon-seeds, pistachoes, filberds, or almonds; and others of cinnamon, orange-peel, corianders, aniseed, and carroways.

These confectionaries cause a great consumption of sugar, and give good encouragement to the sugar manufactures in most countries, especially in Genoa, Portugal, and such other places as supply the consumption of Spain in these commodities, which pays annually above a million of dollars, or 175,417 l. sterling, for sugar, conserves, and other confectionaries.

CONGO, is a division of the western coast of Africa, situated between 10 and 20 deg. of E. lon. and between the equator and 18 deg. of S. lat. comprehending the countries of Loango, Angola, and Benguella. See *Guinea*.

CONQUERNA, or *Conquee*. A port-town of Britanny in France, situated in 3 deg. 50 min. of W. lon. and 47 deg. 55 min. of N. lat. on the bay of Biscay. See *France*.

CONQUET. A little port-town of France, in the province of Britany, situated in 4 deg. 46 min. of W. lon. and 48 deg. 26 min. of N. lat. being 8 miles W. of Brest.

CONSERVE, in pharmacy and confectionary, a dry confect, or form of medicine or food, contrived to preserve the flowers, leaves, roots, peels, or fruits of several simples, as near as possible to what they were when fresh gathered, and to give them an agreeable taste. See *Confect*.

CONSERVANCY, or *Court of Lord Mayor of London*, for the conservation of the river Thames. See *Thames*, and *River*.

CONSIGNMENT, or *Consignation*, the depositing any sum of money, bills, papers, or commodities, in sure hands, either by order of a court of justice, in order to their being delivered to the persons they are adjudged to; or voluntarily, in order to their being remitted to the persons they belong to, or sent to the places they are destined for.

CONSIGNMENT *of goods*, is the delivering or making them over to another; and thus goods are said to be consigned to a factor, when they are sent to him to be sold; or when a factor sends back goods to his principal, they are said to be consigned to him. See *Factor*.

CONSTANCE *Lake*, or *Lake of Constance*, in the circle of Suabia in Germany, is 21 miles long, and 8 or 10 broad; having the river Rhine running through it, with a very violent current.

CONSTANT *winds*. See *Wind*.

CONSTANTINOPLE, the metropolis of the Turkish empire, and called by way of eminence the Porte, being one of the secureſt and most commodious harbours in Europe, situated in 29 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 4 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. See *Turky*.

CONSUL, was formerly a name given to the chief magistrates of the Roman commonwealth; but, at present, is used for an officer established, by virtue of a commission from a sovereign prince, or state, in the ports and factories of the Levant; as also on the coasts of Barbary, Portugal, Spain, Italy, and other foreign countries of any considerable trade. These commissions are seldom granted to persons under the age of 30 years: they are to keep up a correspondence with the ministers of their country residing in the courts where their consulates depend; their business being to support the commerce, and the interest of the nation; to dispose of the sums given, and the presents made, to the lords and principals of places; to obtain their protection, and prevent the insults of the natives on the merchants of the nation: but when the consulate is vacant, the most ancient of the deputies or factors of the nation are to discharge the function thereof, till the vacancy be filled up.

The consul ought to be a native of the country he represents, and not to have the permission of merchandising: because, in the first place, if they are strangers, they have in general too little regard for the nation to be entrusted with its interests; and, in the latter, they are appointed to be judges in many concerns of trade and navigation; as also to take care that captains, and other mariners, as well as traders, who are subjects, observe the orders and instructions of their sovereign; and, therefore, ought not to be judge and party, as they would be, if they were allowed to trade, or act as agents. From this inconsistence, and for no other reasons, Lewis XIV. of France gave repeated orders, in the year 1691, prohibiting all sorts of trade to the French consuls, their officers, domestics, and other dependants, directly or indirectly, under the penalty of losing their places, and a fine of 3000 livres.

The consuls are to call to the assemblies, which they shall hold for the affairs of commerce, all the merchants of their nation, captains, and patrons, upon the place; and, as to their jurisdictions, they are to act in conformity to the customs and treaties made with the princes where they reside; the French consuls are also to keep exact memoirs of the important office of their consulship, and send them once a year to the secretary of state who has the management of maritime affairs.

The principal consuls belonging to the British nation, are those of Lisbon in Portugal; Madrid, Cadiz, and Alicant, in Spain; Naples, and Leghorn, in Italy: the consulship of Lisbon is worth 2000 l. a year; but the vice-consulship of Madeira is now rendered independent of the consul at Lisbon, whose salary arises out of a duty charged on all the British commodities imported into the Portuguese dominions, which is generally the case with all the other British consuls; but the French consuls are allowed a certain sum from the government. There are also British consuls at Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, in Barbary; at Grand Cairo in Egypt; at Smyrna, Aleppo, and other places of Turky; at Bergen, in Norway, and some other principal ports.

By the treaty of Utrecht, between Great Britain and Spain, it was agreed, that the British consul residing in any of the Spanish dominions, should be named by the British monarch, and should use, and exercise, the full power as any consuls ever had. The estates of British subjects dying intestate in Spain, were also to be inventoried by such consul, and put into the hands of two or three merchants nominated by him, for the security thereof, and benefit of the proprietors and creditors: which was also confirmed by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle.

CONSULS, also denote judges, elected among merchants and dealers, in ports and trading towns, particularly in France and Spain, to terminate on the spot, without fee or process, such differences and demands as arise relating to merchandises, bills of exchange, and other articles of commerce. The first jurisdiction of consuls established in France is that of Tholouse, the edict of whose establishment bears date in 1549, under the reign of King Henry II.: that of Paris followed 14 years afterwards, till, by degrees, they were established in most of the considerable trading towns in that kingdom, being a kind of court-

merchant; and if introduced in Great Britain may prove of great utility to its trading intereſt.

CONSUMPTION, in trade, implies the demand there is for any commodity, whether to be ſent abroad, or uſed at home, diſtinguiſhed by the terms of foreign and home conſumption.

CONTENT, in trade, is the capacity, or ſolid meaſure of a thing: thus a load of hewn timber has 50 cubic feet for its content: the content of a beer gallon is 282 cubic inches; of the wine gallon 231, and the gallon of dry meaſure 272. It alſo ſignifies the wares contained in a caſk or bale; and likewiſe the ſubſtance of a letter, order, or bill.

CONTESSA. A port-town of Turky, in the province of Macedonia, ſituated in 25 deg. of E. lon. and 41 deg. of N. lat. at the bottom of a bay in the European Archipelago. See *Turky*.

CONTINENT, in geography, is *terra firma*, main-land, or a large extent of a country, not interrupted by ſeas; uſed in contradiſtinction to an iſland.

The world is ordinarily divided into two grand continents, the Old and the New; the former comprehending Europe, Aſia, and Africa; and the latter North and South America: but ſome authors are of opinion, that the two grand continents are, in reality, no more than one; imagining the northern parts of Tartary to run out, and meet thoſe of North America: beſides, it is alſo doubted whether Japan be an iſland, or joined to the continent; and the ſame may be ſaid of California.

CONTRA, a Latin word, ſignifying on the other, or contrary ſide, which is much uſed in merchants accompts, where, when any perſon or accompt has been charged with a debt, to ſettle how much is due from him or it, they enquire what he has delivered or paid, with which they credit the contra or oppoſite ſide of the accompt, and then adjuſt it, by ſubtracting the amount of the leſſer ſide out of the amount of the greater.

CONTRABAND. A prohibited commodity, or a merchandiſe bought or ſold, imported or exported, in prejudice, and contrary to the laws and ordinances of a ſtate, or the public prohibitions of the ſovereign: the word being derived from the Italian *contrabando*, or contrary to edict.

CONTRABAND *goods*, are not only liable themſelves to confiſcation, but alſo ſubject thereto all other allowed merchandizes found with them in the ſame box, or bale, together with the ſhips, veſſels, horſes, and carriages, which conduct them.

There are contraband goods which, beſides confiſcation, are prohibited on pain of death; as India and China ſtuffs, linens, and other things, in France.

In England there are are two principal contrabands for exportation, wools and live ſheep, which all ſtrangers are prohibited from carrying out, on pain of having the right-hand cut off: the other, that of ſheeps ſkins, and calf ſkins, which all foreigners are prohibited from exporting upon pain of the ſame penalty, yet the ſubjects of England are allowed to tranſport the ſame from France to England. See *Wool*.

Other contrabands for exportation are raw horns, white-aſhes, utenſils for the woollen manufacture, ſtocking-looms, or any part thereof, fullers earth, and all raw hides or ſkins.

Of goods contraband as to the import, there are above fifty in the liſts made in 1662, and there are twenty-five of them which now ſtand in the book of rates; the non-execution of the acts of parliament whereby they were impoſed, ſeeming to have reſtored the others to the freedom of importation.

The chief of thoſe ſtill contrabanded, and not rated, are woollen caps, woollen cloths, ſaddles and harneſs, dice, billiards, all ſorts of tanned or dreſſed hides, dreſſed furs, all ſorts of ſhoemakers ware, locks, ſeveral ſorts of cutlers ware, all painted goods, except paper; wires, gold and ſilver leaf, and horns for lanthorns.

Since the year 1662 ſeveral other commodities have been made contraband, particularly ſilk and galloons, laces, embroidery, fringes, buttons, and other ſilk and thread manufactures; as alſo black taffeties, called *alamodes*, or luteſtring, and cambrics. See *Smuggling*.

The merchandiſe whoſe importation is prohibited in France, under the penalty of confiſcation, are gold, ſilver, and ſilk ſtuffs, ſtuffs of the bark of trees, cotton, and the bark of Indian trees; ſtuffs of thread dyed, or painted, looking-glaſſes of all ſorts, Venice points, linens, cottons, and muſlins; callicoes, either white, painted, dyed, or of all ſorts and faſhions; laſtly, foreign ſalt, and certain oils extracted from fiſh.

Gold and ſilver are prohibited exportation in Spain and Portugal: but, notwithſtanding, the greateſt part of them are conveyed into other countries.

In 1719 and 1720 an attempt was made in the Britiſh parliament to paſs a bill for putting gold and ſilver, whether in coined ſpecies or otherwiſe, among the number of contraband goods for exportation, but in vain, by reaſon of the ſtrong oppoſition made by thoſe who enriched themſelves by the export of theſe metals, which, by the laws of the kingdom, are allowed to be ſent away, upon entering them, paying the duty of the export, and making oath of their being foreign; that is, of their not being the coin, or the plate, of the Britiſh kingdom, melted down.

It may be judged whether thoſe who promoted the bill, were for the intereſt of the nation from this; that, in the ſingle month of September 1720, there were entered at the cuſtom-houſe in London 468,119 ounces of gold, and 4000 ounces of ſilver for Holland; 12,320 ounces of gold for France; 197 ounces of gold, and 5648 ounces of ſilver for Portugal; and 19340 ounces of ſilver for the Eaſt Indies, excluſive of what was exported fraudently, by private perſons, without paying the duties.

This ſhews, indeed, the plenty of gold and ſilver in England; but, at the ſame time, manifeſts the danger it is in of being at length exhauſted.

CONTRACT. A mutual conſent of two or more parties, who promiſe, and oblige themſelves, to perform ſome work or undertaking, pay a certain ſum, or the like: ſo that ſales, exchanges, and agreements, for furniſhing large quantities of goods, are ſo many different ſpecies of contracts.

CONTRACTATION. A court eſtabliſhed at Cadiz, in Spain, for managing the affairs and commerce of the Weſt Indies, being compoſed of a preſident, two aſſeſſors, a fiſcal, two ſecretaries, and an officer charged with the accompts.

CONTRACTION, in trade, is the ſame as abreviation, in writing words by parts, as *cent.* for *centum*, ℔ for *per*, and the like.

CONTRA-YERVA, or *Counter-poiſon*, a root brought from Peru, eſteemed an alexiterial, and a ſovereign antidote againſt poiſon; the root being ſmaller than that of the iris, reddiſh without and white within, knotty and fibrous: but to be good it muſt be new, heavy, and of a duſky red colour; in ſmell reſembling fig-leaves, and its taſte aromatic, accompanied with ſomewhat of acrimony.

There is an officinal compoſition, which takes its name from this root, prepared with teſtaceous powders, called *lapis contra-yerva*: both the root and lapis are of great efficacy in the ſmall pox, meaſles, fevers, and all caſes where either a diaphoreſis or perſpiration is required.

There is another kind of contra-yerva brought from Virginia, uſually called *Viperina*, very aromatic, ſeldom preſcribed, tho' ſaid to have the ſame ſucceſs againſt poiſons and venoms with the contra yerva of Peru.

CONTRIBUTION, the payment of each perſon's quota, or the part he is to bear in ſome expence; which is either voluntary or involuntary; the former being taxes and impoſts; the latter expences for carrying on ſome undertaking for the intereſt of the community; and, in trade, it implies the ſame as average. See *Average*.

CONTROL, *Comptrol*, or *Controle*, is properly a double regiſter kept of acts, iſſues, and receipts of money, by the officers, or commiſſioners, in the revenue, or navy, to perceive the true ſtate thereof; as alſo to certify the truth, and the due keeping of the acts ſubject to that enregiſterment. Hence,

CONTROLLER, or *Comptroller*, an officer eſtabliſhed to control or overſee public accompts, and to certify, on occaſion, whether things have been controlled or not; as the controller-general, and other controllers of the cuſtoms, controller of the exciſe, controller of the navy, and controller of the mint.

CONVENTION, in a commercial ſenſe, ſignifies a treaty, contract, or agreement, between two nations, preliminary to ſomething more material for adjuſting any differences relative to trade and navigation, and other public concerns; ſuch as the convention between the crowns of Great Britain and Spain, concluded, on the 3d of January 1739, at one of the palaces belonging to his Catholic Majeſty, called the Pardo, which was repugnant to the wiſhes and expectations of the generality of the Britiſh people, and brought on a war between the two nations that continued exactly eight years and eight months.

CONVOY, or *Eſcort*, a ſea-term, ſignifying one or more veſſels of war, intruſted with the conducting of a fleet of merchants, ſerving as a watch, and protection from the inſults of the enemies of the ſtate, or of pirates.

The men of war uſed as convoys, by the Engliſh, French, Portugueſe, and Dutch, are uſually from 40 to 50 guns, and ſeldom ſo large as a 60 gun ſhip: but it is neceſſary to determine the convoy by the ſituation of the times, as it is peace or war; for upon ſome occaſions a ſlight force is ſufficient; at another time a large ſquadron will not only be neceſſary, but even inſufficient, as it was found to be the caſe of the powerful French ſquadron, that was convoying a very rich Spaniſh flota in the year 1702, when it was obliged to quit its courſe to Andaluſia, whither it was bound, and was defeated by the Engliſh at Vigo, who plundered all the wealth of the galeons: ſuch alſo was the conſequence of the French ſquadron under Commodore M'Nemarra in the year 1745, when Vice-admiral Townſhend defeated him, and took 30 of the merchantmen under his convoy, in ſight of Martinico: the ſame happened to the French ſquadron commanded by Commodore Jonquiere, who was defeated in 1747, by the Britiſh admirals Anſon and Warren, as he was convoying a fleet to Canada: and ſuch alſo happened in the ſame year to another French ſquadron, under Commodore Letenduer, who, in conveying 252 ſail of merchant ſhips from France to the Weſt Indies, was intercepted, and defeated, by Rear-admiral Hawke, off Cape Finiſterre.

By the reſolutions of the Britiſh houſe of commons, the requiring or receiving of money, by the commanders of men of war, from ſhips under their convoy, is declared illegal, oppreſſive to merchants, and deſtructive to trade. In purſuance whereof the complaints of the London merchants againſt ſeveral commanders of ſhips for exacting money for convoys were heard at the bar of the houſe, on the 18th of November 1689, when captain Churchill, a member, was particularly charged with having exacted 40 l of Emanuel Hudſon, and others; and, the captain having been heard in his place, it was reſolved, that he was guilty of requiring and receiving money for convoys; and that he ſhould be committed to the Tower for the ſame; which was done the ſame day: but he was afterwards releaſed, on his petitioning the houſe, and acknowledging his fault, without any further puniſhment.

By the ſtatute of the 22d of George II. for explaining and reducing into one act of parliament, the laws relating to the government of the royal navy, it was enacted, That the officers and ſeamen of all ſhips appointed for convoy of merchant-ſhips, or of any other, ſhould diligently attend upon that charge, without delay, according to their inſtructions: and whoſoever ſhould be faulty therein, and ſhould not perform their duty, and defend the ſhips and goods in their convoy, without either diverting to other parts or occaſions; or refuſing, or neglecting, to fight in their defence, if they be aſſailed; or running away cowardly, and ſubmitting the convoy to peril and hazard; or ſhould demand, or exact, any money, or other reward, from any merchant or maſter, for convoying of any veſſels intruſted to their care; or ſhould miſuſe the maſters or mariners thereof, they ſhould be condemned to make reparation of the damage to the merchants, owners, and others, as the court of admiralty ſhould adjudge; and alſo be puniſhed according to the quality of their offences by death, or other puniſhment, according as ſhould be adjudged by the court-martial.

CONVOY-*loopers*, is a term at Amſterdam, for a kind of public factors, whoſe buſineſs it is to obtain from the convoy, or cuſtom-houſe, all the expeditions, acquitments, and paſſports merchants want for the entry, or going out of their merchandiſe; each merchant having uſually his convoy-looper; there being few, or ſcarce any merchants who trouble themſelves to go to the cuſtom-houſe. This term of convoy has ſeveral ſignifications in Holland; where it is applied to the chambers of the colleges of the admiralty, which diſtribute paſſports; and, in general, convoi-gelt implies the duties of importation and exportation paid to theſe colleges; in which ſenſe the term is alſo uſed at Bourdeaux in France.

CONWAY. A ſmall port-town of Carnarvonſhire, in North Wales, ſituated in 3 deg. 50 min. of W. lon. and 53 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. at the mouth of the river Conway.

COOK. A perſon that makes it his occupation to dreſs food for others, either plain, or according to the peculiar manner of different countries.

COOKS *company of London*, is a fraternity incorporated by letters-patent, of the 22d of Edward IV. dated the 11th of July 1480, by the name of The maſters, and governors, and commonalty of the myſtery of cooks in London; by which charter, every member of the company, before he is admitted into the freedom, is to be preſented to the Lord Mayor: the corporation having 2 maſters, 2 wardens, 25 aſſiſtants, and 78 liverymen; who, upon their admiſſion into the livery, pay each a fine of 10 l. and they have a convenient hall in Alderſgate-ſtreet, to manage their affairs in.

COOM, is a term for that ſort of ſoot which gathers over the mouth of an oven.

COOM, or *Coomb*. An Engliſh dry meaſure, for corn, peaſe, and beans; being 4 buſhels, each buſhel 4 pecks, and each peck 2 gallons, 8 lb. or pints the gallon.

COOPER. A perſon whoſe trade conſiſts in making barrels, tubs, and other wooden veſſels of capacity, for containing liquor, packing up goods, and other purpoſes.

COOPERS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 16th of Henry VII. in 1501, by the ſtyle of The maſter, wardens, and aſſiſtants, of the company of coopers of London, and ſuburbs of the ſame city; who, by an act of parliament in the ſucceeding reign, were impowered to ſearch, and gauge, all beer, ale, and ſoap veſſels within the city of London, and two miles round the ſuburbs of the ſame; for which they were allowed one farthing for each caſk.

The company is governed by a maſter, 3 wardens, and 20 aſſiſtants; who have a livery of 244 of their members, whoſe fine of admiſſion is 15 l. with a ſtately hall in Baſinghall-ſtreet, to tranſact their buſineſs in.

COOS, or *Longo*. An iſland of the Turkiſh Archipelago, ſituated in 27 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 37 deg. of N. lat. on the S. W. coaſt of Natolia, and ſubject to the Grand Signior. See *Turky*.

COPAL. A gum, or reſin, of an agreeable ſmell, reſembling that of frankincenſe, brought from New Spain, where it oozes from inciſions made in the bark of a large tree, much after the manner in which the vine yields its blood, when cut in the ſpring. The Indians uſe it to burn on their altars; but, among Europeans, it is uſed againſt diſorders of the heart, having a warming, reſolving, and humectating power. It is very ſcarce; and, when good, ſhould be of a fine tranſparent yellow, melting eaſily either in the mouth or fire: though, for want of this, another kind is brought from the Antilles, which is almoſt the only one known among druggiſts, its chief conſumption being in the making of varniſh.

COPALXOCOTL. A gum growing in New Spain, called by the Indians *pompoqua*, and by the Spaniards *arriſæ gommeuſo*; which is a ſpurious copal, having leaves like thoſe of the European cherry-tree, and fruit like the apple-

apple-tree. The apples it produces are ſweet, but aſtringent; from which there diſtils a kind of glutinous juice, whereof a topic remedy is made againſt the fever; tho' it is likewiſe proper for bloody emiſſions; its wood, which is eaſily cut, but never ſplits, ſmells and looks like the true copal.

COPARTNERS. Any number of perſons, who have an equal ſhare or intereſt in a joint ſtock, for the uſe of trade.

COPE. A term in mining, for the farm or duty paid for ore in the King's field in Derbyſhire; alſo the name of a bargain or contract, at a certain rate or price, by the load.

COPEAC, *Copec*, or *Copeke*, is a coin ſtruck and current in Ruſſia; of which there are two kinds, one of gold, and the other of ſilver.

The copeac of gold is worth about 1 s. 7 d. ſterling; but it is current in all the Ruſſian territories for ſomewhat more; which occaſions the merchants to think it not adviſable to export it from Muſcovy, though it is of a pretty good fineneſs; becauſe, upon the current footing, there would be ſometimes 20 *per cent.* loſs. But this coin is of a late date; for till the year 1636, when the ambaſſadors of Holſtein were at Moſcow, all the coins were either copeacs of ſilver, or other ſmall ſpecie.

The copeac of ſilver is of an oval figure, worth ſomewhat more than a halfpenny ſterling; though it is always current for about 3 farthings.

All theſe copeacs, whether of gold, or ſilver, are ſtamped the ſame way; having, on one ſide, the arms of the ſtate; and on the reverſe, the name of the monarch under whom they have been ſtruck, and that of the town where they have been coined; theſe places being Peterſburgh, Moſcow, Novogrod, Twere, and Pleſcow.

COPENHAGEN, is the capital of the kingdom of Denmark, ſituated in 13 deg. of E. lon. and 55 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the eaſtern ſhore of the iſland of Zealand, upon a fine bay of the Baltic ſea, near the ſtrait called the Sound; having a commodious harbour, not diſtant above 16 miles from the coaſt of Schonen in Sweden. See *Denmark*.

COPHTIS. A name given to the Chriſtian inhabitants of Egypt. See *Egypt*.

COPIAGO. A port-town of Chili, in South America, ſituated in 75 deg. of W. lon. and 25 deg. of S. lat. on the coaſt of the Pacific ocean, and at the mouth of a river of the ſame name. See *Spaniſh America*.

COPIVI, *Capivi*, *Copiapo*, or *Cupayba*. A balm, or balſam, of a thinner conſiſtence than common turpentine, but much more fragrant, oozing out of inciſions made in a tree, which grows near Copiapo in Chili, and in ſeveral places of Braſil; being of great uſe in medicine, eſpecially in ſeminal weakneſſes, diſtempers of the breaſt and lungs; as alſo in diarrhæas of long continuance; and the Jews uſe it to ſtop the flux of blood, after circumciſion: when good, it ſhould be thick, of an amber colour, and of an aromatic odour; when clear, and too liquid, it is a ſign that it has been extracted out of ſeaſon, or ſophiſticated by ſome other mixture; which is eaſily diſcovered by letting a drop fall into cold water; when, if the drop goes to the bottom without diſſolution, or keeps its figure, it is an infallible ſign of its goodneſs: if, on the contrary, it ſwims on the ſurface of the water, it is bad.

COPOU. A kind of Chineſe linen, made from an herb called *co*, found chiefly in the province of Fokien; which is a kind of ſerpentine ſhrub, or rather a kind of ivy; but with round, ſoft leaves, green within, whitiſh and cottonned without, and much larger than thoſe of European ivy.

The little ſtem making the body, and cottoned like the leaves, produces the hemp; which being ſteeped in water, is ſtripped of its firſt ſkin; though this is good for nothing: the ſecond, which is very fine, being what is uſed, by dividing it only with the hand, without beating or ſpinning.

The linen made thereof is tranſparent, and pretty fine; but ſo light, that it is ſcarce felt in wearing, and is worn in ſultry weather, with ſurtouts of the cha. See *Cha*.

COPPEL, *Copel*, or *Cuppel*. A veſſel uſed by refiners, and eſſayers, to try and purify their metals, otherwiſe called *teſt*. See *Refining*.

COPPER. A hard, dry, heavy, ductile metal, found in mines in ſeveral parts of Europe, but moſt abundantly in Sweden; being the moſt ductile and malleable of all metals, after gold and ſilver, abounding much in vitriol and ſulphur: being found in globes, or ſtones, of various forms and colours, which are firſt beaten ſmall and waſhed, and then ſmelted into ſalmons, or cakes of copper, which is the common metal.

Roſe COPPER, is the ordinary ſort, rendered more pure and beautiful, by melting it again once or twice, and adding a quantity of tin and antimony.

Virgin COPPER, is that which is ſometimes found native and pure in the mines, either in form of threads, or in flakes, plates, grains, or other maſſes and lumps.

Of a mixture of copper, and lapis calaminaris, is formed braſs, which the French call *cuivre jaune*, or yellow copper, in contradiſtinction to natural copper, which they call *cuivre rouge*, or red copper. See *Braſs*.

Bell-metal is made of copper, melted together with 22 or 23 pounds of fine tin to the hundred weight of copper; and copper melted in equal quantities with braſs, makes what the French call *bronze*, uſed for figures and ſtatues. See *Bell-metal*.

A great conſumption of copper and braſs ariſes from the manufacture of hard-wares, particularly candleſticks, buttons, nails, buckles, ſtoves, kettles, kitchen furniture, and other articles; of which the moſt conſiderable quantities are ſent from Germany, by the way of Holland, to ſupply the ſouthern parts of Europe: another great article in the conſumption of copper reduced to braſs, is in the foundery of artillery; and a third in the foundery of bells.

The Spaniards are plentifully ſupplied with this metal from New Spain, the iſland of Cuba, Porto Rico, and the kingdom of Chili, whence it comes over without farther improvement than that of the firſt fuſion, being formed by a mould into round cakes, each of them about three arrobs in weight, or 73 lb.; in which ſhape it is very conveniently, and without charge, brought over, ſerving as ballaſt for the ſhipping; and this the Spaniards affirm to exceed the Barbary copper, by coming up entirely to the ſtandard and perfection it ought to have for founding good braſs artillery; inſiſting that it equals, and may even excel that of Sweden and Hungary.

The copper-mines of Hungary are near a little town called Hem-ground; where the ore is ſo rich, that in 100 lb. they got from 20 to 60 lb. of copper. The beſt Engliſh mines of copper are in Coniſton-fells, near Keſwick, in Cumberland, where there are ten works; the ore being worth from 8 s. to 2 s. 6 d. the kibble, or horſe-load; it being firſt beaten very ſmall, waſhed and ſifted through an iron ſieve, then meaſured or weighed.

Swediſh copper in leaves is worth about 6 l. 2 s. 6 d. the hundred; and the plate copper, or copper money, is worth about 5 l. the hundred; Norway copper is worth about 5 l. 18 s. and Japan copper 6 l. 2 s. the hundred. By the ſtatute of the 9th and 10th of William III. it was enacted, That it ſhould be lawful for Britiſh ſubjects to export all ſuch copper-bars as ſhould be imported from foreign parts, as well as copper made of Engliſh ore, and upon exportation ſhould draw back all duties, ſaving half the old ſubſidy. But, by the ſtatute of the 12th of Queen Anne, no drawback is to be allowed on the exportation of any copper, except ſuch as ſhall be imported from the Eaſt Indies, and the coaſt of Barbary only; which act, by another of the 15th and 16th of George II. is continued till the year 1756. And, by the ſtatute of the 8th of George I. copper-ore of the production of the Britiſh plantations is reſtrained to be imported into Great Britain.

COPPER *companies*. *The Engliſh copper company* was incorporated by letters-patent, dated the 22d of September 1691, by the appellation of The governor and company of copper-miners in England; which was confirmed by Queen Anne in 1710; and, by ſubſequent grants, their power of working of mines was extended to all parts of

Ireland and New England; the corporation conſiſting of a governor, deputy-governor, and 18 aſſiſtants; who have their office in Birch-lane, Canon-ſtreet, London.

The Welch Copper company was incorporated in 1694, by the ſtyle of The governor and company of copper mines in the principality of Wales; by which charter they are allowed to purchaſe lands and tenements in mortmain, without limitation: but though this corporation, by their title, ſeem to be confined to the mines in Wales, they are now at work on ſeveral mines in England, and have their office in Philpot lane, London.

COPPERAS. A mineral formed in copper-mines, and properly a kind of vitriol. See *Vitriol.*

There is copperas of England, Germany, Cyprus, Hungary, and Italy; which only differ from each other in colour, richneſs, and perfection, being all the ſame mineral.

Copperas is purified and prepared in the ſame manner as allum and ſaltpetre, by paſſing through ſeveral lixiviums, till wholly reduced to cryſtal.

White copperas is that of Germany, which, before whitening, is of a bluiſh green, clear, and tranſparent, being formed in cakes of 40 or 50 lb. each: the Engliſh is of a fine green; that of Cyprus, and Hungary, of a ſky blue; that of Italy, likewiſe green, and as tranſparent as glaſs.

The ordinary Engliſh copperas is made of a kind of ſtone found on the ſea-ſhore, in Eſſex, Hampſhire, and ſo weſtward, abounding much with iron, and uſually called *gold ſtones*, from their colour; of which there are conſiderable works at Deptford in Kent; many chemiſts diſſolving this, and ſhooting it again, for the common ſalt of ſteel.

Copperas is of conſiderable uſe in many preparations, but eſpecially in dying of woollen cloths and hats black, in making ink, and in tanning and dreſſing leather. It alſo affords an oil, and a kind of Spaniſh brown for painters.

COPPICE, or *Copſe.* A little wood, conſiſting of underwoods, that may be cut at 12 or 15 years growth.

COPY, among bookſellers, is the manuſcript, or original of a book given to print from; the property, or copy-right, of which is in the author, or his employers, which is ſecured to them by acts of parliament. See *Books.*

COQUIMBO. A port-town of Chili, in South America, ſituated in 75 deg. 10 of min. W. lon. and 30 deg. of S. lat. at the mouth of the river Coquimbo, on the Pacific ocean. See *Spaniſh America.*

CORACLE, or *Curricle.* A ſmall boat, uſed by the fiſhermen on the river Severn, particularly thoſe of Shrewſbury; being made of oſiers, and covered with a bull's hide.

CORAL. A production of the ſea, uſually ranked among marine plants; the nature of which is very difficult to determine. The antients, without heſitation, took it for a ſtone; moſt of the moderns held it a vegetable; but of late days, M. de Reaumur maintains it to be partly plant, and partly ſtone; while another curious and able naturaliſt, who has much ſtudied the productions of the ſea, almoſt ranks it in the number of animals, as imagining it the work of certain ſea-inſects; which opinion is now ſo well eſtabliſhed, that all other ſentiments ſeem almoſt precluded. P. Kircher ſuppoſes entire foreſts of it at the bottom of the ſea; and M. Tournefort maintains, that it evidently multiplies by ſeed, though neither its flower nor ſeed are known: but the Count de Marſigli has diſcovered ſome parts therein, which ſeem to ſerve the purpoſe of ſeed and flowers.

There are properly but three kinds of coral, red, white, and black; the white is the rareſt, and moſt eſteemed; but the red is generally uſed in medicine, which muſt be choſen thick, ſmooth, ſhining, of a beautiful red, and not covered with any tartareous matter; its chief uſe being in chaplets, beads, and other toys; of which the Engliſh ſend great quantities to Guinea; and the Eaſt India company export coral to India.

There is a kind of white coral pierced full of holes, and a black coral, named *antipates*, appearing of a different nature from the reſt, but of no uſe.

Artificial CORAL, is made of cinnabar well beaten; a layer whereof is applied on a piece of wood, well dried and poliſhed, firſt moiſtened with ſize; the whole is again poliſhed, and for varniſh rubbed over with the white of an egg.

Coral gives title to an officinal compoſition, called *ſyrup of coral*, ſometimes preſcribed by phyſicians; as is likewiſe the powder of coral, finely ground, levigated on a marble, and made up in a proper form.

The virtues attributed to coral, and its preparations, are, that it is cardiac, and therefore of uſe in diarrhæas, too large fluxes of the menſtrua, of ſervice in the fluor albus, and to prevent miſcarriages: beſides, it is uſed in common as a teſtaceous powder in the diſeaſes of children; and there is alſo a magiſterial tincture, and a ſalt, extracted from it by chymiſts.

CORAL *company*, or *Baſtion company of France.* See *African companies.*

CORAL *fiſhery.* The time for fiſhing coral, is from April to July: the places are the Perſian gulph, Red ſea, coaſts of Africa towards the Baſtion of France, the iſles of Majorca and Corſica, and the coaſts of Provence and Catalonia; the method of fiſhing being nearly the ſame in all places; and that uſed at the Baſtion of France, where there is an eſtabliſhed fiſhery, under the direction of a company at Marſeilles, is as follows.

Seven or eight men go in a boat, commanded by the patron or proprietor; the caſter throws his net, if the machine wherewith he tears up the coral from the bottom of the ſea may be ſo called, and the other ſix manage the boat. The net is compoſed of two beams tied acroſs, with a leaden weight to preſs them down; to the beams is faſtened a great quantity of hemp looſely twiſted round, among which they mix ſome ſtrong nets: in which condition the machine is let down into the ſea; and when the coral is pretty ſtrongly embarraſſed in the hemp and the nets, they draw it out with a rope, which they unwind according to the depth, and which ſometimes requires half a dozen boats to draw; but if this rope happens to break, the fiſhermen are in great danger of drowning. Before the fiſhermen go out, they agree on the price of the coral, which is ordinarily at the rate of 4 s. 6 d. *per* pound; and when the fiſhery is over, which in a ſeaſon uſually amouts to 25 quintals of coral each boat, it is divided into 13 parts; the patron whereof, or maſter coraller, has four, the caſter two, and each of the ſix companions one, the 13th being reſerved for the company.

There is alſo a kind of wood growing in the Antilles iſlands called coral-wood, which is uſed in turnery and inlaid work.

CORALLINE, or *Sea-moſs.* A plant found adhering to rocks, ſhells, and even to coral; having no ſtem, but its branches ſhooting immediately out of the root.

Its uſe in medicine is not very conſiderable; though it is ſuppoſed to be of ſome effect to deſtroy worms in children, when taken in powder: it is alſo uſed as an ornament in rock-work; the beſt is greeniſh, the worſt aſh-coloured, and the red is not much better.

CORD, or *Chord.* An aſſemblage of ſeveral threads of hemp, cabled, or twiſted together, by means of a wheel. See *Cordage.*

CORD *of wood.* A certain quantity of wood for burning; ſo called, becauſe formerly meaſured with a cord, but is now meaſured between two ſtakes of wood, four feet high, and eight feet apart, being four feet broad, or deep; and all burning wood not exceeding 18 inches circumference, is deemed cord-wood, which is properly new wood; and, when brought by water, comes aboard a veſſel, in oppoſition to that which is floated.

CORDAGE, in the ſea-language, is uſed in general for all the ropes and cords, big and ſmall, uſed in the rigging and fitting out of a veſſel; but the word is alſo uſed for the art of preparing and manufacturing of ropes, and hemp-cables. See *Cable*, and *Stores.*

The number of ropes required in fitting out a veſſel is almoſt inconceivable, each having its particular name and uſe; but the commerce of cordage is more conſiderable at Amſterdam than at any other place; where they are ſold by weight; that made of Coningſberg hemp being valued at 20 *per cent.* more than that made of Ruſſia hemp, which is worth 1 ruble 20 copeacs the pood, or 4 s. 6½ d. ſterling for 36 lb. Engliſh avoirdupois. The eſchippont of cordage of neat hemp, or 300 lb. avoirdupois, is worth at Amſterdam 56 florins, or 4 l. 18 s. ſterling; that of Coningſberg

Coningſberg about 58 florins, or 5 l. 12s. 6d.; that of Ruſſia from 30 to 47 florins, or from 2 l. 12s. 6d. to 4 l. 12s. 6d.

Cordage is ſaid to be baked, when, having paſſed a ſtove, or other hot place, it is drained of all its moiſture. White cordage is that unpitched. Cordage pitched in the ſtove, is that which is paſſed through hot pitch as it comes out of the ſtove. Cordage remade, is that which is made of ropes uſed before. Change cordage, is what is kept in reſerve, in caſes of neceſſity; and cordage, when very old, is uſed in caulking of ſhips.

Cordage is ſometimes pitched in the thread, and each hundred of cordage may take up about 20 lb. of pitch.

The northern nations produce moſt hemp, and make the greateſt quantity of cordage: but cordage is alſo made of Britiſh hemp; and it is to be hoped that Great Britain will ſoon be ſupplied with great quantities of hemp or cordage from New England, and the other northern colonies of America.

The Spaniards make a kind of cordage, which they call *alpargates*; whereof they uſe great quantities at home, and yet drive a very conſiderable commerce with it to the Indies, ſo as to ſend away whole ſhip-loads; but the Indians make their cordage of the bark of cocos, maguay, and other trees.

CORDIAL, or *Cardiac*, in medicine, a comforting or refreſhing remedy, that gives a ſudden ſtrength and chearfulneſs, by raiſing the ſpirits when depreſſed by too much exerciſe, ſome diſeaſe, or the like cauſe; ſuch are ſpirit of lavender, brandy, cinnamon-water, and ſal volatile oleoſum, or ſpirit of hartſhorn.

In officinal compoſitions, the four cordial flowers are burrage, bugloſs, roſes, and violets: the four cordial waters are thoſe of burrage, bugloſs, endive, and chicory; but ſome add thoſe of carduus benedictus, ſcorzonera ſcabioſa, ſorrel, and others.

CORDOUA. A large and populous city of Spain, in the province of Andaluſia, ſituated in 4 deg. 45 min. of W. lon. and 37 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. on the river Guadilquiver, 72 miles N. E. of Seville, and 75 N. of Malaga, having a good trade in wine, ſilk, and cordouan leather.

CORDOUAN *tower*. A remarkable light-houſe at the mouth of the river Garonne in France, in the province of Guienne.

CORDOUAN *leather*, is a kind of marroquin, or morocco leather; with this difference, that the cordouans are tanned, and the real marroquins are paſſed in ſumac, or galls. Several authors are of opinion, that the cordouan leather has taken its name from Cordoua, a town of Andaluſia in Spain, where great quantities are prepared; though this leather comes chiefly from Cyprus, Aleppo, Smyrna, and other places in Turky. See *Leather*.

CORDWAINER, or *Cordiner*. The term whereby the Engliſh ſtatutes denominate ſhoe-makers; being a word formed from the French *cordonnier*, which Menage derives from Cordouan, a kind of leather brought from Cordoua, whereof they formerly made the upper-leathers of their ſhoes.

CORDWAINERS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 11th of Henry IV. in 1410, by the name of Cordwainers and coblers; the latter whereof, at that time, was no deſpicable epithet, as it is at preſent; for the genuine meaning thereof then was, that it not only ſignified a ſhoe-maker, but likewiſe a ſeller or dealer in ſhoes, for it does not appear that the word ſhoe-maker was then in uſe.

But the title of this company, by a late charter, is The maſter, wardens, and commonalty of the myſtery of cordwainers of the city of London; the fraternity being governed by a maſter, 4 wardens, and 16 aſſiſtants, to whom belong 108 liverymen, whoſe fine of admiſſion is 10 l. with a commodious hall in Diſtaff-lane, to manage their affairs in.

COREA. A peninſula on the N. E. of China, ſituated between 120 and 130 deg. of E. lon. and between 36 and 42 deg of N. lat. reputed to have good mines of gold and ſilver. See *China*.

CORFU. An iſland in the Mediterranean, near the entrance of the Adriatic, about 35 miles long, and 10 broad, lying about 4 miles W. of the coaſt of Epirus, and ſubject to the Venetians. See *Italian iſlands*.

CORIANDER. The ſeed of a plant of the ſame name; both the taſte and ſmell of the ſeed being very agreeable, but in the plant extremely nauſeous.

Beſides the confections made of the coriander-ſeed, it is uſed in medicine as a carminative, and a corrective to ſome parts of cathartics: it is alſo much uſed by brewers, both in England and Holland, to give a flavour to their ſtrongeſt beer.

CORIENTES *Cape*, or *Cape Corientes*. A promontory on the W. coaſt of Mexico, in North America, ſituated on the Pacific ocean in 111 deg. of W. lon. and 20 deg. of N. lat. 100 miles S. of Xaliſco.

CORINTH. A city of European Turky, called by them Gereme, ſituated in 23 deg. of E. lon. and 37 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. near the iſthmus, the narroweſt part of which is about 6 miles over, between the gulphs of Engia and Lepanto. See *Turky*.

CORINTHS. See *Currants*.

CORIS, *Cowries*, or *Cauris*, are ſmall, and exceeding white ſhells, brought from the Maldivia iſlands, and uſed as money in the greateſt part of the Eaſt Indies, particularly in the ſtates of the Grand Mogul; but though theſe ſhells are, in all appearance, a production of the ſea, they are however found on land, where they are dug for pretty deep by the Maldivians, and exchanged by them for rice, or ſome coarſe cotton cloths, which the Indian or European merchants import yearly to their country.

From 50 to 60 coris are uſually given for the pecha, or peſſa, a ſmall copper coin, about the value of an Engliſh farthing; but the more or leſs diſtant from the ſea, the more or leſs is the price of the ſhells, being dearer up the country, than near or upon the coaſts.

There are coris alſo fiſhed for about the Philippine iſlands, called by the Spaniards ſigueies, and by the Siameſe bia, who give 800 for a fanam, or 3 d. ſterling.

The coris of the Maldives are uſed alſo in the commerce which Europeans carry on along the coaſt of Guinea, where the negroes call them bouges.

The Dutch, for the general part, furniſh ſuch European nations as trade for ſlaves, with the coris; and the vaſt quantities they ſell will be no matter of ſurprize, upon conſidering that, in the kingdom of Juda alone, the French give ſometimes 80 pounds weight of coris, or bouges, for a negro; and for gold, ivory, wax, and other commodities of the country in proportion.

The coris coſt uſually between 12 and 15 d. the pound: formerly only 12,000 pounds weight were required for a cargo of 5 or 600 negroes; but now they are bought at ſo dear a rate, and the coris are ſo little eſteemed in Guinea, that upwards of 25,000 pounds weight are at preſent requiſite for ſuch a cargo.

The coris are meaſured on the coaſts of Africa, in a ſort of large braſs buſhel, like a large baſon, or chaldron, which contains about the weight of 108 pounds.

The negroes not only uſe the coris for money, but alſo for collars and bracelets for adorning themſelves; which has no diſagreeable effect, by the contraſt of the negroes black ſkin, and the whiteneſs of the ſhell.

CORK. The capital city of the county of Cork, in the province of Munſter, in Ireland, ſituated on the river Lee, in 8 deg. 25 min. of W. lon. and 51 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. being a port-town; and, in point of trade, inferior to none in the kingdom. See *Ireland*.

CORK. The outward bark of a tree of the ſame name, much reſembling the holm-tree; its leaves being green above, and white underneath; producing a real acorn, which feeds much more than that of the oak; and is found, in great abundance, in Spain, Italy, France, and ſome other places.

To take off the bark, an inciſion is made from the top to the bottom of the tree; and, at each extremity, another round the tree perpendicular to the firſt. When ſtripped from the tree, which does not therefore die, the bark is piled up in a pond or ditch, and loaden with heavy ſtones to flatten it, and reduce it into tables; from hence it is taken to be dried, and, when ſufficiently dry, put in bales for carriage; but if care is not taken to ſtrip the

bark, it ſplits and peels off from itſelf, being puſhed up by another bark formed underneath.

Cork ſhould be choſen in fine boards, all of a piece, of a moderate thickneſs, yellowiſh without and within, not full of knots, and even when cut.

The bark of cork, as well as the acorn, are of ſome uſe in medicine; being both reputed aſtringents, after being burnt and powdered, when uſed externally; but the chief employ of the former is to put in ſhoes, ſlippers, and to ſtop bottles; though the Spaniards alſo burn it, to make that light kind of black called Spaniſh black, uſed by painters. See *Spaniſh Black*.

CORK-CUTTER. A perſon whoſe buſineſs conſiſts in cutting out corks for bottles; in which women are frequently employed.

CORMANDEL, or *Choromandel coaſt*, is the eaſtern coaſt of the Hither India, ſituated in 80 deg. of E. lon. and between 10 and 20 deg. of N. lat. on which coaſt lie Madras, Pondicherry, Fort St. David, and many other European forts and factories; from whence chints, callicoes, and muſlins, with ſome diamonds, are imported into Europe. See *India*.

CORN. A plant, or rather genus of plants, producing a grain fit for bread; but it is alſo uſed for the grain, or ſeed, of that plant, ſeparated from the ſpica, or ear.

In the commerce of grain they diſtinguiſh three kinds; as corn, properly ſo called, or wheat; rye, which is a ſpecies very different, and of a quality far inferior; and a 3d kind, reſulting from a mixture of the two, called maſlin, or monk corn. The farmers, indeed, rank among the number of corns ſeveral of the grains ſowed in March; as barley, oats, and even pulſe, or beans, peas, and vetches; which however they ſometimes diſtinguiſh by the denomination of *ſmaller corn*; beſides, maiſe and ſarraſin are numbered among the corns; the firſt called Turky and Indian corn; the ſecond French or black corn; millets, rice, and lentils, are alſo called corn. See *Wheat*, *Rye*, *Maſlin*, *Barley*, *Oats*, *Peaſe*, *Vetches*, *Maiſe*, *Grain*, *Pulſe*, and *Sarraſin*.

Europe, in every part of it; Egypt, and ſome other cantons of Africa, particularly the coaſts of Barbary; as alſo ſome parts of America cultivated by the Europeans, particularly New England, Penſylvania, and New France, are the places chiefly productive of corn; other countries having maiſe and rice in lieu of it; and ſome parts of America, both in the iſlands and on the continent, ſimple roots, ſuch as yams, potatoes, and manioc.

Egypt was antiently the moſt fertile of all other countries in corn, being called the dry nurſe of Rome and Italy; but England, France, Poland, Sicily, and Hungary, ſeem now to ſerve in the place of Egypt; ſupporting, with their ſuperfluities, a great part of Europe.

For the preſervation of corn, it muſt be well dried and cleaned, the granary have its openings to the north or eaſt, and vent-holes on the top: for the firſt ſix months it muſt be well ſtirred every fifteen days; afterwards it will be ſufficient to ſift it once a month; but, after two years, it heats no more; nor is there any thing to fear, but from the air and foreign moiſture. England is too redundant in corn to have any neceſſity for a granary; but this has been frequently practiſed in other countries, to be ready provided with ſuch a neceſſary article of life in times of ſcarcity; particularly at Metz and Chalons, in France; as alſo at Dantzick, the principal granary in the world, which ſupplies the Dutch with many thouſand tons of corn annually.

By the ſtatute of the 22d and 23d of K. Charles II. it was enacted, That if any perſon ſhould ſell or buy corn in ſacks, bags, or any other thing, without meaſuring, being thereunto required, ſuch perſon ſhould forfeit the corn, or the value thereof: that there ſhould be only the Wincheſter buſhel allowed for meaſure; and if any perſon ſold by any other, he ſhould forfeit 40 s.: that a braſs buſhel ſhould be chained to a poſt, or public place, in the market-place, at the charge of the perſon taking toll, for the public uſe of meaſuring, upon penalty of forfeiting 5 l. and if the clerk of the market ſhould refuſe to ſeal ſuch meaſure as ſhould be full gauged, he ſhould forfeit 5 l. for the firſt offence, and 10 l. for the ſecond:

By the ſtatute of the 11th and 12th of William III. it was enacted, That the ſubſidy, and duties payable upon exportation of wheat, rye, malt, beans, peaſe, and other corn ground or unground, bread, biſcuit, and meal, ſhould ceaſe.

By the ſtatute of the 1ſt of James II. the juſtices of peace for the ſeveral counties wherein foreign corn may be imported, are required at their quarter-ſeſſions after Michaelmas and Eaſter yearly, by the oaths of two ſubſtantial perſons of the counties, being neither merchants nor factors for importing corn, nor intereſted in the corn imported, and each having a freehold-eſtate of 20 l. or a leaſe-hold of 50 l. a year, and by ſuch other ways as they ſhall ſee fit, to determine the common market-prices of middling Engliſh corn; and to certify the ſame to the chief officer and collector of the cuſtoms reſiding in the ports where corn is imported, to be hung up in the cuſtom-houſe; and the cuſtom of foreign corn imported is to be paid according to the prices contained in ſuch certificate. It was alſo enacted, That all that is to be done by the juſtices in the counties, ſhall be done in like manner in London, in October and April yearly, by the mayor, aldermen, and juſtices: ſo that the perſons making ſuch oaths ſhould be no corn-chandler, mealman, factor, merchant, or perſon intereſted in ſuch corn to be imported, and ſhould be ſubſtantial houſekeepers in Middleſex or Surry, qualified as aforeſaid. But, by the ſtatute of the 2d of George II. it was enacted, That if the juſtices ſhould neglect to determine the prices of corn, and to certify the ſame, in purſuance of the above mentioned act; in ſuch caſe the collector of the cuſtoms at the port of importation is empowered to receive the duties of the corn imported, according to the loweſt price of the ſame ſort of corn mentioned in the 22d of Charles II.

By the ſtatute of the 5th of George II. it was enacted, That no warrant, cocket, or other writing, ſhould be granted for carrying to ſea, from any port within South Britain to any port of the ſame, any foreign corn after importation thereof; and no perſon ſhould tranſport any foreign corn, or foreign corn mixed with Engliſh, under penalty that all ſuch corn that ſhould be tranſported, or laden, contrary to this act, ſhould be forfeited, and every offender ſhould forfeit 20 s. for every buſhel of ſuch corn, and the ſhip upon which ſuch corn ſhould be laden ſhould be forfeited; and the maſter and mariners of ſuch ſhip wherein ſuch offence ſhould be committed, knowing ſuch offence, and aſſiſting thereunto, ſhould be impriſoned three months.

The other regulations for the ſale and exportation of corn, are made by the ſtatutes of the 12th of William III.; as alſo the 1ſt, 5th, 6th, and 7th of Queen Anne; and, by the 24th of K. George II. regulations are made for the admeaſurement of wheat-meal, or other corn, or grain ground, for which a bounty is payable upon exportation.

The bounty on CORN *exported.*

	Prices per qr. Winch. meaſ. l.	s.	d.	Bounty per qr. Winch. l.	s.	d.
By the ſtatute of the 1ſt of William and Mary,						
Wheat - -	2	8	0	0	5	0
Rye - -	1	12	0	0	3	6
Barley - -	1	4	0	0	2	6
Malt - -	1	4	0	0	2	6
But the exciſe of 6 d. *per* buſhel muſt not be reckoned into the price of the malt, by the 13th and 14th Will. III. cap. 5. ſect. 31. and the 12th Anne, cap. 2. ſect. 3.						
By the 5th of Anne, cap. 8. ſect. 6. & cap. 29. ſect. 10. 15.						
Beer, alias bigg - -	1	4	0	0	2	6
Malt made of wheat -	2	8	0	0	5	0
And oat-meal, when oats do not exceed -	0	15	0	0	2	6

When the above ſorts of corn, either ground or unground, do not, at the port of exportation, exceed the reſpective prices in the firſt column, and ſhall be ſhipped on board any Britiſh ſhip, lawfully manned, in order to be exported, the exporter is to be allowed the reſpective bounties in the ſecond column, who is to give a bond in the penalty of 10 l. for every ton of oat-meal, or 40 buſhels of

of bigg, and in the penalty of 200 l. at leaſt, or 8 s. *per* quarter for every 100 tons of all the other ſorts, that the ſame ſhall be exported into parts beyond the ſeas, and not be relanded in Great Britain, or the iſlands of Guernſey or Jerſey; which bond may be delivered up to be cancelled, on producing a certificate under the common ſeal of the chief magiſtrate in any place beyond the ſeas, or under the hand and ſeal of two known Britiſh merchants, teſtifying that the corn was there landed; or on proof by creditable perſons, that the corn was taken by enemies, or periſhed in the ſea.

In order to adjuſt the quantity for which the bounty is to be paid, the corn is to be admeaſured by the proper officers of the cuſtoms, who, for the greater expedition, may make uſe of a tub or meaſure, containing four Wincheſter buſhels; or, if the corn is intended to be exported in ſacks, they are to chuſe two out of any number not exceeding 20 ſacks, and ſo in proportion, thereby to compute the quantity; but, if exported from London, it may be meaſured by the ſworn meters, from whoſe certificate the ſearchers may certify the quantity ſhipped for exportation.

But the bounty on malt is to be allowed after the rate of 30 quarters, for every 20 quarters of barley, or other corn or grain entered and made into malt for exportation. The bounty is to be paid by the collector of the ports, upon demand made by the exporter, unleſs he has not ſufficient money in his hands; and then, except for bigg and oat-meal, he is to certify the ſame to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, who are to cauſe the money to be paid by the receiver-general within three months.

	Wheat ſold for l. s. d.	and malt for l. s. d.
In 1646,	2 8 0 the qr.	1 9 0 the qr.
In 1656,	2 3 0	1 4 0
In 1666,	1 16 0	1 6 0
In 1676,	1 18 0	1 6 0
In 1686,	1 14 0	1 5 4
In 1696,	3 11 0	1 8 0
In 1706,	1 6 0	1 2 0
In 1716,	2 8 0	1 8 0
In 1726,	2 6 0	1 8 0
In 1736,	2 0 4	1 4 0
In 1746,	1 19 0	1 2 4

It is to be obſerved, that there are two prices of corn every year, the one at Lady day, the other at Michaelmas; both which are put together, and the half is taken for the common price of that year: alſo, in the price of malt, it muſt be obſerved, that the tax of 6 d. *per* buſhel is not charged, which is an addition of 4 s. to every article of the malt from the commencing of the malt tax.

The corn-trade is very advantageous to Great Britain, which is chiefly owing to the bounty; for from the 25th of December 1734 to the 25th of December 1735, there were exported from ſeveral ports in England the quantities following.

Barley. qrs. b.	Malt. qrs. b.	Oat-meal. qrs. b.	Rye. qrs. b.	Wheat. qrs. b.
57,520 3	219,781 7	1920 6	1329 4	153,343 5¾

		l.	s.	d.
The bounty being,	by barley -	7190	0	11¼
	by malt - -	26434	18	0¼
	by oat-meal -	240	1	10½
	by rye -	232	13	3
	by wheat -	38333	18	6
	Total	72433	12	7¼

Great Britain ſupplies Spain and Portugal with great quantities of corn, ſending ſome years to the amount of 200,000 l. to the latter: but as corn is liable to periſh by the wevil, and other accidents, the merchant ought to receive the benefit and continuance of the bounty; eſpecially as the Spaniards and Portugueſe are alſo ſupplied with large quantities of corn from Barbary and Sicily, which countries can afford to ſell it cheaper than Great Britain; beſides, Denmark and Hamburgh, as well as Dantzic, export great quantities of corn; as alſo do the Britiſh colonies in North America.

CORN, is alſo to ſeaſon, preſerve, or to prepare fleſh, by rubbing or covering it with ſalt, or brine made for that purpoſe, to keep it from tainting or ſtinking.

CORNADOS. A ſmall money of accompt, uſed in Spain, being the fourth part of a maravedie, or $\frac{43}{136}$ of a penny.

CORNELIAN, otherwiſe *Sardonyx*. A precious ſtone, uſually red, but inclining to an orange-colour; which is eaſily engraved; and the moſt beautiful engravings of antiquity are on this ſtone; which is now ſeldom uſed, but for making of ſeals. The fineſt cornelians are thoſe brought from Babylon; the next are thoſe of Sardinia; the laſt thoſe of the Rhine, Bohemia, and Sileſia. See *Sardonyx*.

CORNU *Cervi*, or *Hartſhorn*. See *Hartſhorn*.

CORO. A port-town on the Caracca coaſt, in the province of Terra firma in South America, ſituated in 69 deg. of W. lon. and 11 deg. of N. lat. at the bottom of the gulph of Venezuella. See *Spaniſh America*.

CORO, is alſo a duty paid to the King of Spain, for the gold and ſilver of the mines of Chili and Peru; the duty of gold being a 20th, and that of ſilver a 5th.

CORON. A port-town of European Turky, in the territory of Belvidere in the Morea, ſituated in 22 deg. of E. lon. and 36 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on a bay of the Mediterranean. See *Turky*.

COROURE. A kind of money of accompt, uſed in ſeveral parts of the Eaſt, particularly in the territories of the Mogul, for calculating large ſums, ſuch as millions in England; a coroure of rupees containing 10 millions of rupees. See *Rupee*.

CORPORAL *of a ſhip*, is an officer who has the charge of ſetting the watch and centries, and relieving them: he ſees that all the ſoldiers and ſailors keep their arms neat and clean; he alſo teaches them how to uſe their arms, and hath a mate under him.

CORPORATION. A body politic, or incorporate; ſo called becauſe the ſeveral members thereof are formed into one body, being qualified to take, purchaſe, or grant lands, have a common ſeal, ſue, and be ſued, with other privileges, in their joint capacity; which may be eſtabliſhed either by preſcription, letters-patent, or act of parliament: of which there are two diſtinctions, eccleſiaſtical, or lay; the former being thoſe of univerſities, colleges, or hoſpitals; and the latter being thoſe of cities, towns, mayoralties, bailiwicks, and companies or communities of commerce. See *Charter*.

CORPORATIONS, or *Corporate towns*. By the ſtatute of the 19th of Henry VII. it was enacted, That no maſter, wardens, and fellowſhip of crafts, nor rulers of guilds and fraternities, ſhould make any acts, or execute any trade, in diſinheritance or diminution of the prerogative of the King or any other, nor againſt the common profit of the people; except the ſame acts be examined and approved by the chancellor, treaſurer, or chief juſtices of either bench, or three of them, or before both the juſtices of aſſiſe in their circuit, upon pain of forfeiture of 40 l. And none of the ſame bodies corporate ſhould make any acts, or ordinances, to reſtrain any perſon to ſue to the King, or any of his courts, for due remedy, nor put nor execute any penalty or puniſhment for ſuch ſuit, upon pain of forfeiture of 40 l.

CORRECTORS, in medicine, ſuch ingredients in a compoſition as guard againſt, or abate the force or dangerous qualities of others.

CORRESPONDENT, in trade, the perſon that a merchant, or other perſon, traffics with in a diſtant town or country; from whom he receives, or to whom he gives advice, concerning the riſe or fall of commodities.

CORSAIR. A pirate, or perſon who ſcours the ſeas, eſpecially the Mediterranean, with a veſſel armed for war, without commiſſion from any prince or power, to plunder merchant-veſſels; a corſair being diſtinguiſhed from a privateer in this, that the latter does it under a commiſſion, and only attacks the veſſels of thoſe at war with the ſtate whence his commiſſion is derived; and the puniſhment of a corſair is to be hanged, without remiſſion: whereas privateers are to be treated as priſoners of war; and all

corſair veſſels are good prizes. See *Pirate*, *Privateer*, *Capture*, and *Prize*.

The word *corſair* is now generally applied to the ſhips employed by the piratical ſtates of Barbary and Morocco, to commit their depredations on European ſhips, in the Mediterranean; where they can eaſily ſally out of their numerous ports of Tangier, Tetuan, Saliee, Tripoli, and others. The part moſt infeſted by the corſairs is the very channel, or ſtreights of Gibraltar, which they eſteem the likelieſt cruize for picking up prizes; where their greateſt depredations are committed, from the beginning of November to the end of March, by barks, and other ſmall craft with oars, that wait only to pick the coaſting veſſels of ſuch nations as are excluded from the amity of theſe infidels: however, they have ſhips of conſiderable force, particularly ſeveral of 54 guns; and, by their long practice of piracy, have been improved in their manner of building as well as fighting their ſhips of war; whereby they are enabled, not only to interrupt the freedom of navigation, but alſo to appear in formidable bodies ſufficient to invade the coaſts of Italy and Spain, where they frequently make deſcents; taking priſoners, and dragging into captivity, many inhabitants of both ſexes; for whoſe redemption theſe barbarians procure ſuch large ſums of money, as empower them to increaſe their maritime force, and commit ſtill greater injuries on the Europeans. See *Barbary*, and *Morocco*.

CORSICA. An iſland in the Mediterranean, ſituated between 8 and 10 deg. of E. lon. and 41 and 43 deg. of N. lat. 100 miles S. of, and ſubject to Genoa. See *Italian Iſlands*.

CORTEX. A Latin name, denoting the bark, or outer coat of a tree or ſhrub. See *Bark*.

CORTEX *thuris*. See *Frankincenſe*.

CORTEX *Peruvianus*. See *Quinquina*.

CORTEX *winteranus*, or *Winteri*. The bark of a tree brought from the ſtreights of Magellan, by Captain Winter, in his voyage with Sir Francis Drake; which Cluſius calls *Magellanica aromatica arbor*.

The bark is aromatic, and found of good uſe at ſea againſt the ſcurvy; half a dram of it, boiled with other carminative ſeeds, ſweating and relieving ſcorbutic patients: it has alſo proved an antidote againſt a poiſonous ſort of ſeal, called a ſea-lion, frequent in thoſe parts. The bark ſold in the ſhops, under the name of cortex winteranus, or wild cinnamon, Sir Hans Sloane obſerves, is not the true cortex winteranus: they grow on different trees, in different countries, and their appearance is very different; yet they are ſo like in taſte, that he thinks they may be uſed as ſuccedaneums to each other. See *Coſtus Indicus*.

CORVED *herring*. See *Herring*.

CORUNNA, or the *Groyne*. A port-town of Galicia in Spain, ſituated in 9 deg. of W. lon. and 43 deg. 10 min. of N. lat. on a fine bay of the Atlantic ocean, where the Engliſh packet-boat always goes in time of peace. See *Spain*.

CORVO, or *Cuervo*. The moſt weſterly of the iſlands of Azores, ſituated in 32 deg. of W. lon. and 40 deg. of N. lat. in the Atlantic ocean, between Europe and America; where it is obſerved the needle has no variation. See *Azores*.

CORZOLA, or *Curſcola*. An iſland of the gulph of Venice, ſituated in 18 deg. of E. lon. and 42 deg. 35 min. of N. lat. divided from Raguſio in Dalmatia, by a narrow ſtrait.

COSMETICS, are ſuch preparations as ſerve to beautify and embelliſh the face, or to preſerve and improve the complexion; ſuch as ceruſs, and the whole tribe of fucus's, waſhes, cold creams, and lip-ſalves, uſed by ladies.

COSSACKS. People inhabiting the banks of the rivers Nieper and Don, near the Black Sea, and the frontiers of Turky; whoſe country is uſually called the Ukrain, being for the moſt part ſubject to Ruſſia. See *Ruſſia*, and *Tartary*.

COSSAS. A ſort of fine and plain muſlin, brought from the Eaſt Indies; being about 16 ells long, and 3-4ths broad: but there are alſo torps, ſeer coſſas, doms coſſas, and bords coſſas; which are muſlins of different manufactures, though of the ſame meaſure with the plain coſſas.

COSSE. A kind of fruit found in ſome parts of the Guinea coaſt, particularly upon the banks of the river Sierra-leon; which in figure reſembles the Indian cheſnut; having even a ſmatch of its bitterneſs, but only ſo much as ſlightly to pique the palate, without irritating it.

There are two ſorts of this fruit; the white, and the red, equally eſteemed by the negroes and Portugueſe; for the latter, by tranſporting it to ſuch parts of the river of Sierra leon, where it does not grow, make a part of their trade with the negroes, from whom they get carpets in exchange; which, in going down the river, they truck with other negroes for the commodities of the country; ſuch as wax, honey, and gum; or even ſell to other Portugueſe not converſant in this trade.

COST. The charge, expence, or price of any thing; thus, in trade, prime coſt is the original price given for any commodity.

COSTARDMONGER. A trader, or dealer, in apples.

COSTUS *Arabicus*. The root of a tree reſembling elder, brought from Arabia, from whence it is denominated; being chiefly uſed in medicine, and as an ingredient in Venice treacle: the beſt ſort of which is heavy, of a cineritious colour on the outſide, a reddiſh one within, difficult to break, of a ſtrong ſmell, and an aromatic taſte.

COSTUS *Indicus*, is a root, called alſo coſtus blavo, coſtus corticoſus, coſtus corticus, or winter's bark, principally found in the iſland of Madagaſcar in Africa, and in thoſe of Domingo and Guardaloupe in America. See *Cortex Winteranus*.

COTTON, or *Coton*. A ſort of wool, or rather flax, encompaſſing the ſeed of a tree of the ſame name; which grows common in ſeveral places of the Levant, and of the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, eſpecially in the Antilles; the fruit being of an oval form, about the ſize of a nut; which, as it ripens, grows black on the outſide; and, by the heat of the ſun, opens in ſeveral places, diſcovering the cotton through the clefts, of an admirable whiteneſs; and in each fruit are found ſeveral little beans, which are the ſeed of the tree.

There is another kind of cotton plant, called by botaniſts *goſſipium herbaceum*, which creeps along the ground, as the vine would do if unſupported; the cotton whereof is in the moſt eſtimation: and the late relations from South America mention two other kinds; the one in the Terra firma of Braſil, the other in the iſle of St. Catharine.

The ſeed of the cotton being mixed in the fruit, together with the cotton itſelf, occaſioned the invention of little machines; which being played by the motion of a wheel, the cotton falls on one ſide, the ſeed on the other; and thus they are ſeparated.

Cotton makes a very conſiderable article of commerce, being diſtinguiſhed into cotton in the wool, and ſpun cotton; the former being uſed for various purpoſes, as to be put between two ſtuffs, in quilts, night-gowns, and other furniture or apparel: but the latter is more general, furniſhing various cloths, muſlins, callicoes, dimmities, and hangings, beſides being frequently joined with ſilk and flax in the compoſition of other ſtuffs.

Cotton in the wool is uſually brought from Cyprus and Smyrna, being produced in greater quantities in the neighbourhood of the latter place than any where elſe: they ſow the ſeed in June, and gather it in October, the ſoil being ſo favourable, that they can have three crops a year: ſo that, notwithſtanding there are generally brought from Smyrna 10,000 bales of cotton annually, there is at leaſt as much more ſpent in the manufactures of the country.

The beſt wool cotton is that of the plain of Darnamas, being the moſt beautiful, and whiteſt of all thoſe ſold at Smyrna; the price of which is uſually from 1 l. to 1 l. 5 s. the quintal of 44 ocos; riſing, however, or falling, according as the ſale of ſpun cotton is more or leſs conſiderable. For the ſpun cottons, they are diſtinguiſhed by ſeveral names; but the beſt are thoſe from Jeruſalem, called *bazacs*; and thoſe of Damaſcus, called *cottons of the ounce*; the reſt being diſtinguiſhed by the names of demi bazacs, baladins, payas, cottons joſeph genegunſo, and others.

The ſpun cottons of the Eaſt Indies, known by the names of Tutucorin, Java, Bengal, and Surat, are divided into four or five ſorts, diſtinguiſhed by A, B, C, and

and are ſold in ſacks; one pound and a half being deducted for each ſack, for the ſpun cottons of Tutucorin, which are deareſt, and two pounds for the two other ſorts.

Beſides the common cotton, which grows in abundance throughout all Perſia, there are two other ſorts; one of which is a kind of wad, and the other reſembling the cotton of the Antilles.

The manufactures of cotton are now become ſo great an employment for the poor of Great Britain, as to bring an additional wealth to the kingdom; where, after being curiouſly picked and ſpun, it makes dimities, tapes, ſtockings, and gloves; beſides ſeveral things wove fit for uſe, as waiſtcoats, petticoats, and drawers, of different ſtripes and fineneſs; with all which Great Britain ſupplies her plantations, and other foreign markets; nor is it doubted but the workmen in England would equal thoſe in the Eaſt Indies for callicoes, had they encouragment. See *Plantations*, for regulations on importing this commodity.

COTTA. A kind of meaſure, uſed in the Maldives for meaſuring the coris, of which it contains 12,000.

COTTIMO. A commercial term, uſed in the port-towns of the Levant, ſignifying a conſular duty impoſed at ſo much *per cent.* on ſhipping, either for the payment of ſome Turkiſh extortions, or other common national affairs.

COVERLET, or *Coverlid.* An ornamental covering, for bed-furniture, thrown over all the other cloaths.

COVERON. A ſmall port of France. See *France.*

COULAN, or *Quilon.* A fort or factory belonging to the Dutch, ſituated in 75 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 8 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the Malabar coaſt of the Hither India. See *India.*

COUNCIL. An aſſembly, or meeting, of the moſt conſiderable perſons, or officers, in the nation, to concert meaſures for the adminiſtration of public affairs.

The Privy COUNCIL, is a council of ſtate held by the King, to concert matters for the ſafety, honour, and welfare of the public; ſuch as, negotiations, or treaties, with foreign princes, iſſuing out proclamations, and determining important controverſies.

COUNCIL *of war*, at ſea, is an aſſembly of the principal officers, convened by the admiral, or other commanding officer, to conſult in what manner to regulate their actions. See *Admiral.*

Common COUNCIL. See *Common Council.*

COUNTER-*bond*, is a bond given to indemnify a perſon who has given his bond for another, which is alſo called *counter-ſecurity.*

COUNTER-*change.* A mutual exchange between two parties. See *Exchange.*

COUNTER-*mark.* A word applied, in commerce, to the ſeveral marks put on a bale of goods belonging to ſeveral merchants, that it may not be opened but in the preſence of them all, or their agents.

In goldſmiths works, the counter-mark is the mark or puncheon of the hall, or company, to ſhew the metal is ſtandard, added to that of the artificer who made it.

COUNTER-*part*, in law, is the duplicate, or copy, of any indenture or deed.

COUNTER-*poize*, any thing ſerving to weigh againſt another; particularly a piece of metal, ordinarily braſs or iron, making a part of the *ſtatera Romana*, or ſteelyard; which is contrived to ſlide along the beam; and, from the diviſion in which it keeps the ballance in equilibrio, the weight of the body is determined. But it is alſo called the *pear*, on account of its figure; and *maſs*, by reaſon of its weight. See *Ballance.*

COUNTER-*poiſon.* An antidote, or remedy, preventing the effect of poiſon; of which kind are Venice treacle, mithridate, and orvietan. See *Mithridate*, and *Theriaca.*

Counter-poiſons are either general or ſpecific: to the general kind belong angelica, rice, carduus benedictus, the vince-toxicum, dittany, ſcorzonera, citrons, bezoar, hartſhorn, and others: for ſpecificks, citron-bark is a counter-poiſon to nux vomica, Venice treacle to the bite of a viper, oil of ſcorpion to the bite of ſcorpions, oil of pine-apples to orpiment, and gentian to the cicuta.

COUNTER *ſigning.* The ſigning an order, or patent, of a ſuperior, in quality of ſecretary, to render the thing more authentic: thus charters are ſigned by the King, and counterſigned by a ſecretary of ſtate, or Lord Chancellor.

COUNTER-*tally*, one of the two tallies whereon any thing is ſcored. See *Tally.*

COUNTING-*houſe.* See *Compting-houſe.*

COUPANT. A Japaneſe piece of gold or ſilver, of an oval figure.

There are ſome gold ones that weigh one ounce, ſix drams, being worth about 3 l. 12 s. 6 d. ſterling: but theſe pieces are extremely long and broad, their greater diameter being upwards of 4 inches, and the ſmaller of 2 inches and a half: though there are other gold coupants about a third of the large ones, both in form and weight, amounting to about 1 l. 4 s. 2 d. ſterling.

The coupant of ſilver is worth 1 s. 2 d. ſterling: but theſe are not properly coins, being generally taken by weight.

COUPANT, is alſo a ſmall weight, uſed in the iſland of Borneo, for weighing diamonds; 10 coupants weighing between 30 and 40 carats.

COUPLE, in trade, is a pair, or two things of the like kind or ſort; particularly of fowl and rabbits.

COURANT. See *Current.*

COURLAND *Duchy*, is ſituated between 21 and 26 deg. E. lon. and between 56 deg. 30 min. and 57 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. bounded by the river Dwina, which divides it from Livonia, in Ruſſia, on the north; by Lithuania, in Poland, on the Eaſt; by Samogitia on the ſouth; and by the Baltic ſea on the weſt; being 130 miles long, and 30 broad.

This dutchy is uſually reckoned a province of Poland; but the Courlanders elect their own princes, and are governed by their own laws: however, they are influenced in their choice, either by the Poles or the Ruſſians: though the latter ſeem to have the greateſt influence on them at preſent, as they are the moſt powerful nation; and having ſent Count Biron, the late Duke of Courland, into baniſhment in Siberia, ſince which time the ducal dignity has been ſuſpended.

The capital of this country is the city of Mittau, ſituated on the river Muſſa, about 30 miles S. of Riga; the other principal places are, Goldingen, and Windaw; but they are not remarkable for any kind of commerce. See *Ruſſia*, and *Poland.*

The only port belonging properly to Courland is Libaw, on the Baltic; tho' Memel, at the entrance of the gulph of Courland, belonging to Ducal Pruſſia, might be ſaid to ſerve it alſo for a port; and to be the ſtaple with the former of all its commerce, which conſiſts chiefly in corn, linſeed, flax, hemp, yarn, timber, maſts, tar, honey, wax, pot-aſhes, tallow, and goat-ſkins.

The linſeed and hempſeed brought from this dutchy in great quantities, are the moſt eſteemed of all other kinds in the north; a great conſumption whereof is made either in Holland for oil; or in France, Flanders, Ireland, and Great Britain, for ſowing: the Dutch alone employing in this commerce to the amount of 25 ſhips yearly.

COUROU. A money of accompt uſed in the territories of the Mogul. The courou of rupees making 100,000 lacks of rupees, and the lack 100,000 rupees, or 12,500 l. ſterling.

COURSE, in navigation, the point of the compaſs, or horizon, on which a ſhip ſteers. See *Point*, and *Compaſs.*

When a veſſel begins its courſe, the wind wherewith it is driven makes a certain angle with the meridian of the place; and, as it is here ſuppoſed, the veſſel follows exactly the direction of the wind, making the ſame angle with the meridian which the wind makes: the wind is likewiſe ſuppoſed the ſame; and becauſe each point, or inſtant of a courſe may be regarded as the firſt, every moment of the courſe it makes the ſame angle with the wind.

Now a wind that is N. E. in England, and by conſequence makes an angle of 45 degrees with our meridian, is N. E. wherever it blows, making the ſame angle of 45 degrees with all the meridians it meets. The courſe of a veſſel therefore driven by the ſame wind makes the

ſame angle with all the meridians on the ſurface of the globe. If the veſſel run N. and S. it makes an angle infinitely ſmall with the meridian, being parallel to it, or never going from it; if it run E. and W. it cuts all the meridians at right angles; in the firſt caſe deſcribing a great circle; in the ſecond either a great circle, which is the equator, or a parallel. But if the courſe lies between the two, it does not then deſcribe a circle, becauſe a circle drawn in ſuch a manner would cut all the meridians at unequal angles; it therefore deſcribes a ſpiral, or curve, the eſſential condition whereof is, to cut all the meridians under the ſame angle, called the *loxodromic curve*, or *loxodromy*, popularly rhumb. See *Rhumb*.

The ſhip's courſe therefore, except in the two firſt caſes, is always a loxodromic curve; and the hypotheneuſe of a rectangle triangle, whoſe two other ſides are the ſhip's way in latitude and longitude.

The latitude is uſually had by obſervation; and the rhumb, or angle of the courſe, is had by the compaſs, together with the one or other of the two ſides; what remains to be calculated in ſailing being the quantity of the longitude, and of the rhumb or courſe. See *Sailing*, and *Chart*.

Complement of the COURSE. See *Complement*.

COURT-*martial*, is a court conſiſting of officers belonging to the royal navy, for trial of delinquents acting contrary to the maritime laws.

By the ſtatute of the 22d of George II. it was enacted, That no court-martial ſhould conſiſt of more than thirteen, or of leſs than five perſons; and no member of a court-martial, after trial is begun, ſhall go on ſhore till ſentence be given, except in caſe of ſickneſs, upon pain of being caſhiered. But no commander in chief of any fleet, or ſquadron, of his Majeſty's ſhips, or detachment thereof, conſiſting of more than five ſhips, ſhall preſide at any court-martial in foreign parts; becauſe the next officer in command is to hold ſuch court-martial, and preſide thereat; though if any material objection occurs againſt the ſecond officer, the third is to be appointed.

General COURT, in companies of commerce, ſuch as the Eaſt India and South Sea companies, are thoſe aſſemblies where every ſtock-holder has a right to appear, and interfere in the deliberations of the day, which is only upon extraordinary occaſions.

COURT *of Pie-pouder*. See *Pie-pouder*.

COUTANCES. A port-town of Normandy, ſituated in 1 deg. 32 min. of W. lon. and 49 deg. 10 min. of N. lat. See *France*.

COW, or what in the country language is called a kine, that female well-known creature which produces much milk, both for immediate uſe and to make butter and cheeſe; or that alſo brings forth young, called calves, of which, as they grow up to maturity, the males are again called bulls, or oxen, and the females heifers, or cows; whoſe fleſh when killed for food is called beef. See *Beef*, *Butcher*, and *Butter*.

COWES. A town and harbour on the N. coaſt of the Iſle of Wight, ſituated in 1 deg. 25 min. of W. lon. and 50 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. See *Britiſh Iſles*.

COZUMEL. An iſland near the W. coaſt of Jucatan, in America, ſituat d in 89 deg. of W. lon. and 19 deg. of N. lat. where Cortez landed and refreſhed his troops, before he entered on the conqueſt of Mexico. See *Spaniſh America*.

CRAB. A ſea ſhell-fiſh, both large and ſmall; as alſo a wild and ſour apple, which produces verjuice; and likewiſe an engine with claws to heave ſhips off or on the ſtocks, to launch or repair them.

CRABS-*Eyes*, *Oculi Cancorum*, or *Lapides Cancorum*, are little white round ſtones, uſually flat, ſo called becauſe taken out of the craw-fiſh, or river-lobſter; and tho' bearing no great ſimilarity to eyes, yet reſembling them more than any other part; which are much uſed in medicine as a powerful alkali or abſorbent.

CRADLE. A convenience made by baſket-makers, of oziers, for children to ſleep in; and among ſhipwrights it is the wooden frame in which a ſhip is either built or repaired for the convenience of launching her with eaſe and ſafety.

CRACOW, ſometimes reckoned the capital city of Poland, is ſituated in 19 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 50 deg. of N. lat. near the banks of the Viſtula. See *Poland*.

CRAFT, ſignifies a trade; but in the ſea-language it implies all manner of lines, nets, hooks, and the like, which ſerve for fiſhing: hence, as thoſe who uſe the fiſhing-trade uſe ſmall veſſels, ſuch as ketches, hoys, ſmacks, and boats, they call ſuch little veſſels ſmall-craft.

CRAMP-*iron*. A piece of iron bent at each extreme, ſerving to bind together pieces of wood, ſtones, or other things.

CRANAGE. A liberty to uſe a crane, for drawing goods out of a ſhip, hoy, or other veſſel, at a wharf, and to make profit thereof: but the word ſignifies the money taken or paid for the ſame. See *Wharfage*.

CRANE. A machine uſed in building and commerce, for the raiſing of large ſtones and other weights, conſiſting of ſeveral members or pieces; the principal whereof is a ſtrong perpendicular beam, firmly fixed in the ground, and ſuſtained by eight arms, coming from the extremities of four pieces of wood laid acroſs; through the middle whereof the foot of the beam paſſes, the arms meeting about the middle of the beam, where they are mortiſed into it. Its top ends in an iron pivot, whereon is bore a tranſverſe piece, advancing out to a good diſtance, in manner of a crane's neck, whence it is denominated. The middle and extremity of this is again ſuſtained by arms from the middle of the beam; and over it comes a rope, or cable, to one end whereof the weight is fixed; the other is wound round the ſpindle of a wheel, which when turned draws the rope, and that heaves up the weight, to be afterwards applied to any ſide or quarter, by the mobility of the tranſverſe piece on the pivot.

CRANE-*lines*, in a ſhip, are lines going from the upper end of the ſprit-ſail-top-maſt, to the middle of the fore-ſtays, ſerving to keep the ſprit-ſail-top-maſt upright and ſteady.

CRANGANOR. A Dutch factory, ſituated in 75 deg. 5 min. of E. lon. and 10 deg. of N. lat. on the Malabar coaſt, in the Hither India. See *India*.

CRANK, is a term uſed in the ſea-language: thus a ſhip is ſaid to be *crank-ſided* when ſhe cannot bear her ſails; or can bear but ſmall ſail for fear of overſetting: ſhe is alſo ſaid to be *crank by the ground*, when her floor is ſo narrow that ſhe cannot be brought on ground without danger.

CRAPE. A light tranſparent ſtuff, in manner of gauze, made of raw ſilk, gummed and twiſted on the mill; wove without croſſing, and much uſed in mourning, being either craped, that is criſped, or ſmooth: the firſt double, expreſſing a cloſer mourning; the latter ſingle, uſed for that leſs deep; both of which are generally black: the white being reſerved for young people, or thoſe devoted to virginity: but they are all dyed raw.

The ſilk deſtined for the firſt is more twiſted than that for the ſecond; it being the greater or leſs degree of twiſting, eſpecially of the warp, which produces the criſping given it when taken out of the loom, ſteeped in clear water, and rubbed with a piece of wax for that purpoſe.

The invention of this ſtuff came originally from Bologna, in Italy; but its chief manufacture is ſaid to be at Lyons, in France.

CRAVATS, is a term for a certain muſlin uſed in the making of cravats for the neck, which is brought from the Eaſt Indies, particularly from Bengal, and is of two ſorts: the one edged with white cotton thread, and the other ſtriped with the ſame. The edged is of eight cravats the piece, each cravat being about 1 ell $\frac{3}{8}$ long, and $\frac{7}{16}$ broad: the ſtriped is of ten cravats the piece, each cravat of 1 ell $\frac{1}{3}$, 1 ell $\frac{1}{4}$, and 1 ell $\frac{3}{8}$ long, and of different breadths, from $\frac{6}{16}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ an ell $\frac{1}{16}$, or $\frac{9}{16}$.

CRAYON. A general name for all coloured ſtones, earths, or other minerals, uſed in deſigning, or painting in paſtel, whether they have been beaten and reduced to a paſte; or are uſed in their primitive conſiſtence of a ſtone, after ſawing or cutting them into long narrow ſlips: in which laſt manner red crayons are made, of blood ſtone, or red chalk; as black ones are of charcoal

coal and black lead: crayons of all colours being compoſitions of earths reduced to paſte.

CREAM, the thickeſt and fatteſt part of milk, of which butter is made. See *Butter*.

CREAM *of Tartar*, in pharmacy, is a preparation of tartar, otherwiſe called *cryſtal of tartar*, reputed a great ſweetner of the blood; its operation being by ſtool; and, by reaſon of its ſaline particles, pretty much alſo by urine. See *Tartar*.

CREDIT, in commerce, a mutual truſt, or loan, of merchandiſes or money; on the reputation of the probity and ſolvability of a dealer.

Trade cannot be carried on without credit; the manufacturer muſt truſt his employer, the employer his merchant, the merchant his tradeſman, and the tradeſman his cuſtomer: ſo that trade is chiefly ſupported in England by this circulation of credit, which has been complained of, as contrary to the firſt principles of trade, and prejudicial to its intereſt: for by the merchant giving large credit to young tradeſmen, without proper capitals, many bankrupts have aroſe; whereby the manufactures have ſunk in their ſtaple and reputation; for bad credit produces bad commodities.

Letters of CREDIT, are thoſe given to perſons in whom a merchant can truſt, to take money of his coreſpondent abroad, in caſe he happens to have neceſſity for it.

CREDIT, is alſo uſed for the currency which papers, or bills, have in the public, and among dealers: for, in this ſenſe, credit is ſaid to riſe, when, in negociating the ſhares of a company, they are received and ſold at prices above par, or the ſtandard of their firſt creation.

Diſ-CREDIT is oppoſed to credit, being uſed where money or bills fall below par.

National, or public CREDIT, ariſes from the probity, and is dependant upon the honour and exact performing of national engagements: ſuch are the ſeveral mortgages of the Britiſh revenues, on the loans advanced to the government by public companies, or paid in to the exchequer by private perſons as annuitants: ſuch was the mortgage of Sileſia to the Britiſh merchants, by the Emperor of Germany: and ſuch was the mortgage of the Piedmonteſe revenues, for 200,000 l. advanced to his Sardinian Majeſty by the Britiſh ſubjects. This ſort of credit is the conſequence of honourable, juſt, and punctual management in the matter of funds and taxes, or loans upon them; and is wholly depending upon the King and parliament in Great Britain; the latter in eſtabliſhing ſufficient funds; and the former in placing able officers, and obliging them to an honourable management. This credit of the Britiſh nation received a violent ſhock in the year 1720, when many families were impoveriſhed by the fatal bubble of the South Sea company; the like happened in France on failure of the Miſſiſippi ſcheme; but the methods taken for reſtoring public credit in England have ſo happily ſucceeded, that the national credit is now firmly eſtabliſhed. See *National Debt*, and *Fund*.

Votes of CREDIT, were frequent in the firſt year of King William III. when, at the beginning of a ſeſſion, money was wanting for providing for the ſervices of the next year, before the ſupplies were granted, or any money-bills could paſs, the houſe of commons came to votes and reſolutions, that gave the crown a power to borrow any money, to a certain ſum, and at a certain rate, to be repaid out of the ſupplies to be granted that ſeſſion: which cuſtom was followed in the ſucceeding reigns.

CREDITOR. A perſon to whom any ſum of money is due, either by obligation, promiſe, contract, or otherwiſe, who, by the laws of the twelve tables, which were the foundation of the Roman juriſprudence, was allowed to tear or cut his debtor to pieces, in caſe he proved inſolvent; and by the Engliſh laws he has too arbitrary a power in caſes of inſolvency. See *Bankrupt*, and *Debtor*.

CREEK, or *Crick*, a ſmall bay, or part of a haven, where any thing may be landed from the ſea. See *Port*.

CREW, the company of ſailors belonging to a ſhip, boat, or other veſſel: thoſe ſailors that are to work and manage a ſhip being regulated by the number of tons it may carry; the crew of a Dutch ſhip from 80 to 100 ton is ſeven ſailors, and a ſwabber; from 100 to 120 the crew conſiſts of eight men and a ſwabber; and thus increaſes at the rate of one man for every 20 tons; ſo that a ſhip of 200 tons has 12 men: but Engliſh and French crews are uſually ſtronger than Dutch, though always in about the ſame proportion.

In a ſhip there are ſeveral particular crews or gangs; as the boatſwain's crew, the carpenter's crew, and the gunner's crew. See *Gang*.

CREWEL. A fine ſort of worſted, commonly made from the thrums or ends of the ſtuff of weavers canes, uſed for making or finiſhing curious needle-works.

CREWET, *Cruſe*, or *Cruet*. A ſmall glaſs veſſel, commonly uſed for containing oil or vinegar.

CRIER. An officer in market-towns, that goes up and down the ſtreets to make proclamation of things loſt, found, or to be ſold.

CRIMATI. One of the Sunda iſlands. See *Sunda Iſlands*.

CRIMP. An agent, or factor, for thoſe merchants who trade in coals, or are concerned in ſhipping for that trade.

CRIMSON. One of the ſeven red colours among dyers. See *Red*.

The ſtuffs to be dyed in crimſon, after they have been cleared of their ſoap, and ſtrongly allomed, are put in a decoction of cochineal, each according to its colour. See *Purple*.

CRIM-TARTARY. The ancient *Taurica Cherſoneſus*, a peninſula, ſituated near the Black ſea, between 33 and 37 deg. of E. lon. and 44 and 46 deg. of N. lat. ſubject to the Turks. See *Tartary* and *Turky*.

CROATIA. A frontier province of Germany, bounded by Sclavonia on the N. and E. by Boſnia on the S. and by Carniola on the W. ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria. See *Germany*.

CROCCEUS, or *Hoambo*, a river of China, in Aſia, riſing in the mountains on the weſt of the province of Suchuen, and running along the frontiers of Tartary beyond the great wall, which it re-enters; and then runs ſouth between the provinces of Xanſi and Xenſi, paſſing on eaſt through the provinces of Honan, Xantum, and Nankin; and, after a courſe of about 2000 miles, falls into the bay of Nankin, carrying with it a yellow ſort of ſlime or mud, from whence it is ſometimes denominated the yellow river.

CROCHE, or *Groſs*. A ſmall braſs coin, ſtruck at Baſil, in Switzerland, and current only in that canton, being worth 7 rapen and a half, or 1½ d. ſterling.

CROCK. A coarſe earthen pan; alſo the carcaſs of a dead ſheep.

CROCUS. A term uſed for ſaffron. See *Saffron*.

CROCUS, in chemiſtry, is a name given to ſeveral different preparations, for their red or ſaffron colour: as *crocus martis*, a preparation of iron, which is of two kinds; *crocus martis aperiens*, and *crocus martis aſtringens*.

CROCUS *metallorum*. A kind of impure opake glaſs of antimony, of a liver colour; hence frequently called *liver of antimony*, made by firing equal parts of powder of antimony and ſalt-petre, well mixed in an iron mortar, covered with a tile: its chief uſe being in making the *vinum emeticum*, or *benedictum*, by infuſing an ounce or two of the crocus powdered, in a quart of wine for 24 hours. See *Vinum Emeticum*.

CROISAT, or *Genouin*. A ſilver coin ſtruck at Genoa, and current in ſome other towns of Italy, being worth 7 livres 10 ſoldi, or 6 s. 6 d. ſterl.

CROMER. A port-town of Norfolk, much frequented by fiſhermen, eſpecially for lobſters.

CRONENBURG. A fortreſs of Denmark, ſituated on the iſland of Zealand, at the entrance of the Sound, in 12 deg. 5 min. of E. lon. and 56 deg. of N. lat. where the Danes take toll of ſuch ſhips as are bound for the Baltic. See *Denmark*.

CRONSLOT, or *Crown-caſtle*. A caſtle and harbour, in the little iſland of Cronſlot, in the mouth of the river Neva, and entrance of the gulph of Finland, in Ruſſia, ſituated in 30 deg. of E. lon. and 60 deg. of N. lat. where the Ruſſians ſtation their men of war, and keep great magazines of naval ſtores, docks and yards for building of ſhips.

CROP. The gathering, or collection of corn or hay, which any piece of ground affords.

CROSS-*Staff*. See *Fore-ſtaff*.

CROU, or *Carroa*. A kind of money of accompt uſed at Amadabat, and in almoſt all the Mogul's territories, being about 1,250,000 l. ſterling: one lac is 100,000 rupees; 100 lacs is a crou; a crou makes 4 arebs, and the areb is 312,500 l. ſterling.

CROUPER, that part of a horſe's furniture which goes under his tail, to keep the ſaddle ſteady.

CROUTAC. A ſilver coin current at Dantzick, Riga, Koningſberg, and ſome other towns of the North, being worth about 5 ½ d. ſterling.

CROW, in the ſea-language, a machine with an iron hook, for faſtening hold, and grappling with the enemy's veſſel in an engagement.

CROW's-*Feet*, in a ſhip, are ſmall ropes, or lines, ſometimes ſix, eight, or ten, reeved thro' the deadman's eye; but of little other uſe than to make a ſhew of ſmall rigging.

CROWN, in commerce, is a general name for coins both foreign and domeſtic, of, or near the value of 5 s. ſterl. In its limited ſenſe, the crown is only applicable to that popular Engliſh coin which bears the name, and is equivalent to ſixty Engliſh pence, or 5 ſhillings: but, in its extenſive ſenſe it includes ſeveral others; as the French ecu, or French crown, ſtruck in 1641 for 60 ſols, or 3 livres; alſo the patagon, dollar, ducatoon, rixdollar, and piaſtre, or piece of eight. See *Coin*, and *Money*.

CROWN-*glaſs*, denotes the fineſt kind of window glaſs. See *Glaſs*.

CRUCIBLE. A veſſel, uſually of earth, ſometimes iron, without any handle, uſed by chemiſts, coiners, glaziers, and other artificers, to melt and calcine gold, ſilver, or other metals, whereon they work.

CRUDE, ſomething that has not paſſed the fire, or has not had the degree of heat requiſite to prepare it for eating, or ſome other uſe.

CRUDE *Antimony*, is that which comes immediately from the mines, without any preparation. See *Antimony*.

CRUDE *Sugar*. See *Sugar*.

CRUISE, or *Cruize*, in the ſea-language, ſignifies to croſs to and fro; or to ſail up and down for guard of the ſeas, and protection of trade, or in ſearch of an enemy; the word being derived from the German kruis, a-croſs.

CRUISERS, or *Cruizers*, are ſuch veſſels as are employed by a government to ſail, or cruiſe about, in appointed ſtations, for the interception of ſmugglers, the ſecurity of trade, the intimidating of enemies, and the ſuppreſſion of pirates: but in Spain ſuch veſſels are called guarda coſtas. See *Guarda coſtas*.

In the war againſt France, during the reign of Q. Anne, 43 men of war were employed as cruizers, over and above the ſhips of war for the line of battle, and convoys for remote parts, conſiſting of ſix third-rates, twenty fourth-rates, 13 fifth-rates, and four ſixth rates; 9 of which were employed on the N. E. coaſt of Great Britain, and 3 on the N. W. coaſt thereof, the others being, by act of parliament, to cruize in ſuch ſtations as the commiſſioners of the admiralty ſhould direct. See *Convoy*, and *Smuggler*.

CRUSADE, or *Cruſado*. A ſilver Portugueſe coin, of two ſorts, old and new; the old being worth 2 s. 3 d. and the new 2 s. 8 ⅖ ſterling.

CRUSTACEOUS *fiſhes*, are thoſe covered with ſhells, conſiſting of ſeveral pieces or ſcales; as thoſe of crabs and lobſters, being uſually ſofter than the ſhells of the teſtaceous kind, which conſiſt of a ſingle piece, uſually much thicker and ſtronger than the former; ſuch as thoſe of the oyſter, ſcallop, and cockle. See *Fiſh* and *Teſtaceus*.

CRUYS DAELDER. A ſilver coin ſtruck at Koningſberg, a city of ducal Pruſſia, current in the ſtates of the King of Pruſſia, and in ſeveral others, particularly at Dantzick and Riga, being worth about 5 s. 3 d. ſterling.

CRUZ, or *St. Croix*, one of the Caribbee iſlands, in America, ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, in 64 deg. of W. lon. and 17 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. ſubject to France. See *French America*.

CRUX-*herring*. See *Herring*.

CRYSTAL, *Chryſtal*, or *Rock-cryſtal*. A kind of foſſil tranſparent ſtone, white like the diamond, but much inferior thereto in luſtre and hardneſs; being uſed for vaſes, urns, mirrors, and other things.

The Alps, and ſeveral other mountains of Europe, as alſo ſome of Aſia, produce rock-cryſtal; and, if we believe the French relation of Madagaſcar, that iſland yields more than all the world beſide.

Each cryſtal is encompaſſed and cloſed round with ſix others, whereby it becomes modelled into a hexagonal body, conſiſting of equal and ſquare ſides: its perfection lying in its luſtre and tranſparency; that with ſtraws, duſt, and clouds, being little valued.

It is of ſome uſe in medicine, being reputed an aſtringent, and, as ſuch, is uſed in diarrheas, and dyſenteries: it is alſo uſed to encreaſe the milk of nurſes; and is eſteemed a good antidote againſt arſenic.

Boerhaave takes cryſtal to be the proper matter or baſis of all gems or precious ſtones, which aſſume different forms and colours, from the different admixture of mineral and metallic fumes, with the primitive cryſtalline matter. See *Gem*.

CRYSTAL, is alſo uſed for a factitious body, caſt in the glaſs-houſes, called alſo *cryſtal-glaſs*; which in effect is only glaſs carried in the melting, and in the matter whereof it is compoſed, to a degree of perfection beyond the common glaſs: the beſt artificial cryſtals being reputed to be thoſe of Moran, near Venice, called *Venice cryſtal*, which are far inferior to the whiteneſs and vivacity of the natural cryſtal. See *Glaſs*.

CRYSTALS, in chemiſtry, expreſs ſalts, or matters ſhot, or congealed, in manner of cryſtal: thus cryſtal of allum is allum purified, and reduced into cryſtals in the ſame manner as tartar; in which manner vitriol, nitre, and other ſalts are cryſtallized. Cryſtals of allum are quadrangular, and brilliant like diamonds; thoſe of nitre white and oblong; thoſe of vitriol green, quadrangular, and ſhining.

CRYSTAL, *or cream of Tartar*. See *Cream of Tartar*, and *Tartar*.

CRYSTAL *of Tartar chalybeated*, is when it is impregnated with the moſt diſſoluble parts of iron.

CRYSTAL *of Tartar emetic*, is when it is charged with the ſulphureous parts of antimony, to render it vomitive.

CRYSTAL *mineral*, called alſo *mineral anodyne*, and *ſal prunella*, is ſalt-petre prepared with ſulphur; which is eſteemed good againſt the ſquinancy, whence its name of *ſal prunella*; *pruna*, or *prunel'a*, expreſſing that diſeaſe.

CRYSTAL *of ſilver*, denotes ſilver penetrated and reduced into the form of ſalts, by the pointed acids of ſpirit of nitre; which is uſed by ſurgeons for making eſchars, by way of cauſtics, on applying it to any part: but it is alſo of uſe internally, in dropſies and diſeaſes of the brain.

CRYSTAL *of Mars*, called alſo *ſalt*, or *vitriol of Mars*, is iron reduced into ſalts by an acid liquor, uſed in diſeaſes ariſing from obſtructions.

CRYSTAL *of Venus*, called alſo *vitriol of Venus*, is copper reduced into the form of vitriol by ſpirit of nitre, very cauſtic, and uſed to eat off proud fleſh.

Iceland CRYSTAL, a tranſparent fiſſile ſtone, brought from Iceland; ſoft as talc, clear as rock cryſtal, and without colour, famous among optic writers for its unuſual refractions.

It bears a red heat without loſing its tranſparency; and, in a very intenſe heat, calcines without fuſion: ſteeped a day or two in water it loſes its natural poliſh; rubbed on cloth it attracts ſtraws like amber, appearing in effect a kind of talc, being found in form of oblique parallelepipeds, with ſix parallelogramatic ſides, and eight ſolid angles. See *Talc*.

CRYSTAL *of arſenic*. See *Arſenic*.

CRYSTALLIZATION, in chemiſtry, a kind of congealation befalling ſalts, both eſſential, fixed, and volatile; when, being ſet free from the greateſt part of their humidity, they are left to harden, dry, and ſhoot into cryſtal.

CUBA, an iſland of North America, ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, between 74 and 87 deg. of W. lon. and between 20 and

20 and 23 deg. of N. lat. being 800 miles and upwards in length from E. to W. and generally about 60 miles broad. See *Spaniſh* America.

CUBAGUA. An American iſland, ſubject to Spain, ſituated between the iſland of Margaretta, and Terra Firma, in 64 deg. of W. lon. and 10 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. See *Spaniſh America*.

CUBEBS. A fruit brought from the iſland of Java, in grains, or ſeeds, reſembling pepper both in form and ſize; whence it has been called *wild pepper*: which fortify the ſtomach, brain, and other viſcera; and enter as an ingredient in ſeveral officinal compoſitions: but the natives are ſaid to boil it before exportation, to prevent its being ſown in other countries.

CUBIC *meaſure*. See *Meaſure*.

CUCULI *of the Levant*, or *Coculus Indiæ*, a kind of fruit ſomething bigger than a large pea, half red, and in figure reſembling a ſmall kidney, brought from the Levant and the Indies.

This fruit, adhering ſtrongly by a little ſtalk to the branch of the tree which produces it, has, in the middle, a little nut called the *coculus*, very ſubject to grow worm-eaten, which, when that is the caſe, makes them light and of no great value; ſo that they ſhould be choſen as heavy as poſſible, new, large, and high in colour.

Their uſe is for killing vermin; but they have alſo the property, mixed with a bait whoſe compoſition is eaſy, to intoxicate fiſh, eſpecially in ſtill water.

CUDDY, in a firſt-rate man of war, is a place lying between the captain's and the lieutenant's cabin, and the poop; being divided into partitions for the maſter and other officers.

CUERVO. See *Corvo*.

CULM. The powder or duſt of coal. See *Coal*.

CULVERIN, or *Culvering*. A long ſlender piece of ordnance or artillery, ſerving to carry a ball to a great diſtance: of which there are three kinds; the culverin extraordinary, the ordinary, and the leaſt ſized.

CULVERIN *extraordinary*, has 5 ½ inches bore; its length 32 calibers, or 13 feet, weighs 4800 pounds; its load above 12 lb. and carries a ſhot 5 inches ½ diameter, weighing 20 pounds.

CULVERIN *ordinary*, is 12 feet long, carries a ball of 17 pounds 5 ounces; caliber 5 ½ inches; its weight 4500 pounds.

CULVERIN *of the leaſt ſize*, has its diameter 5 inches, is 12 feet long, weighing about 4000 pounds; carries a ſhot 3 inches ¾ diameter, weighing 14 pounds 9 ounces.

CUMMIN, the ſeed of a plant of the ſame name, much like that of fennel; growing abundantly in the Iſle of Malta, where it is ſown and cultivated after the manner of corn; which is uſed with ſucceſs in vertigos, wind cholics, tympanies, and other diſorders: it is alſo eſteemed excellent to retrieve natural heat in ſtallions and bulls: pigeons are likewiſe exceedingly fond of it; whence ſome uſe it to people their dove-houſes, incorporating it with an earth naturally ſaline, or ſome other earth that has imbibed urine.

This ſeed, as well as the common aniſe, yields by expreſſion a kind of oil, eſteemed ſovereign in rheumatiſms, provided it is uſed with precaution and in ſmall quantities.

CUR, or *Cyrus*, a river of Aſia, riſing in Mount Caucaſus: it runs S. through Georgia and the province of Chirvan in Perſia, where it unites its waters with the river Araxes, and continues its courſe E. to the Caſpian ſea.

CURACOA, or *Curraſſow*, an iſland of the Leſſer Antilles, ſubject to the Dutch, ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, oppoſite to Coro, in 68 deg 30 min. of W. lon. and 12 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. See *Dutch* America.

CURNOCK, or *Comb*, an Engliſh corn meaſure, containing one ſack.

CURRANTS, *Corinths*, or *Currans*. A kind of little raiſins, or dried grapes, of different colours, black, white, or red, brought from ſeveral places of the Turkiſh Archipelago, and among others, from the iſthmus of Corinth, whence their name currants, or corinths; which muſt be choſen new, ſmall, and in large maſſes; but care ſhould be taken that the little Spaniſh currants are not mixed with them: and, when made up in bales, they may keep two or three years, without ſtirring or giving them air.

Their uſe is in ſeaſoning ſeveral viands, and in ſome medicinal compoſitions, where they ſerve in lieu of raiſins.

Sir George Wheeler's account of theſe fruits, and the manner of preparing them, is very curious. The iſland of Zant, he obſerves, is the chief place whence currants are brought; the Morea, or iſthmus of Corinth, which was anciently the principal plantation, now produces no more; being much neglected, and the jealouſy of the Turks not allowing large veſſels to enter the gulph to take them off of their hands. They grow not on buſhes, like gooſeberries, tho' that is the common opinion; but on vines, like other grapes, except that the leaves are ſomewhat thicker, and the grapes ſomewhat ſmaller; they have no ſtone, and in this country are all red, or rather black.

They gather them in Auguſt; diſpoſe them in couches on the ground till they dry; then clean them, and lay them up in magazines, which the natives call ſeraglio's, pouring them in at a hole, till the magazine is full; when they cling ſo faſt together, by their own weight, that they are forced to be dug out with iron inſtruments.

To barrel them for ſending abroad, they have people who greaſe their feet and legs, and tread them cloſe, that they may keep the better; they are ſold for about 3 l. ſterling the thouſand weight, and pay as much cuſtom to the ſtate of Venice.

Zant annually produces a ſufficiency to load five or ſix veſſels, Cephalonia three or four, and the other iſlands one. The Engliſh have a factory at Zant, the Dutch two or three merchants, and the French one; the Engliſh conſuming more than ſix times the quantity that both France and Holland do together: but the inhabitants of Zant know little of the uſe made of them in England; being perſuaded they only ſerve in dying of cloth, and being entirely ignorant of the luxury of Chriſtmas pyes, and Engliſh puddings.

CURASSOW. See *Curacoa*.

CURRENCY, in commerce, is that uninterrupted freedom, or paſſage of money, bills, or any thing elſe, that goes from one to another, without objection; and, in the Britiſh American colonies, paper-bills have the ſame currency as money. The exchange between England and Jamaica, is about 40 *per cent.* or 140 l. currency for 100 l. ſterling; between England and Barbadoes, about 30 *per cent.*; between England and the Leeward iſlands, about 60 *per cent.*; between England and Bermudas, about 30 *per cent*; between England and Virginia, about 25 *per cent.*; between England and Maryland, about 100 *per cent.*; between England and New York, the Jerſeys, and Penſylvania, from 65 to 70 *per cent.*; between England and Carolina, it has been at 700 *per cent.*; and between Old England and New England it has been 400 *per cent.* See *Paper*-bills, and *Paper*-money.

CURRENT, *Courant*, or *Currant*. A term uſed to expreſs the preſent time; thus the 21ſt current, is the 21ſt day of the preſent month.

With regard to commerce, the price-current of any merchandiſe, is the known or ordinary price accuſtomed to be given for it.

CURRENT, is alſo uſed for any thing that has courſe, or is received in commerce; in which ſenſe it is ſaid, *current coin*.

CURRENT *accompts*, or *Book of accompts current*. See *Book*-keeping.

CURRENT, in hydrography, a ſtream, or flux of water, in any direction.

Currents in the ſea, are either natural and general, as ariſing from the diurnal rotation of the earth on its axis; or accidental and particular, cauſed by the waters being driven againſt promontories, or into gulphs and ſtreights; where, wanting room to ſpread, they are driven back, and thus diſturb the ordinary flux of the ſea. See *Tides*.

The currents are ſo violent under the equator, where the motion of the earth is the greateſt, that they carry veſſels very ſpeedily from Africa to America, but abſolutely prevent their return the ſame way; ſo that ſhips are obliged to run as far as the 40th degree of lat. to find a paſſage into Europe.

In the ſtreights of Gibraltar, the currents almoſt conſtantly drive to the eaſtward, and carry ſhips into the Mediterranean; they are alſo uſually found to drive the ſame

way in St. George's channel: but the great violence and danger of the ſea in the ſtreights of Magellan, is attributed to two contrary currents ſetting in, one from the South, and the other from the North ſea.

CURRENTS, with reſpect to navigation, may be defined certain progreſſive motions of the water of the ſea, in ſeveral places, either quite down to the bottom, or to a certain determinate depth; by which a ſhip may happen to be carried forward more ſwiftly, or retarded in her courſe, according to the direction or ſetting of the current, in, with, or againſt the courſe or way of the ſhip. See *Navigation*.

The buſineſs of currents making a conſiderable article in navigation, the way they ſet, toge her with their ſtrength, is to be carefully obſerved; which ſome do by the ripplings of the water, and by the driving of the froth along the ſhore, when in ſight; but the more uſual, as well as moſt accurate way, is thus:

They firſt fix their boat, by throwing out a triangular piece of wood, with a piece of lead faſtened to it, and to the ſtem of the boat with a cord, and letting it ſink 60 fathom, or more; or ſometimes by a kettle tied by the bowl, and ſunk as the other: by either of theſe means, the boat is brought to ride at anchor; which done, the log is caſt over the glaſs turned; and as the log line veers out, the drift of the log is ſet with the compaſs. See *Log-line*. This ſhews whether there be any current or not, and, if any, which way it ſets, and at what rate it drives; obſerving, however, to add ſomething to the drift, for the boat's drift; for though ſhe appears to ſtand ſtill, yet in reality ſhe is found to move. This addition experience has thus determined; if the line ſhe rides by is 60 fathom, a third part of the drift to be added; if 80 fathom, a fourth; if 100, a fifth.

If a ſhip ſail along the direction of a current, it is evident the velocity of the current muſt be added to that of the veſſel: if her courſe is directly againſt the current, it muſt be ſubtracted: if ſhe ſail athwart the current, her motion will be compounded with that of the current, and her velocity augmented or retarded, according to the angle of her direction with that of the direction of the current; that is, ſhe will proceed in the diagonal of the two lines of direction, and will deſcribe or paſs through that diagonal in the ſame time wherein ſhe would have deſcribed either of the ſides by the ſeparate forces.

Under CURRENTS. Dr. Halley makes it highly probable, that, in the Downs, the ſtreights of Gibraltar, and ſuch other parts of the ſeas, there is an under current, whereby as much water is carried out as is brought in by the upper current.

This he argues from the offing between the North and South foreland, where it runs tide and half tide; that is, it is either ebb or flood in that part of the Downs three hours before it is ſo off at ſea: a certain ſign, that though the tide of flood runs aloft, yet the tide of ebb runs under foot cloſe by the ground; and ſo at the tide of ebb it will flow under foot: which he confirms by an experiment in the Baltic ſound, communicated to him by an able ſeaman preſent at the making of it. Being there then with one of the King's frigates, they went with their pinnace into the mid ſtream, and were carried violently by the current. Soon after that they ſunk a baſket, with a large cannon bullet, to a certain depth of water, which gave check to the boat's motion, and ſinking it ſtill lower and lower, the boat was driven a-head to the windward, againſt the upper current; the current aloft, not being above four or five fathom deep. He added, that the lower the baſket was let down, the ſtronger the under current was found.

From this principle, it is eaſy to account for that vaſt draught of water continually pouring in with the current out of the Atlantic into the Mediterranean, through the ſtreights of Gibraltar, a paſſage about 20 miles broad; yet without any ſenſible riſing of the water along the coaſts of Barbary, or any overflowing of the lands, which there lie very low.

CURRIED *hide*. See *Hide*.

CURRIER, is a perſon exerciſing the trade of dreſſing or preparing leather for ſeveral uſes after it is tanned.

CURRIERS *company of London*, is a ſociety that appears to be of conſiderable antiquity, by their having founded a guild, or religious fraternity, in the conventual church of White Friers in Fleetſtreet, in the year 1367: however, they were only incorporated by letters-patent of James I. dated the 30th of April 1605, by the appellation of The maſter, wardens, and commonalty, of the art or myſtery of the curriers of the city of London; the company conſiſting of a maſter, 2 wardens, 12 aſſiſtants, and 103 liverymen; who have a handſome hall at Cripplegate, in which they tranſact their buſineſs; and, upon their admiſſion, pay a fine of 9 l. 13 s. 4 d.

CURRYING. A method of preparing leather, with oil or tallow; which raiſes, on the hair or wool ſide, a kind of grain, not unlike that of Morocco; though there is alſo a kind of curried leather without grain. See *Leather*.

Currying is the laſt preparation, putting the leather in a condition to be uſed for ſhoes, ſaddles, harneſs, and other things, which is equally practiſed on ſheep, calf, and bullocks ſkins; the colours given in currying being black, white, red, yellow, and green: the other colours are given by the ſkinners, who differ from the curriers in this, that they apply their colours on the fleſh-ſide, the curriers on the hair-ſide. See *Skinner*.

By the ſtatute of the 12th of Geo. II. it was enacted, That if any currier ſhould not curry any leather brought or ſent to him by a dealer in leather, within ſixteen days, between the 28th of September and 25th of March in any year, and within eight days the remaining part of the year, after the leather is delivered to him, he ſhould forfeit 5 l.

CUSCO. The capital city of Peru, in S. America, during the reigns of the Incas, or Indian emperors, ſituated in 70 deg. of W. lon. and 13 deg. of S. lat. See South *America*.

CUSTOMER, is a term in trade, uſed as well for a cuſtom-houſe officer, as for the purchaſer of goods from a tradeſman.

CUSTOM-*Houſe*. An office, eſtabliſhed on the frontiers of a ſtate, or in ſome chief city, or port, for the receipt of the cuſtoms, and duties on importation and exportation, impoſed on merchandiſes, by the authority of the ſovereign, and regulated by tariffs, or books of rates. There are ſeveral cuſtom-houſes in the ſeveral ports of England: but the moſt conſiderable is that of London; which is under the direction of ſeven commiſſioners appointed by patent: who have the charge and management of all the cuſtoms in all the ports of England, excepting the petty-farms. Other officers are, a ſecretary, ſolicitor, receiver-general, comptroller of the iſſues and payments of the receiver general, comptroller general, inſpector of the out port collectors accompts, inſpector-general of the exports and imports, regiſter-general of all ſhips of Great Britain, ſurveyor-general, ſurveyor of the out-ports, regiſter of the ſeizures, and ſome other officers, holding their places by patent; with other inferior officers appointed by warrant from the board of treaſury: but Scotland and Ireland are under the direction of ſeparate commiſſioners.

CUSTOMS, in commerce, the dues, duties, tolls, or tax, paid by merchants to the King, or ſtate, for carrying out and bringing in of merchandiſes; which, in Great Britain, are duties, certain and perpetual, payable to the crown for goods exported and imported, being due to the King of common right; firſt, becauſe the ſubject hath permiſſion to depart the kingdom, and to export its commodities; ſecondly, for the intereſt and dominion which the King hath in the ſea, and as he is guardian of, or maintainer, of all the ports wherein the commodities are imported, or exported; and laſtly, for that the King protects merchants upon the ſeas, againſt enemies and pirates. See *Tax*, *Duty*, and *Exciſe*.

Though by the law of nature all things were common, and all perſons equal, there being neither property, King, nor ſubject; yet when the law of nature came to be limited by the law of nations, and ſuch a thing as property came to be claimed, it naturally cauſed trade and commerce; whereupon kings or rulers became abſolutely neceſſary, to maintain and defend ſuch property and commerce: and, in order to ſupport thoſe kings or princes in their offices of government; to defray the expences they muſt neceſſarily be at in maintaining ambaſſadors at foreign courts, chiefly to procure juſtice to be done to merchants; their charges of procuring treaties with foreign princes for the advancement of trade, and of maintaining a navy of ſhips for

for the defence of the merchants, by a protection at ſea from enemies and pirates; and alſo their charges in ſupporting a court of admiralty for the deciding of maritime cauſes; they ſeem originally to have taken tributes, or cuſtoms, by virtue of the prerogatives inherent to their crowns, as given to them by the law of nations; which having been paid cuſtomarily, time out of mind, were accounted as an eſtate of inheritance, annexed to their reſpective crowns.

The antiquity of cuſtoms is very great; becauſe hiſtorians mention, that, 60 years before the Chriſtian æra, when the Jews became tributary to Rome by the conqueſts of Pompey, cuſtom-money, or tribute, was exacted by the ſenate; and the antient Britons alſo paid cuſtoms to the Emperor Auguſtus, on exporting or importing any commodities to or from Gaul. Cuſtoms, ſubſidies, tolls, impoſts, and other duties upon commodities, imported or exported, are due to princes and ſtates by the general law of nations; they have a right to them by their prerogatives; and though a King of Great Britain cannot impoſe any duties on merchandiſe without conſent of the parliament; yet, by his prerogative, he may reſtrain merchants from trading without his royal licence.

Theſe cuſtoms differ, according to the ſituation and neceſſity of different countries: but it has been an adopted rule among them all, to lay the higheſt duties on the importation of goods from other countries, to diſcourage their coming in; while the duties on the exportation of their own goods are very low, often none at all, notwithſtanding they are to be paid by foreigners, in order to facilitate the exportation of them; having always this eſſential point in view, that as much as the commodities exported exceed thoſe imported, ſo much more money will come into the kingdom, and be detained there; and, from the contrary circumſtance, the miſery, depopulation, and ruin of the ſtate, will neceſſarily proceed. The merchant, therefore, intending to negotiate and traffic into any kingdom, ought firſt diligently and carefully to learn and obſerve the ſum and quantity payable upon all commodities in different places, and then honeſtly to ſatisfy the ſame, according to the ordinances and proceedings uſed reſpectively in thoſe countries; partly to avoid the danger of loſing the commodities, the non-payment being in many places the forfeiture; and partly the better to enable him to make his calculation either to buy or ſell to profit. In this material branch of buſineſs, the merchant may obtain information from a ſettled rate, by book, or particular tariff, in print or writing, to be generally found in places of trade; but in ſome places this cannot be had, and the trader muſt then learn what the duty and cuſtom of the place is; wherein much care and circumſpection are neceſſary; for the frauds practiſed in ſeveral cuſtomhouſes, where no ſuch books are public, are exceſſive, when either the cuſtomers collect the ſame to the immediate uſe of the prince, or to the uſe of ſuch as farm the revenue by his authority; many merchants being deceived by their artifices, which are not only detrimental to the merchant, but alſo to the prejudice of the prince, and of commerce in general. And as theſe variable cuſtoms require ſome explanation, the principal of them are repreſented as follows. 1ſt, A far greater cuſtom is paid in Spain, than in France, Italy, Turky, and ſome other places. 2dly, Some difference is alſo found in regard of times, as in privileged towns, enjoying free fairs, marts, and markets; ſuch as are obſerved by immemorial uſe in Rouen, Francfort, Meſſina, and other places, where the cuſtoms are then inconſiderable to what they are at other times. 3dly, Somewhat again in reſpect of cities, enjoying a more particular privilege and continued freedom in trade in ſeveral countries, where little or no cuſtom is paid upon any commodities, either during a year after importing the goods, or for a certain limited time; as at Leghorn, Marſeilles, and in ſeveral other free cities, eſpecially the hans towns. 4thly, In regard of commodities, as in England, and ſeveral other places, where ſome commodities are higher rated in the cuſtom than others; ſome paying after the rate of 5 *per cent.* ſome 10, ſome 15, and ſome 20. 5thly, In reſpect of the weight, as at Rouen by the vicont, in Lyons by the king's beam, in Stockholm by the merchant's weight, and ſo in other places where a large weight is uſed in favour of the merchants to pay their cuſtom by, and another leſs to buy and ſell. The knowledge of all theſe things are neceſſary to commerce; for in Ruſſia, Sweden, and Denmark, the law is, that if a merchant does not declare all his goods in the cuſtomhouſe; which he either intends for importation or exportation, but conceals ſome part of his merchandiſe; all the reſt of the ſame commodities are forfeited to the prince, without favour or redemption: in Spain, the commodities concealed are only forfeited, unleſs they are contraband, and then all is loſt: in Great Britain and Ireland, the goods concealed are only forfeited: in France, Germany, the Netherlands, and ſeveral places in Italy, the ſame rule is obſerved: and in Conſtantinople, Smyrna, and ſeveral places of Turky, the goods concealed are not all forfeited, but are to pay double the impoſed cuſtom, if taken, and then to be reſtored.

In England, the moſt ancient and principal tribute, or duties, that were paid to the ſovereign, ſeem to have been upon the exportation of merchandiſes croſſing the ſeas; which were of two different ſorts, and diſtinguiſhed by two different names, as cuſtoms, and priſes or priſage.

Cuſtoms were the duty payable for native commodities exported, particularly wool, wool-fells, and leather after certain rates; which were advanced or reduced at the King's pleaſure, as occaſion required; which duty having probably been payable from the beginning of the Britiſh monarchy, has been always diſtinguiſhed by the title of The great and antient cuſtoms: but now, according to the preſent acceptation of the word cuſtoms, it is uſed to ſignify the ſeveral duties which are payable on the importation, as well as exportation, of all commodities, goods, and merchandiſe whatſoever.

Priſes, or priſage, was the antient duty payable, or taken, for foreign commodities imported, not at any certain ſum of money, but by taking ſuch a part thereof in ſpecie as the kings thought ſufficient for their own proper uſe, paying for the ſame ſuch a price as they thought reaſonable, which was called the King's price. For wines, it was the practice to take one ton in ten, or two in twenty, paying no greater price than 20 s. *per* ton; and it may be ſuppoſed the priſage of other goods was in proportion. But K. Edw. I. by a charter made in the 31ſt year of his reign, called *charta mercatoria*, remitted this duty of priſage, to all merchant-ſtrangers, who, in lieu thereof, granted him a duty of 3 d. in the pound, commonly called petty-cuſtom, upon all native commodities exported, over and above the great cuſtoms before paid, and alſo upon all merchandiſes imported, except wines; and upon all wines imported 2 s. for every ton, being the duty that has been ſince called the butlerage.

Beſides the aforeſaid duties, there were in the reigns of Edward I. Edward II. Edward III. Queen Mary, Queen Elizabeth, K. James I. and K. Charles I. collected by virtue of their prerogatives only, ſeveral occaſional or temporary impoſitions, after ſeveral different rates, upon wines, and ſeveral other goods imported; as alſo on wool, cloths, and ſeveral other goods exported; which they cauſed to be levied, by only ſending their writs to the collectors of the cuſtoms in every port: but theſe impoſitions were ſometimes remitted, upon petition of their ſubjects in parliament; eſpecially when they would grant other aids, or ſubſidies, of greater value; yet when thoſe were ſpent, they have been oftentimes again renewed, or others of the like nature impoſed:

But, in proceſs of time, this abſolute and unlimited prerogative of the crown, of impoſing and levying the aforeſaid duties, came to be reſtrained, and in a great meaſure yielded up by the crown to the parliament: for, upon the frequent petitions of the ſubjects for the remiſſion thereof, and their free offers of ſufficient ſupplies by parliament, for all neceſſary occaſions, K. Edward III. and the ſeveral ſucceeding Kings and Queens, by his example, were contented to ſuſpend their antient and hereditary duties; which being very much decreaſed, were grown deficient; and, in lieu thereof, to accept of either ſuch temporary ſubſidies or aids by parliament, as ſhould be thought ſufficient to aſſiſt them upon any extraordinary occaſions or emergenies, or of ſuch fixed and ſettled ſubſidies as ſhould

be

be ſufficient for the ſupport of the honour and dignity of the crown, the defence of the realm, and the ſafeguard of the ſeas, during their reſpective lives; and thoſe parliamentary ſubſidies were always compoſed of two ſeveral and diſtinct parts, a tonnage, and a poundage.

Tonnage was originally granted by parliament to K. Edward III. being payable upon all wines imported, after the particular rates, and according to the particular methods preſcribed by the ſeveral laws which granted this duty to the reſpective Kings and Queens; being at firſt no more than 2 s. *per* ton, though in ſucceeding reigns it was very much increaſed.

Poundage was firſt granted to Henry VI. for life, being payable on all other merchandiſe, imported and exported, according to the particular rates and values preſcribed by the ſeveral laws which granted this duty to the reſpective kings and queens, being at firſt no more than 6 d. in the pound. And to this ſubſidy of tonnage and poundage there was likewiſe, in the latter reigns, annexed a ſubſidy of woollen cloth or old drapery, which was payable upon all woollen cloths exported, after the particular rates, and the particular proportions preſcribed in the reſpective books of rates; for every grant of parliament is properly a ſubſidy. But, after the reſtoration of K. Charles II. the aforeſaid ſubſidies, which before had underwent ſeveral different regulations, were ſettled and eſtabliſhed upon the foundation they now ſtand, and granted to his ſaid majeſty during his life, for the defraying his neceſſary expences in guarding and defending the ſeas againſt all perſons intending the diſturbance of his ſubjects in the intercourſe of trade, and the invading of this realm, which were ſettled by an act paſſed in the 12th year of his reign, entitled, A ſubſidy granted to the King, of tonnage and poundage, and other ſums of money payable upon merchandiſe exported and imported, referring to, and enforcing a book of merchandiſe, according to which the ſaid duties were to be levied and collected. See Book of *Rates*.

Beſides, upon the model of, and with reference to this ſubſidy of tonnage and poundage granted to K. Charles II. there has, for the defraying the expences of wars, and other neceſſary and extraordinary occaſions, been granted by ſubſequent acts of parliament, ſeveral additional ſubſidies, impoſitions, and new duties; which being to be levied and collected after the manner of the aforeſaid ſubſidy, upon the importation and exportation of ſeveral ſorts of goods and merchandiſes, are uſually, tho' improperly, comprehended under the general name of cuſtoms.

For the cuſtoms are now really become a perfect ſcience, there having been no leſs than 30 additional branches, or particular duties, impoſed ſince the reſtoration of King Charles II.; and the laws preſcribing the manner and means for the levying and collecting of thoſe duties, with thoſe that were thought neceſſary to be made for the preſervation and ſecurity of the revenue in general, within theſe fifty years paſt, have ſo encreaſed the number, that the body of cuſtomhouſe laws is now ſwelled to above ten times its former bulk. But as they are ſo numerous, and many of them often made with an eye only to ſome particular purpoſe, without regard to the circumſtances and regulations preſcribed in former acts, it muſt naturally happen, that they will ſometimes claſh and interfere; ſo that in many caſes it is very difficult to know whether a law is in force, or not: therefore it is no wonder that they are no better underſtood by too many, whoſe buſineſs it is to execute them; and much leſs by moſt others, whoſe intereſt it is to know the privileges to which they entitle them, and the penalties to which they ſubject them, that they may reap the benefit of the one, and avoid the puniſhment of the other.

In the reign of Edward III. the great charter for free traffic was confirmed; though it was then enacted, by a particular ſtatute, that no new cuſtoms ſhould be levied, nor antient increaſed, but by authority of parliament: however, it has been reſolved, upon a reference to the judges, that where a foreign prince lays a duty on merchandiſes imported by Engliſh merchants abroad; in ſuch caſe, the King may lay a duty upon the goods belonging to the ſubjects of ſuch foreign prince imported in England, to make an equality for the benefit of trade; though ſuch duty cannot have any certain continuance, but is to be augmented, decreaſed, or quite taken away, upon juſt occaſion, for the advancement of trade, and the public good; theſe impoſitions being for the profit of the common people, and not to their charge. See *Duty*.

The cuſtoms in England are very numerous, and very high, perhaps beyond what any other trading nation knows, amounting annually to 1,300,000 l. on an average; whereof thoſe of the port of London make a third part; the whole conſiſting of the following branches.

The ſeveral particular branches of the revenue, at preſent payable to his Majeſty in Great Britain, upon goods and merchandiſes imported, exported, and brought coaſtways, are diſtinguiſhed by the following denominations.

No.	No.
1	Cuſtoms, I. Old ſubſidy.
	II. Petty cuſtom.
	III. Additional duty.
	IV. One *per cent.* inwards.
	V. Compoſition on petty ſeizures.
2	New ſubſidy.
3	One third ſubſidy.
4	Two thirds ſubſidy.
5	Impoſt on wines and vinegar.
6	Impoſt on tobacco.
7	Impoſt 1690.
8	Impoſt 1692-3.
9	New duty on whalefins.
10	Fifteen *per cent.* on muſlins.
11	New duty on ſpice and pictures.
12	Additional duty on ſpice and pictures; and new duty on drugs, white callicoes, dimities, and other manufactures of cotton; and China ware.
13	Second 25 *per cent.* on French goods.
14	Coinage.
15	New duty on pepper and raiſins; and a further duty on ſpice.
16	New duty on candles imported.
17	New duty on coals, culm, and cinders.
18	Subſidy, and 1 *per cent.* outwards.
19	Additional duty on coals, culm, and cinders.
20	Additional duty on candles imported.
21	New duty on hops imported.
22	New duty on hides, ſkins, parchment, vellum, cards, and dice, imported.
23	Additional duty on hides, ſkins, parchment, and vellum; and new duty on ſtarch, and gilt and ſilver wire, imported.
24	New duty on ſoap, paper, millboards, paſteboards, ſcaleboards, and linens chequered, ſtriped, &c. imported.
25	Additional duty on ſoap, paper, millboards, paſteboards, ſcaleboards, linen chequered, ſtriped, &c. and ſtarch, imported.
26	New duty on coals exported.
27	New duty on ſail-cloth imported.
28	New duty on wrought plate imported.
29	New duty on apples imported.
30	New duty on cambrics imported.
31	Exciſe on ſalt imported.
32	Exciſe on liquors imported.
33	Inland duty on coffee, tea, and chocolate.
34	Unrated goods.
35	Priſage and butlerage.

1. The branch of *cuſtoms*, comprehending the following particular duties: *Old ſubſidy*, or *ſubſidy inwards*; *Petty cuſtom*; *Additional duty*; *One* per cent. *inwards*; and *Compoſition on petty ſeizures*; was firſt granted, except the 1 *per cent.* to King Charles II. in 1660, and continued for ever by the 11th year of King George I.

By 6th Anne, the one half of the cuſtoms was appropriated to annuities for 96 years; but, by 1ſt George I. was, after the expiration thereof, together with the ſurplus, made part of the general or aggregate fund, and continued to the bank of England: and, by the 3d, 5th, and 11th of Geo. I. the whole was continued to the bank of England for ſecurity of the payment of one annuity of 71,001 l. 2 s. 3¾; and one other annuity of 80,000 l. till redeemed by parliament; being after the rate of 4 l. *per*

cent. per annum on the principal of 1,775,027l. 17s. 10½d. and 2,000,000l.

But by 9th George II. ſo much as ſhall be raiſed on brandy, and other ſpirits, is to be wholly applied to the aggregate fund; as are all the other branches that the ſaid commodities are liable to. See *Bank of England.*

N° 1. *Old ſubſidy*, or *ſubſidy inwards*,—is a duty conſiſting of two diſtinct parts, tonnage, and poundage.

Tonnage is payable in ready money upon all wines, except priſage-wines; and alſo upon perry, rape of grapes, cyder, cyder-eager, and vinegar, imported, as follows.

		The groſs ſubſidy *per* ton.
Rheniſh or Hungary wines imported into any port,		
	By Britiſh - - -	6 0 0
	By ſtrangers, or in ſhips not belonging to Great Britain or Ireland, or foreign built	7 10 0
Levant wines imported to London, Briſtol, or Southampton,	By Britiſh - -	4 10 0
	By ſtrangers, or in ſhips not belonging to Great Britain or Ireland, or foreign built -	6 0 0
Other ports,	By Britiſh - -	3 0 0
	By ſtrangers, or in ſhips not belonging to Great Britain or Ireland, or foreign built	4 10 0
All other wines imported into London,	By Britiſh - - -	4 10 0
	By ſtrangers, or in ſhips not belonging to Great Britain or Ireland, or foreign built -	6 0 0
Other ports,	By Britiſh - - -	3 0 0
	By ſtrangers, or in ſhips not belonging to Great Britain or Ireland, or foreign built	4 10 0

But when wines are firſt landed and entered in the out-ports, and are afterwards brought to London by certificate, the difference of the duties, or what they paid ſhort of the duty due in London muſt be there paid, being what is uſually called the *London duty.*

	The groſs duty *per* ton.
Perry, rape of grapes, cyder, cyder-eager, and vinegar imported,	
By Britiſh - - -	4 10 0
By ſtrangers - - -	6 0 0

But, in conſideration of any leakage which may happen during the voyage, if the ſaid liquors are imported in caſks, and entered as unfilled up, the merchant is to be allowed 12 *per cent.* out of the aforeſaid groſs duties: but if he thinks ſuch allowance not to be equal to the leakage, and ſhall chuſe to enter them as filled up, he loſes the ſaid allowance, and pays duty for no more than is actually contained in the caſks.

Though, in ſtrictneſs, when wines are brought into London by certificate from the out-ports, they ſhould pay only the difference of the duty, or what they have paid ſhort of the duty due in London, according to the nature of the entry; yet it is the practice always to take the ſaid difference as if the wines had been entered filled, and ſo not to allow this 12 *per cent.* for leakage, notwithſtanding the wines may have been at firſt entered as unfilled.

And upon the importation of wines in caſks, there is alſo the following allowances to be made out of the groſs duty.

	Diſcount.
Rheniſh wines, or wines of the growth of Germany, or which pay duty as ſuch, -	2 *per cent.*
French wines, or wines of the growth of any of the French King's dominions -	6 *per cent.*
Spaniſh, Portugal, and all other wines -	10 *per cent.*

Poundage is payable in ready money upon all goods and merchandiſes imported, except theſe following:

Wines, perry, *&c.* as being liable to tonnage.
Fiſh, Britiſh, taken and brought by Britiſh bottoms.

Freſh fiſh.
Beaſtial.
All goods mentioned in the book of rates to be cuſtom-free.
Diamonds, pearls, rubies, emeralds, jewels, and precious ſtones.

It is to be levied and collected according to the particular rates affixed upon the reſpective goods in the firſt or ſecond column of rates inwards; or, if there not rated, according to the real value and price of the goods, to be aſcertained by the oath or affirmation of the merchant, in the preſence of the cuſtomer, collector, comptroller, and ſurveyor, or any two of them; except upon ſuch goods as are of the growth product, or manufacture of the Eaſt Indies, or China, and are not particularly rated in the firſt column of rates; the ſubſidy whereof is to be charged according to the groſs price, at which they ſhall be fairly ſold by auction, or inch of candle, after a deduction of ſo much as the neat duties amount to, and ſo much as the company allow to the buyers for prompt payment, and alſo 6 l. *per cent.* to the company for their charges in keeping the goods till the time of ſale; from which rates, values or prices, this ſubſidy of poundage is to be taken as follows. See Book of *Rates.*

	Groſs duty.
Earthern ware not particularly rated in the firſt column of rates; as China-ware; and all other ſorts rated in the 2 column of rates, 7½ *per cent.* of the rate, or reduced value of the price at the candle; being for every 20 s. of ſuch rate or value - - -	0 1 6
Glaſs-manufactures, not any where particularly rated in the 1ſt column of rates, or rated in the 2d column of rates, 7½ *per cent* of their value upon oath, or of their rate in the 2d column of rates; being for every 20 s. of ſuch value or rate - - -	0 1 6
Fiſh dried or ſalted, and cod-fiſh or herrings, unleſs prohibited, not caught in Britiſh or Iriſh veſſels, and cured by Britiſh or Iriſh, 10 *per cent.* of the rate, or double ſubſidy; being for every 20 s of ſuch rate - -	0 2 0
Toys for children, not any where particularly rated in the 1ſt column of rates, or rated in the 2d column of rates, 6⅔ *per cent.* of their value upon oath, or of their rates in the 2d column of rates; being for every 20 s of ſuch value or rate - - -	0 1 4
All other goods chargeable with the ſubſidy of poundage, 5 *per cent.* of the rate, value, or price; being for every 20 s. thereof -	0 1 0

But out of the aforeſaid groſs-ſubſidy of poundage, there are to be allowed the following diſcounts.

	Diſcount.
Tobacco of the Britiſh plantations -	25 *per cent.*
Tobacco not of the Britiſh plantations	5 and 8 *per cent.*
Which allowance of 8 *per cent.* is not to be deducted on exportation.	
All other goods - -	5 *per cent.*

Except
Barley hull'd, or pearl-barley.
Corn, when taken at the high rate, as by the act of tillage, 22d Cha II.
Fiſh ſalted or dried, *&c.* all which have no diſcount.

This duty of poundage is alſo payable, after the rate of 5 *per cent.* of the value upon oath, for ſhips taken as prize, and regularly condemned in the court of admiralty; but it is the practice not to charge them with any other duty whatſoever.

The aforeſaid ſubſidy of tonnage and poundage having been duly paid at importation; if the goods ſhall be afterwards exported to foreign parts, within three years, from the maſter's report of the ſhip, the exporter is entitled to the drawback or repayment, either of the whole, or ſome proportionable part thereof, except in ſome particular caſes; as he is alſo in all the other duties.

N° 2. *Petty cuſtom*, or *Alien's duty*,—is a duty payable by merchant-ſtrangers; that is, aliens born, or denizens; on all goods imported liable to the ſubſidy of poundage, unleſs where the original old ſubſidy has been entirely taken away; but not on thoſe liable to the ſubſidy of tonnage, becauſe an equivalent is included in the old ſubſidy.

And it is alſo payable by Britiſh upon the following goods, though of Britiſh property, when imported in foreign ſhips.

Aqua vitæ,	Olive oil,
Boards,	Pitch,
Brandy,	Pot-aſhes,
Corn or grain of all ſorts, when the old ſubſidy is taken at the original rate,	Prunes,
	Raiſins,
	Roſin,
Figs,	Salt,
Flax,	Sugar,
Hemp,	Tar,
Maſts,	Timber,

And all goods of the growth, production, or manufacture of Ruſſia; that is, if theſe goods are imported in ſhips not belonging to the people of Great Britain or Ireland, and whereof the maſter, and at leaſt 3-4ths of the mariners, are not Britiſh; or in foreign-built ſhips, although owned or manned by Britiſh, unleſs ſuch as are taken as prize.

Alſo currants, and Turky commodities, when imported in ſhips not Britiſh built, and whereof the maſter, and at leaſt 3-4ths of the mariners, are not Britiſh.

It is to be levied according to the reſpective rates or values of the goods, as affixed or aſcertained for the old ſubſidy, after the following rates.

	The duty.
Fiſh dried or ſalted, and cod-fiſh or herring, unleſs prohibited, not caught in Britiſh or Iriſh veſſels, and cured by Britiſh or Iriſh, $2\frac{1}{2}$ *per cent.* of the rate, or double petty cuſtom, being $\frac{1}{2}$ part of ſuch rate, or for every 20 s. thereof - - - -	0 0 6
All other goods chargeable with the ſubſidy of poundage, $1\frac{1}{4}$ *per cent.* of the rate or value, being $\frac{1}{4}$ part thereof, or for every 20 s.	0 0 3

To be paid in ready money, without diſcount.

N° 3. *Additional duty*,—is a duty, as well as the old ſubſidy, conſiſting of a tonnage and poundage, payable on the importation of the following goods only.

Wines, except priſage wines.
Linens, except Iriſh, by certificate, and callicoes printed, painted, &c.
Wrought ſilks, except Eaſt Indian.
Tobacco of the Britiſh plantations.

Tonnage is payable for all wines, except priſage wines, imported, as follows.

	The groſs duty *per* ton.
Wines of the growth of France, Germany, Hungary, Portugal, or Madeira - - - -	3 0 0
All other places, - - - -	4 0 0

To be paid within nine months from the importation; upon the importer's giving good ſecurity for the ſame.

But out of the aforeſaid groſs duty, there is to be deducted the 12 l. *per cent.* for leakage, and the 2, 6, or 10 *per cent.* on wines in caſks, according to the particular ſpecies, and the nature of the entry, as directed for the old ſubſidy.

And as this duty may be ſecured for nine months, if the importer chuſes to pay down the ſame at entry, he is, in conſideration thereof, to have an allowance of 10 l. *per cent. per annum*; which for the ſaid nine months is $7\frac{1}{2}$ *per cent.*

Poundage is payable for the other goods imported, liable to this duty as follows.

	Groſs duty.
Linens, except Iriſh, by certificate, and callicoes printed, painted, &c.	One half of the neat old ſubſidy.
Wrought ſilks, except Eaſt Indian,	
Tobacco of the Britiſh plantations, the pound weight - - -	0 0 1

Linens and wrought ſilks are to be allowed twelve months time from the importation for the payment of this duty, upon the importer's giving ſecurity for the ſame: but if he chuſes to pay ready money, he is to be allowed 10 l. *per cent.* out of the ſaid duty for prompt payment.

Tobacco of the Britiſh plantations, is, upon the importer's becoming bound, with one or more ſufficient ſureties, approved of by the collector, with the conſent of the comptroller, to be allowed eighteen months time for the payment of this duty, to commence at the end of thirty days from the maſter's report of the ſhip, or from the entry of the goods within thoſe thirty days, which ſhall firſt happen, and to have an allowance of 15 *per cent.* out of the ſame: but if the importer chuſes to pay down the duty at entry, he is to have an allowance of 25 l. *per cent.*

Upon due exportation, as directed for the old ſubſidy, a drawback, or repayment of this duty, muſt be allowed, or the ſecurity vacated, on all goods except alamodes and luſtrings; tobacco of the Britiſh plantations in ſhips under 20 tons, in any package but caſks of 3 hundred weight, or more, except cut or rolled; or tobacco to be uſed on board ſhips of war in any part of Europe; tobacco ſtalks ſeparated from the reſt of the leaf exported by themſelves; wine-lees, which pay duty as wine; and all goods to the Iſle of Man.

N°. 4. *One per cent. inwards*,—is a duty firſt granted to K. Ch. II. but afterwards continued for ever; which, as well as the old ſubſidy and additional duty, conſiſts of a tonnage and poundage, being payable in ready money upon all goods and merchandizes liable to thoſe duties imported from any port or place of the Mediterranean ſea beyond the port of Malaga, into any port of Great Britain, in any ſhip or veſſel that hath not two decks, and carries leſs than ſixteen pieces of ordnance mounted, together with two men for each gun, and other ammunition proportionable: unleſs one moiety of her full lading outwards was fiſh, taken and cured by Britiſh ſubjects only, exported from any of the Britiſh dominions; in which caſe, the goods or merchandizes imported in the ſame ſhip for that voyage, are not liable to this duty.

The practical method of computing this duty, is by taking $\frac{1}{3}$ part of the neat old ſubſidy and additional duty, which is not drawn back on exportation; the deſign of this tax being to oblige Britiſh merchants to make uſe of defenſible ſhips, to prevent their mariners from falling into ſlavery among the Barbary pirates.

N°. 5. *Compoſition on petty ſeizures*.—Tho' all goods ſeized by the officers of the cuſtoms are to be proſecuted to condemnation, either in the court of exchequer, or before the juſtices of the peace; and the King's moiety or ſhare paid in to the proper officers, before any writ or order of delivery may be granted, except in the caſe of periſhable goods; yet when the ſeizure is ſo ſmall, that the cuſtom thereof does not exceed 40 s. it may be compounded for by the commiſſion of the commiſſioners, and the King's part be paid in to the collector of the port of ſeizure, who is to account for it by the name of the compoſition on petty ſeizures, which he is to comprehend under the general head of cuſtoms.

Out of the branch of the cuſtoms are likewiſe to be paid, corn debentures, the bounty on Britiſh manufactures of ſilk, the allowances on tobacco and wine, portage-bills, &c. and formerly all ſalaries and incident charges attending the management of the revenue of the cuſtoms: but now, when this branch falls ſhort, the ſaid ſalaries and incidents are paid out of any of the following branches; impoſt on wines and vinegar, impoſt on tobacco, impoſt 1690, impoſt $1692\frac{2}{3}$, and new duty on whalefins.

N°. II. *New or further ſubſidy*,—was firſt granted to King Will. III. and afterwards continued during the reign of his preſent majeſty.

By the 1ſt of Geo. II. this duty, except ſo much as ſhall be raiſed on brandy or other ſpirits, which by 9th Geo. II. is to be applied to the aggregate fund is, with ſeveral others, granted towards the raiſing of 800,000 l. *per annum*, for the ſupport of his Majeſty's houſhold, and of the honour and dignity of the crown; and is to be raiſed, levied, and collected by the ſame rules and methods, and under

under the ſame penalties and forfeitures as the cuſtoms. This duty, as well as the old ſubſidy, conſiſts of a tonnage and poundage.

Tonnage, is payable in ready money upon all wines imported, as follows.

	Groſs New Subſidy *per* ton.
Rheniſh or Hungary wines imported into any port,	
By Britiſh - - -	6 0 0
By ſtrangers, or in ſhips not belonging to Great Britain or Ireland, or foreign built	7 10 0
Levant and all other wines imported into London, By Britiſh - -	4 10 0
By ſtrangers, or in ſhips not belonging to Great Britain or Ireland, or foreign built	6 0 0
Any other port, By Britiſh - -	3 0 0
By ſtrangers, or in ſhips not belonging to Great Britain or Ireland, or foreign built	4 10 0

But if wines are firſt landed and entered in the out-ports, and are afterwards brought into the port of London by certificate, the difference of the duty, or what they paid ſhort of the duty due in London, muſt be there paid; being what is uſually called the London duty.

Out of the aforeſaid groſs new ſubſidy of tonnage, there are to be deducted the ſame allowances and abatements, under the ſame reſtrictions, and in the ſame manner and form as is directed for the old ſubſidy: ſo that in all caſes, except Levant wines imported into Briſtol and Southampton, the neat new ſubſidy will be the ſame as the neat old ſubſidy.

Poundage is payable in ready money, except for tobacco of the Britiſh plantations upon all goods and merchandize imported, except theſe following;

Wines, as being liable to tonnage.
Fiſh, Britiſh taken, and brought by Britiſh bottoms.
Freſh fiſh.
Beaſtial.
And all goods mentioned in the book of rates, to be cuſtom free.

As alſo goods commonly uſed in dying, as

Allum of all ſorts.	Grain or ſcarlet powder.
Antimonium, except Crudum.	Grains of Portugal, or Rota.
Britiſh berries from the plantations.	Grains, of Sevil in berries.
Cake-lack.	Litharge of all ſorts.
Caſſumba.	Platain.
Copperas of all ſorts.	Salt-petre.
French berries.	Weld.
	Woad.

Wrought ſilks, bengals and ſtuffs mixed with ſilk or herba, of the manufacture of Perſia, China, or Eaſt India; and all callicoes, painted, dyed, printed, or ſtained there.

Whalefins, oil and blubber, of Britiſh fiſhing, taken in the ſeas of Newfoundland, or any of the ſeas belonging to his Majeſty's plantations, and imported by Britiſh, in Britiſh ſhipping.

It is to be levied and collected according to the reſpective rates, or values following;

Corn.	Rates or values for the New ſubſidy.
Beans, —not exceeding the price of 28 s the quarter, at the place of importation, the quarter - - -	1 6 8
—exceeding 28 s. and not exceeding 40 s. *per* quarter, the quarter -	0 5 0
Buck-wheat —not exceeding the price of 44 s. *per* quarter, the quarter -	2 0 0
Malt and Barley —not exceeding the price of 28 s. the quarter, at the place of importation, the quarter -	1 6 8
—exceeding 28 s. and not exceeding 32 s. *per* quarter, the quarter	0 5 0

	Rate.
Oats, —not exceeding the price of 16 s. *per* quarter, the quarter - - -	0 4 0
Peaſe, —not exceeding the price of 40 s. *per* quarter, the quarter - - -	0 4 0
Rye, —not exceeding the price of 36 s. *per* quarter, at the place of importation, the quarter - - -	1 6 8
—exceeding 36 s. and not exceeding 40 s *per* quarter, the quarter -	0 5 0
Wheat, —not exceeding the price of 44 s *per* quarter, at the place of importation, the quarter -	2 0 0
—exceeding 44 s. and not exceeding 41. *per* quarter, the quarter - -	0 6 8

Drugs rated in the firſt column of rates.

Barley hulled, or French barley, or pearl barley, the 112 lb.	
Of the growth, &c. - - -	0 6 8
Not of the growth, &c. - - - -	1 0 0

Other drugs.

Imported not directly from the place of their growth, or not in Britiſh-built ſhipping; one third part of the reſpective rates, as they ſtand in the firſt column of rates; being for every 20 s. thereof - -	0 6 8
Imported directly from the place of their growth, and in Britiſh-built ſhipping; one ninth part of the aforeſaid rates; or after the ſaid rates have been reduced to the one third part thereof, by virtue of the clauſe at the end of drugs, in favour of a direct importation, one third part of ſuch reduced rates, being for every 20 s. thereof -	0 6 8
Meal of wheat or rye, the laſt containing 12 barrels - - -	3 0 0
Train-oil, of foreign fiſhing, the ton	5 0 0
Rape of grapes, the ton -	3 0 0
Cyder and cyder-eager, the ton -	4 0 0
Vinegar, the ton - -	5 0 0
Whalefins of foreign fiſhing, the ton -	100 0 0

All other goods liable to this duty, whether rated or unrated, are to pay the ſame as for the old ſubſidy.

From which rates, values, or prices, this new ſubſidy of poundage is to be taken as follows;

	Groſs duty.
Earthen ware not particularly rated. Glaſs manufactures not particularly rated in the former rates, or rated in the additional rates. Toys not any where particularly rated	The ſame as the old ſubſidy.

Fiſh dried or ſalted, and codfiſh or herring, unleſs prohibited, not caught in Britiſh or Iriſh veſſels, and cured by Britiſh or Iriſh: as alſo all other goods chargeable with the new ſubſidy of poundage; five *per cent.* of the rate, value, or price, being for every 20 s. thereof 1 s.

But out of the aforeſaid groſs new ſubſidy of poundage, there are to be allowed the following diſcounts.

	Diſcount.
Tobacco of the Britiſh plantations, being under the ſame regulations as for the additional duty thereon,	
If paid down - - -	25 *per cent.*
If ſecured - - -	15 *per cent.*
Tobacco not of the Britiſh plantations	5 and 8 *per cent.*
All other other goods - -	5 *per cent.*

Upon due exportation, as directed for the old ſubſidy, drawback, or repayment of this duty, muſt be allowed, or the ſecurity vacated, except on alamode and luſtrings, books bound, cable-yarn; copper-bars not imported from Eaſt India or Barbary, and not exported by Britiſh; cordage, hemp unwrought, to the Britiſh plantations; foreign

hops

hops to Ireland; foreign iron and ſteel, and foreign iron and ſteel wares, to the Britiſh plantations; French oyſters, foreign paper, pictures, foreign ſails or ſail-cloth, tobacco, &c. as in the additional duty numb. 3.

N°. III. *One third ſubſidy*,—was firſt granted to Queen Anne, and by the 11th of Geo. I. continued for ever.

By the 1ſt Geo. I. this duty, which by the 4 and 5 Anne was made part of the general funds of credit, was after the expiration thereof made part of the aggregate fund, and continued to the bank, for the purpoſes therein mentioned.

And by the 3d, 5th, and 11th of Geo. I. was again continued to the bank of England, for ſecurity of the payment of one annuity of 71,001 l. 2 s. 3 d. and one other annuity of 80,000 l. till redeemed by parliament.

But by the 9th Geo. II. ſo much as ſhall be raiſed on brandy and other ſpirits is to be wholly applied to the aggregate fund.

This duty, as well as the former ſubſidies, conſiſts of a tonnage and poundage, being an additional ſubſidy of one third part of the new ſubſidy, payable in all caſes where that is due; to be raiſed, levied, collected, ſecured, and paid by the ſame ways, means, and methods, under ſuch penalties and forfeitures, and ſubject to ſuch rules and directions, as before directed for the new ſubſidy.

Therefore the duty muſt be computed by taking one third part of the neat new ſubſidy of tonnage and poundage.

Upon due exportation, as directed for the old ſubſidy, &c. drawback, or repayment of this duty, muſt be allowed, as for the new ſubſidy.

N°. IV. *Two thirds ſubſidy*,—was firſt granted to Q. Anne; and by the 11th of Geo. I. was continued for ever.

By the 1ſt, 3d, 5th, 11th Geo. I. this duty was appropriated to the ſame uſes with the cuſtoms; conſiſting, as well as the former ſubſidies, of a tonnage and poundage, to be raiſed, levied, collected, ſecured, and paid by the ſame ways, means, and methods, under ſuch penalties and forfeitures, and ſubject to ſuch rules and directions, as before directed for the new and one third ſubſidies; being an additional ſubſidy of two third parts of the new ſubſidy, upon all goods liable thereto, except theſe following:

Tobacco.
Currants in Britiſh-built ſhipping, legally navigated.
Sugar from the Britiſh plantations.
Goods exempted from the new, and one third ſubſidies.
Currants in ſhips belonging to the republic of Venice.
European linens.
Siſters thread.
Tapes or incle.
Linſeed.
Flax.
European unwrought incle, commonly call'd ſhort ſpinnal: all which are exempted from this duty.

Therefore the duty muſt be computed, by taking double the one-third ſubſidy for all goods liable thereto, unleſs theſe before exempted; or two third parts of the neat new ſubſidy of tonnage and poundage.

Upon due exportation as directed for the old ſubſidy, &c. drawback, or repayment of this duty, muſt be allowed as for the new and one third ſubſidies.

N°. V. *Impoſt on wines and vinegar*,—was firſt granted to King James II. and by the 3d of Geo. I. continued for ever.

By 1ſt and 3d Geo. I. this duty was appropriated to the South-Sea company, towards the payment of their increaſed fund of 500,000 l. *per annum*, being after the rate of 5 l. *per cent. per annum*, on their joint or capital ſtock of 10 millions, and of 8000 l. *per annum* for charges of management; which duty is to be levied by the ſame ways and means, and under the ſame penalties as the cuſtoms, &c. upon the importation of the following goods.

	The groſs impoſt *per* ton.
All vinegar, French wine	8 0 0
All other wines	12 0 0

To be paid down in ready money upon entry, either by the merchant, or by the perſon enjoying the benefit of the priſage; or elſe the importer, to become bound with two or more ſufficient ſureties, or procure three other perſons to become bound for payment thereof, at 3 months, that is by three ſeveral and equal payments, each at three months diſtance.

But out of the aforeſaid groſs duties, there muſt be deducted the following allowances, according to the nature and circumſtances of the entry.

	Diſcount.
1. For leakage, as out of the old ſubſidy -	12 *per cent.*
2. For prompt payment, if the duty be paid down in ready money, 10 *per cent. per ann.* which for the 3 months is - - -	5 *per cent.*
3. For any defect or damage which may happen by keeping, or by any other accident; provided oath be made by the importer, not being a vintner or retailer, who is to pay the full duty, that the ſaid liquors are imported by way of merchandize, and with intent to ſell again - -	8 *per cent.*
4. Out of the groſs duty of all wines imported in caſks, according to the reſpective ſorts thereof, as out of the old ſubſidy	2, 6, or 10 *per cent.*

Upon due exportation, as directed for the old ſubſidy, &c. drawback, or repayment of this duty, muſt be allowed, or the ſecurity vacated; except vinegar and wine-lees, which pay duty as wine; the drawback on wines being two thirds.

N°. VI. *Impoſt on tobacco*,—was firſt granted to King James II. but, by the 3d of Geo. I. continued for ever; being from time to time continued, and appropriated to the ſame uſes with the impoſt on wines and vinegar.

By the 1ſt Ja. II. there was a duty granted on ſugars, as well as tobacco; but by 2d Will. and Mary the duty on tobacco only was continued, and by 12th Anne and 9th Geo. I. ſubjected to a different regulation.

It is to be raiſed, levied, collected, and ſecured in the ſame manner and form, and by ſuch rules, means, and ways, and under ſuch penalties and forfeiture, as directed for the cuſtoms.

Upon the importation of all tobacco, as follows;

	The groſs impoſt *per* pound weight.
Tobacco of the Britiſh plantations in America	0 0 3
Spaniſh or foreign tobacco, not of the Britiſh plantations - - -	0 0 6

For the payment thereof, the importer may be allowed 18 months, to commence from the end of thirty days from the maſter's report of the ſhip, or from the entry of the goods within thoſe thirty days, which ſhall firſt happen; upon his giving ſufficient ſecurity for the ſame.

But out of the aforeſaid groſs duty, there are to be allowed the following diſcounts.

Tobacco of the Britiſh plantations, being under the ſame regulations as the additional duty thereon—If paid down 25 *per cent.*—If ſecured 15 *per cent.*

Tobacco not of the Britiſh plantations.—Whether paid or ſecured, 8 *per cent.* which is not to be deducted on exportation. And beſides, if the duty be paid down on entry within thirty days from the report, or at any time within any of the firſt fifteen of the eighteen months, to commence at the end of thirty days from the report, a farther allowance, for the whole fifteen, or ſo many entire months as ſhall remain unexpired, 10 *per cent. per annum*. But no allowance after the end of fifteen months, nor for leſs than one month.

Upon due exportation, as directed for the old ſubſidy, &c. drawback, or repayment of this duty, muſt be allowed, or the ſecurity vacated by debentures, except as in the additional duty N°. 3.

N°. VII. *Impoſt* 1690,—was granted to King William and Queen Mary; and, by the 3d of Geo. I. continued for ever; being applicable to the ſame uſes and purpoſes with the impoſt on wines and vinegar. Thi

This duty is, over and above all other duties and impositions, to be paid upon the importation of the following goods, in the proportion and manner following; and to be raiſed, levied, and collected in the ſame manner and form, with ſuch advantages, and by ſuch rules, means and ways, and under ſuch penalties and forfeitures, as directed for the cuſtoms.

		The groſs Impoſt 1690.
1	Alum, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb.	0 2 6
2	Anvils wrought, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. - - -	0 9 3
3	Aſhes, called *pot-aſhes*, the barrel containing 200 lb. weight - - -	0 8 0
4	Barillia or ſaphora, the hundred weight containing 112 lb - - -	0 2 6
5	Brimſtone, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. - - -	0 4 8
6	Candles of tallow, the hundred weight containing 112 lb. - - -	0 10 0
7	Chimney-backs, ſmall, the piece -	0 1 2
	large, the piece -	0 2 4
8	Cordage, ready wrought, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. - -	0 5 0

Drugs rated in the firſt column of rates.

9	For dyers uſe, and not free of all duties; for every 20 s. of their reſpective rates	0 2 0
10	Not for dyers uſe, *Succus Liquoritiæ*, or Juice of liquorice, the pound weight	0 1 0
11	All other ſuch drugs; for every 20 s. of their reſpective rates for the new ſubſidy, whether of the growth, &c. or not of the growth, &c. - - -	0 2 0

Earthen ware

12	Not particularly rated in the firſt column of rates; for every 20 s. of the rate in column the ſecond - -	0 2 6
13	Glaſs, drinking-glaſſes, and other glaſs, and all manufactures of glaſs, except Rheniſh and Muſcovia window glaſs; for every 20 s. of the rate or value - - - -	0 3 0

Grocery wares.

14	Currants; for every 20 s. of the rate, as by 4th and 5th Will. and Mary - -	0 0 6
15	Ginger of the Britiſh Weſt Indies, which, till alter'd by 9th and 10th W. III. was rated at 7 l. 9 s. 4 d. *per* hundred weight, containing 112 lb. for every 20 s. of ſuch rate; but obſerving to regard the clauſe at the end of grocery, in favour of ſpicery imported directly from the place of its growth, &c.	0 2 0
16	Liquorice, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. - - - -	0 18 8
17	Liquorice-powder, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. - -	1 17 4
18	Pepper, the pound - -	0 0 3
19	—— Imported directly from the place of its growth in Britiſh built ſhipping, the pound, as by 8 Geo. I. - -	0 0 0½
20	Raiſins, for every 20 s. of their reſpective rates, as by 4th and 5th Will. and Mary	0 1 0
21	Of all other ſorts, rated in the firſt column of rates, except cinnamon, cloves, mace, nutmegs, ſugar and tobacco; for every 20 s. of their reſpective rates - -	0 2 0
22	Hops, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. - - - -	1 0 0

Iron.

23	Iron wrought or unwrought or caſt, (except buſhel iron, and bar iron unwrought, imported from Ireland) imported from any foreign parts in Britiſh-built ſhips, whereof the maſter and 3-fourths of the mariners at leaſt are Britiſh, the ton - - -	1 3 0
	In any other built ſhips, and not ſo navigated, the ton - - -	1 13 0

But note, that no manufactured iron or iron ware particularly charged are liable to this 23 s. *or* 33 s. *per ton.*

		The groſs Impoſt 1690.
24	Iron ſlit or hammered into rods, commonly known by the name of rod iron, except imported from Ireland, the hundred weight containing 112 lb. - -	0 5 0
25	Iron drawn or hammered, leſs than ¾ of an inch ſquare, and all other iron wares manufactured, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. - - -	0 5 0
26	Kettles of Iron, the piece - -	0 1 3

Linens.

27	Callicoes and all other Indian linens, not printed, painted, ſtained or dyed there, as by 11th and 12th Will. III. for every 20 s. of their rate or value - - -	0 4 0
28	Linen cloth of the manufacture of the Spaniſh Netherlands, or of the United Provinces, of the breadth of 2 ells or upwards, and under 3 ells; for every 20 s. of the rate -	0 1 6
	——— of the breadth of 3 ells or upwards; for every 20 s. of the rate - - -	0 4 6
29	All other linen, except of the manufacture of the Spaniſh Netherlands, or of the United Provinces, not exceeding an Engliſh ell, and one eighth in breadth, and Iriſh linen by certificate, &c. for every 20 s. of their reſpective rates or values - -	0 0 9
30	Manufactures of India or China, except indico, arrack, and wrought ſilks, bengals, and ſtuffs mix'd with ſilk or herba; for every 20 s. of their rates or values. -	0 4 0
31	Molaſſes from any other place than the Britiſh plantations in America, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. - -	0 8 0

Oil.

32	Hempſeed oil, rape oil, and other ſeed oil, the ton - - -	8 0 0
33	Pans, called frying-pans, the hundred weight containing 112 lb. - -	0 4 0

Paper.

34	Blue paper, the ream - -	0 1 6
35	Brown paper, the bundle - -	0 0 2
36	Demy paper, the ream - -	0 1 6
37	Painted paper, the ream - -	0 1 6
38	Royal paper, the ream - -	0 2 0
39	All other paper, for every 20 s. of the rate	0 1 0
40	Plates, ſingle, white or black, the hundred	0 4 4
	——— double, white or black, the hundred	0 8 8
	——— harneſs plates, or iron doubles the piece - - -	0 1 4
41	Pots of iron, the piece - -	0 1 3
42	Seeds, called coleſeed, hempſeed, and rapeſeed, the laſt - - -	4 0 0
43	Silk raw, from China, or the Eaſt Indies; for every 20 s. of the rate - -	0 1 0
44	Silks wrought, from any other place than India or China; for every 20 s. of the rate or value - - -	0 2 0
45	Starch, the hund. weight, containing 112 lb.	1 0 0
46	Steel, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb.	0 5 6
47	Tallow, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. - - -	0 5 0
48	Tin, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb.	1 10 0

Wood.

49	Deal-timber, or other timber-boards, wainſcot, pipe-ſtaves, box-wood, and other wood, from any part of Europe, except Ireland; for every 20 s. of the rate or value	0 2 0
50	Wool, called *beaver-wool*, cut and combed, except combed in Ruſſia, and imported from thence in Britiſh ſhips the pound -	0 15 0

Wire.

51	Iron-wire, foreign of all ſorts, except card-wire, and all ſorts of iron-wire ſmaller than the ſorts called or known by the names of fine-fine, and ſuper-fine, and all wool cards,	

		The groſs Impoſt 1690.
	or any other wares made of iron wire; the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. - -	1 2 6
52	Steel-wire, the pound - -	0 0 1½
53	Braſs, copper, or latten wire, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. - -	0 15 0
	Yarn.	
54	Cable-yarn, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. - - -	0 5 0
55	Of flax or hemp, except cable yarn, for every 20 s. of the rate - -	0 1 0

And ſo in proportion for any greater or leſſer quantities; obſerving, that where this duty is to be levied according to the rate or value, the meaning is, according to the reſpective rates of the goods in the firſt and ſecond columns of rates; or if not there rated, according to their value and price upon oath, &c. as for the old ſubſidy of poundage, &c. and that this duty is not to be reckoned into the ſaid value. See Book of *Rates*.

Which ſaid impoſt duty, muſt be paid and ſecured in the following manner:

Pepper to be paid down at entry ⅓ part.

Ditto, to be ſecured by bond, payable at 12 months ⅔ parts.

But by the 8th Anne, pepper may be warehouſed at importation, upon paying down only half the old ſubſidy.

All other goods to be paid at ⅔ months from the importation, that is, at 4 equal and quarterly payments; upon the importer's giving ſecurity accordingly.

But if the importer chuſes to pay down the duty at entry, he is to be allowed diſcount after the rate of 10 *per cent. per annum.*

Upon due exportation, as directed for the old ſubſidy, a drawback or repayment of this duty muſt be allowed, or the ſecurity vacated, except on alamodes and luſtrings, cable-yarn, cordage, foreign hops to Ireland, foreign iron and ſteel, and foreign iron and ſteel wares, to the Britiſh plantations, foreign paper, pepper, foreign ſails or ſail cloth, and all goods to the Iſle of Man.

N°. VIII. *Impoſt* 1692,—was granted to King Will. and Queen Mary, and continued by 3d Geo. I. for ever; being applicable to the ſame uſes and purpoſes with the impoſt on wines and vinegar.

This duty is, over and above all other duties and impoſitions, to be paid upon the importation of the following goods, in the proportion and manner following; and to be raiſed, levied and collected in the ſame manner and form, and by ſuch rules, means and ways, and under ſuch penalties and forfeitures, as directed for the cuſtoms, &c.

		The groſs Impoſt 1692.
1	Amber beads for every 20 s. of the rate -	0 4 0
2	Amber oil, or oil of amber, for every 20 s. of the rate of the new ſubſidy, whether of the growth, &c. or not of the growth, &c.	0 2 0
3	Amber rough, for every 20 s. of the rate	0 2
4	Anchovies the little barrel, not exceeding 16 lb. of fiſh, for every 20 s. of the rate	0 1 0
5	Aſhes called wood, weed, or ſoap aſhes the laſt - - - -	0 6 0
6	Bacon the pound, as by 5 and 6 Will. and Mary - - - -	0 0 4
7	Barbers aprons and checks, the piece - -	0 0 8
8	Battery, baſhrones, or kettles, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. - -	0 5 0
9	Black called lamp-black, for every 20 s. of the rate - - -	0 4 0
10	Books unbound, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. - - -	0 4 0
11	Boultel reins, for every 20 s. of the rate	0 2 0
12	Bracelets or necklaces of glaſs, the groſs	0 2 6
	Brandy or ſtrong waters, ſingle the gallon	0 2 0
	Brandy, ſtrong waters or ſpirits above proof, called double brandy, the gallon -	0 4 0

Note, *Theſe two articles are part of the branch of exciſe*, N°. 32.

		The groſs Impoſt 1692.
13	Braſs wrought, for every 20 s. of the rate	0 1 0
14	Briſtles dreſt and undreſt, for every 20 s. of the rate - - - -	0 1 0
15	Buckrams, for every 20 s. of the rate	0 1 0
16	Buttons of hair, for every 20 s. of the rate	0 2 0
17	Calves ſkins, for every 20 s. of the rate	0 1 0
18	Canes called rattans, the thouſand -	0 5 0
19	Canes called walking-canes, the thouſand	1 5 0
20	Carpets of all ſorts, for every 20 s. of the rate or value - - -	0 1 0
21	Catlings and luteſtrings, the groce -	0 1 6
22	Copper called roſe, brick, copper coin, and all caſt copper, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. - - -	0 7 6
23	Copper, part wrought, as plates, bars, rods or raiſed, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. - - -	0 12 6
24	Copper fully wrought, the hundred weight containing 112 lb. - - -	0 17 6
25	Coral beads, for every 20 s. of the rate	0 4 0
26	Coral poliſhed, for every 20 s. of the rate of the new ſubſidy, whether of the growth, &c. or not of the growth, &c.	0 4 0
27	Cotton; manufactures of cotton only, except dimity, not brought from Eaſt India or China, for every 20 s. of their rates and values - - -	0 1 0
28	Cowries, for every 20 s. of their value	0 2 0
29	Dornix, except of or from any of the French King's dominions, for every 20 s. of the rate - - -	0 2 0
30	Dying-wood of all ſorts, except redwood from Guinea, drugs, and logwood, for every 20 s. of the rate -	0 1 0
	But by 8th Geo. I. Brazil-wood, braziletto-wood, fuſtick, nicorago wood, and ſapan-wood may be imported duty free.	
31	Elephants teeth, for every 20 s. of the rate	0 2 0
32	Flannel, the yard - - -	0 0 2
33	Flax dreſſed or wrought, for every 20 s. of the rate - - -	0 3 0
34	French goods, except brandy, ſalt, wine and vinegar, for every 20 s. of the rate or value	0 5 0
35	French wines, the ton - -	8 0 0
36	Frize, the yard - - -	0 0 ½
37	Furs of all ſorts, for every 20 s. of their rate or value - - -	0 1 0
38	Goats-hair, called Carmenia wool, the pound - - - -	0 0 4
39	Goats-hair of any other ſort, the pound	0 0 2
40	Gold and ſilver-thread and wire counterfeit, for every 20 s. of the rate - -	0 1 0
41	Hemp rough, for every 20 s. of the rate	0 1 0
	Hides,	
42	Buff-hides, the hide - -	0 2 0
43	Loſh-hides, the hide - - -	0 1 0
44	Of all other ſorts, dreſt and undreſt, for every 20 s. of their rates. -	0 1 0
45	Incle unwrought, for every 20 s. of their rate - -	0 0 6
	Iron.	
46	Iron-pots, kettles, backs for chimneys, frying pans, anvils wrought, white and black, plates, ſingle and double, and all other iron wares, except bar iron unwrought, and iron ſlit or hammered into rods, imported from Ireland; the ſame reſpective duties that are charged thereon from any foreign parts for the impoſt 1690.	
47	Latten, called ſhaven-latten, black-latten, and round bottoms, for every 20 s. of the rate	0 2 0
48	Leather of all ſorts, for every 20 s. of the rate or value - - -	0 1 0
49	Lemon-juice, for every 20 s. of the rate	0 4 0
50	Lime-juice, for every 20 s. of the rate	0 4 0
51	Metal prepared for battery, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. - -	0 5 0
52	Pantiles, the thouſand - -	0 8 0

		The groſs Impſt 169⅔.
53	Pintadoes or callico cupboard cloths, not from Eaſt India or China, for every 20 s. of the rate - - -	0 1 0
54	Pitch, not of the product of the Britiſh plantations, for every 20 s. of the rate	0 0 6
55	Plate of ſilver, of all ſorts, gilt or ungilt, for every 20 s. of the rate -	0 1 0
56	Rice, for every 20 s. of the rate	0 1 0
57	Roſin of all ſorts, except French, not of the product of the Britiſh plantations, for every 20 s. of the rate - -	0 2 0
58	Salt, except for curing of fiſh, the wey -	0 5 0
59	Silk ferret or floret, for every 20 s. of the rate - - -	0 0 6
60	Silk thrown of all ſorts, in the gum, for every 20 s. of the rate - -	0 1 0
61	Silks called alamodes and luſtrings, for every 20 s. of the rate - -	0 3 0
62	Silk wrought, except alamodes and luſtrings, and Eaſt Indian ſilks, for every pound weight	0 2 0
63	Skins of all ſorts, for every 20 s. of the rate or value - - - -	0 1 0
64	Tapeſtry, except of or from any of the French King's dominions, for every 20 s. of the rate - - -	0 2 0
65	Tar, not of the product of the Britiſh plantations, for every 20 s. of the rate	0 0 6
66	Thread outnal, the dozen pounds -	0 4 0
67	Ticks and Tickings, for every 20 s. of the rate - - -	0 1 0
68	Tow, for every 20 s. of the rate	0 1 0
69	Wax, called bees-wax, for every 20 s. of the rate - - -	0 1 0
70	Wire of latten, braſs or copper, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. -	0 6 6
71	All goods not particularly rated in the firſt column of rates, except mum, and ſuch goods as are particularly charged with the impoſt 1690, or this duty; for every 20 s. of their reſpective rates in column the ſecond, or of their values upon oath, or of their prices at the candle, as directed for the old ſubſidy - -	0 1 0

And ſo in proportion for any greater or leſſer quantities.

Which ſaid additional impoſt-duty, may be paid at ¾ months from the importation, that is, at 4 equal and quarterly payments, upon the importer's giving ſecurity for the ſame: but if he chuſes to pay down the duty at entry, he is to be allowed diſcount after the rate of 10 l. *per cent. per annum*, which being equated to the times of payment, reduces it to 6¼ l. *per cent.*

Upon the importation of French tobacco, there is likewiſe to be a further allowance of 8 l. *per cent.* as out of the other duties; which is not to be deducted on exportation.

And upon the importation of French wines in caſks, there is alſo to be a farther allowance of 6 l. *per cent.* out of this groſs duty.

Upon due exportation, as directed for the old ſubſidy, a drawback or repayment of the groſs duty muſt be allowed, or the ſecurity vacated; except on alamodes and luſtrings, copper bars not imported from India and Barbary, and not exported by Britiſh; hemp unwrought to the Britiſh plantations, French oyſters, foreign paper, pictures, foreign ſails or ſail-cloths, wine-lees, beaver ſkins only half, and all goods to the Iſle of Man.

Lapis calaminaris exported, is charged with this duty at 2 s. *per* ton.

N°. IX. *New duty on whaleſins*,—was granted to King Will. III. and by the 3d Geo. I. continued for ever; being appropriated to the ſame uſes and purpoſes, with the impoſt on wines and vinegar.

This duty is, over and above all former duties and impoſitions, to be paid or ſecured at the cuſtom-houſe on the importation of all whaleſins, but ſuch as are particularly excepted; and to be under the management of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, who are to cauſe the ſame to be raiſed, levied, collected and paid to the receiver-general of the cuſtoms, &c.

	Groſs duty.
Whaleſins taken and imported in and by ſhips belonging to any of his Majeſty's ſubjects, the pound weight - - - -	0 0 3

But by 5th Geo. II. whaleſins taken in the Greenland ſeas, or in Davis's ſtreights, or any parts of the ſeas adjoining, in Britiſh ſhips legally navigated, may be imported by Britiſh free.

	Groſs duty.
Whaleſins taken and imported by foreigners, or by ſhips not belonging to the ſaid ſubjects, the pound weight - - - - - -	0 0 6

Which ſaid duty may be paid at ¾ months from the importation, that is, at 4 equal and quarterly payments; upon the importer's giving ſecurity for the ſame: but if he chuſes to pay down the duty at entry, he is to be allowed diſcount after the rate of 10 l. *per cent per annum*, which being equated to the time of payment, reduces it to 6¼ l. *per cent.*

Upon due exportation, as directed for the old ſubſidy, &c. this duty is wholly drawn back, or the ſecurity vacated.

N°. X. *Fifteen per cent. on muſlins*,—was granted to K. Will. III. and by 11th King Geo. I. continued for ever; being applicable to the ſame uſes and purpoſes with the cuſtoms. This duty is, over and above all former duties, to be paid for all muſlins imported; by which are to be underſtood the following ſpecies:

Abrowahs	Mahumadhiates, plain and flower'd
Addaties	Mulmuls, plain and flower'd
Aprons	Neckcloths.
Betelles, plain and ſtriped	Nightrails
Callico lawns	Oringal
Callicoes of all other ſorts, commonly called *muſlins*.	Podavets
Commetvilles	Rehings
Coſſaes, plain and flower'd	Rowallew
Doreas	Sallows
Golcanda	Seerbands
Jamdannes	Tanjebs, plain and flower'd
Jecolſies	Tirindams
Junays	

To be under the management of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, who are to cauſe the ſame to be raiſed, levied, collected and paid to the receiver-general of the cuſtoms, &c. in the manner following.

	Groſs duty.
For every 20 ſhillings of the true and real value of the ſaid muſlins, according to the groſs price at which they ſhall be ſold, 15 *per cent.* or -	0 3 0

The importer, before the landing of the goods to become bound with two or more ſufficient ſureties, for payment of the ſaid duty, as ſoon as the goods ſhall be ſold, and for expoſing them to ſale openly and fairly, by way of auction, or by inch of candle, within the city of London, within three years after the importation thereof.

And if after the ſaid goods have been duly and fairly ſold, the importer ſhall pay down the duty within twenty days after the ſale, he is to be allowed after the rate of 5 *per cent.* diſcount.

Upon due exportation, as directed for the old ſubſidy, &c. this duty is wholly drawn back, or the ſecurity vacated.

Note, under this branch was alſo comprehended a like duty of 15 *per cent.* on all wrought ſilks, bengals, and ſtuffs made of or mixt with ſilk or herba, of the manufacture of Perſia, China, or the Eaſt Indies, and callicoes painted, dyed, printed or ſtained there after the weaving, or made of yarn or other materials, painted, dyed, or ſtained before the making: but by 11th and 12th Will. III. they are prohibited to be worn in Great Britain, and are to pay only the half ſubſidy.

N°. XI. *New duty on ſpice and pictures*,—was granted to King Will. III. and by the 11th of Geo. I. continued for ever; being appropriated to the ſame uſes and purpoſes with the cuſtoms.

This duty is, over and above all former duties to be paid upon

upon the importation of the following goods, in ready money, without diſcount.

	The duty.
Cinnamon, Cloves, Mace, Nutmegs } for every 20 s. of their reſpective rates	0 1 0
Pictures, whether for private uſe or for ſale, for every 20 s. of their value	0 4 0

Upon due exportation as directed for the old ſubſidy, &c. a drawback or repayment of two thirds of this duty muſt be allowed, except on pictures.

N°. XII. *Additional duty on ſpice and pictures, and new duty on drugs*,—was granted to Queen Anne, but by the 11th of Geo. I. continued for ever; being appropriated to the ſame uſes and purpoſes as the cuſtoms.

This duty is, over and above all other former duties and impoſitions whatſoever, to be paid upon the importation of the following goods:

	The duty.
Cinnamon, Cloves, Mace, Nutmegs } for every 20 s. of their reſpective rates	0 1 0
Pictures, whether for private uſe, or for ſale, for every 20 s. of their value	0 4 0

To be aſcertained, ſecured, raiſed, levied, recovered, anſwered, paid and accounted for, by ſuch rules, ways, means and methods, under ſuch penalties and forfeitures, and in ſuch manner and form, as directed for the former duty, N°. XI.

Drugs, except thoſe for dyers uſe, which are exempted from the new ſubſidy.

	The duty.
Rated in the firſt column of rates; for every 20 s. of their reſpective rates for the new ſubſidy, whether of the growth, &c. or not of the growth, &c. 10 *per cent.* or	0 2 0
Rated in the ſecond column of rates; for every 20 s. of ſuch their reſpective rates, 4 *per cent.* or	0 0 $9\frac{12}{20}$
Not rated in the firſt column of rates, and imported from Eaſt India, China, or Perſia; for every 20 s. of the true and real value thereof, according to the groſs price at which they ſhall be ſold at the candle, 4 *per cent.* or	0 0 $9\frac{12}{20}$
Not at all rated, and imported from any other places; for every 20 s. of their values upon the oath or affirmation of the importer, as for the old ſubſidy, 4 *per cent.* or	0 0 $9\frac{12}{20}$
Porcelain, commonly called China or Japan-ware made of earth; for every 20 s. of the true and real value thereof, according to the groſs price at which they ſhall be ſold at the candle 12 *per cent.* or	0 2 $4\frac{16}{20}$

This duty on porcelain and unrated drugs from Eaſt India, &c. is to be ſecured, aſcertained, valued, raiſed, levied, collected, anſwered and paid by ſuch ways and means, and with ſuch allowances, and in ſuch manner and form, &c. as directed for the old ſubſidy on unrated Eaſt India goods.

	Groſs duty.
White callicoes, which do not pay duties as muſlins; dimities, and all other manufactures made of cotton; for every 20 s. of the true and real value thereof, according to the groſs price at which they ſhall be ſold at the candle 15 *per cent.* or	0 3 0

To be ſecured, aſcertained, valued, raiſed, levied, collected, anſwered and paid by ſuch ways and means, and ſubject to ſuch allowances, and in ſuch manner and form as directed for the 15 *per cent.* on muſlins, N°. X.

Upon due exportation, as directed for the old ſubſidy, &c. a drawback or repayment of this duty muſt be allowed, as follows:

	The drawback.
Borax refined in Great Britain	as Unrefined.
Camphire refined in Great Britain	as Unrefined.
Spice	Two thirds.
Pictures	Nothing.
The reſt	All.

N°. XIII. *Second 25 per cent. on French goods*,—was granted to King William III. and by the 11th of King George I. continued for ever; being made part of the aggregate fund, and continued to the bank of England, as are the cuſtoms.

This duty is, over and above all former duties and impoſitions, to be paid upon the importation of the following goods, and to be raiſed, levied, collected and paid in the ſame manner and form, and by ſuch rules, means and ways, and under ſuch penalties and forfeitures, as directed for the cuſtoms.

French goods, except brandy and ſuch as are really ſeized and condemned as prize, without connivance or colluſion.

	The duty. *per* Ton. l. s. d.	*per* Gallon.
Vinegar	15 0 0	,059523
Wine	25 0 0	,099206
All other goods of the growth, product or manufacture of France; for every 20 s. of their reſpective rates for the new ſubſidy or values upon oath, as for the old ſubſidy	0 5 0	

Which duty is to be paid in ready money, without any deduction; except upon French wines imported in caſks, out of which muſt be deducted 6 l. *per cent.* as out of the former duties.

Alſo except upon French tobacco; out of which there muſt be deducted 8 l. *per cent.* as out of the other duties.

	Per Ton.	*Per* Gallon.
So that this duty neat upon French wines, imported in caſks will be	23 10 0	,093253
Upon exportation		Not drawn back.

N° XIV. *Coinage*,—was granted to King Cha. II. and continued by the 12th of Geo. II.

This duty, which is over and above all former duties, to be paid on the importation of the following goods, in ready money, without diſcount, is to be applied, except ſo much as ſhall be raiſed on brandy or other ſpirits, which is to be applied to the aggregate fund, to the defraying the expences and charges of the mint, and of the aſſaying, melting down, waſte and coinage of gold and ſilver; and as a further encouragement for the bringing in of gold and ſilver to be coined into the current coin of this kingdom: and is to be levied, collected, and paid at the cuſtom-houſe, to the collectors of the cuſtoms, under the ſame pains, penalties and forfeitures as directed for the cuſtoms; and to be by them anſwered and paid to the receiver-general of the cuſtoms, whoſe acquittance is to be their ſufficient diſcharge for the money ſo paid; and a certificate of the due payment thereof obtained, yearly or oftener, from the comptroller-general, with the allowance of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or any three of them, is to be a quietus, and free them from all other accounts and trouble.

	The duty. *per* Ton.	*per* Gallon.
Wines, except priſage-wines which are exempted by practice, Vinegar, Cyder, Beer	0 10 0	—,001984
Brandy, Strong waters	1 0 0	—,003968

For the collection of which duty, the treaſury may allow the officers of the cuſtoms, a ſalary or allowance not exceeding 12 d. for every pound collected.

Upon due exportation as directed for the old ſubſidy, &c. drawback or repayment of this whole duty muſt be allowed for all except wine-lees.

N° XV. *New duty on pepper and raiſins, and a further new duty on ſpice*,—was granted to Queen Anne; but by the

6th of Geo. I. continued for ever; being appropriated to annuities for 32 years; and by 7th Geo. I. continued to the South Sea company, upon the annuitants ſubſcription into their capital ſtock.

This duty is, over and above all former duties, to be paid upon the importation of the following goods: to be aſcertained, ſecured, raiſed, levied, recovered, and anſwered by ſuch rules, ways, means, and methods, and under ſuch penalties and forfeitures, as the other duties upon the ſame reſpective goods.

	The groſs duty.
Cinnamon, Cloves, Mace, Nutmegs	As much as all the reſpective former duties.
Raiſins of all ſorts, the hundred weight containing 112 lb. - - -	0 5 0
Pepper, except long pepper,	
Not imported directly, from the place of its growth in Britiſh built ſhipping, the pound - - -	0 1 6
Imported directly from the place of its growth in Britiſh-built ſhipping, the pound - - -	0 0 3

But as pepper at importation is to be warehouſed, upon payment of the half ſubſidy, and, if exported, is liable to no further duty, this duty muſt be paid only for what ſhall be delivered out of ſuch warehouſes, in order to be conſumed in Great Britain.

For the payment of this duty on all the aforeſaid goods, except pepper, the importer is to be allowed 12 months, upon his giving ſecurity at the cuſtom-houſe: but if he pays down the ſame in ready money, he is to be allowed 10 *per cent.* prompt payment.

Upon due exportation as directed for the old ſubſidy, &c. drawback or repayment of the whole duty muſt be allowed, or the ſecurity vacated on all, except pepper.

XVI. *New duty on candles imported*,—was granted to Queen Anne, and by the 3d Geo. I. continued for ever; being appropriated to the ſame uſes and purpoſes with the impoſt on wines and vinegar, Nº 5.

This duty is, over and above all former cuſtoms, ſubſidies, or other duties, to be paid before landing, in ready money, without diſcount, upon the importation of all candles; to be aſcertained, ſecured, raiſed, levied, recovered, and anſwered by ſuch rules, ways, means, and methods, and under ſuch penalties and forfeitures, and in ſuch manner and form, as the former duties upon candles imported.

	The duty.
Candles made of wax, or uſually called or ſold for wax-candles, notwithſtanding the mixture of any other ingredients therewith, the pound - - - -	0 0 4
Candles made of tallow, and all other candles, the pound - - -	0 0 0½

Upon due exportation, as directed for the old ſubſidy, &c. and alſo upon giving ſufficient ſecurity before ſhipping, that every part thereof ſhall be exported, and not relanded in Great Britain, this duty is to be wholly repaid or drawn back.

XVII. *New duty on coals, culm, and cinders*,—was granted to K. William III. and by the 5th of Geo. I. continued for ever; being appropriated to the payment of annuities for 32 years; and afterwards applied to the South Sea company, upon a voluntary ſubſcription of the proprietors, into their capital ſtock.

This duty is, over and above all former duties, to be paid upon the following goods; and to be under the management of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, who are to cauſe it to be raiſed, levied, collected, and paid into the exchequer, diſtinct from all other branches.

Due entries of the ſhips and goods muſt be made at the cuſtom-houſe in the port of diſcharge; and the duty be anſwered and paid to ſuch collector as ſhall be appointed by his Majeſty, or any four or more of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms; before bulk of the ſhip be broken, or any of the goods unladen, meaſured or weighed.

	Groſs duty.
Coals, except charcoal made of wood,	
Imported from beyond the ſeas,	
If ſuch as are uſually ſold by weight; for every ton containing 20 C. weight	0 3 0
If ſuch as are uſually ſold by the chalder, or any other meaſure reducible to the chalder; for every chalder containing 36 buſhels Wincheſter meaſure -	0 4 6
To be paid by the importers.	
Brought coaſtways, or from port to port of Great Britain,	
If ſuch as are uſually ſold by weight; for every ton containing 20 C. weight	0 2 0
If ſuch as are uſually ſold by the chalder, &c. for every chalder containing 36 buſhels Wincheſter meaſure -	0 3 0
Culm brought coaſtways; for every chalder, containing 36 buſhels Wincheſter meaſure	0 0 7⅕
Cinders made of pit-coal, brought coaſtways; for every chalder, containing 36 buſhels Wincheſter meaſure - -	0 3 0

To be paid at the ports of landing, and to be charged upon the owners or maſters of the ſhips.

But for ſuch of the ſaid coals, culm, or cinders, as are carried from the bridge of Stirling, within the firth of Forth, to the town of Dunbar, or to any port betwixt them, or from Ellen foot to Bank-end in the county of Cumberland, this duty is not to be taken.

	Diſcount.
For payment of the aforeſaid duty, the owner is to be allowed three months time, upon his giving good and ſufficient ſecurity; but if he chuſes to pay ready money, he is to be allowed 10 *per cent. per annum*; which for the ſaid three months is - -	2½ *per cent.*

If, after payment or ſecurity of this duty, the goods ſhall be carried to any other place of this kingdom, it ſhall not be again demanded or paid.

Upon due exportation, as directed for the old ſubſidy, &c. or upon due proof by oath before the collector, that they have been uſed in melting of copper and tin ore within the counties of Cornwal and Devon, or in fire-engines for draining tin or copper-mines in Cornwal, this duty is to be wholly repaid, or the ſecurity vacated, or an allowance made out of the over-ſea duties.

Note, The aforeſaid duties are but 3-5ths of what was granted and continued to the 30th of September 1710, that part only being continued by 8th Anne, cap. 4. But the other 2-5ths are continued, under the title of an additional duty, as in branch Nº XIX.

Nº XVIII. *Subſidy and* 1 per cent. *outwards*,—was granted to King Charles II. and by the 3d of George I. continued for ever.

Subſidy outwards was appropriated to the bank of England, as part of a general fund, for payment of annuities.

This duty was originally granted upon the exportation of moſt native commodities, and manufactures thereof; but, for the encouragement of theſe manufactures, &c. it was afterwards repealed on ſeveral ſorts of goods, particularly woollen; though the following were excepted.

Allum,	Lapis calaminaris,
Lead,	Skins of all ſorts,
Lead ore,	Glew,
Tin,	Coney hair, or wool,
Leather tanned,	Hares wool,
Copperas,	Hair of all ſorts,
Coals,	Horſes,
Wool cards,	Litharge of lead.
White woollen cloths,	

Provided that due entries of the goods ſo exempted from duty, be firſt made in the cuſtom-houſe in the port of exportation, in the ſame manner and form, expreſſing the quantities and qualities, as was before practiſed; and that they be ſhipped by the proper officer; on failure whereof, the goods are to be liable to the ſame duty as before.

The duty.

This duty, except on tanned leather, and white woollen cloths, is to be levied and collected according to the particular rates affixed thereon, in the column of rates outwards; or, if not there rated, according to their real value and price, to be aſcertained upon the oath or affirmation of the merchant, in the preſence of the cuſtomer, collector, comptroller, and ſurveyor, or any two of them; from which rates, values, or prices, this ſubſidy is to be taken for every 20 s. thereof, 5 *per cent.* or - - 0 1 0

Being for leather of all ſorts, ſheep-ſkins, and calve-ſkins, tanned, tawed, or dreſſed, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. - 0 1 0

This duty on white woollen cloths, by the 6th Anne, was granted without limitation, being for every white woollen broad cloth - 0 5 0

And, during the continuance of the aforeſaid ſubſidy of poundage on native commodities, there is alſo, under the ſame regulations, to be paid a ſubſidy on the exportation of the following foreign goods uſed in dying, which had been imported duty free.

Agaric,	Litmus,
Annatto,	Logwood,
Antimonium crudum,	Madder of all ſorts,
Aqua fortis,	Madder-roots,
Argol,	Nicoragua-wood,
Arſenic,	Orchal,
Bay berries,	Orchella,
Brazil, or Fernambuck wood,	Pomegranate peels,
	Red, or Guinea wood,
Braziletto, or Jamaica wood,	Red ſaunders,
	Safflore,
Cochineal,	Sal armoniac,
Cream of tartar,	Sal gem,
Fuſtic,	Sapan-wood,
Galls,	Shoemack,
Gum Arabic, or	Sticklack,
Gum Senega,	Turnſole,
Indico of all ſorts,	Valonia,
Iſinglaſs,	Verdigreaſe.

The ſubſidy on the aforeſaid dying goods, is to be levied and collected according to their reſpective rates in the column of rates outwards; for every 20 s whereof they are to pay 2½ *per cent.* or 0 0 6

One per cent. outwards, is payable in ready money, without diſcount, upon all goods and merchandiſes liable to ſubſidy, exported from any port of Great Britain, capable of a ſhip or veſſel of two hundred tons upon an ordinary full ſea, to any part or place of the Mediterranean ſea, beyond the port of Malaga, in any Britiſh ſhip or veſſel that hath not two decks, and carries leſs than ſixteen pieces of ordnance mounted, together with two men for each gun, and other ammunition proportionable.

The duty.

It is one fifth part of the aforeſaid ſubſidies outwards, or for every 20 s. of the reſpective rates or values of the goods, 1 *per cent.* or 0 0 2$\frac{4}{20}$

N° XIX. *Additional duty on coals, culm, and cinders*,—was granted to King William III. and by the 3d of Geo. I. continued for ever; being appropriated to the ſame uſes as the ſubſidy outwards.

This duty is, over and above all former duties, to be paid for the following goods.

Coals, except charcoal made of wood, The groſs duty.

Imported from parts beyond the ſeas,

If ſuch as are uſually ſold by weight, for every ton containing 20 C. weight - 0 2 0

If ſuch as are uſually ſold by the chalder, or any other meaſure reducible to the chalder; for every chalder containing 36 buſhels Winchester meaſure - - 0 3 0

Groſs duty.

Brought coaſtways, or from port to port of Great Britain,

If ſuch as are uſually ſold by weight, for every ton containing 20 C. weight - 0 1 4

If ſuch as are uſually ſold by the chalder, &c. for every chalder containing 36 buſhels Winchester meaſure - - 0 2 0

Culm, brought coaſtways, for every chalder containing 36 buſhels Wincheſter meaſure 0 0 4½

Cinders made of pit-coal, brought coaſtways, for every chalder containing 36 buſhels Wincheſter meaſure - - - 0 2 0

But for ſuch of the ſaid coals, culm, and cinders, as are carried from the bridge of Stirling, which is on the firth of Forth, to the town of Dunbar, or to Redhead, or to any part betwixt them, or from Ellen-foot to Bank-end in the county of Cumberland, this duty is not to be taken.

And it is to be raiſed, levied, collected, and recovered in ſuch manner and form, and ſubject to ſuch allowances and repayments, and under ſuch penalties, forfeitures, diſabilities, and according to ſuch rules, methods, and directions, as directed for the former duty, N° XVII.

N° XX. *Additional duty on candles imported*,—was granted to Queen Anne, and by 3d George I. continued for ever; being appropriated to the ſame uſes as the ſubſidy outwards.

This duty is, over and above all other duties, to be paid in ready money, without diſcount, upon the importation of all candles.

The duty.

Candles made of wax, or uſually called or ſold for wax-candles, notwithſtanding the mixture of any other ingredients therewith, the pound 0 0 4

Candles made of tallow, and all other candles, the pound - - - 0 0 2½

To be raiſed, levied, recovered, collected, and paid by ſuch ways and means, and under ſuch penalties and forfeitures, and ſubject to ſuch allowances, drawbacks, rules, and directions, and in ſuch methods, form, and manner, as directed for the former new duty, N° XVI.

N° XXI. *New duty on hops imported*,—was granted to Queen Anne, and by the 11th of George I. continued for ever; being 3 d. the pound avoirdupois, and appropriated to the ſame uſes with the cuſtoms; which duty is, over and above all other duties, cuſtoms, and ſubſidies, to be paid down in ready money upon the importation of all hops; to be aſcertained, ſecured, raiſed, levied, recovered and anſwered by ſuch rules, ways, means, and methods, and under ſuch penalties and forfeitures, and in ſuch manner and form as the former duties on hops imported, and not to be drawn back on exportation.

N° XXII. *New duty on hides, ſkins, &c. imported*,—was granted to Queen Anne, and by 3d George I. continued for ever; being appropriated to the ſame uſes as the ſubſidy outwards, No. XVIII.

This duty is, over and over all former duties, cuſtoms, and ſubſidies, to be paid in ready money without diſcount, upon the entry, and before the landing of the following goods imported; to be aſcertained, ſecured, raiſed, levied, recovered and anſwered by ſuch rules, ways, means, and methods, and under ſuch penalties and forfeitures, and in ſuch manner and form as directed for the cuſtoms.

Hides. The duty.

Buffalo, elk, koſhee, or any other hides dreſſed in oil, the pound - - 0 0 4

Ruſſia hides, the pound - - 0 0 1

All other tanned hides, not ſpecially charged, the pound - - - 0 0 1

Of horſes, mares, and geldings, dreſſed in allum and ſalt or meal, or otherwiſe taw'd, the hide - - - 0 1 0

	The duty.
Hides.	
Of ſteers, cows, or any other hides, of what kind ſoever, except horſes, mares, and geldings, dreſſed in allum and ſalt, or meal, or otherwiſe taw'd, the hide	0 2 0
Skins.	
Calve-ſkins tanned, the pound	0 0 1½
dreſſed in allum and ſalt, or meal, or otherwiſe taw'd, the pound	0 0 1½
Commonly called *cordivants*, the dozen	0 4 0
Deer-ſkins dreſſed in oil or allum, or otherwiſe perfectly dreſſed, the pound	0 0 6
Dogs ſkins dreſſed in allum and ſalt, or otherwiſe, the pound	0 0 0½
Goat-ſkins, not uſually called *cordivants*, however dreſſed, the pound	0 0 6
Kids ſkins, dreſſed or undreſſed, or not perfectly dreſſed, the dozen	0 1 0
Kids ſkins dreſſed in allum and ſalt, or meal, or otherwiſe taw'd, the pound	0 0 1½
Lamb ſkins dreſſed in oil, the dozen	0 1 0
tanned, the dozen	0 0 9
dreſſed, or taw'd otherwiſe, the doz.	0 0 6
Sheep-ſkins dreſſed in oil, the dozen	0 1 6
tanned, the dozen	0 0 9
dreſſed, or taw'd otherwiſe, the doz.	0 0 6
Slink calve-ſkins with the hair on, however dreſſed, the pound	0 0 1
Ditto without the hair on, however dreſſed, the pound	0 0 0½
All other hides and ſkins, and pieces of hides and ſkins, tanned, tawed, or dreſſed, and all wares made into manufactures of leather, or any manufacture whereof the moſt valuable part is leather; for every 20 s. of the true and real value or worth to be ſold at the port of importation, to be affirmed upon the oath of the merchant or importer, without any abatement for this or any former duty, 15 *per cent.* or	0 3 0
Parchment, the dozen	0 0 6
Vellum, the dozen	0 1 0

Upon due exportation, as directed for the old ſubſidy, *&c.* and upon ſufficient ſecurity given before ſhipping, that the goods ſhall not be relanded or brought on ſhore again in Great Britain, drawback of this duty muſt be allowed; being 2-3ds for hides and calve-ſkins, but for the reſt nothing.

N° XXIII. *Additional duty on hides, ſkins, &c. imported,*—was granted to Queen Anne, and by the 3d of Geo. I. continued for ever; being appropriated to the ſame purpoſes with the ſubſidy outwards.

This duty is, over and above former duties, cuſtoms, and ſubſidies, to be paid in ready money without diſcount, upon importation of the following goods.

Hides.	The duty.
Buffalo, elk, loſhee, or any other hides dreſſed in oil, the pound	0 0 3
Ruſſia hides, the pound	0 0 1
All other tanned hides, the pound	0 0 2
Of horſes, mares, and geldings, dreſſed in allum and ſalt, or meal, or otherwiſe taw'd, the hide	0 1 0
All other hides, ſo dreſſed or taw'd, the hide	0 1 6
Skins.	
Calve-ſkins dreſſed in allum and ſalt, or meal, or otherwiſe taw'd, the pound	0 0 1½
Ditto tanned, the pound	0 0 2
Commonly called *cordivants*, the dozen	0 4 0
Deer-ſkins perfectly dreſſed, the pound	0 0 3
Dogs ſkins however dreſſed, the pound	0 0 0½
Goat ſkins of all ſorts, except cordivants, however dreſſed, the dozen	0 4 0
Kids ſkins, dreſſed or undreſſed, or not perfectly dreſſed, the dozen	0 0 6
Kids ſkins dreſſed in allum and ſalt, or meal, or otherwiſe taw'd, the pound	0 0 1½

	The duty.
Skins.	
Lamb-ſkins tanned, the dozen	0 0 9
dreſſed in oil, the dozen	0 1 6
otherwiſe dreſſed or taw'd, the doz.	0 0 6
Sheep-ſkins tanned, the dozen	0 0 9
dreſſed in oil, the dozen	0 1 6
otherwiſe dreſſed or taw'd, the doz.	0 0 6
Slink calve-ſkins with the hair on, however dreſſed, the pound	0 0 1
Ditto without the hair, however dreſſed, the pound	0 0 0½
All other hides and ſkins, and pieces of hides and ſkins, tanned, taw'd, or dreſſed, and all wares made into manufactures of leather, or any manufacture whereof the moſt valuable part is leather; for every 20 s. of the true and real value or worth to be ſold at the port of importation, to be affirmed upon the oath of the merchant, without any abatement for this or any former duty, 15 *per cent.* or	0 3 0
Parchment, the dozen	0 2 0
Vellum, the dozen	0 3 0

Which duties are to be aſcertained, raiſed, levied, recovered and ſecured by ſuch ways, means, and methods, and under ſuch penalties and forfeitures, and in ſuch manner and form as directed for the former duty, N° XXII.

Starch, the pound, avoirdupois weight	0 0 2

To be raiſed, levied, recovered, anſwered and paid by ſuch rules, ways, means, and methods, and under ſuch penalties and forfeitures, and with ſuch allowances, *&c.* as directed for the duty on ſoap, No XXIV.

Gilt wire, the ounce troy	0 1 0
Silver-wire, the ounce troy	0 0 9

To be raiſed, levied, recovered and paid by ſuch rules, ways, means, and methods, and in ſuch manner and form, *&c.* as directed for the new duty on ſoap.

Upon due exportation, as directed for the old ſubſidy, *&c.* and alſo upon ſufficient ſecurity given before ſhipping, that the goods ſhall not be relanded in Great Britain, drawback of this duty muſt be allowed as follows, *viz.*

	The drawback.
Hides and calve-ſkins	Two thirds.
Starch	All.
Gilt and ſilver wire	All.
All the reſt	Nothing.

N° XXIV. *New duty on ſoap, paper, &c. imported,*—was granted to Queen Anne, and by the 3d of George I. continued for ever; being applied with the ſubſidy outwards. This duty, over and above all former duties, cuſtoms, and ſubſidies, to be paid by the importer in ready money, without diſcount, upon the entry, and before the landing of the following goods imported.

	The duty
Soap, the pound	0 0 2

By the 10th Anne, which granted this duty on paper, thoſe ſorts only which have no rates prefixed to them in the firſt column, were particularly charged; and all other paper was to pay the ſaid duty, after the rate of 20 *per cent.* according to the real value or worth of ſuch paper, to be ſold at the port of importation, upon the oath of the importer, without any abatement for this or any other former duty. But, by 11th George I. inſtead of the ſaid value upon oath, the following reſpective rates were aſſigned for payment of the faid duty, which is here charged in the ſecond column, to make it correſpond with thoſe ſorts which were particularly and expreſsly charged.

	Rates.	Duty.
Paper, called		
Atlas, fine, the ream		0 16 0
Ditto ordina y, the ream		0 8 0
Baſtard, or double copy, the ream		0 2 0
Blue paper for ſugar-bakers, the ſingle ream	0 5 10	0 1 2
Ditto royal, the ream		0 2 0

	Rates.	Duty.
Paper, called		
Brown paper, the bundle, containing 40 quires - -	0 3 4	0 0 8
Cap, called brown cap, the ream -	0 5 0	0 1 0
Cartridge, the ream -		0 1 6
Chancery, double, the ream -		0 2 0
Crown, Genoa crown, fine, the ream		0 1 6
Ditto ſecond, the ream -		0 1 0
German crown, the ream		0 1 0
Printing crown, fine, the ream	0 5 0	0 1 0
Ditto, 2d ordinary, the ream	0 3 9	0 0 9
Demy, Fine, the ream -		0 4 0
Second, the ream -		0 2 6
Printing, the ream -		0 1 8
Genoa demy, fine, the ream		0 2 0
Ditto ſecond, the ream -		0 1 6
German demy, the ream		0 1 6
Elephant, Fine, the ream -		0 8 0
Ordinary, the ream, -		0 3 3
Fools cap, Fine, the ream -		0 2 6
Second, the ream -		0 2 0
Genoa fools cap, fine, the ream		0 1 6
Ditto ſecond, the ream		0 1 0
German fools cap, the ream		0 1 0
Printing fools cap, fine, the ream -	0 5 0	0 1 0
Ditto 2d ordinary, the ream	0 3 9	0 0 9
Imperial, Fine, the ream -		0 16 0
Second writing imperial, the ream -	2 15 0	0 11 0
Lombard German, the ream -		0 1 0
Medium, Fine, the ream -		0 6 0
Genoa medium, the ream		0 2 6
Second writing medium, the ream -	1 0 0	0 4 0
Painted paper, the ream -		0 8 0
Poſt, Fine large poſt, the ream -		0 2 6
Small poſt, the ream -	0 7 6	0 1 6
Pot, Superfine pot, the ream -		0 2 0
Second fine pot, the ream		0 1 6
Genoa pot, fine, the ream Ditto ſecond, the ream Ordinary pot, the ream	0 3 9	0 0 9
Royal, Fine, the ream -		0 8 0
Holland royal, fine, the ream		0 3 3
Ditto ſecond fine, the ream	0 10 0	0 2 0
Genoa royal, the ream -		0 3 3
Ordinary royal, the ream	0 5 0	0 1 0
Super royal fine, the ream		0 12 0
Second writing, royal, the ream	1 7 6	0 5 6
Ditto ſuper royal, the ream	2 0 0	0 8 0

The ream to contain 20 quires.
The quire to contain 24 ſheets.

Millboards, Paſteboards, Scaleboards,	the hundred weight	0 5 0

To be aſcertained, ſecured, raiſed, levied, recovered and anſwered by ſuch rules, ways, means, and methods, and under ſuch penalties and forfeitures, and in ſuch manner and form as the former duties on the ſame commodities.

Linens chequered, ſtriped, printed, painted, ſtained or dyed after the manufacture, or in the thread or yarn before the manufacture, in any foreign parts, except lawns, ſtriped or chequered linens being all white, neckcloths ſtriped at the ends only, barras or packing canvas, and buckrams; for every 20 s. of the true and real value or worth to be ſold at the port of importation, upon the oath of the importer, without any abatement for this or any former duty, 15 *per cent.* or 0 3 0

To be raiſed, levied and collected in the ſame manner and form, and by ſuch rules, ways, and methods, as the aforeſaid duty on paper.

Upon due exportation, as directed for the old ſubſidy, *&c.* and alſo upon ſufficient ſecurity given before ſhipping, that the goods ſhall not be relanded in Great Britain; this duty, except on paper, which on exportation is to have no drawback, is to be wholly drawn back or repaid: and for ſuch paper as ſhall be uſed in printing books in the Latin, Greek, oriental or northern languages, in the univerſities of Oxford and Cambridge, or in Scotland, upon the amount of the duties paid, aſcertained by the oath of the chief manager of the preſs, before the vice-chancellor, expreſſing the kinds and quantities certified by the ſaid vice-chancellor, a warrant or order of the treaſury, to the commiſſioners, muſt be made out for the repayment of this duty.

N° XXV. *Additional duty on ſoap, paper, &c. imported*,—was granted to Queen Anne, and by the 6th of George I. continued for ever; which was made a fund for the payment of an annuity of 105,000 l. for thirty-two years, and the annual ſurplus was reſerved for the diſpoſition of parliament; but by 7th George I. was continued to the South ſea company upon the annuitants ſubſcription into their capital ſtock. And by 2d George II. the ſurplus was appropriated to the bank of England, for payment of an annuity of 50,000 l. purchaſed by them for the ſum of 1,250,000 l. being after the rate of 4 l. *per cent. per annum*. This duty is, over and above all former duties, cuſtoms, ſubſidies, and rates, to be paid by the importer in ready money without diſcount upon the entry, and before the landing of the following goods imported.

	The duty.
Soap, the pound - -	0 0 1
Paper, Millboards, Paſteboards, Scaleboards, } Half of the duty N° 24.	
Linens chequer'd, ſtriped, printed, painted, ſtained, or dyed, after the manufacture, or in the thread or yarn before the manufacture, in any foreign parts, except buckrams, lawns, canvas, barras, and Sileſia neckcloths, and which may be lawfully uſed in Great Britain; for every 20 s. of the true and real value or worth to be ſold at the port of importation, upon the oath of the importer, without any abatement for this or any other duty, 15 *per cent.* or - -	0 3 0
Starch, the pound weight - -	0 0 2

To be raiſed, levied, aſcertained, ſecured, collected, anſwered and paid by ſuch ways, means, and methods, and under ſuch penalties and forfeitures, with the like allowances and drawbacks, and in ſuch manner and form as the former duties charged on the like commodities, in the branches N° XXIII. and XXIV.

N° XXVI. *New duty on coals exported*, — was granted to Q. Anne, and by the 6th of George I. continued for ever; being appropriated to the ſame uſes and purpoſes as the additional duty on ſoap, *&c.* N° XXV.

This duty is, over and above the former duties, to be paid on the entry, and before the ſhipping of coals outwards.

	The duty.
Coals ſhipped to be exported to parts beyond the ſeas, except to Ireland, the iſle of Man, or the Britiſh plantations; for every chalder, Newcaſtle meaſure, in foreign bottoms - -	0 5 0
Ditto in Britiſh bottoms - -	0 3 0

To be raiſed, levied, aſcertained, ſecured, collected, anſwered and paid by ſuch ways, means, and methods, and in ſuch manner and form, as the former duties on exportation.

N° XXVII. *New duty on ſail-cloth imported*,——was granted to Queen Anne, and continued by 15th of George II. being appropriated to the payment of a reward of 2 d. for every ell of Britiſh made ſail-cloth or canvas fit for, or made into ſails, exported by way of merchandiſe.

This duty is, over and above all former ſubſidies, duties, impoſitions, and payments, to be paid upon the importation of the following goods.

	The duty.
Foreign made ſails, and ſail-cloth, or canvas, uſually entered as hollands-duck, or vitry canvas, which ſhall be fit for making of ſails for navigat-	

The duty.

ing ſhips, and imported into Great Britain by way of merchandiſe, except canvas of the product and manufacture of Ireland, for every ell 0 0 1

To be raiſed, levied, collected, and recovered by ſuch ways, means, and methods, and in ſuch manner and form, as any ſubſidy for any other goods imported, and not to be drawn back on exportation.

XXVIII. *New duty on wrought plate imported*, ——was granted to King George I. for ever, and appropriated for payment of annuities.

This duty is, over and above all former cuſtoms, ſubſidies, and duties, to be paid down by the importer, in ready money without diſcount, upon the entry, and before the landing of

The duty.

Silver-plate imported, for every ounce troy 0 0 6

To be raiſed, levied, recovered, and paid by ſuch rules, ways, and methods, and in ſuch manner and form, as the duties on gilt and ſilver wire imported, under branch N° 23.

Upon due exportation as directed for the old ſubſidy, *&c.* and alſo upon ſufficient ſecurity given before ſhipping, that the ſame ſhall not be relanded in Great Britain, this duty is to be wholly drawn back or repaid.

XXIX. *New duty on apples imported*, ——was granted to King George I. and by the 10th of George II. continued without limitation, being appropriated towards making good the ſupply granted to his Majeſty for the year 1722.

This duty is, over and above all former cuſtoms, ſubſidies, and duties, to be paid down by the importers in ready money without diſcount, upon the entry, and before the landing of

The duty.

Apples imported, for every buſhel - 0 2 0

To be raiſed, levied, recovered and paid by ſuch rules, ways, means, and methods, and in ſuch manner and form as the former duties on apples imported, and not to be drawn back on exportation.

XXX. *New duty on cambrics imported*, — was granted to King George II.; but they are now prohibited.

This duty was appropriated to the payment of a bounty on Britiſh and Iriſh linens exported; and alſo, by order of the lords of the treaſury, or commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, to anſwer all charges attending the collection of this duty, or payment of the bounty: but if more money roſe by this duty than anſwered the bounty, *&c.* the ſame was, by directions of the treaſury, to be paid into the exchequer towards the ſinking fund.

This duty was, over and above all former ſubſidies, duties, impoſitions, and payments, to be paid upon the importation of

The duty.

Foreign cambrics, the half piece, containing ſix and an half ells - - 0 1 5

Ditto, the whole piece, containing thirteen ells 0 2 10

XXXI. *Exciſe on ſalt imported*,—was granted to K. William and Q. Mary, but continued by the 14th of King George II. being for

The buſhel, formerly 8 gallons, now 84 lb. 0 6 8

For the payment of this duty, the importer may be allowed ſix months time from the importation, upon his giving ſufficient ſecurity for the ſame to the collector upon entry, and before landing; and if he pays it in ready money, he muſt be allowed a diſcount after the rate of 10 l. *per cent. per annum*, which for the ſaid ſix months is 5 *per cent.*

For the ſalt may, upon landing, be weighed, cellared, and locked up in the preſence of an officer, at the importer's charge, and under the cuſtody of the officer and importer; and the importer may, in the preſence of, and by warrant under the ſaid officer's hand and ſeal, take away what quantity he pleaſes, not under a wey or 40 buſhels at a time, upon giving ſecurity for payment of the duty within ſix months after the delivery, or upon payment of the duty in ready money at the delivery; in conſideration whereof he muſt be allowed the aforeſaid diſcount for prompt payment.

But if the whole quantity imported in any one ſhip does not amount to 40 buſhels, it may not be cellared, but the whole duty muſt be paid down or ſecured.

And if the ſalt is deſigned for the curing of any fiſh for exportation, or herrings for home-conſumption, it may be landed, weighed, and warehouſed, under the locks of the officers and the proprietor, ſo to remain during the ſeveral intervals of each fiſhing ſeaſon, without payment of this duty; an entry being made of the reſpective quantities ſo lodged: but at the next fiſhing ſeaſon, when the importer wants to take the ſaid ſalt away, he muſt make oath to the quantity, and that it is intended to be only ſo uſed, and give ſecurity to account for the ſame.

Upon due exportation, this duty is to be wholly repaid, or the ſecurity vacated.

By the 8th article of the union, there was a duty payable in Scotland, and under the management of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms there, for ſo much Scotch ſalt as was uſed in curing fleſh exported from thence to foreign parts, or to England: and likewiſe for proviſions uſed by ſhips trading thence, either to foreign parts, to England, or from port to port in Scotland, according to the exciſe payable in England, till 1ſt May 1714, which was 3 s. 4 d. *per* buſhel, but thenceforward after the rate of 2 s. 4 d. only, becauſe from that time all Scotch ſalt became chargeable with 12 d. *per* buſhel.

N° XXXII. *Exciſe on liquors imported*, — was granted to King Charles II. and continued by 6th of George II. being a duty, both in England and Scotland, under the management of the commiſſioners of the exciſe reſpectively, who generally empower the collectors of the cuſtoms at the ſeveral ports to levy it for them; being payable on the following liquors. See *Exciſe*.

From foreign parts.			
Ale, or beer, the barrel -	0	15	0
Brandy, aqua vitæ, ſpirits or ſtrong waters, ſingle, the gallon - -	0	4	8
Ditto double, or above proof, the gallon	0	8	8.
Mum, the barrel - -	1	5	0
Cyder, or perry, the ton - -	12	10	0
From Guernſey, Jerſey, Sark, or Alderney.			
Brandy, aqua vitæ, ſtrong waters or ſpirits, the gallon - - -	0	8	0
Vinegar, the barrel - -	0	8	9
Cyder, or perry, the hogſhead -	0	10	8
Beer, ale, and mum, the barrel -	0	6	0

All other exciſeable liquors, the ſame duties as paid in this kingdom.

Which is the total exciſe, except on rum, or ſpirits of the Britiſh plantations in America.

Note, *This duty was extended to Scotland by the act of union.*

To be paid by the importer in ready money, without diſcount, upon entry before landing, by 12th Charles II. and the other acts which granted the ſeveral duties; but by 15th George II. rum or ſpirits of the Britiſh ſugar plantations may be warehouſed ſix months before payment of the exciſe.

Not to be landed, before due entry be made with the collector of exciſe at the port of importation, or before the exciſe be fully ſatisfied and paid, and a warrant for the landing or delivering ſigned by the ſaid collector, or without the preſence of an exciſe-officer, upon forfeiture of the value, by 15th Charles II. and the 2d William and Mary.

Before the landing of any liquors from Guernſey, Jerſey, *&c.* oath muſt be made by the importer, before the collector of the cuſtoms, that they are of the growth and manufacture of the ſaid iſlands, and not made from or mixed with any foreign liquors, or materials, by 2d William and Mary; but there is no drawback on exportation.

N° XXXIII. *Inland duty on coffee, tea, and chocolate*, — was granted to King George I.

Coffee and tea having upon entry at the cuſtomhouſe, and payment of the cuſtoms at importation, been put into warehouſes at the importer's charge, and approved of by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, muſt, upon delivery

thence, with intent to be consumed in Great Britain, pay the following duty.

	The duty.
Coffee of the British plantations in America, the pound avoirdupois weight -	0 1 6
Ditto of other places, the like pound -	0 2 0
Tea, the like pound - -	0 4 0

To be paid down in ready money by the proprietor, at the next office for that division, for so much as he intends to take out of the warehouse for home-consumption; the warehouse-keeper, upon producing a warrant from the collector, testifying the receipt of the duty, to deliver the goods with a permit signed by himself, and a proper officer attending the warehouse, to prevent seizure.

But if intended for exportation, may be delivered upon sufficient security given to the commissioners of the customs accordingly.

Chocolate, made or sold in Great Britain, the pound avoirdupois weight -	0 1 6

To be paid by the maker, if within the bills of mortality, within one week, and in any other part of Great Britain within six weeks after entry.

To be under the management of such commissioners as his Majesty or the treasury shall appoint; who are to have and exercise the like jurisdiction as the commissioners of excise on liquors, and their judgments to be final.

This duty to be levied by the powers, and under the penalties of the laws of excise on liquors, and all penalties to be sued for and recovered by the same ways and means.

N° XXXIV. *Unrated goods imported, undervalued.*

Goods paying duties *ad valorem*, having, after examination, and upon demand made by the customer, collector, and comptroller, been delivered up for the use and benefit of the crown, and the value sworn or affirmed to, paid to the importer, together with the duties by him paid, and an addition of 10 l. *per cent.* and the said goods having been fairly and publicly sold to the best advantage, the neat produce or overplus, if any, after a deduction of all disbursements, must be paid into his Majesty's exchequer towards the sinking-fund, by the title of this branch.

The aforegoing duties are such as are at present payable to his Britannic Majesty upon goods and merchandises imported, exported, and brought coastways into Great Britain: but there being two other duties, which originally were also payable to the crown, though now they are by particular grants become a private right, the nature whereof is proper to be known by the officers of the customs, in regard the wines liable thereto are exempted from payment of part of the customs, *&c.* it has been thought proper to give a short account of the said duties.

N° XXXV. *Prisage and butlerage.*

These duties were originally the only custom that was payable upon the importation of wines, and were taken and received by virtue of the regal prerogative, for the proper use of the crown: but for many years past there having been granted by parliament, subsidies, or aids, to the kings of England, and those duties not repealed but confirmed; they have been pleased to grant the same away to some nobleman, who by virtue of such grant or patent is to enjoy the full benefit and advantage thereof, and may cause the same to be levied and collected in the same manner as the kings themselves might and were formerly wont to do.

Prisage is a certain taking or purveyance of wines to the King's use, out of every ship bringing in wines belonging to the natives of England, except the merchants of London, the cinque ports, Southampton, and Chester, which are exempted by particular charters; to be taken upon the breaking of bulk, or unloading any part of the ship's cargo, according to the whole quantity on board, though there be not more than one ton landed.

This duty is either single or double.

Single prisage is one ton, and is due in kind, when the quantity imported amounts to or exceeds ten tons, but is under twenty tons; for if under ten tons, there is not any prisage due.

Double prisage is two tons, and is due in kind, when the quantity imported amounts to, or exceeds twenty tons, which is the most due out of any one ship; one ton to be taken before, and the other behind the mast, at the pleasure of the King's butler or prisage-master, who may take the whole cargo, and chuse the best wines, and fill up the vessels, or chuse those that are the fullest, and take them away, allowing only 20 s. *per* ton for freight; or, if the owners had rather, he may compound with them for the whole quantity, at a certain price, as is the practice in London.

But as there is a difference in favour of the prisage-master between the customs and other duties due to the crown, which are to be paid by him and the merchant; the officer of the customs must carefully observe, that there be always a sufficient quantity imported, to allow the full prisage.

Butlerage is a duty of 2 s. for every ton of wines imported by merchants strangers; being a composition in lieu of the duty of prisage payable in kind by English only, in consideration of the liberties and freedoms granted to them by King John, and King Edward I. by a charter called *charta mercatoria.*

Besides these, there are what are called the plantation-duties imposed by the 25th of Charles II. for ever; being duties of several kinds upon several sorts of goods shipped in the British plantations, and not to be brought to Great Britain; as also the Barbadoes duty, which is 4 l. 10 s. *per cent.* payable in Barbadoes and the Leeward islands, on goods exported from thence, which is now all brought into Great Britain, instead of being applied towards the support of those islands, as it was intended when granted by the inhabitants. See *Duty.*

To which were added during the reigns of King George I. and King George II. the following duties.

1. A new additional duty of tonnage upon all wines imported, and granted for ever.
2. A new duty on glass imported, granted for ever.
3. The second, or rather third new subsidy of poundage granted in 1748, being 1 s. in the pound on all goods imported, and after that rate for goods *ad valorem*; but unrated East India goods to pay 5 *per cent.* of the gross price for which they are sold at the candle.

But the customs in Ireland are established according to a particular book of rates made for that kingdom; being as well as the excise, under the government of commissioners appointed for that country. See *Ireland.*

But for a more particular account of the other parts of the British customs, see book of *Rates*, and the table of *Scavage.*

Certain rules, orders, directions, and allowances, for the advancement of trade, and encouragement of the merchant, also for the regulating as well of the merchants in making due entries and just payments of their customs, as of the officers in all the ports of Great Britain, in the faithful discharge of their duty; annexed to the book of rates referred to in the act of tonnage and poundage passed in the 12th year of K. Cha. and signed by Sir Harbottle Grimstone, bart. speaker of the house of commons. See *Book of* Rates.

I. Every merchant shall have free liberty to break bulk in any port allowed by the law, and to pay custom and subsidy for no more than he shall enter and land; provided that the master or purser of every such ship, shall first make declaration upon oath, before any two principal officers of the port, of the true content of his ship's lading; and shall likewise after declare, upon his oath, before the customer, collector, comptroller, or surveyor, or two of them, at the next port of this kingdom, where his ship shall arrive, the quantity and quality of the goods landed at the other port, where bulk was first broken, and to whom they did belong.

II. All foreign goods and merchandise, except wines, currants, and wrought silks, first imported, shall be again exported by any merchant, within three years; and the merchant or merchants as shall export any such foreign goods or merchandises, except those before excepted, shall have allowance, and be repaid by the officer who received the same, the one moiety of the subsidy [illegible]

was paid at the firſt importation of ſuch foreign goods and merchandiſes, or any part thereof, ſo as due proof be firſt made by certificate from the officers, of the due entry and payment of the cuſtom and ſubſidy of all ſuch foreign goods and merchandiſes inwards, together with the oath of the merchants importing and exporting the ſame, affirming the truth thereof, and the name of his Majeſty's ſearcher or under-ſearcher in the port of London, and of the ſearcher of any other of the out-ports, teſtifying the ſhipping thereof to be exported. After all which duly performed in manner before expreſſed, the moiety of the ſubſidy firſt paid inwards, ſhall, without any delay or reward, be repaid unto ſuch merchant or merchants, who export ſuch goods and merchandiſes, within one month after demand thereof: as alſo the whole additional duty of ſilks, linen, and tobacco, in manner as before is directed.

III. And if there be an agreement now in force, which was formerly made by the late commiſſioners of the cuſtoms and ſubſidies, with the merchants ſtrangers, or their factors, or ſhall hereafter be made by any commiſſioners, or farmers of the cuſtoms and ſubſidies, or any other power, except by conſent of parliament, with any merchant or merchant-ſtrangers, or their factors, for any foreign goods or merchandiſes to be brought into the port of London, or any other port or haven of this kingdom of Great Britain, and to be exported again by way of compoſition; all other merchants being his Majeſty's ſubjects, ſhall be admitted into the ſame compoſition, and not to be excluded from any other privilege whatſoever, granted to the ſtranger by any private agreement, or compoſition, under the ſame conditions, and with the ſame reſtriction as ſhall be made with the merchant-ſtranger.

IV. Every merchant, as well Britiſh as ſtranger, that ſhall ſhip and export any kind of wines, which formerly have paid all the duties of tonnage inwards, ſhall have repaid, or allowed unto them all the duties of tonnage paid inwards: except to the Britiſh man twenty ſhillings the ton, and except to the ſtranger five and twenty ſhillings the ton, upon due proof of the due entry and payment of the tonnage inwards, and of the ſhipping thereof to be exported, to be made in manner as in the ſecond article is mentioned and expreſſed.

V. If any merchant, denizen, or ſtranger, ſhall export any Spaniſh or foreign wools, he ſhall have liberty ſo to do; with this further condition, that ſuch Spaniſh or other foreign wools whatſoever be not exported in any other ſhip or veſſel whatſoever, with intent to be carried beyond the ſeas, out of the kingdom of Great Britain, than only in Britiſh ſhipping, upon pain of confiſcation.

VI. Every merchant, as well Britiſh as ſtranger, which ſhall ſhip and export any currants, which formerly were duly entered, and paid the ſubſidy and cuſtom inwards, ſhall have allowed or repaid unto them reſpectively, all the cuſtom and ſubſidy paid inwards for the ſame, except eighteen pence for every hundred weight to the Britiſh, and two and twenty pence halfpenny for every hundred weight to the ſtranger; upon due proof of the due entry and payment of the cuſtom and ſubſidy thereof inwards, and of the ſhipping thereof to be exported, to be made in manner as in the ſecond article is declared.

VII. If any merchant having duly paid all duties inwards for foreign goods, and in regard of bad ſales, ſhall be inforced to keep the ſame, or any part thereof, in his hands, after the ſpace of three years ſhall be elapſed; in this caſe, he, or any other perſon, is to be permitted to ſhip the ſame out for the parts beyond the ſeas, if they think it, without payment of any ſubſidy for the ſame outwards, upon due proof that the ſame was duly entered, and ſubſidy paid inwards.

VIII. Every merchant bringing in any ſort of wines into this kingdom, by way of merchandiſe, and ſhall make due entries of the ſame in the cuſtomhouſe, ſhall be allowed 12 *per cent.* for leakage.

IX. Every hogſhead of wine which ſhall be run out, and not full ſeven inches, or above, left therein; and every butt or pipe not above nine inches, ſhall be accounted for outs, and the merchant to pay no ſubſidy for the ſame.

X. If any wines ſhould prove corrupt and unmerchantable, and fit for nothing but to diſtil into hot-waters, or to make vinegar, then every owner of ſuch wines ſhall be abated in the ſubſidy, according to ſuch his damage in thoſe wines; by the diſcretion of the collectors of the cuſtoms, and one of the principal officers. But, by 6th George I. this is repealed.

XI. If any tobacco, or other goods or merchandiſe brought into this kingdom, ſhall receive any damage by ſalt water, or otherwiſe, ſo that the owner thereof ſhall be prejudiced in the ſale of ſuch goods, the principal officers of the cuſtomhouſe, or any two of them, whereof the collector for the time being to be one, ſhall have power to chuſe two indifferent merchants, experienced in the values of ſuch goods; who, upon viſiting the ſaid goods, ſhall certify and declare upon their corporal oaths, firſt adminiſtered by the ſaid officers, what damage ſuch goods have received, and are leſſened in their true value, and according to ſuch damage in relation to the rates ſet on them in the book of rates, the ſaid officers are to make a proportionable abatement unto the merchant or owner of the ſubſidy due for the ſame. But, by 12th Anne, and 9th George I. repealed as to tobacco.

XII. The merchant-ſtrangers, who, according to the rates and values in the book of rates contained, pay double ſubſidy and lead, tin, woollen cloths, ſhall alſo pay double cuſtom for native manufactures of wool, or part wool; and the ſaid ſtrangers are to pay for all other goods, as well inwards as outwards, rated to pay the ſubſidy of poundage, three pence in the pound, or any other duty payable by *charta mercatoria*, beſides the ſubſidy. But, by 25th Charles II. and 9th Anne, repealed as to goods imported.

XIII. That the merchants trading in the port of London, have free liberty to lade and unlade their goods at any the lawful keys, and places of ſhipping and landing of goods, between the Tower of London, and London bridge, and between ſun riſing and the ſun ſetting, from the 10th day of September, to the 10th day of March; and between the hours of ſix of the clock in the morning, and ſix of the clock in the evening, from the 10th day of March to the 10th day of September, giving notice thereof to the reſpective officers appointed to attend the lading and unlading of goods. And ſuch officer as ſhall refuſe, upon due calling, to be preſent, he ſhall forfeit for every default five pounds, the one moiety unto the King, and the other moiety to the party grieved and ſuing for the ſame. For the lawful keys, ſee *Keys*, and *Wharfs*.

XIV. The merchants of York, Kingſton upon Hull, Newcaſtle upon Tyne, and the members thereof, ſhall be allowed free of cuſtom and ſubſidy, two of the northern cloths, and kerſies in ten, to be ſhipped in thoſe ports in the names of double wrappers, as formerly hath been there allowed them. But, by 11th and 12th William III. all woollen manufactures are free.

XV. The merchants of Exeter, and other weſtern parts, ſhall be allowed free of ſubſidy, one perpetuana in ten, for a wrapper, and three Devon dozens in twenty, for wrappers; the ſame to be ſhipped out of the ports of Exeter, Plymouth, Dartmouth, Barnſtable, Lime-Regis, or the members thereof. But, by the 11th and 12th Will. III. all woollen manufactures are free.

XVI. All merchants tranſporting any ſorts of woollen, whether new or old drapery, as alſo bays and cottons, ſhall be allowed one in ten for a wrapper, free of cuſtom and ſubſidy. But, by 11th and 12th William III all woollen manufactures are free.

XVII. Every merchant ſhall be allowed upon all other goods and merchandiſes appointed to pay to any the ſubſidy of poundage, according to the rule of the book of rates, to be imported, five in the hundred of all the ſaid ſubſidies of poundage ſo appointed to be paid.

XVIII. The officers, who ſit above in the cuſtomhouſe of the port of London, ſhall attend the ſervice of their ſeveral places, from nine to twelve of the clock in the forenoon; and one officer, or one able clerk, ſhall attend with the book in the afternoon, during ſuch time as the officers are appointed to wait at the water-ſide, for the better deciding of all controverſies that may happen concerning merchants warrants. All other the officers of the out-ports ſhall attend every day in the cuſtomhouſe of every reſpective port for diſpatch of merchants and ſhippers,

ſhippers, between the hours of nine of the clock and twelve in the morning, and two and four of the clock in the afternoon.

XIX. Every merchant making an entry of goods, either inwards or outwards, ſhall be diſpatched in ſuch order as he cometh; and if any officer, or his clerk, ſhall, either for favour or reward, put any merchant, or his ſervant duly attending, by his turn, or otherwiſe delay any perſon ſo duly attending, and making his entries aforeſaid, to draw any other reward, or gratuity, from him, than is limited in the act for tonnage and poundage, and the book of rates; if the maſter-officer be found faulty herein, he ſhall, upon complaint to the chief officers of the cuſtomhouſe, be ſtrictly admoniſhed of his duty; but if the clerk be found faulty therein, he ſhall, upon complaint to the ſaid chief officers, be preſently diſcharged of his ſervice, and not be permitted to ſit any more in the cuſtomhouſe.

XX. The Lord Mayor, commonalty, and citizens of the city of London, their officers, or deputies, for, and touching the offices of package, ſcavage, baleage, or portage of any goods, or merchandiſe of aliens, or their ſons born within this kingdom, or unfreemen, imported or exported into, or out of the city of London, or the liberties or ports thereof, unto or from the parts beyond the ſeas, for or concerning the receiving, or taking of any fees, or rates heretofore uſually taken, for, or in reſpect of the ſaid offices, or any of them, might, and may receive and take the ſame, any thing in the act for tonnage and poundage, or the book of rates, or any former act to the contrary notwithſtanding. See *Scavage*.

XXI. All antient duties heretofore lawfully taken by any city, or town-corporate, their farmers, deputies, or officers, under the name of town-cuſtom, or the like, for the maintenance of bridges, keys, harbours, wharfs, or the like, ſhall and may be received and enjoyed as formerly; any thing in the ſaid act, or any other act or book, to the contrary notwithſtanding.

XXII. The under-ſearcher, or other officers of Graveſend, having power to viſit and ſearch any ſhip outward-bound, ſhall not, without juſt and reaſonable cauſe, detain any ſuch ſhip, under colour of ſearching the goods therein laden, above three tides after her arrival at Graveſend, under pain of loſs of their office, and rendering damage to the merchant or owner of the ſhip. And the ſearcher, or other officer of the cuſtomhouſe in any of the out-ports, having power to ſearch and viſit any ſhip outward-bound, ſhall not, without juſt and reaſonable cauſe, detain any ſuch ſhip under colour of ſearching the goods therein laden, above one tide after the ſaid ſhip is fully laden and ready to ſet ſail, under pain of loſs of the office of ſuch offender, and rendering damage to the merchant and owner of the ſaid ſhip. See *Thames*.

XXIII. *Note*, That all timber in balks, which ſhall be of eight inches ſquare, or upwards, that ſhall be imported, or brought from any part beyond the ſea into the realm of Great Britain, ſhall be rated according to the meaſure of timber, the foot ſquare three pence for the value thereof, and according to that rule ſhall pay for ſubſidy, twelve pence in the pound according to poundage; and all under eight inches ſquare, and above five inches ſquare, ſhall pay for ſubſidy according to the rates mentioned in the book of rates for middle balks, and all of five inches ſquare, or under, ſhall pay according to the rate of ſmall balks.

XXIV. For avoiding all oppreſſion by any of the officers of the cuſtoms, in any port of this kingdom, in exacting unreaſonable fees from the merchant, by reaſon of any entries, or otherwiſe, touching the ſhipping and unſhipping of any goods, wares, and merchandiſe; it is ordered, that no officer, clerk, or other belonging to any cuſtomhouſe whatſoever, ſhall exact, require, or receive any other, or a greater fee, of any merchant or other whatſoever, than ſuch as are, or ſhall be eſtabliſhed by the commons in parliament aſſembled: if any officer, or other, ſhall offend contrary to this order, he ſhall forfeit his office and place, and be for ever after uncapable of any office in the cuſtomhouſe.

XXV. All fees appointed to be paid unto the cuſtomer, comptroller, ſurveyor, or ſurveyor-general, in the port of London, for any cocket or certificate outwards, ſhall be paid all together in one ſum to that officer from whom the merchant is to have his cocket or certificate above, in the cuſtomhouſe; and after the merchant hath duly paid his cuſtom and ſubſidy, and other duties above, in the cuſtomhouſe; as is appointed in the book of rates, he is to be maſter of, and keep his own cocket or certificate, until he ſhall ſhip out his goods ſo entered; when he is to deliver the ſame to the head-ſearcher, or his Majeſty's under-ſearcher in the port of London, or other ports, together with the mark and number of the goods.

XXVI. The officers of the cuſtomhouſe for the time being, ſhall allow and make good unto all perſons, all ſuch monies as are, or ſhall be due unto them for the half ſubſidy; and alſo the Algier duty of foreign goods formerly exported, now due and unpaid.

XXVII. The duties and ſums of money appointed to be paid by the act of ſubſidy of tonnage and poundage paſſed this parliament, and by the book of rates therein mentioned, and no other, ſhall be paid to his Majeſty's officers during the continuance of the ſaid act, upon goods imported, or exported, any law, ſtatute, or uſage to the contrary notwithſtanding. Nevertheleſs, it is declared, that priſage of wines, the duty called butlerage, and the duty of twelve pence upon every chalder of ſea-coal exported from Newcaſtle upon Tyne, to any other port or ports of this realm, ſhall be continued.

Rules, orders, and regulations; annexed to the additional book of rates referred to in an act paſſed in the 11*th year of King George* I. *and ſigned by the Honourable Spencer Compton, Eſq; ſpeaker of the houſe of commons. See Book of* Rates.

I. Any of the rates aforeſaid, or any thing contained in the additional book of rates, is not to extend to alter the methods preſcribed by law for aſcertaining the values upon ſuch unrated goods, wares, and merchandiſes imported, as are of the growth, product, or manufacture of the Eaſt Indies, China, or other the parts within the limits of the charters granted to the united company of merchants of England trading to the Eaſt Indies.

Or, II. To the charging any duty upon ſuch ſort of wood, plank, or timber wrought, or unwrought, or any of the goods called lumber, which are to be imported duty-free, by virtue of the act made in the eighth year of his preſent Majeſty's reign, on the conditions therein mentioned, during the continuance of the ſaid act.

Or, III. To the charging any duty upon ſuch drugs, or other goods uſed in dying, which are to be imported duty-free, by virtue of another act made in the eighth year of his preſent Majeſty's reign, on the conditions therein mentioned.

IV. And whereas it may happen, that ſeveral goods and merchandiſes may be imported, which are omitted to be rated in the book of rates made in the twelfth year of the reign of King Charles II. or in the additional book of rates, or in ſome particular act of parliament; in ſuch caſe, the value and price of ſuch goods and merchandiſes for the old ſubſidy, other than of thoſe of India, Perſia, or China, ſhall be aſcertained by the oath or affirmation of the merchant, in the preſence of the cuſtomer, collector, comptroller, and ſurveyor, or any two of them; and the better to prevent frauds, and that all merchants may be upon an equal foot in trade, the collector and comptroller, or other proper officers of the cuſtoms, may open, view, and examine ſuch goods and merchandiſes, paying duty *ad valorem*, and compare the ſame with the value and price thereof ſo ſworn to, or affirmed; and if, upon ſuch view and examination, it ſhall appear that ſuch goods or merchandiſes are not valued by ſuch oath or affirmation, according to the true value and price thereof, according to the true intent and meaning hereof; that then, and in ſuch caſe, the importer and proprietor ſhall, on demand made in writing by the cuſtomer, or collector and comptroller of the port where ſuch goods or merchandiſes are entered, deliver, or cauſe to be delivered, all ſuch goods and merchandiſes into his Majeſty's warehouſe at the port of importation, for the uſe and benefit of the crown; and upon ſuch delivery, the cuſtomer and collector of ſuch port,

ort, with the privity of the comptroller, ſhall, out of ny money in the hands of ſuch cuſtomer or collector, riſing by cuſtom, or other duties belonging to the crown, ay to ſuch importer or proprietor, the value of ſuch oods and merchandiſes ſo ſworn to, or affirmed, for the aid old ſubſidy, as aforeſaid, together with an addition f the cuſtoms and other duties paid for ſuch goods, and f ten pou ds *per centum* to ſuch value, taking a receipt or the ſame from ſuch importer or proprietor, in full ſaisfaction for the ſaid goods, as if they had been regularly ſold. And the reſpective commiſſioners of the cuſtoms ſhall cauſe the ſaid goods to be fairly and publickly ſold for the beſt advantage, and out of the produce thereof, the money ſo paid, or advanced as aforeſaid, ſhall be repaid to ſuch cuſtomer, or collector, with the privity of the comptroller, to be replaced to ſuch funds from whence the ſame was borrowed, and the overplus, if any, ſhall be paid into his Majeſty's exchequer, towards the ſinking fund, by the title of unrated goods imported, under valued.

Fees and allowances due and payable to the officers of his Majeſty's cuſtoms and ſubſidies in the port of London, and the members and creeks thereunto belonging; ſigned by Sir Edward Turner, ſpeaker of the houſe of commons in the 13*th year of King Charles* II. *and afterwards confirmed and continued by ſeveral ſubſequent acts of parliament.*

For the officers of the petty cuſtoms outwards.

	Cuſtomer.	Comptroller.	Surveyor.	Surveyor General.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
For a cloth cocket by Engliſh freemen of London	0 6	0 4	0 4	0 4
For a ſtranger's cocket, or unfreemen	0 8	0 6	0 6	0 6
For a cloth certificate by ſtrangers or Britiſh to paſs according to the old rate	0 8	0 4	0 4	0 4
For a ſhip's entry croſſing the ſeas	0 4	0 4	0 4	0 4
For a ſhip's entry to the Streights, Canaries, or Weſtern iſlands	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0
For clearing of ſhips, and examining the book	1 0	0 6	0 6	0 6
For every indorſement	0 4			
For making a bond to the King's Majeſty's uſe	0 6			
For every entry in the certificate-book	0 2			
To the cuſtomers clerks.				
More for a cloth cocket or certificate	0 6	0 2	0 2	0 2
For a ſhip's entry croſſing the ſeas	0 4			

Subſidy outwards.

	Collector.	Comptroller.	Surveyor.	Surveyor General.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
For every ſhip's entry within the Levant, or beyond the Streights mouth	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0
For every ſhip's entry going to any other foreign parts	0 4	0 4	0 4	0 4
For every ſhip's entry going to the out-ports	0 2	0 1	0 1	0 1
For clearing of every ſhip paſſing to foreign parts, and examining the ſhip's contents	1 0	0 6	0 6	0 6
For every Engliſh cocket by freemen	0 8	0 4	0 4	0 4
For every ſtranger's cocket, or unfreemen of London	1 0	0 6	0 6	0 6
For making every certificate cocket, as well Britiſh as ſtrangers, for goods which paid ſubſidy inwards, and pay no ſubſidy outwards	0 8	0 4	0 4	0 4
For every certificate upon warrant from his Majeſty, or the Lord Treaſurer, paying no duties	1 6	0 8	0 8	0 8
For indorſement of all warrants and licences	0 4	0 4		
For a ſoaring bill licenſing ſuch as bring in victuals, to carry out ſome beer as by ſtore	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 6
Coaſt ſufferances to be given without fees.				
For every coaſt cocket outwards, and entering in his Majeſty's books, for a whole ſhip, or veſſel paſſing into the open ſeas	1 0	0 8	0 8	0 8
For a bond of the ſame	0 6			
For diſcharging the ſame bond, and filing the certificate to the bond,		0 4		
For making every certificate of return	1 0	0 2	0 2	0 2
For making, entering and keeping an account of every debenture for repayment of half ſubſidy, or other ſums of money	1 0	0 4	0 4	0 4
For making, and entering a tranſire or letpaſs, from port to port in England, Wales, or Berwick	0 4	0 2		
To the clerks.				
For a cocket, by Britiſh or others	0 4	0 2	0 2	0 2
For a ſhip's entry croſſing the ſeas	0 4			
To the clerk of the coaſt cockets, for making a bill or ticket to the Lord Mayor for corn, victuals, and other proviſions	0 4			

Petty cuſtom inwards.

	Cuſtomer.	Comptroller.	Surveyor.	Surveyor General.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
For ever ſtranger's warrant	0 2	0 2	0 2	0 2
For taking every bond	0 6			
For every bill at ſight	1 0	0 4	0 4	0 4
For diſcharging every bond		0 6		
For every great employment to employ the proceed of goods		0 6	1 0	1 0

Subsidy inwards.

	Collector. s. d.	Comptroller. s. d.	Surveyor. s. d.	Surveyor General. s. d.
For every warrant by Britiſh freemen of London -	0 4	0 4	0 4	0 4
For every warrant for ſtrangers, or unfreemen - -	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 6
To the clerk for making the ſhippers entry -	1 0			
For making a bond to his Majeſty's uſe - -	0 6			
For every oath adminiſtered by the collector -	0 2			
For a ſhip's entry, with the particular contents, *viz.*				
—From the Eaſt Indies - -	2 6			
—From the Streights - -	2 6			
—From Spain, Portugal, and the Weſt Indies, or Britiſh plantations	2 0			
—From Dunkirk or France - -	1 0			
—From Flanders, Holland, Ireland, or any Eaſtern or Northern parts	1 0			
For every ſhip or veſſel leſs than 20 ton - -	0 8			
For every ſtranger's ſhip's entry, to pay double fees.				
For every certificate of foreign goods imported, to be ſhipped out free of ſubſidy, 18 d. which is underſtood of 6 d. for the ſearch, although ſeveral ſhips, and 12 d. for the certificate - -	1 6			
If the goods be under the value of 20 l according to the book of rates, the merchant is to pay for the certificate, in all, but -	0 6			
For examining and comparing every debenture with the original certificate - - -	0 4			
For a certificate of foreign goods coming from any of the out-ports to London, or from any other port to port within this nation	0 6	0 2	0 2	0 2
For goods ſent by ſea by the importer thereof, to any of the out-ports from London - - - -	0 6	0 2	0 2	0 2
For caſting up the ſum, and keeping an account of every debenture, and paying the money - - -	0 8			

For every bale, pack, truſs, cheſt, caſe, or other package, brought into the King's warehouſe, to be allowed to the officer when the merchant is ſhort entered above 5 s. to be paid to the proper officer, 2 d.

Great cuſtoms.

	Cuſtomer. s. d.	Comptroller. s. d.
For a cocket for calve-ſkins - -	2 0	1 0
For a coaſt cocket outwards of woolls, woollfells, leather, ſkins, and hides	2 0	1 0
For a bond for his Majeſty's uſe	1 0	
Filing the return - -	0 6	
For a return and diſcharge outwards	2 4	1 0

Packer.

For the packer, for telling and packing every dacre of dreſſed calve-ſkins, allowing ten dozen to the dacre - - - 0 6

For packing every dacre of undreſſed calve ſkins, and telling - - - 0 6

Fees concerning ſeveral officers, as well inwards as outwards, to be paid to the clerks.

	Cuſtomer. s. d.	Comptroller. s. d.	Surveyor. s. d.
For every bill of portage	0 6	0 3	0 3
For a ſecond or parcel cocket outwards -	0 2	0 2	0 2

To the King's Majeſty's waiters, being in number eighteen.

s. d.

Received in the cuſtomhouſe, above ſtairs,

For ever Britiſh man's foreign goods or merchandiſes, of what nature ſoever, paying cuſtom or ſubſidy inwards in the port of London, or coming thither from any place or port by cocket 1 0

For every ſtranger's foreign goods in like manner, paying cuſtom or ſubſidy inwards in the ſame port, or coming thither by cocket - 1 6

For certifying every cocket of Britiſh goods brought up to London - - - 0 6

Received at the water-ſide by the ſaid King's waiters, and others attending, to be divided as formerly,

For a bill of ſtore or portage for any thing above 10 s. cuſtom - - 1 0

For a bill of ſight, bill of ſufferance, or any other imperfect warrant - - 1 0

For woolls, woollfells, leather, hides, and prohibited goods from the out-ports by cocket 1 0

Regiſter of the King's Majeſty's warrants.

s. d.

For every Britiſh warrant for the goods inwards 0 1

For every ſtranger's warrant - 0 4

For every certificate foreign - - 0 4

For all goods not paying 20 s. cuſtom, whether in or out, there ſhall be but half fees taken, whether for warrants, cockets, tranſires, debentures, or certificates.

To the uſher of the cuſtomhouſe.

For every oath adminiſtered by the King's officers outwards - - 0 2

Rules which may ſerve for the ports in general.

Whereas ſome ſocieties and companies of merchants trade in a joint ſtock, and enter the whole lading and cargo of a ſhip inwards, in one ſingle entry, when the adventurers therein concerned are many, the officers and waiters may take and receive ſuch gratuity as the ſaid company ſhall hereafter voluntarily conſent to pay unto them; any thing in this order or table of fees, or any other act or proviſion to the contrary notwithſtanding.

All goods under the value of 5 l. in the book of rates, paying ſubſidy the ſum of 5 s. or leſs, ſhall paſs without payment of any fees.

No Britiſh merchant that ſhall have goods of his own, to be landed out of one ſhip or veſſel at one time, although the receipt of the ſubſidy be diſtributed into ſeveral offices, ſhall be charged to pay any more or other fees for a ſingle entry.

Goods in partnerſhip to paſs as if the proprietors were one ſingle perſon.

Fiſh by Britiſh in Britiſh ſhipping or veſſel inwards or outwards, or along the coaſt, to pay no fees.

Foreign coin and bullion inwards, may be landed by any perſon, without warrant or fee.

Diamonds, precious ſtones, jewels, and pearls of all ſorts, to paſs inwards and outwards, without warrant or fee.

Poſt-entries inwards to paſs without fee, under 5 s. above 5 s. and under 40 s. then 6 d.: but if the cuſtom to be paid exceed 40 s. then it ſhall pay the full fees that was paid for the firſt warrant.

The merchant ſhall pay for all goods opening that ſhall be ſhort entered, above 10 s. cuſtom.
The merchant ſhall pay for weighing of all goods that ſhall be ſhort entered above 20 s. cuſtom.
The merchant not to be at any charge if duly entered.
Whereas by an act of parliament, intitled, *An act for encouraging and increaſing of ſhipping and navigation*, there are granted unto the King's moſt excellent Majeſty, ſundry duties upon ſtrangers veſſels importing commodities not of their growth; and thereby it is ordered, That ſuch ſhipping as pretend to enjoy the privilege of Engliſh ſhipping, muſt be manned accordingly; whereby there is a neceſſity of an officer to be employed every tide downwards towards Graveſend, to viſit all ſhips whether they be manned according to the ſaid act; as alſo to gauge French ſhips, and take an account of their tonnage, and to give certificates for making of foreign ſhips free, and taking bond for ſuch as go to the plantations; for effecting of which buſineſs, the following fees are ſet and appointed by the authority aforeſaid, to be paid as well in all outports, as in the port of London, and creeks thereunto belonging.

	Collector. s.	d.	Comptroller. s.	d.
For gauging every French veſſel in lieu of the like fee paid in France for gauging Britiſh veſſels there, as long as they continue this duty -	5	0		
But this ceaſed by the 11th article of the treaty of commerce with France, concluded at Utrecht in 1713.				
For making a certificate to make a foreign ſhip free, with ſealing and regiſtering the ſame - -	10	0		
For a bond for ſhips going to the plantations - -	0	6		
For every entry of French veſſels, and for bills to charge the 5 s. *per* ton on ſuch veſſel - -	0	6	0	6
For a certificate of payment of tonnage	0	6		
For every entry of goods liable to duties by the act of navigation, which this collector receives - -	0	4	0	4

The fees of the chief ſearcher, and of his Majeſty's five under-ſearchers in the port of London.

Duties between the chief ſearcher, and his Majeſty's five under-ſearchers that attend at London.

	s.	d.
For every ſhip that paſſeth to foreign parts, Spain, Portugal, the Streights, Weſt Indies, Guinea, or the Weſtern iſlands - -	6	0
Eaſt India - - -	10	0
All other Britiſh ſhips into foreign parts	4	0
For every ſtranger's ſhip or bottom -	6	8

Duties of his Majeſty's five under-ſearchers that attend at London.

Britiſh and aliens,

For every certificate for ſhipping out goods formerly imported - - -	2	0
But if the half ſubſidy to be received back amounts only to 40 s. then - -	1	0

To be paid by Britiſh and aliens, for goods that pay ſubſidy, and paſs out by cocket or warrant,

Pipe, puncheon, or butt - -	0	4
Hogſhead or bag - -	0	2
Tin, the block or barrel - -	0	1
Beer-eager, wood of all ſorts, copperas, allum, and all ſuch groſs goods, the ton -	0	4
Corn the laſt, ſea-coal the chalder, beer the ton	0	2
Lead, the fodder - -	0	2
The maund, fatt, or pack - -	0	6
The bundle, bale, cheſt, or caſe -	0	3
Raiſins and figs, the 20 frails, or barrels	0	3
Butter, and ſuch goods, the barrel -	0	2
For every coaſt certificate or cocket -	1	0

To be paid by Britiſh and aliens, for goods that pay ſubſidy, and paſs out by cocket or warrant,

	s.	d.
Tranſires for the coaſt, free		
For every horſe, mare, or gelding -	1	0
For certifying every debenture for receiving back half ſubſidy, *&c.* - -	0	6
For every piece of ordnance - -	1	0
For the indorſement of every cocket	1	0
For every certificate out of their books of goods loſt at ſea, taken by the pyrates, or returned, whereby ſo much may be ſhipped cuſtom free	1	0
For every bill of ſufferance, or ſtore above 10 s. in the book of rates - -	1	0
If under - - -	0	6
The fardle or truſs, by Britiſh, of three hundred weight, or upwards - -	0	6
Woollen cloth, the bale not exceed in five cloths, or three hundred weight, ſtuffs, bays, or ſays	0	3

Merchants ſtrangers, unfreemen of London, or ſuch as ſhip on ſtrangers ſhips or veſſels,

The fardle or truſs - -	1	0
The bale - -	0	6

The fees of his Majeſty's two ſearchers at Graveſend.

For every ſhip that paſſeth over the ſeas for Spain, Portugal, Streights, the Weſt Indies, Guinea, or the Weſtern iſlands - -	6	0
For every ſhip to the Eaſt Indies -	10	0
For all other ſhips into foreign parts -	4	0
For every ſtranger's ſhip or bottom -	8	0
For every ſhip having a coaſt-cocket -	0	4
For paſſengers outwards, not being merchants or mariners - - -	0	6

Sabbati 17° Maii 14° Caroli Regis ſecundi.

The general table of fees for the port of London, with the members and creeks thereunto belonging, being this day read,

The queſtion being put,

That for all goods not paying one pound cuſtom, in or out, there ſhall be but half fees taken for all cockets, warrants, debentures, tranſires, or certificates;

It was reſolved in the affirmative.

Reſolved upon the queſtion,

That the ſaid table of fees, as it was reported and read, with the alterations aforeſaid, be agreed to, and that the ſame be engroſſed, and Mr. Speaker is authoriſed to ſign the ſame,

WILL. GOLDESBROUGH,
Cler' Dom' Com'

A breviate of the fees of his Majeſty's officers of the cuſtoms and ſubſidies in the port of London, reducing the particulars, as they are ſet in ſeveral paragraphs, under ſeveral titles, into totals or entire ſums.

For the officers of the petty cuſtoms outwards.

	s.	d.
For a cloth cocket by Britiſh freemen of London, paid to the principal officers and their clerks	2	6
For a ſtranger's cocket, or unfreemen -	3	2
For a cloth certificate by Britiſh or ſtrangers	2	8
For a ſhip's entry croſſing the ſeas -	1	8
For a ſhip's entry to the Streights, Canaries, or Weſtern iſlands - -	4	4
For clearing of ſhips, and examining the books	2	6
For every endorſement - -	0	4
For making a bond to the King's Majeſty's uſe	0	6
For every entry in the certificate-book -	0	2

Subſidy outwards.

For every ſhip's entry within the Levant, or beyond the Streights mouth; to the officers and their clerk - - -	4	4
For every ſhip's entry going to any other foreign parts - - -	1	8
For every ſhip's entry going to the out-ports, and for a coaſt cocket and bond -	4	9

	s.	d.
For clearing of every ſhip, paſſing to foreign parts, and examining the ſhip's contents -	2	6
For every Britiſh cocket, by freemen -	2	6
For every ſtranger's cocket, or unfreemen of London - - -	3	4
For every certificate, cocket, *&c.* -	2	6
For every certificate, upon warrant from his Majeſty, or the Lord Treaſurer, paying no duties	4	4
For indorſement of all warrants and licences	0	8
For a foaring bill - - - -	2	0
For diſcharging a bond, and filing the certificate	0	4
For making a certificate of return -	2	0
For a debenture for repayment of half ſubſidy, *&c.* to the principal officers 2 s. to the ſearchers 6 d. for the oath 2 d. examining 4 d. caſting up and paying the money 8 d. in all - -	3	8
For making and entering a certificate or let-paſs	0	6
For a bill or ticket to the Lord Mayor -	0	4

Petty cuſtom inwards.

For every ſtranger's warrant inwards, ſee ſubſidy inwards.

For taking every bond - -	0	6
For every bill at ſight - -	2	0
For diſcharging every bond - -	0	6
For every great employment -	2	6

Subſidy inwards.

For every warrant by Britiſh freemen of London; to the principal officers, the King's waiters, and regiſter - - - -	2	6
For every warrant for ſtrangers -	4	6
for unfreemen	3	2
For every certificate of foreign goods coming from the out-ports, to London -	2	4
For goods ſent by ſea, by the importer thereof, to any of the out-ports, from London -	1	0

All the reſt of the fees under this title of *Subſidy inwards*, are ſingle, and paid to particular perſons. See the table.

Great cuſtoms.

For a cocket for calve-ſkins; to the officers and packet - - -	3	6
For woolls, wooll-fells, ſkins, and hides	3	0
For a bond to his Majeſty's uſe -	1	0
For filing the return - -	0	6
For a return and diſcharge outwards -	3	4

Fees inwards and outwards concerning the clerks.

For every bill of portage - -	1	0
For a ſecond, or parcel cocket outward -	0	6

The King's waiters, for the firſt three articles. All theſe are reckoned together with the former entries.

All other fees in the table not herein before compriſed, except only two concerning the act of navigation; the fees of the chief ſearcher, and his Majeſty's five under-ſearchers at London, and two at Graveſend, are ſingle, and do not admit of abbreviation.

For all goods not paying 20 s. cuſtom, whether in or out, there ſhall be but half fees taken.

All goods under the value of 5 l. in the book of rates, ſhall paſs without payment of any fees.

Coin and bullion inwards, precious ſtones, jewels, and pearls outwards, paſs without warrant or fee.

The merchants ſhall pay for all goods opening that ſhall be ſhort entered, above 10 s. cuſtom.

The merchants ſhall pay for weighing of all goods that ſhall be ſhort entered, above 20 s. cuſtom.

The merchant not to be at any charge, if duly entered.

By an order of the houſe of commons, made in the 13th year of King Charles II. it was ordered, That if any merchant, maſter of a ſhip, or other perſon or perſons whatſoever, ſhould refuſe to pay all or any of the above fees, it ſhould be lawful for any officer to make ſtay of every bill of entry, cocket, or other warrant, that ſhould be tendered, or given in, for paſſing of any ſhips, goods or merchandiſes whatſoever, exceeding the value of 5 l. in the book of rates, for which the above fees ſhou'd be detained, and denied to be paid; and copies of this order, and table of fees, were directed to be ſet up in public view in the cuſtomhouſe of London, and in all other offices and places where any of the ſaid fees were to be paid or received.

Trade, as it is now become the ſtrength of Great Britain, by the ſupply it breeds of ſeamen, ſo it is the living fountain from whence its inhabitants draw all their nouriſhment; for it diſperſes that blood and ſpirit through all the members, by which the body politic ſubſiſts. The price of lands, value of rents, commodities and manufactures, riſe and fall, as it goes well or ill with foreign trade: for it is not ſufficient to have great exportation, and great importation, unleſs a nation gains upon the ballance; becauſe the profit of trade is not the advantage the merchant makes at home; but what the whole nation gets clear and neat, upon the ballance in exchange with other countries of its commodities and manufactures.

Taxes which are laid unequally, that affect trade, that conſume a ſtate with uſury, that diſaffect the people, that prejudice the crown-revenue, and burthen a nation with perpetual intereſt, may be made uſe of now and then, to piece out and anſwer a ſingle and ſhort neceſſity; but ſhould not be repeated often, and made uſe of as the conſtant ways and means of ſupplying the government, in a buſineſs of length, without great hazard and damage to the ſtate: for taxes of this nature beget public and private property, make the people deſperate, render government uneaſy to the rulers, and may be rather ſaid to fight ſecretly againſt the prince, than to give him any true aſſiſtance; yet, from the revolution, the Britiſh trade has been loaded with many impoſitions, while almoſt every branch of the revenue has been devoted to anticipations, whereby the national debt has ſo much increaſed; for giving the government money by anticipating the cuſtoms, or by credit, upon diſtant funds, apparently conſumes the public with uſury; and the new funds entail a heavy debt of perpetual intereſt. See *Fund*

High cuſtoms ſpoil induſtry, diſcourage the merchant, and may in time drive trade to take ſome other channel; which is an alarming circumſtance to a maritime ſtate; becauſe there is hardly an inſtance to be given of a nation, perhaps not of any ſingle city, that having once loſt trade, could ever recover it; of which the kingdom of Portugal, and the city of Antwerp, afford ſufficient inſtances.

In nations, where the government cannot ſubſiſt without charging every thing, they ſometimes impoſe great cuſtoms: but where-ever the public can otherwiſe be maintained, the cuſtoms are low, for the encouragement of the merchant, who deſerves all favour, as being the beſt, and moſt profitable member of the commonwealth.

Of all the new impoſitions in the Britiſh cuſtoms, nothing was once thought to lie ſo heavily on trade, as the duties upon the tonnage of ſhips; which, it was apprehended, ſeemed to pull down at once a great part of what the nation had been ſo carefully rearing up by the act of navigation: and that tax was repreſented as an inſtance, how much compaſſion for private caſes prevailed more than the ſenſe of public good; for it was once deſigned to raiſe the money, by laying a new duty upon wine; but becauſe that was complained of as very burthenſome to the Spaniſh and Portugal merchants, a charge on tonnage was pitched upon; which, it was dreaded, might have proved very pernicious to the general trade of all England in its conſequence.

War, and the ſcarcity of money, are ſufficient diſcouragements to foreign commerce, without burthening it with new impoſitions; for, inſtead of loading that part of the national ſtrength, it ought to be courted and cheriſhed with all imaginable art and care; becauſe ſhe is a coy and fantaſtical lady, being hard to win, and quickly loſt. Some people, who contemplated the greatneſs of England, and the figure it made in the world during the former part of Queen Elizabeth's reign, and ſome time before, were led to think, that England was ſtronger without trade than with it. Perhaps trade in general may have been hurtful to mankind, becauſe it has introduced luxury and

d avarice, and ſupplanted the innocence and plainneſs our anceſtors: but the circumſtance of time, and the ſture other nations are in, may render things abſolutely ceſſary, which are not good in their own nature. For, ce France, Italy, and Holland, have addicted themſelves much of late years to trade, wherein they are now fol- ved by other ſtates, Great Britain, without that naval ce which trade produces, would be continually ex- ſed to the inſults and invaſions of her neighbours; refore, it is now become indiſpenſably her intereſt to courage foreign commerce, and enlarge it as much as ſible, which is to be moſt effectually done by an abate- nt of high duties on trade; for theſe at laſt fall upon d; though all reaſonable men muſt grant, that if the vernment can be otherways ſupplied, it would be ex- dient to let land breathe a little, to give the country ntlemen opportunity to repair the breaches which any traordinary grants on land may have made in their tunes.

e Britiſh cuſtoms are now of ſo comp'icated and in- cate a nature, that they are extremely difficult to be htly underſtood; and the multiplicity of regulations the collection of them, has not only thrown great and preſſive burthens on trade, but alſo thrown the trader der great inconveniencies, eſpecially the great number oaths to which he is ſubject.

he method of entering goods at the cuſtom-houſe in reat Britain, on *importation*, is as follows. When eign goods are imported, the maſter of the veſſel, on arrival, muſt report his cargo, on oath, at the cuſtom- uſe; for which report the fee to the deputies is a ſhilling. he merchant may enter and land his goods any time thin 20 days from the day of the maſter's report: for hich purpoſe, he ſhould write and ſign five bills of try; one whereof muſt be in words at length, and is led the warrant; but the other four may be in figures: fee on an inward entry being 8 d. and for writing ſe entries there is charged, at ſome of the out-ports, the collector, ſometimes 6 d. ſometimes 2 s. which merchant ſaves if he writes them himſelf.

he merchant ſhould deliver theſe five bills of entry to collector, or his clerk, who will compute the duties, hich muſt be paid, before the goods are landed; and en the duties are paid, the warrant is duly perfected, d delivered to the land-waiters appointed to attend the livery, together with blue books, wherein an accompt the delivery is to be entered; after which the goods are nded, examined, and the quantities taken. The tideſ- n on board the ſhip keep a tally-accompt of the de- very in blue books; the land-waiters upon the keys, der the inſpection of the land-ſurveyors, enter in their ue books not only the number and quality, but alſo the antity of the goods delivered. The deſign of the de- very is to aſcertain the quality and quantity of the goods, hich is chiefly incumbent on the land-waiters, who are obſerve that the quantities and qualities of the goods livered agree with thoſe entered. The qualities of goods e always known to the merchants; the officers, in de- rmining them, muſt rely on experience, and the de- riptions in the book of rates. The quantities are to be termined, either by number, weight, or meaſure, ac- rding as the goods are rated in the book of rates. See *ale*, *Weight*, and *Meaſure*.

hen an Engliſh maſter reports his ſhip, he is to ſub- ribe two copies of the report; one of which is to be ken in a book to be kept at the port for that purpoſe, d the other on looſe paper, which muſt be preſerved a file till the end of each quarter; when they are to tranſmitted to the *regiſter-general of all ſhips belonging Great Britain*, for him to examine whether they are ly ſworn and atteſted, and the ſhips lawfully manned. efore a ſhip has been duly entered or reported, no en- ies of any merchandiſes ſhould be taken, unleſs the ip is deſigned for another port, and was forced in by me neceſſity; when entries only for ſmall matters are be taken, upon the maſter's oath, that they are only ſupply neceſſaries for the ſhip: but when the ſhip is to eliver the whole, or any part of the cargo, at that port, r which purpoſe the maſter has made a regular report of his ſhip, there may be then accounted an importation of all the goods on board, deſigned to be delivered in any port of Great Britain, ſo that the duties payable to the crown, on the importation of ſuch goods, are actually become due; and therefore, on making ſuch report at each reſpective port, every perſon who has any goods on board ſuch ſhip, muſt, as ſoon as poſſible, and before the ſame are unladen, make proper entries thereof with the collector, and pay or ſecure all the duties to which ſuch goods are liable; and ſuch entries muſt not, on any pre- tence, be delayed, but muſt be actually made from the time of the maſter's report of the ſhip, for tobacco; and for all other goods, within 20 days; and as the duties become due on the importation of all goods, whether an entry thereof is made or not; therefore, on refuſal or neglect of entry, within the aforeſaid times, an informa- tion, in the nature of an action of debt, may be brought againſt the importer for the duties.

In making theſe entries it muſt be obſerved, that there are expreſſed the ſhip's name, the maſter's name, the place from whence arrived, and the importer's name, with the particular kinds and quantities of goods: and on the warrant muſt be likewiſe expreſſed the marks, numbers, and contents of every parcel of ſuch goods as are rated to pay by the piece or meaſure, and the weight of the whole parcel of ſuch goods as are rated to pay by the weight; which will be only a copy of the merchant's invoice, and may be inſerted either on the face of the warrant, as is uſual at the port of London; or on the back thereof, as is practiſed at many of the out-ports: and, laſtly, the warrant being thus compleated by the merchant, the ſame is to be ſigned by himſelf, or his known ſervant, factor, or agent, to teſtify that the goods are not on aliens or denizens account; in which caſe they would be liable to extraordinary duties: but when the goods are declared to be imported by, or on account of an alien or denizen, ſuch ſubſcription is not neceſſary; becauſe ſuch goods are then liable to the higheſt duties that can be paid. Though, with reſpect to the making and ſubſcribing of merchants entries at the cuſtom-houſe, it muſt be obſerved, that any Britiſh man may cuſtom, in his own name, the goods of another Britiſh man; ſo may one merchant ſtranger enter the goods of another merchant ſtranger: but he that ſo enters the goods of an- other perſon, that the King loſes his duty, forfeits the goods to the King, and likewiſe all his own goods and chattles for ever.

When the bill of entry is perfected, and produced to the collector, cuſtomer, and comptroller, they are each of them to take copies thereof, for computing the duties, if any due; which copies are to be cloſed and numbered in courſe, beginning a new number each quarter. Theſe officers having computed the duties on their reſpective bills or copies, and having argeed the ſame, the collector is to receive the duties, and inſert them on the bill ſubſcribed by or for the merchant; which having been dated and numbered as the ſaid officers copies were, he is to ſign his name thereto, and then deliver ſuch ſubſcribed bill to the cuſtomer and comptroller, to be likewiſe ſigned by them: after which the ſaid bill is to be directed to the ſurveyor, and the particular land-waiters appointed to the ſhip, as a warrant for their examination and delivery of the goods; which copies, or duplicates of the entries, taken by the collector, cuſtomer, and comptroller, are to be preſerved on ſeparate files, to be entered daily in proper and diſtinct books, to be kept by each of them for that purpoſe. See Book of *Rates*.

Such wearing apparel, and baggage, as appear to be worn, and to belong to the paſſengers, are to be delivered with- out any entry if not of prohibited goods: but ſuch cloaths, or ſmall parcels, as have not been worn, and are cuſtom- able, muſt be entered; and ſuch as are prohibited muſt be proſecuted.

After the entry of goods imported, the method to be ob- ſerved in the examination and delivery of them is as fol- lows. When entered, and the warrants, &c. granted for the landing and delivery, produced to the land-waiters, who are appointed by the collector by noting their names in the report book, or a particular one for that purpoſe;

they are to accept it as an authority to permit the landing and delivery; though they are not to examine the goods on board, but order them on ſhore at the merchant's charge; certifying the entry to the tideſmen on board the ſhip, before they permit them to be unladen. And, if there is ſufferance to permit landing them at any other place than the lawful keys, it muſt be mentioned in the order: but, that land-waiters may be prepared to take an accompt of the examination and delivery, when the ſhip is reported, a blank book, containing 12 leaves, is to be delivered to each whom the collector ſhall appoint to ſee each ſhip diſcharged; though as to ſhips that do not report, every land-waiter muſt have a general pocket-book delivered to him, containing 100 leaves, to enter all warrants directed to him for delivery of goods.

In the landing, examining, and delivery of all goods and merchandiſes, it muſt be carefully obſerved;

1. That none be landed, or delivered without a proper warrant, otherwiſe they are liable to ſeizure.

2. That no more be delivered than what the land-waiters have perfect warrants for; and if, on examination of ſuch dry goods as pay duty by tale or meaſure, the importer appears to have endorſed ſhort, they muſt be ſeized: but, in caſe of ſhort entries upon goods paying duties by weight or gauge, the land waiters muſt give the merchant an accompt in writing, that he may make a poſt or additional entry of it, before the goods are taken off the keys: unleſs the quantity ſhort entered is very ſmall, which may be entered in a book kept for that purpoſe in the cuſtom-houſe, that the collector may know the quantity and quality, to demand the duties of the merchant, which the land-waiters are to ſee poſted the next day at fartheſt; though, in ſtrictneſs, they are not to give any credit; and, to prevent it, the ſurveyor muſt, 14 days after the expiration of every month, deliver to the collector and comptroller, a liſt of all ſhips cleared the preceding month, with the poſt entries that were ſtanding out ſix days after the ſhips were cleared; who are to enquire into the reaſons, and charge the officers concerned in giving ſuch credit, and ſend their anſwers to the commiſſioners with their obſervations.

3. That the accompt of all goods muſt be taken in the proper books, at the time of examination, &c. and not in any other books or looſe papers.

4. That the marks and numbers of all caſks, &c. muſt be carefully obſerved, and placed to the proper merchants accompts; as alſo each days work compared with the accompt taken by or for the merchant.

5. That goods are not to be brought to the warehouſe without bill of ſight, or other warrant, or conſent of the ſurveyor, under his hand in the land-waiter's book.

6. That, on any miſtake in taking accompt of any goods, the land-waiters are not to eraſe their book, but ſtrike the pen through the error, and make true figures, &c. and write the reaſon.

7. That the land-ſurveyor duly attend at the water ſide, and frequently every day inſpect the land-waiters.

8. That, after payment of the new duties, and before delivery of any hides and ſkins liable to thoſe duties, the ſame are to be ſtamped with a hammer and ſtamp, to be kept, when not in uſe, under ſeparate locks of the collector and comptroller.

9. That, after payment of new duties, and before delivery of linens chequered, ſtriped, printed, painted, ſtained, or dyed, they are to be ſtamped with a proper ſeal, to be kept as before; and, after entry, and being ſtamped, the land waiter is to keep an accompt in his book, which is to be marked by the land-ſurveyor.

10. If, on examination of goods at delivery, the merchant appears to have over-entered, the following regulations muſt be obſerved to procure repayment: on the face of the warrant at bottom, muſt be certified the quantity over-entered; and on the back of the warrant, the merchant, his ſervant, or agent, muſt make oath to the quantity of goods received, and the occaſion of the over-entry; underneath which oath, the land-waiters muſt certify the over-entry; whereupon a certificate muſt be made out by the ſurveyor and land-waiters for repaying the duties on the goods over-entered; on the back whereof muſt be wrote the particular duties to be repaid, with the merchant's receipt: but, before the duties are repaid, the entry inwards muſt be diſcharged for the over-entered goods, by writing them off in the margin of the book; and the whole entered in books to be kept for that purpoſe by the collector and comptroller. Though if the merchant ſhould be over-entered on ſome goods, and ſhort on others, the one muſt not be deducted from the other; but a poſt entry ſhould be made for what is ſhort, and the over entry obtained as before-mentioned.

11. That all goods are to be entered as found: if therefore on examination of any poundage goods, except tobacco, they appear to have received damage; ſo as to prejudice the merchant in the ſale of them, proper allowance muſt be made, but never in conſideration of the meanneſs; though, if the merchant is not ſatisfied with the allowance, the collector, and any other principal officer with him, may appoint two indifferent merchants on their oaths, to adjuſt the allowance: when the officers or other perſons who have adjuſted the damage, are to certify the ſame on the back of the warrant; which allowances for damage muſt be always made on the keys, or in the King's warehouſe, immediately after the landing of the goods, and before taken into the merchant's poſſeſſion.

12. That tho' no allowance be made to the importers of tobacco, for damage or quality; yet if, on delivery, any part appears to be damaged, and the merchant is not willing to enter and pay, or ſecure the duties, he may refuſe the whole, or ſeparate the damaged part, but cut the ſtalk from the leaf, by cutting off from the hogſheads, &c. what he refuſes to enter, &c. which any three or more principal officers may cauſe to be burnt or deſtroyed; of which they are to make a certificate.

It ſometimes happens, that goods are ſent by merchants to ſell by commiſſion, and arrive before the invoice. In this, and ſuch like caſes, when the merchant cannot make any tolerable conjecture at the quantities, and perhaps knows not the ſpecies, or proper denomination of the goods, the law permits the goods to be landed by bills at ſight or view, for which the fee is one ſhilling or 2 ſhillings. The merchant makes a depoſit in the hands of the collector, of as much money as the duties are imagined to amount to, or rather more: then the bill of ſight is made out, and given to the proper officers, who muſt examine and take the quantity of the goods, and make their report to the collector the next day, or render themſelves liable to the penalty of 100 l. in caſe of failure. According to the report the entries are paſſed, and the duties paid, in the ſame manner as they would have been had there been no occaſion for a bill at ſight. If the officers cannot go through the examination in one day, they muſt report their days work to the collector, as being part of the ſight; for which the merchant muſt paſs entries, and pay duty, as alſo proceed till the whole bill at ſight is compleated.

Of exportation. When a merchant intends to export goods to foreign parts, he muſt write four bills of outward entry; for writing of which ſometimes 6 d. and ſometimes 1 s. is charged for the collector; tho' the merchant ſaves it by writing them himſelf. He muſt deliver them to the collector, or his clerk, at the cuſtom-houſe, who will compute and demand what duties are due; upon payment whereof, an over-ſea cocket will be made out and delivered to him, for which the fee is 3 s. 6 d.; this cocket certifying the payment of duty, or the regular entry of the goods, if not liable to duty; which the merchant is to keep till he intends to ſhip the goods. Before ſhipping the merchant muſt deliver the cocket to the ſearcher, and give him notice of the time he intends to ſhip them; for no goods are to be landed, or ſhipped, but in the preſence of a proper officer. The ſearcher will attend and examine, and count, weigh, or meaſure the goods; after which they are put on board, and the ſearcher certifies the quantity ſhipped on the back of the cocket, which is then returned to the principal officers, with whom it remains till the maſter comes to clear, when the cockets for all the goods on board are collected, and entered in what is called a report outwards, the fee to

to the deputies for which is 2 s. 6 d. for a Britiſh man, and 3 s. 4 d. for a foreigner, upon the maſter's declaring the ſaid cockets to contain a true accompt of his whole cargo. To this report the maſter makes oath before the collector and comptroller, pays his clearing charge, has his cockets delivered, and is at liberty to proceed on his voyage.

When goods intitled to bounty are exported, the merchant after entering them, and taking out a cocket, is to give bond for the exportation; and the officers ought to be more than ordinarily careful and exact in taking the quantities, and examining whether the goods have all the legal requiſites to intitle them to bounty; after which, when the ſhip is ſailed, and clear of the coaſt, the exporter may apply to the collector and comptroller for the debenture; which being duly ſigned, the bounty will be paid. See *Bounty*.

Of re-exportation. If foreign goods and merchandiſes are exported within 3 years from the importation, reckoning from the time of the maſter's report, the greateſt part of the duties firſt paid are drawn back. See *Drawback* and Book of *Rates*.

The manner of proceeding at the cuſtom-houſe in this caſe is, that a certificate muſt be obtained of the payment of the duties inwards from the collector and comptroller, and proof is to be made, that the goods to be exported are the very ſame goods mentioned in the certificate, by the oaths of the exporter, and the merchants through whoſe hands they have paſſed. The exporter then enters the goods outwards, as in the common way of exportation. The cocket granted on this occaſion is called a certificate-cocket, the fee for which is 3 s. 6 d. and differs a little in form from common over-ſea cockets. Notice of the time of ſhipping is to be given to the ſearcher, who attends the ſhipping, examines and aſcertains the quantity, and returns the cocket endorſed to the officers who granted it; but all other proceedings at clearing the veſſel are the ſame as before-mentioned.

Some time after the departure of the veſſel, the merchant-exporter may apply to the collector and comptroller for the drawback, who will thereupon make out a debenture, on an eighteen penny ſtamp, containing a clear and diſtinct narrative of the whole proceeding, with the merchant's oath, that the goods are really and truly exported to parts beyond the ſeas, and not relanded, nor intended to be relanded, or brought on ſhore again; and alſo the ſearcher's certificate of the quality and quantity of the goods, and the time of ſhipping underwrote. The debenture being thus duly made out and ſworn to, the branches of duty to be repaid are endorſed, the merchant's receipt taken below, and the money due paid.

When foreign goods, which have been regularly imported, have been afterwards exported, and are, for want of ſale, the great ſcarcity of ſuch goods at home, or other accidents, deſired to be returned, or again imported, into any port of Great Britain; notwithſtanding there is no law for ſuch *re-importation*, yet, on payment of the like duties that were due on the firſt importation, it is the practice to indulge the merchant in ſuch re-importation; though the goods may have been exported out of time, and therefore not intitled to any drawback; and though ſuch goods may be prohibited to be originally imported from that place: but the merchant is to ſignify to the ſearcher, &c. the time when, and the ſhip in which they were exported; who will have recourſe to their books, and, if they find ſuch outward entry was duly made, will grant a certificate, or duplicate thereof; on the back of which proof muſt be made, by the oath of the merchant, that the goods then returned are the ſame therein mentioned, whereupon an entry muſt be made, as for other goods imported, and the duties paid, or ſecured, being inſerted beneath the merchant's oath; the collector, cuſtomer, and comptroller, are to ſubſcribe their names thereto, and direct it to the ſurveyor, and proper land waiter, as a warrant for their delivery of the goods. Alſo, when goods of the product, or manufacture of Great Britain, which have been exported to foreign parts, are, for want of ſale, or any other occaſion, deſired to be returned into any port of Great Britain, a bill of ſtore may be granted for the landing and delivery of the ſame; which is to be obtained by procuring a certificate from the ſearcher, &c. of the entry outwards, and other proceedings as for foreign goods. But, as it may ſometimes happen that the entry outwards cannot be fixed upon, by reaſon of the diſtance of time, or other accidents; in this caſe, as there cannot be any other proof, the oath of the merchant only muſt be deemed ſufficient; when an entry muſt be made in the books inwards, and this oath muſt be ſubſcribed and directed as a warrant for the delivery of goods, in the ſame manner as when the particular entry is proved.

For the greater eaſe and encouragement of trade, part of the duties on ſeveral ſorts of goods are not obliged to be paid down at entry; but ſecurity may be taken for payment of the ſame, at certain periods of time; as for the additional duty on linens and wrought ſilk imported; the additional duty on wines imported; the impoſt on wines and vinegar imported; the new duty on pepper, raiſins, &c. the additional duty, new ſubſidy, $\frac{1}{3}$ ſubſidy, and impoſt on tobacco. But the collector is to endeavour, with the privity and approbation of the comptroller, to take good and ſufficient ſecurities, by one, two, or more perſons beſides the importer, for the ſeveral bondable duties; which approbation he may ſignify, either by being a witneſs to the bond, or by a proper certificate under his hand. Theſe bonds, beſides being inſerted in diſtinct columns in the entry-book inwards, are to be entered by way of charge on the left-hand ſide of a ſeparate accompt, which is to be erected for every importer, in two particular books, which are to be kept for that purpoſe; the one by the collector, and the other by the comptroller: and, after the bonds are ſo entered, they are to be locked up in the King's cheſt, to remain there under the diſtinct locks of the collector and comptroller, till duly diſcharged, either by payment in money, or by debentures, or certificates; when they are to be delivered up to the obligors. See *Bond*, and *Bonded Goods*.

All goods exported or imported into Great Britain, are accounted by weight, meaſure, gauge, and tale: but, in weighing of goods, care ſhould be taken, that the number of weights, which are uſually half hundreds, are properly told when in the ſcales; for weighers and porters are frequently as culpable for negligence as they are for impoſition; to prevent which the trader ſhould go himſelf, or ſend a perſon he can confide in, to look after them. There are four things neceſſary to be obſerved in the weighing of goods. 1ſt, The groſs, which is the weight of the goods, with the cheſt, caſk, or box, containing the ſame. 2. Tare, which is the weight of ſuch cheſt, caſk, or box; or an allowance for their weight, according to the cuſtom of trade: but, if tare is marked on the out-ſide of the cheſt, caſk, or box, they call it invoyce-tare; that is, tare according to the factory; and, ſometimes, three, ſix, or ten pounds are allowed on a draught for break, beſides invoyce-tare: though ſome goods always allow a certain rate for each hogſhead or barrel; and others ſo many pounds for every hundred. 3d. Trett, which is an allowance of four pounds in every hundred and four pounds, made to the freemen of London, out of all goods bought by them, except the contract expreſſes the contrary. 4th, Clough, which is an allowance in every draught of the ſcale, that the weight may hold out in caſe they are re-weighed: but tare, trett, and clough, are to be deducted out of the groſs weight, and the remainder is the neat weight of the goods. See *Groſs*, *Tare*, *Trett*, and *Clough*.

Goods by tale are accounted ſingle, as 3, 4, or 5; or by the dozen of 12; or by the groſs of 12 dozen; or, by the great groſs of 144 dozen.

Goods by meaſure are either liquid or dry: liquids, as wine and brandy, are gauged on the keys, where proper officers attend for that purpoſe: dry, are meaſured by the buſhel, by meters; or by the yard, or ell.

Theſe are the methods of buying and ſelling goods, which are eaſily attained, excepting the firſt, which requires a ſtrict application and attention; for if the tare, and other allowances on goods by weight, are not rightly computed, the trader may be greatly injured.

After

After weighing the goods, and deducting the tare, and gauging, meaſuring, or telling them, according to the commodities dealt in; the next thing to be done is, to take a particular account of them to prevent miſtakes.

When the goods are brought home, or carried to any place purſuant to order, there are neceſſary charges attending the ſame; as cuſtom, weighage, cranage, porterage, wharfage, cartage, and lighterage; a ſhort explanation of which is as follows.

Cuſtom, as above-mentioned, is a duty paid to the ſtate, to ſecure the trade thereof: weighage, is a fee paid to the proper officer for weighing the goods: cranage, is a rate paid for the craning goods into, or out of, any cart, lighter, boat, or ſhip: porterage, is a rate to be paid the porters at the water ſide for loading and unloading: wharfage, is the rate due to the wharfinger, or carman, for carrying goods to and from the water ſide; and lighterage, is a rate due to the lighterman, for carrying goods to and from any ſhip.

All theſe perſons have certain rates by law allowed them, which they ſhould not exceed; but they are too apt to impoſe upon ſtrangers; for which, when known, a remedy againſt them is eaſily obtained.

For the landing and ſhipping of goods, there are lawful keys, fitted with cranes and proper tackle, at the water-ſide, to raiſe or let down any weight, to or from any of the lawful wharfs. The wharf, is the land where the crane ſtands, and is capable of holding large quantities of goods, to be examined there by the ſearchers if exported, or by the landwaiters if imported; the owner of which is called the wharfinger, who keeps lighters to carry goods to and from any ſhip.

There are four ſorts of porters at the water ſide, who have each their proper buſineſs allotted them, and muſt not interfere with one another: firſt, the companies porters, ſo named becauſe they are choſen by the 12 principal companies of London, each appointing 2, 3, or 4. The porters are called by the name of the company that chuſes them, and their buſineſs is to ſhip off, or land, all ſorts of goods and merchandize, imported or exported, from or to all ports on the ſouthward of the Belt, near the weſt-ſide of the Baltic ſea; or to Turky, Italy, Germany, Holland, Spain, or France.

1. The vintners porters are employed in loading wines to and from the ſeveral buyers.

2d, Ticket porters, at the water-ſide, are employed to land or ſhip off goods exported or imported from America, and the ports and places on the north-ſide of the Belt.

3d, Tackle-porters, are particular ſocieties of ticket-porters, that weigh goods between buyer and ſeller, and are furniſhed with ſcales, weights, and ropes, for that purpoſe; who form themſelves into ſeveral bodies for particular commodities; as iron, tin, and ſuch like: their buſineſs being to ſhip off goods for America, and other places.

4th, Fellowſhip-porters, are thoſe who are employed to ſhip or load goods, meaſured by dry meaſure; as coals, corn, and the like.

In a ſhip where ſeveral owners are concerned there is uſually a perſon appointed to take accompt of the goods belonging to each perſon delivered out, in order to adjuſt the affairs between the owners, and to ſettle the damage and freight; which perſon is called the ſhip's-huſband, and is appointed by the owners; who likewiſe tranſacts other buſineſs if required, and pays the wharfage, lighterage, and porterage, of tobacco, from Virginia and Maryland.

Beſides the huſband, there is another officer appointed to account for the freighters, called the book of the ſhip, who is appointed by and out of the tackle-porters, as follows: when a ſhip from America arrives at one of the keys, to be unladen, and the King's weighers and land-waiters are ready, a tackle-porter, and ſome ticket-porters, ſet immediately to work upon her, and land ſeven draughts, or hogſheads; but none are permitted to partake of the profits of unlading that ſhip, except ſuch as come before the ſaid ſeven draughts are landed and weighed; this finiſhed, the tackle-porters preſent, chuſe the book, who takes an accompt of the quantities and marks of each perſon's goods, and ſees them put into warehouſes or ſent home. See *Scavage*.

French CUSTOMS. The chief of theſe duties are of three kinds; thoſe of the five large farms, including the duties of importation and exportation, both of the kingdom, and the provinces reputed foreign; thoſe of the *gabelles*, or the duties upon ſalt; and thoſe of the *aids*, that regard particularly the vent wholeſale and retail, of all ſorts of French and foreign wines, beer, cyder, perry, and other liquors, either for the conſumption of the kingdom, or to be exported, as alſo their importation to Paris, and to the other towns ſubject to theſe duties: which duties of importation and exportation were regulated in conſequence of the tariff of Lyons in 1632, and of the tariffs of 1664 and 1667.

It is really a ſcience, and no eaſy one, to know the names, numbers, and quality of the French taxes; which are ſo many, ſo various, and ſo heavy, that one of their own writers calls them, *inventions proper to impoveriſh the people, and to enrich the dictionaries.*

Spaniſh CUSTOMS. Duties of importation are called in Spain duties of *alcavala*, which amount to about 5 *per cent.* of the value of the goods: and the duties of exportation are much upon the ſame footing.

Portugueze CUSTOMS. The duties of importation in this kingdom were formerly equal with regard to all kinds of merchandiſe; that is, 18 *per cent.* of their value: but, ſince the year 1667, ſilk ſtuffs have been diſtinguiſhed by the general tariff, and the duties were regulated at 15 *per cent.* the duties of exportation being at 6 *per cent.* By treaty, Engliſh goods are never to exceed 23 *per cent.* on their valuation for the payment of duties; yet crapes, long ells, ſhalloons, and ſome other Engliſh ſtuffs have been raiſed to more than 30 *per cent.* duties on their fair valuation.

Dutch CUSTOMS. In the United Provinces, the duties of importation and exportation are both at 5 *per cent.* of their value: but ſome French commodities have been moderated by the 7th article of the tariff, made at Paris in the month of May 1699, between the commiſſioners of the French King and thoſe of the States General: and there is now a plan laid before the ſtates for making free ports throughout all the provinces.

The CUSTOMS *in the kingdoms of the North, the Baltic ſea, and the Hans towns.* The duties of importation and exportation at the city of Bremen, amount to about half a dollar *per cent.* the dollar being 4 s. 6 d. ſterling; and thoſe of Hamburgh are alike: but the duties of Lubeck are not ſo much as thoſe of Bremen; thoſe of importation being only to the amount of 3-4ths of a dollar *per cent.* and 2-3ds of a dollar on exportation.

In the ports of Denmark and Norway, the duties of importation aud exportation are generally according to eſtimation, from one and a half to 2 and a half *per cent.*

In Sweden, the duties are much the ſame as in Denmark; but for the ſalts, brandies, and wines, of France, they are exceſſive, being the higheſt of all thoſe of the North.

At Riga the duties were formerly as at Stockholm; but now they are upon the footing of thoſe of Ruſſia; that is, 5 *per cent.* except wines and brandy, which are according to the eſtimation of the cuſtom-houſe officers.

CUSTOMS *of Italy.* In Venice the duties of importation are paid only by land, the port being declared free in that reſpect, about the year 1660: thoſe of exportation are raiſed both by ſea and land, without any diſtinction of citizen and foreigner: both duties being paid according to the eſtimation of the goods; with this difference, that the eſtimation is always more upon exportation than importation: but when goods are not appraiſed, the merchant ſwears to their value, and then no compoſition is granted.

Citizens pay only 6 and 3 4ths *per cent.* of importation; but foreigners 10 and 11 thirds: however the Germans have their tariffs there, for the commodities of their produce and manufacture, whereupon ſome allowance is made; the duties of exportation being for all 9 *per cent.* with ſome ſmall duties included.

The

The manufactures of cloths, wool, gold and ſilk ſtuffs, pay 7 *per cent.* and that only when they export them on their own account.

At Leghorn, the duties of importation and exportation ſeem inconſiderable, being only at 10 ſoldi, or 4 ½ d. *per* bale, for ſtallage duty in the cuſtom-houſe; but if other ſmall duties are added, as the duty of ſale, thoſe of the patents of the Levant, Weſt Indies, St. James, and others, they are as conſiderable as thoſe of Venice.

That which is called duty of ſale, is what is paid by the laſt purchaſer; a regiſter of importation and exportation being kept at the cuſtom-houſe, wherein there is an obligation of inſerting all the goods at the time of their reception and ſale, that the officers may know who is liable to the duty; which accompt of ſale is annually ſtated.

As to the rate of the duty of ſale, it is regulated purſuant to the quality and nature of merchandiſes: thus ſilks pay 1 ½ *per cent.* pepper 2 *per cent.* cotton ½ *per cent.* large goods 2 piaſtres, or 8 s. 8 d. *per* bale; leathers 4 *per cent.* lead 1 ½ *per cent.* wax 2 *per cent.* and other goods in proportion.

CUSTOMS *in the ports of the Levant.* The duties of importation and exportation are almoſt upon an equal footing in all the ſtates of the Grand Signior, ſituated on the Mediterranean; at leaſt with regard to the Chriſtians, who trade there; except Cairo, Alexandria, Roſſetta, and ſome other towns of Egypt, where they differ from other ports of the Levant.

Two kinds of duties of importation are raiſed at Cairo; the firſt upon the goods from Europe in Chriſtian veſſels: the ſecond upon thoſe that arrive there from Aſia, in the caravans of Suez. The firſt, without any regard either for the nature and quality of the goods, or for the capitulations obtained by Chriſtians from the Porte, are 20 *per cent.* of their value: the ſecond, called the cuſtom-houſe of the divan, are arbitrary; but always very high, except what is paid for pepper, coffee, cottons, porcelains, China and Japan varniſh, ſilks, brocades, and other China ſtuffs, which have their peculiar tariff.

Beſides theſe two duties, there is a golden duty, which is the 10th of what has been paid for the firſt taxation. But the duties of exportation are very inconſiderable; being rather the ſalary of the cuſtom-houſe officers, than a duty belonging to the ſovereign: it is alſo called golden duty, as well as that of importation.

The duty of conſulſhip at Cairo, may be alſo ranked among other duties; which is more, or leſs, purſuant to the regulation made by Chriſtians.

What has been ſaid of Cairo, except the duties of the cuſtom-houſe of the divan, may ſerve for the duties of Alexandria and Roſetta.

At Conſtantinople, Smyrna, Alexandretta, Aleppo, Siden, and Cyprus, the duties of importation and exportation, are called duties of ermin.

The French, tho' the moſt antient allies of the Porte, have a conſiderable time paid them upon the footing of 5 *per cent.* and it is only ſince the year 1673 that Monſieur Nointel, ambaſſador of France to the Grand Signior, obtained a reduction of 3 *per cent.* upon which footing the Engliſh, Hollanders, and Genoeſe pay the duty of ermin: but the Venetians ſtill pay 5 *per cent.* which extends alſo to Jews.

The golden duty is alſo paid both for exportation and importation.

The duties of conſuls differ, according to their reſpective nations and places; though they are for the moſt part 2 *per cent.* except thoſe of the Dutch conſul, who raiſes only 1 ½ *per cent.* upon the ſhipping of his own nation, and 2 *per cent.* upon thoſe that trade under the Dutch flag.

In Barbary the duties are 10 *per cent.* on importation, and 5 *per cent.* on exportation. Along the coaſt of Guinea the cuſtoms are differently raiſed; tho' generally very moderate: and throughout all Aſia they are under proper regulations; but goods are ſubject to no duty in Japan.

CUT *a feather*, in the ſea-language, is when a well-bowed ſhip ſo ſwiftly preſſes the water that it foams or froths.

To cut the ſail, is to unfurl it, and let it fall down.

CUT *water*, the ſharpneſs of the head of a ſhip under the beak.

CUTLER. A perſon whoſe trade conſiſts in cutlery, or the making and vending all ſorts of inſtruments for cutting; ſuch as ſwords, razors, ſciſſars, knives, forks, lancets, fleems, and the like. It is a very ingenious buſineſs: the chief difficulty lies in the juſt temper of the ſteel; and the juſt poliſhing of theſe inſtruments is the next difficulty; both of which are acquired by practice.

The goods of this kind made in London come to a very great price; though goods of the ſame quality may be had from Birmingham and Sheffield at a much lower price: they are indeed neatly finiſhed, and turned out in a workmanlike manner: but the country goods, tho' not ſo taking to the eye, prove ſometimes as good in the metal as thoſe more expenſive; from which places moſt of the ſhops are furniſhed, and cutlers, who have a great demand for goods, frequently have them made in the country, put their own marks upon them, and ſell them for London made.

The ſword-cutler, beſides dealing in the before-mentioned goods, is concerned in mounting ſwords, making ſcabbards, &c. The blades come moſtly from abroad, none of them being made by the ſword-cutler, who buys them up in parcels, and is only employed in mounting them. The handles, if of plate, are made by a claſs of ſilverſmiths who make nothing elſe: if of braſs are caſt by the founder. The ſword-cutler is ſomething related to the ſmith, as he uſes the file and hammer in putting on his hilts; and to the ſhoemaker, as he uſes the awl in finiſhing his ſcabbards.

There is alſo another kind of cutlers, being the chirurgical inſtrument-makers, who differ nothing from the common cutler, except that they deal more in the chirurgical inſtruments than the other; ſuch as knives, lancets, trepans, biſtoras, ſciſſars, cupping-caſes, ſpatulas, and ſeveral other inſtruments peculiar to the ſurgeon: he is ſuppoſed the better tradeſman, uſes better ſteel, and finiſhes his inſtruments with a neater poliſh than the common cutler.

CUTLERS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of Henry V. in 1417, by the name of The maſter, wardens, and commonalty of the myſtery of cutlers of London; and being united to the haft and ſheath-makers ſome time after, their arms were granted by Clarencieux, King at arms, in the year 1477; which is a fraternity governed by a maſter, 2 wardens, and 21 aſſiſtants, to whom belong a livery of 110 members, who, upon their being admitted, pay a fine of 10 l. each; having a commodious and beautiful hall in Cloak lane, where they tranſact their affairs.

CUTLESS, or *Cutlaſs*, a broad, and bent ſword, ſometimes called a ſcymeter; chiefly uſed as a weapon for ſeamen.

CUTTER. A light veſſel for ſailing, generally employed in the detection of ſmugglers.

CUTTER *of the tallies*, an officer of the exchequer, who provides wood for the tallies, and cuts the ſum paid upon them. See *Tally*.

CUTTING *in coinage*, when the laminæ, or plates of the metal, be it gold, ſilver, or copper, are brought to the thickneſs of the ſpecies to be coined, pieces are cut out of the thickneſs, and nearly of the weight of the intended coin; which are now called *planchets*, till the King's image is ſtamped on them.

The inſtrument wherewith they are cut conſiſts of two pieces of ſteel, very ſharp, and placed over one another; the lower a little hollow, repreſenting a mortar, the other a peſtle: the metal, being put between the two, is cut out in the manner deſcribed.

CUTTING *in wood*, is a particular kind of ſculpture, or engraving, denominated from the matter wherein it is employed; being uſed for various purpoſes; as, for initial or figured letters, head and tail-pieces of books, and even for ſchemes and other figures, to ſave the expences of engraving on copper; as alſo for prints and ſtamps, for paper, callicoes, and linens.

The invention of cutting in wood, as well as that in copper, is aſcribed to a goldſmith of Florence; but it is to Albert Durer, and Lucas, they are both indebted for their perfection: the art of cutting in wood was certainly

carried to a very great pitch 150 years ago; and might even vie for beauty and juſtneſs with that of engraving on copper: but at preſent it is in a low condition, as having been long neglected, and the application of artiſts wholly employed on copper, as the more eaſy and promiſing province: not but that wooden cuts have the advantage of thoſe in copper on many accounts; chiefly for figures and devices in books; as being printed at the ſame time, and in the ſame preſs as the letters: whereas, for the other, there is required a particular impreſſion.

CYCLADES. A name given to certain iſlands that lie about the iſle of Delos, in the Turkiſh Archipelago, ſituated between Europe and Aſia; and at length extended to all the little iſlands in thoſe ſeas.

CYDER, *Cider*, or *Syder*, a briſk, tart, cool liquor, prepared from the juice of apples; for which the counties of Hereford, Worceſter, Glouceſter, and Devon, are the moſt remarkable places in England. See *Apples*.

It is obſerved that a mixture of fruit is of great advantage to cyder; the worſt apples mixed together making as good cyder as the beſt alone; always obſerving, however, that they are of equal ripeneſs.

The beſt mixture, according to Mr. Worlidge, is that of redſtreaks, with golden rennets: bitter apples ſpoil the cyder; but the juice of them, and of crabs, yield as good ſpirits as the beſt apples when fermented; neither the ſour nor the bitter taſte ariſing with the ſpirit upon diſtillation.

Cyder is generally extracted by bruiſing the apples in a trough, and then preſſing them in a kind of wine-preſs: but if the apples are pounded in a ſtone mortar, which is the cuſtom of ſome, the kernels and ſtalks are bruiſed with them, which gives the liquor an ill flavour.

Normandy, Auvergne, and ſome other provinces of France, are fruitful in apples, and make great quantities of cyder, which ſerves them inſtead of wine; of which thoſe countries are little productive.

CYDER *vinegar*. See *Vinegar*.

CYDERKIN, or *Purre*, is a liquor made of the groſs matter, after the cyder is preſſed out.

CYPHER, or *Cipher*, one of the numeral characters, or figures, formed thus, 0; which of itſelf implies a privation of value; but when diſpoſed with other characters on the left, in the common arithmetic, it ſerves to augment each of their values by ten; and in decimal arithmetic, to leſſen the value of each figure to the right, in the ſame proportion.

CYPHI. A term in the Arabian pharmacy, ſignifying a kind of cordial perfume; the cyphi being compoſed of raiſins, or dried grapes, turpentine, bdellium, ſpica, nardi, caſſia, lignea, aſpalathum, ſaffron, and other things, tempered into a maſs, with honey, and a little wine.

CYPRESS, *Cupreſſus*, a precious ſort of wood, the produce of a tree of the ſame name, frequent in the iſland of Cyprus; being very compact and heavy, and its ſmell as agreeable as that of ſantal: it ſcarce ever rots, decays, or is worm eaten, no more than cedar, or ebony, for which reaſon the antients uſed it to make the ſtatues of their gods. In Candia, and particularly about Mount Ida, the plant is ſaid to riſe ſpontaneouſly, wherever the earth is a little dug; but is exceeding difficult to raiſe by art: and the fruit, called *Cones*, is uſed in aſtringent decoctions, againſt hernias, and hæmorrhages.

CYPRUS. An iſland ſituated in the moſt eaſterly part of the Levant, or Mediterranean, between 33 and 36 deg. of E. lon. and 34 and 36 deg. of N. lat. 60 miles S. of the coaſt of Caramania, or Cilicia, and 30 W. of the coaſt of Syria, being about 150 m. long, and 70 broad. See *Turkiſh* Iſlands.

CYSTHEOLITHRE. A kind of marine ſtone, found in large ſpunges.

D.

DAM

DAALDER, *Daler*, or *Daelder*, a coin current at Cologne, in Germany, where it is worth about 2 s. 4 d. ſterling. The Hamburgh Daalder is worth about 2 s. 9 d. ſterling; and the Dutch daalder is worth about 2 s. 7 ½ d. ſterling.

ABB. A flat ſea-fiſh, ſomewhat like a plaiſe.

ABAS. A term for the cloths and woollen ſtuffs manufactured at Bas in Languedoc, in France.

ABOUIS. A white cotton cloth manufactured in the Eaſt Indies, ranked among the baffetas; and taking its name from the place where it is manufactured.

ABUL. A port-town in the province of Decan, on the W. coaſt of the Hither India, ſituated in 72 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 17 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. See *India*.

ACCA, or *Daca*, a city of Bengal in the Eaſt Indies, ſituated on a branch of the Ganges, in 89 deg. of E. lon. and 23 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. where there is a Britiſh factory, ſubordinate to the governor of Fort William. See *India*.

ACE. The name of a very good eating freſh water fiſh.

ACHE. A term uſed by the Africans for the preſents made them by the Europeans for trading with them.

AEZAJIE, or *Daezagie*, a ſilver coin current in Perſia, being worth about 3 s. 4 d. ſterling.

AGGER. A ſhort ſword; alſo a term for unlawfully inſuring ſhips.

AGOT, or *Dagerwort*, the capital of the iſland of Dago, ſituated in the Baltic ſea, near the coaſt of Livonia, in 21 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 58 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. and ſubject to Ruſſia.

AHGESTAN. A country of Aſia, bounded by Circaſſia on the north; by the Caſpian ſea on the eaſt; by Chirvan, a province of Perſia, on the ſouth; and by Georgia on the weſt: of which the chief towns are Tarku and Derbent; but the generality of the natives live in tents, wandering from place to place: and, though they are but a ſmall ſtate, none of the neighbouring ſtates have been able to ſubdue them; the country being mountainous, and of difficult acceſs. See *Tartary*.

AHOME. A kingdom of Africa, which lies N. of Whidah, or Fida, on the Guinea coaſt; the King whereof lately made a conqueſt of Whidah, and very much diſturbed the Negroe trade of the Europeans. See *Guinea*.

ALECARLIA. A river which gives name to the province of Dalecarlia in Sweden, and riſes in the Dofrine mountains, dividing Norway from Sweden; and, running from the N. W. to the S. E. through the whole province, falls into the Bothnic gulph, between the provinces of Upland and Geſtricia.

ALL, or *Dalle*, a money of accompt uſed in ſeveral towns of Germany, for bank and mercantile books; being worth about 1 s. 7 ½ d. ſterling.

ALLER, or *Dallet*. See *Dollar*.

AMAGE. Any loſs, hurt, or inconvenience, happening to goods, or traders. Damages on goods imported into Great Britain, except tobacco and wines, are to be adjuſted by two indifferent merchants on oath, to be choſen by the principal officers of the cuſtoms.

AMAN. A port-town of the Hither India, in Aſia, in the province of Guzarat, or Cambay, ſituated on the W. coaſt of India, 80 miles S. of Surat, in 72 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 20 deg. of N. lat. ſubject to the Portugueſe. See *India*.

AMARAS. An Indian taffeta, being a kind of armoiſin.

AMASK. A ſort of ſilk ſtuff originally brought from Damaſcus in Syria; having ſome parts raiſed above the ground, repreſenting flowers, or other figures: but it is properly a ſort of mohair and ſattin intermixed, in ſuch a manner as that what is not ſattin on one ſide is on the other: the elevation which the ſattin makes on one ſide is the ground on the other: the flowers have a ſattin grain, and the ground a grain of taffetas.

DAN

DAMASK *Caffart*. A French ſtuff which imitates the true damaſk; but whoſe woof is of hair, ferret, thread, wool, or cotton: which ſorts of damaſks have three different breadths; namely, half an ell leſs than a ſixteenth, half an ell entire, and half an ell with a ſixteenth.

DAMASKS *of China*, or *the Indies*, are ſo called, becauſe really for the greater part brought from China, or purchaſed by the Eaſt India companies from the Indians; being uſually 7, 11, and 12 ells in length, and ⅜ and $\frac{7}{16}$ in breadth.

DAMASKUS, *Damaſcus*, or *Scham*, the capital city of the S. part of Syria, ſituated in 37 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 33 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. See *Turky*.

DAMASCUS-*ſteel*. A very fine kind of ſteel, made in ſome parts of the Levant, and particularly at Damaſcus, remarkable for its excellent temper; and principally uſed in the making of ſword-blades: but ſome authors aſſert that it comes from the kingdom of Golconda, in the Eaſt Indies, where the method of tempering with allom, which the Europeans have never been able to imitate, was firſt invented.

DAMASKEENING. The art, or act, of adorning ſteel, iron, and other metals, by making inciſions therein, and filling them up with gold or ſilver wire, chiefly uſed in enriching ſword-blades, guards, and gripes, locks of piſtols, and ſuch ſort of goods. Its name ſhews the place of its origin; or, at leaſt, the place where it has been practiſed in the greateſt perfection; which is the city of Damaſcus: though M. Felibien attributes the perfection of the art to his countryman Curſinet, who wrought under the reign of King Henry IV. in the year 1602.

This art is partly moſaic work, partly engraving, and partly carving; as moſaic work, it conſiſts of pieces inlayed; as engraving, the metal is indented, or cut in creux; and as carving, gold or ſilver are wrought therein by relievo.

DAMASQUETE. A kind of ſtuff manufactured at Venice; being proper for the Levant trade, particularly that of Conſtantinople: of which there are two ſorts; damaſquettes with flowers of gold, whereof the piece contains 18 ells; and damaſquettes with ſilk flowers of the ſame length: thoſe with gold flowers being manufactured much after the manner of the gold and ſilver cloths which were formerly made at Lyons.

DAMASSE. A kind of wrought linen made in Flanders, having large flowers like thoſe of damaſks.

DAMASSIN. A damaſk with gold and ſilver flowers.

DAMBEA. The capital of Abyſſinia, or Ethiopia, ſituated at the head of a lake to which it gives name, in 34 deg. of E. lon. and 15 deg. of N. lat.

DAMELOPRE. A Dutch veſſel like a bilander, uſed for carrying goods on the canals.

DAMIETTA. A port-town of Egypt, in Africa, ſituated in 32 deg. of E. lon. and 31 deg. of N. lat. on the eaſtern mouth of the river Nile.

DAMMER. A kind of pitch, uſed by the Indians in cementing the planks of their ſhips.

DAMSIN, or *Damſon*. A pleaſant fruit, or plumb, often uſed for making damſon brandy.

DANK, or *Danek*. A ſmall ſilver coin, current in Perſia, and in ſome parts of Arabia, for about a halfpenny ſterling.

DANK, is alſo a ſmall weight, uſed by the Arabs, for precious ſtones, and drugs, when the latter are to be employed in the compoſition of remedies, being the ſixteenth part of the Arabic drachm; that is, 8 grains of Engliſh weight.

DANISH *America*, and *Daniſh* iſlands. See *Denmark*.

DANTZICK. The capital of regal Pruſſia, in the kingdom of Poland, ſituated in 19 deg. of E. lon. and 54 deg. of N. lat. on the weſtern ſhore of the river Weſel, or Viſtula, which a little below falls into the Baltic ſea; being an excellent harbour, and having the beſt foreign trade of any port within the Baltic. See *Poland*.

DANTZICK-

DANTZICK-HOR, or *Oort*. A ſilver coin ſtruck at Dantzick; being alſo current at Riga, Koninſburg, and almoſt throughout the North, worth eighteen groſs, or 10½ d. ſterling.

DANUBE. One of the fineſt rivers in Europe, riſing in the Black foreſt, in the province of Suabia, in the S. W. part of Germany, and running N. E. through Suabia viſits Ulm, the capital; then running E. through Bavaria and Auſtria, paſſes by Ratiſbon, Paſſau, Ens, and Vienna; then entering Hungary, it runs S. E. from Preſburg to Buda, and ſo on to Belgrade; after which it divides Bulgaria from Walachia and Moldavia, then diſcharges itſelf by ſeveral channels, into the Black ſea, through the province of Beſſarabia. This noble river is ſo deep between Buda and Belgrade, that the Turks and Chriſtians have fleets of men of war upon it, which frequently engaged during the late wars between the Ottoman Porte and the houſe of Auſtria: but the cataracts below render it unnavigable to the Black ſea; and there are alſo ſeveral cataracts above Buda. The whole navigation of this river is fully repreſented by the author of this dictionary in his memoirs of the life of the late Earl of Crauford.

DAPPLE. A colour peculiarly applied to horſes, in which appear divers ſpots, ſhades, or degrees of the ſame colour.

DARDANARIUS. A monopoly. See *Monopoly*.

DARDANELLS, are two caſtles at the entrance of the Helleſpont, where all ſhips going to Conſtantinople are examined; being the ſame places that formerly had the caſtle of Seſtos on the European ſide, and Abydos on the Aſian ſide; the ſtreight being about two miles over. See *Helleſpont* and *Turky*.

DARIABANUS. A white cotton ſtuff made at Surat, in India.

DARIDAS. A kind of taffeta, made of ſilk drawn from plants in India.

DARIEN *company*, was a Scotch company eſtabliſhed with a good proſpect at Edinburgh, in 1699, for the commerce of South America, who ſent an armament and a colony, with an intention to form a ſettlement in the iſthmus of Darien, which ſeparates North and South America: but the Engliſh miniſtry not thinking proper to avow and ſupport the firſt ſucceſſes of the company, which had alarmed the court of Spain, ever jealous of this part of her territories, the Scotch colony was diſperſed by the Spaniards in 1700: and thus vaniſhed the beſt project that ever was formed, for diſputing with Spain the poſſeſſion of thoſe countries, from which ſhe pretends to exclude all other nations.

DARN, to mend a garment, by ſewing a hole croſswiſe, in imitation of weaving.

DARNAMAS, is the beſt kind of cotton brought from Smyrna; being ſo called from a plain near this town, where it is cultivated in ſuch large quantities, that, one year with another, to the amount of ten thouſand bales may be had from thence; tho', at leaſt, as much is conſumed in the manufactures of the country.

DARTMOUTH. A borough, and port-town of Devonſhire, ſituated on the Engliſh channel, near the mouth of the river Dart, in 4 deg. of W. lon and 50 deg. 25 min. of N. lat. remarkable for its pilchard fiſhery.

DATE. An addition, or appendage in writings, acts, inſtruments, or letters, expreſſing the day and month of the year when the act or letter was paſſed or ſigned; together with the place where the ſame was done. In writings of importance the date ſhould be written in words at length; but in letters the date is uſually in figures; in the calculation of which ſeveral nations differ, as to their conformity either to the Julian or Gregorian calendar. See *Stile*.

An antedate is a falſe date, prior to the real time when the inſtrument was paſſed, or the letter ſigned: and a poſtdate is that after the real time.

DATE, is alſo the fruit of the palm-tree, brought from Egypt, Syria, Africa, Perſia, and the Indies: there are ſome in Italy, or the moſt ſouthern parts of Spain; but they never come to full maturity; and yet there are tolerable dates in Provence, only they are corruptive and breed worms.

This fruit is gathered in autumn, before it is ripe, and bears a near reſemblance to the Engliſh bullace; being of a green colour, very ſharp and aſtringent; when ripe it becomes ruddy, having a hard, longiſh ſtone, cloven at the bottom, and encompaſſed with a thine white pellicle or ſkin.

Some dates are black, ſome white, ſome yellow, and ſome brown; ſome are no bigger than a chick-pea, and others as big as a pomegranate, ſome having ſtones, and others none; but they are ordinarily oblong, fleſhy, yellow, about the bigneſs of an acorn, and very agreeable to the taſte: the beſt are thoſe called royal dates; though there is another ſort called caryotæ, which are very good. They are preſerved three different ways; ſome preſſed and dry, others preſſed leſs and moiſtened with their own juice, and others not preſſed at all, but moiſtened with the juice of older dates as they are packed up, which is done in baſkets or ſkins; but the latter are the beſt.

DAUCUS. A medicinal plant, growing in the iſland of Candia; found alſo in Germany, and ſome parts of the Alps; but phyſicians uſe only that of the Levant, which has a pretty near reſemblance to the parſnep, whereof ſome take it to be a ſpecies. Its ſtalk riſes to a foot and a half, and puſhes forth ſeveral branches which bear on their ſummits white bloſſoms; the grains that iſſue out of theſe bloſſoms are of a pale green, hairy, longiſh, and not unlike thoſe of cummin, excepting that their ſcent is leſs, and of a more agreeable taſte; being excellent againſt the ſtone, and therefore ranked by botaniſts among lithontriptics.

DAVIDS St. A town and fort, ſituated on the coaſt of Coromandel, in the Hither India, 80 miles S. of Fort St. George, in 79 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 11 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. being one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes the Engliſh have in India, from whence they import chints, callicoes and muſlins; but it is ſubordinate to the government of Fort St. George. See *India*.

DAVIS's *quadrant*. See the article *Back-ſtaff*.

DAVIS's *ſtreights*, run N. W. from Cape Farewel, in 60 deg. N. lat. to Baffin's bay in 80 deg. ſeparating Greenland from N. America; which were paſſed by Captain Davis, in 1585, when he was endeavouring to find a N. W. paſſage. See *North Weſt paſſage*.

DAUPHINE *Fort*. A fort built by the French on the E. coaſt of the iſland of Madagaſcar, in Africa, ſituated in 48 deg. of E. lon. and 24 deg. of S. lat. which occaſioned the French to call that iſland by the name of Dauphine. See *Madagaſcar*.

DAY, is begun by mariners at 12 o'clock at noon; ſo that all the time till after the expiration of 11 o'clock on Monday forenoon, is included in Sunday, and ſo in the ſame manner of the other days.

DAYS *of grace*, in commerce, are a number of days allowed by cuſtom, for the payment of a bill of exchange, after the ſame becomes due; that is, after the time it was accepted for is expired. In England three days of grace are allowed; ſo that a bill accepted to be paid ten days after ſight, is not to be paid till thirteen days. Throughout France they allow ten days of grace; as many at Dantzick; eight at Naples; ſix at Venice, Amſterdam, Rotterdam, and Antwerp; four at Frankfort; five at Leipſic; twelve at Hamburgh; ſix in Portugal; fourteen in Spain; and thirty in Genoa; including Sundays and holidays in the number of days of grace. See *Exchange*.

DEAD-*ſea*, the lake Aſphalites, in Paleſtine, into which the river Jordan runs; being about 70 miles long, and 20 broad; ſuppoſed to be the place where Sodom and Gomorrah ſtood, affording a bitumen exactly reſembling pitch, from which it can only be diſcovered by its ſulphurous ſmell and taſte.

DEAD-MAN's-*head*. A cape, or point of land, near Tregony in Cornwal, between St. Mawes and Fowey.

DEAD-*reckoning*, at ſea, is that eſtimation, judgment, or conjecture, which mariners make of the place where a ſhip is, by keeping an account of her way by the log, by knowing the courſe they have ſteered by the compaſs, and by rectifying all, with allowance for drift, leeway, and other things, according to the ſhip's trim; ſo that this reckoning is without any obſervation of the ſun, moon

moon, and ſtars; and is to be rectified as often as any good obſervation can be had. See *Log*.

DEAD-*water*, is the eddy water juſt behind the ſtern of a ſhip; being ſo called becauſe it does not paſs away ſo ſwiftly, as the water running by her ſides; and, if a ſhip has a great eddy following her ſtern, they ſay ſhe makes much dead water.

DEAL, to parcel out goods; to trade in, to traffic, or utter wares and merchandiſes.

DEAL. A port-town of Kent, between which and the Goodwin-ſands, the ſhipping uſually ride in the Downs, on going out, or coming home; being ſituated in 1 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 16 min. of N. lat. 67 miles E. of London.

DEALER. A trader, or one that buys and ſell commodities.

DEALS, is a name for ſuch boards or planks of the fir-tree, as are uſed for flooring; being brought chiefly from Norway and Sweden. See *Fir*.

By the ſtatute of the 13th and 14th of Cha. II. deal-boards, fir-timber, pitch, tar, and pot-aſhes, are not to be imported into Great Britain, from the Netherlands or Germany, on forfeiture of the ſhip and goods. But, by the 6th of Geo. I. deal-boards, fir-timber, fir-planks, and maſts of the growth of Germany, may be imported from thence only by Britiſh ſubjects, in Britiſh-built ſhips, owned by Britiſh ſubjects, upon payment of the like duties as if from Norway.

DEAR, is ſaid of any thing in trade which is advanced beyond the uſual or common price, in contradiſtinction to any thing that is cheap.

DEAURATION, the covering any thing with gold, or gilding it, as apothecaries do their pills, to prevent the nauſeous taſte of their phyſic being diſagreeable to the patient.

DEBARK, to come from on board a ſhip; or to put on ſhore.

DEBASE, to bring down, make worſe, or qualify too much, as is done to gold or ſilver, by mixing it with too great a quantity of alloy: and it alſo ſignifies the under-valuing of any commodity in price.

DEBENTURE. A kind of writing, in the nature of a bond; firſt given in England in the year 1649, to charge the commonwealth to ſecure the ſoldier-creditor, or his aſſigns, the ſum due, upon auditing the accompts of his arrears.

The word is alſo uſed in the exchequer, and in the royal houſhold, where debentures are uſually given to the ſervants for payment of their wages.

But, in commerce, it properly ſignifies an inſtrument, or certificate, from the proper officer at the cuſtom-houſe, of the duty paid inwards, which the merchant upon exporting thoſe ſame commodities, and giving bond that they ſhall not be relanded, is to be repaid. Thoſe debentures muſt, before written or printed, be ſtamped, upon payment of 8 d. for every ſkin, ſheet, or piece of vellum, parchment or paper; which it is felony to counterfeit. See *Bounty*, *Drawback*, and *Entry*.

By the ſtatute of the 4th and 5th of Will. and Mary, debentures for duties to be drawn back upon the re-exportation of goods, muſt be ſworn to by the true exporter only, as being either intereſted in the propriety and hazard of the goods, or ſo employed by commiſſion in the direction of the voyage, as to be able to judge whether the goods be really, and *bonâ fide*, exported.

By the ſtatute of the 6th and 7th of Will. III. and others, when debentures are for cinnamon, cloves, mace, and nutmegs, oath is to be made thereon by the exporter, that all the goods entered and ſhipped as there certified, are really and truly exported for parts beyond the ſeas, on his own account, if he acts for himſelf; or if he acts by commiſſion, then on the account of ſuch perſon or perſons for whom the deponent acts in the direction of the voyage; and that none of the ſaid goods have been ſince landed, or are intended to be relanded in Great Britain, or the Iſle of Man.

Debentures for tobacco may be made in one or more parchment or parchments, and the oath printed thereon, to be ſigned and ſworn to by the exporter, that all the tobacco entered and ſhipped as there certified, is really and truly exported for parts beyond the ſeas, on his own account, if he acts for himſelf; or if he acts by commiſſion, then on the account of ſuch perſon or perſons for whom the deponent acts in the direction of the voyage, and that none of the ſaid tobacco has been ſince landed, or is intended to be relanded in Great Britain, or the Iſle of Man, or Ireland; unleſs for tobacco regularly ſhipped for that place.

By the ſtatute of the 13th and 14th of Cha. II. allowances on damaged goods, and diſcounts made inwards, are to be rebated, or defaulked on debentures.

Drawbacks, for which debentures are made, are granted on corn, malt, Britiſh manufactures of ſilk, or mixed with ſilk; Britiſh made gun-powder, Britiſh refined ſugar, Britiſh made ſail-cloth, hides and calves ſkins tanned, tawed, or dreſſed, tanned leather, gold and ſilver lace, thread and fringe, Britiſh wrought plate, printed callicoes, printed linens and ſilks, Britiſh ſtarch, ſoap, paper, and candles; fiſh, beef, and pork; coals, foreign goods, and tobacco of the Britiſh colonies.

When a ſhip is regularly cleared out, and diſcharged, according to the manner deſcribed under the article of *Cuſtoms*, and actually ſailed out of the port on her intended voyage, debentures may be made out from the exporter's entries, in order to obtain the drawbacks, allowances, bounties, or premiums, that are due on the exportation of any goods on board; which debentures for foreign goods are to be paid within one month after demand. See the ſecond rule annexed to the book of rates, made in the 12th year of King Cha. II. intitled rules, &c. for the advancement of trade, and which are fully ſet forth under the article of *Cuſtoms*.

DEBET, in a mercantile ſenſe, ſignifies the remainder of ſuch debts as have been paid on account; or the ſums due to merchants for goods ſold on credit, with which the journal or ledger is charged.

DEBIT, among book-keepers, is uſed to expreſs the left-hand page of the ledger; to which all articles ſupplied or paid on the ſubject of an accompt, or charged to that accompt, are carried.

DEBT. A thing due to another, being taken in the mercantile acceptation, to conſiſt of money and goods; of which there are ſeveral kinds; as, active debts, are thoſe whereof a perſon is creditor; paſſive debts, thoſe whereof he is debtor; beſides which there are in law real debts, perſonal debts, and mixed debts.

By the ſtatute of the 7th of King James I. it was enacted, That no tradeſman, or handicraftſman, keeping a ſhop-book, his executors or adminiſtrators, ſhould be admitted to give his ſhop-book in evidence in any action, for money due for wares delivered, or for work done, above one year before the action brought; except they ſhould have gotten a bill of debt, or brought ſome action for the debt within one year after the money due: but this act did not extend to any intercourſe of trading between merchants and tradeſmen, for any thing directly falling within the compaſs of their mutual trades.

DEBT, *bill of*, or *Bill obligatory*, is an inſtrument of acknowledgment from one merchant to another, of a debt, for wares and merchandiſe, bought and received; for payment of which this bill is paſſed, in a promiſſory way, within a limited time. Theſe bills are frequently uſed in ſome countries of trade; where the perſons to whom they are made, may go to another man, and buy other commodities therewith, as though it were with ready money, the time of payment only conſidered: but if a common bill of debt be made beyond the ſeas, by two or more perſons, as having bought a commodity as partners together, wherein they bind themſelves all as principal parties or debtors; yet every man is bound only to pay his part; and on ſuch a joint bill in England, an acquittance to one debtor will diſcharge the others.

DEBT-*book*. See *Book*-keeping.

DEBT-*national*, or the *National Debt*, which is now ſo onerous an incumbrance upon the ſhoulders of Great Britain, was inſtituted immediately after the revolution, with a political view to eſtabliſh Will. III. on the throne: for, before his acceſſion to the crown, there was not one ſhilling that could properly be called a national debt, be-

cauſe not contracted by authority of parliament; the 664,263 l. being the debt due to the ſervants of King Cha. II. and what was called the banker's debt, having no proviſion for payment till after the revolution, when it was charged upon the hereditable exciſe. But ſo liberal were the members of the conventionary parliament to their new ſovereign, that large ſums were granted, which empowered the government to obtain large loans, whereby additional duties were laid upon commerce and manufactures, and poverty entailed upon future generations. Under the ſucceeding monarchs, Great Britain found no diminution of this national debt; even during the more than twenty years of that pacific adminiſtration which ſucceeded the treaty of Utrecht, this incumbrance was but inconſiderably leſſened; for, on the commencement of the war with Spain in 1739, the national debt amounted to above 45 millions; a ſurpriſing load on a nation ſo long lulled in the boſom of tranquility! eſpecially as the free revenue had, for near 20 years, been a great deal more than ſufficient for anſwering the annual expence, if the miniſtry had kept up no greater armies than were neceſſary, paid no unneceſſary penſions, nor fitted out any uſeleſs ſquadrons: for the land-tax, malt-tax, and civil liſt, which properly compoſe the free revenue, generally amounted to 2,500,000 l. annually; and two millions have been thought ſufficient for the whole neceſſary annual expence of the nation: ſo that, upon this calculation, for many years paſt, inſtead of encroaching upon the ſinking fund, 500,000 l. might have been added to it yearly; and, inſtead of increaſing the national debt, great part of it might have been paid off, without laying any new and heavier taxes upon the people. However, the late war with France and Spain ſo greatly augmented this national debt, that what is now publickly provided for by parliament amounts to 57,703,675 l. 6 s. 4 d. beſides 16,597,487 l. 3 s. 11 d. more; of which 57 millions there are 312,000 l. due to the proprietors of certain annuities, payable at the exchequer: 8,486,400 l. to the governor and company of the bank of England; and to the proprietors of certain annuities transferable there 18,402,472 l. 0 s. 10 d. to the Eaſt India company 3,200,000 l. and to the South Sea company, and to the proprietors of the old and new South Sea annuities, 27,302,203 l. 5 s. 6½ d. all of which, on the ſubſcription of the creditors, purſuant to an act of parliament, paſſed in the year 1750, were to carry intereſt at the rate of 4 *per cent.* until the 25th of December 1750; and from thence 3 l. 10 s. *per cent.* untill the 25th of December 1757; and then to carry only 3 *per cent.* redeemable by parliament: but, till ſuch time, no part of the ſame, except what is due to the Eaſt India company, is liable to redemption: however, 1,026,476 l. 4 s. 6 d. was not ſubſcribed; upon which the creditors on that ſum were paid off by the bank of England, who advanced 1,013,148 l. 4 s. 6 d. for that purpoſe into the exchequer, and took the remaining 13,328 l. in bank annuities. See *Bank*.

Beſides, in the year 1751, the government alſo borrowed 2,100,000 l. chargeable upon the ſinking fund: of which 1,400,000 l. was to be paid into the South Sea company for the purchaſe of annuities at 3 *per cent. per annum*; and the remaining 700,000 l. was raiſed by a lottery, for the purchaſe of annuities at the ſame rate. See *Lottery*, and *South* Sea Company.

And, in the ſame year, the government alſo borrowed 176,893 l. 11 s. 7 d. on exchequer bills at 3 *per cent. per annum*, chargeable on the ſinking fund: which, together with the above 2,100,000 l. augmented the 57,703,675 l. 6 s. 4 d. to 59,980,568 l. 17 s. 11 d. but as the government, in the ſame year, paid off 2,276,893 l. 11 s. 7 d. for the unſubſcribed old and new South Sea annuities; this reduced it again to 57,703,675 l. 6 s. 4 d. which was the national debt provided for by parliament in the year 1752, when the whole national debt amounted to 74,300,562 l. 10 s. 3 d. the annual intereſt whereof amounted to 2,722,052 l.

So inſcrutable are public deſigns, that a man may as well calculate the very moment the general conflagration will begin, as to prognoſticate the certain time when Britain may hope to ſee the abolition of ſuch taxes, which ſerve only to impoveriſh the whole nation: therefore, how dearly have the Britiſh inhabitants paid, how dearly muſt their poſterity pay, for this error of their anceſtors, in not ſupplying, or not properly employing, a ſufficient yearly revenue for anſwering the yearly expence? See *Credit*, *Exchequer*, *Fund*, *Bank*, *Eaſt* India, and *South* Sea companies.

Navy DEBT, or the debt of his Majeſty's navy, may alſo be deemed a part of the national debt, though not generally included in it; this being a debt contracted for naval ſtores, freight of tranſports, premiums allowed by parliament on naval ſtores, for his Majeſty's yards for ſhipping and rope-yards; for ſeamens wages, bounties to widows, and orphans of men ſlain at ſea; for victualling the navy, for the quarters and care of ſick and wounded ſeamen ſet on ſhore, and for other neceſſary expences belonging to the royal navy; which, on the 31ſt of December 1751, amounted to 1,665,493 l. 6 s. 1¼ d. See *Navy*.

DEBTOR. Any perſon, or accompt, that owes any thing to another.

By the ſtatute of the 2d of King George II. mutual debts between plaintiff and defendant; or if either party ſue or be ſued, as executor or adminiſtrator between the teſtator or inteſtate, and either party; one debt may be ſet againſt the other, and matter given in evidence on the general iſſue, or pleaded in bar, as the caſe ſhall require, if notice be then given of the ſum to be inſiſted on, and on what account due.

By the ſtatute of the 8th of Geo. II. mutual debts may be ſet againſt each other, by being pleaded, or in the general iſſue, though deemed of a different nature, unleſs either accrue by penalty contained in a bond or ſpecialty; in which caſes, it muſt be pleaded in bar, ſetting forth what is juſtly due on either ſide.

Debtors to the crown were not diſcharged out of priſon, by virtue of the late acts for the relief of inſolvent debtors.

DEBTOR and CREDITOR, or the art of book-keeping, is that whereby merchants and eminent traders keep their accompts. See *Book-keeping*.

DECANTER. A fine flint-glaſs bottle, to put wine, ale, or beer in, for the more eaſy pouring it into glaſſes.

DECIMAL *arithmetic*, is that part of arithmetic which conſiders units, or whole numbers, made in decimal fractions; which are thoſe whereof the denominators are decuples of one or ten times as much, or are a 1 with one or more cyphers; as 10, 100, 1000, 10,000; thus $\frac{6}{10}$, $\frac{46}{100}$, $\frac{869}{1000}$, are decimal fractions: but as the denominators of this ſort of fractions are always known, they are ſeldom expreſſed in writing; the fraction being diſtinguiſhed by a point placed before it, thus, .6, .46, .869; and as cyphers placed after integers increaſe their value decimally; ſo being placed before a decimal, they decreaſe its value decimally; but being placed before integers, and after fractions, neither of them is increaſed or diminiſhed.

DECK *of a ſhip*. A kind of planked floor, from ſtem to ſtern, whereon the guns are laid, and the men walk backwards and forwards; ſerving alſo as a cieling to ſeparate the ſtories of the ſhip, or other veſſel.

A ſhip is ſaid to have two or three decks, when it contains two or three ſtories: the middling ſort of veſſels have two decks; and the biggeſt three, diſtant from each other about five feet. The bottom deck is called the firſt deck; the ſecond deck, anſwering to the ſecond ſtory from the ground in houſes, contains an equal number of guns with the firſt, abating that there is none over the ſtern, which is the captain's apartment; the third deck is only in large veſſels, where there is a third battery.

Some veſſels have alſo a half deck, which reaches from the main-maſt to the ſtern of the ſhip; as likewiſe a quarter deck, which is from the ſteerage aloft to the maſter's round-houſe. Sometimes alſo there is a ſpare deck, which is the uppermoſt of all, being between the main-maſt and the miſſen, called alſo the *cirlope*.

A Rope-DECK is that made of cordage interwove, and ſtretched over a veſſel that has no deck, through which it is eaſy to annoy the enemy who comes to board her

and has leaped thereon; but they are little uſed, except in ſuch merchant-veſſels as want to be defended from the corſairs.

DECLENSION, in trade, implies the decay of the whole, or ruin of ſome particular branch or manufacture.

DECLINATION *of the needle*, among mariners, is the variation of the compaſs from the true meridian. See *Compaſs*, and *Meridian*.

DECOCT. To ſeethe, boil, or ſtew any thing over the fire, in ſome proper liquor.

DECOCTION. A boiling over the fire, particularly applied to phyſical preparations, either for diet drinks, or other uſes.

DECORTICATION. The peeling, or taking off the ſhell, bark, or huſk, of any ſeed, plant, or tree.

DECREPITATION, in chemiſtry, the drying, or calcining ſalt over the fire, till it ceaſes to crackle.

DEE. A river riſing out of the mountain of Barduvaure, on the eaſt-ſide of Merionethſhire in Wales; which flows to Cheſter, from whence it is navigable to the bar of that city, and is a port generally frequented by paſſengers to and from Ireland.

The river DEE *company* were incorporated, by act of parliament, in the 14th year of King George II. by the name of The company of proprietors of the undertaking for recovering and preſerving the navigation of the river Dee; being empowered to do all ſuch acts as Nathaniel Kinderly gentleman, his heirs and aſſigns, might have done, purſuant to an act paſſed in the 6th year of King George II. whereby he was authoriſed to undertake the navigation of the river, from the ſea, to a point within the liberties of the city of Cheſter, called Wilcox point, in ſuch manner that there ſhould be 16 feet water in every part of the river, at a moderate ſpring-tide. By this act of incorporation, it was enacted, That the joint ſtock of the company ſhould be 52,000l.: that the direction of the affairs of the company ſhould be in a committee conſiſting of a chairman, and ten other members, to be choſen annually by a plurality at a general court; but no perſon ſhould be choſen chairman, or committee-man, without having 500l. ſtock in his own right: that at all general courts every member ſhould have in his own right 100l. joint ſtock of the company for one vote, and ſo in proportion for every 100l. provided that no member ſhould have more than ten votes at ſuch general court: that any nine members of the company, having at leaſt 200l. ſtock in their own right, might apply, by writing, to the chairman and committee to call a general court, who ſhould give notice in the London Gazette of the moſt convenient place of meeting within 15 days after ſuch application: that the general court ſhould appoint what dividends ſhould be paid to the company, out of the clear profits of the duties and tonnage, or otherwiſe.

As the tonnage rates and duties, impoſed by the company, for all goods brought into or loaded in the river Dee, were found to be too high, and a diſcouragement to the trade of the city of Cheſter; it was, by another act of parliament, paſſed in the 17th year of King George II. enacted, That the former rates ſhould be repealed; and that there ſhould be paid to the company, in lieu thereof, for every ſhip, ſloop, hoy, bark, barge, lighter, boat, or other veſſel, coming into, or going out of, or navigating in the river and new channel, with any goods or merchandiſe, excepting lead, oyſters, ſlates, and paving ſtones, by the maſter or owner of ſuch ſhip or other veſſel, the ſeveral rates, tonnage, keelage, or duties, according to the full of their reach and burden, therein particularly deſcribed. But as theſe duties are long, and the port not very material, they have been omitted in this dictonary.

DEEP. The third quality of the dimenſion of body; being the ſame with thick, in contradiſtinction to long and broad.

DEEP-*colour*, in manufactures, is a ſtrong well grounded colour.

DEEP-*ſea line*, or *Dip-ſea line*, among mariners, a ſmall line to ſound with, when a ſhip is in very deep water at ſea. At the end of this line is a piece of lead, called the deep ſea lead; at the bottom of which is a coat of white tallow, to bring up ſtones, gravels, ſhells, or the like, from the bottom, in order to learn the differences of the ground; which being entered from time to time in their books, by comparing of obſervations, they gueſs, by their ſoundings, what coaſts they are on, though they cannot diſcover land. See *Sounding*.

DEER. Thoſe wild beaſts of the chace, whoſe fleſh when dead is called veniſon, which are commonly kept in Europe in the foreſts and parks of princes, noblemen, and gentlemen; but, in other countries, particularly the northern parts of America, they are very common and numerous in the woods and plains, where the Indians deſtroy them principally for their ſkins, which they ſell to the Britiſh, French, and Spaniſh traders.

DEFALCATION. An abating, or deducting ſomething in an account; and, in gardening, it is the pruning, trimming, or cutting vines and other trees.

DEFECATE. To clarify or refine liquors from dregs and ſediment.

DEFECT, in manufactures, a blemiſh or imperfection in the goods.

DEFLAGRATION, in chemiſtry, the ſetting fire to a body which has been firſt mixed with ſome ſulphureous matter, in order to purify it.

DEGREE, in geography, a diviſion of a circle, including a 360th part thereof; every circle, great and ſmall, being ſuppoſed to be divided into 360 parts called degrees; the degree ſubdivided into 60 leſſer parts, called minutes; the minutes into 60 others called ſeconds; and the ſecond into 60 thirds; thus the globe being divided into 360 degrees, the places of the earth are ſaid to be ſituated in ſuch a degree of longitude and latitude.

DEGREE *of latitude*, is the ſpace of 365,184 Engliſh feet included between two parallels of latitude. See *Latitude*.

DEGREE *of longitude*, is the ſpace between two meridians; the quantity of which is variable, according to the longitude. See *Longitude*.

Theſe expreſſions are borrowed from the antients, who were acquainted with a very large extent of earth, from eaſt to weſt, which they accounted the length; and a much leſs from north to ſouth, which paſſed with them for the breadth of the earth.

DEKER. A term in Holland, in the commerce of leather, for a certain number of ſkins; upon the footing whereof bargains are made, and the duties of importation and exportation paid: but it is more particularly ſaid of the ſkins of goats, and conſiſts of ſix ſkins.

DELAL. A term among the Perſians, for certain perſons who act for them in the purchaſe, and ſale of their merchandiſe, anſwering the ſignification of the Engliſh word broker. See *Broker*.

DELEGATES. A court, in England, conſiſting of certain perſons delegated, or appointed, by the royal commiſſion under the great ſeal, to ſit upon an appeal to the King, in the court of chancery in three caſes; one of which is, upon a ſentence given in the admiralty-court in ſuits civil and marine, by order of the civil law.

DELEGATION, in the civil law, denotes a ſort of ſurrender, whereby a perſon ſubſtitutes another in his place; which differs from transferring; becauſe three perſons intervene in a delegation, being the creditor, the debtor, and a third who himſelf is indebted to the debtor, and on whom the debtor transfers the obligation he was under to pay the creditor, delegating him, as it were, for that purpoſe: but, in a ſimple transfer, it is ſufficient that the transferer and transferee be preſent.

DELF. A quarry, or mine, where ſtone or coal is dug; a delf of coal denotes lying in veins under-ground, before it is dug up; and it is alſo a certain quantity dug out of a mine or pit.

DELFT. The capital of Delftland, in the province of Holland, ſituated in 4 deg. 5 min. of E lon. and 52 deg. of N. lat. where is made the beſt ſort of earthen ware, from hence called Delft-ware. See *United* Provinces.

DELIQUIUM, in chemiſtry, is the cauſing a ſalt to melt into water, by putting it into a moiſt place; alſo a diſtillation by fire.

DELLY. The capital of the province of Delly, and at preſent of all the Hither India, ſituated in 79 deg. of E. lon. and 28 deg. of N. lat. See *India*.

DELMONHURST, or *Delmenhurſt*, is a county of Germany, ſubject to Denmark. See *Denmark*.

DELOS. The chief iſland of the Cyclades, in the Turkiſh Archipelago; but the leaſt of them all, not being more than 6 miles in circumference, and deſtitute of inhabitants, ſituated in 25 deg. 50 min. of E. lon. and 37 deg. 26 min. of N. lat.

DEMER. A river of the Auſtrian Netherlands, in the province of Brabant, flowing beneath the city of Mechlin, and afterwards falling into the Scheld. See *Scheld*.

DEMI. The half, or diminutive of a thing.

DEMI-*cannon*. A piece of ordnance, uſually about 6 inches bore, 5400 lb. weight, 10 or 11 feet long, and carrying a ſhot of 30 or 32 lb. weight, point blank, 150 paces; its charge of powder being 14 lb. weight. See *Cannon*.

There are alſo two ſizes of demi-cannon above this, which are ſomething larger; as the ordinary demi-cannon, which is $6\frac{1}{8}$ inches bore, 12 feet long, weighs 5600 lb. its charge of powder 17 lb. 8 oz. and carries a ſhot 6 inches and a half diameter, whoſe weight is 32 lb. 162 paces point blank. Demi-cannon of the largeſt ſize, is $6\frac{6}{8}$ inches bore, 12 feet long, 6000 lb. weight, whoſe charge is 18 lb. of powder, and carries 180 paces.

DEMI-*culverin*, is a piece of ordnance commonly $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches bore, 10 feet long, 2700 lb. weight, its charge 7 lb. 4 oz. of powder, and carries a ſhot of 10 lb. 11 oz. and ſhoots point blank 175 paces. See *Ordnance*.

Demi-culverin, of the leaſt ſize, is $4\frac{1}{4}$ inches bore, 10 feet long, and 2000 lb. weight, carries a ball of 4 inches diameter; its charge is 6 lb. 4 oz. of powder, and its level-range is 174 paces. Demi-culverin of the largeſt ſize, is $4\frac{6}{8}$ inches bore, and 10 feet long; its charge of powder 8 lb. 8 oz. the ball is $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches diameter, weighs 12 lb. 11 oz. and the point blank ſhoot 178 paces. See *Culverin*.

DEMITTEES. A kind of cotton ſtuff made in the iſle of Cyprus, and brought from Smyrna.

DEMURRAGE, in commerce, an allowance made to the maſter of a ſhip by the merchants, for continuing in a port longer than the time firſt appointed for his departure.

DENIA. A port-town of Spain, in the province of Valencia, ſituated on the coaſt of the Mediterranean, in 20 min. of W. lon. and 39 deg. of N. lat. See *Spain*.

DENIER was formerly a general name for all French money.

DENIER *Tournois*. A ſmall copper coin, of great currency formerly in France, and even as yet received in ſome provinces beyond the Loire; but they have been ſeldom coined ſince the year 1649

The denier tournois is now held a money of accompt of Paris, and in ſeveral other towns of France; being ſubdivided into 2 mailles, the maille into 2 pites, and the pite into 2 ſemi-pites. The denier tournois is the 12th part of a ſol tournois, the ſol tournois the 20th part of the livre tournois, and the 60th of the ecu: ſo that the ſol tournois is compoſed of 12 deniers tournois, the livre tournois of 240 deniers tournois, and the ecu of 720; each denier being equal to $\frac{39}{1280}$ of a penny ſterling, or 12 of them are ſomewhat leſs than a halfpenny.

DENIER *Paraſis*. A ſmall imaginary money, uſed in France, being one fourth more than the denier tournois. There are at preſent in France ſeveral little copper pieces, which, having no proper name, are diſtinguiſhed only by their value in deniers, as the pieces of 36, 30, 24, 18, 12, 6, 4, and 2 deniers.

DENIER *de gros*. A money of accompt uſed in Holland, Flanders, and Brabant; 12 of which are about $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. ſterling. But there is ſome difference between the denier de gros of Holland, and the denier de gros of Flanders and Brabant; the livre de gros being not of equal value in both countries.

DENIER *de fin*, or *de loy*, ſignifies, among French goldſmiths and coiners, the ſtandard of ſilver, as the caract is that of gold.

This denier, anſwering the Engliſh penny weight, is a weight, or eſtimation, conſiſting of 24 grains, and divided into halves, quarters, and eighths. The fineſt ſilver is at 12 deniers, or penny weights; the French coined ſilver is to be at leaſt 10 penny weights fine; and goldſmiths ſilver 11, purſuant to the ordonance of 1640. When ſilver is at this ſtandard, it is called King's ſilver, becauſe the King remits his 24th part in favour of ſtrangers who bring this metal into his kingdom.

DENIER *de poids*, in France, is the 24th part of an ounce.

DENIZEN, or *Deniſon*, in law, an alien enfranchiſed in England, by the King's charter and donation; whereby he is, in ſome reſpects, enabled to act like the natives of the land; that is, to purchaſe eſtates, bear offices or dignities, but cannot inherit lands by deſcent: whereas a ſtranger who is naturaliſed may. Beſides, in the charter whereby a perſon is made a deniſon, there is uſually a clauſe which abridges him of that full benefit enjoyed by natural ſubjects. See *Merchant*, *Alien*, *Naturalization*, *Scavage*, and *Cuſtoms*.

DENMARK and Norway are at preſent under the dominion of one prince; though formerly they were diſtinct kingdoms.

Denmark, including the duchy of Holſtein, in which his Daniſh Majeſty hath an undivided moiety, is bounded by the Categate ſea, or entrance into the Baltic, towards the north; by the Baltic ſea, towards the eaſt; by the river Elbe, which divides it from the duchy of Bremen, towards the ſouth-weſt; and by the duchy of Saxelawenburgh, towards the ſouth-eaſt; extending from 54 deg. 30 min. to 58 deg. 20 min. N. lat. lying between 8 and 13 deg. of E. lon. being 240 miles long, and 180 broad; compoſed of the peninſula of Jutland on the continent, ſeparated from the iſlands by the Leſſer Belt, and a part of Holſtein in Germany; the iſlands being Zealand, Funen, Langland, Laland, Falſter, Mona, Femeren, Bornholm, Alſen, and ſome others; all lying at the entrance of the Baltic ſea: beſides which, Oldenburgh and Delmonhurſt, two counties in Germany, ſeparated from the reſt of Denmark by the duchy of Bremen, belong to the crown of Denmark.

The kingdom of Norway is ſeparated from Denmark by the Categate ſea, extending from 59 to upwards of 71 deg. of N. lat. and from 4 to 30 degrees of E. lon. being bounded by the ocean towards the weſt; by the kingdom of Sweden, and Swediſh Lapland, towards the eaſt; and alſo by the Categate ſea, towards the ſouth: this country is long and narrow, incloſed by the ocean on one ſide, and by thoſe high barren mountains, called Dofrine hills, covered with ſnow, which divide it from Sweden on the other, being about 1000 miles long, and only 100 broad. The ſeas bordering upon the Daniſh dominions, are the German ocean, which flows between Great Britain on the weſt, and Denmark and Norway on the eaſt; the northern, or frozen ocean; and the Baltic, in which is that remarkable ſtrait, or paſſage into the eaſt ſea, called Ore ſund, or generally the ſound of the Baltic. This ſtrait, called the ſound, is about 4 miles over, having the iſland of Zealand on the weſt, and the continent of Schonen on the eaſt: in the narroweſt part of the ſtrait on Zealand, or Denmark-ſide, ſtands the town of Elſenore, and the ſtrong caſtle of Cronenburgh, before which there is a tolerable road for ſhipping. On the ſide of Schonen, in the poſſeſſion of the Swedes, is the town of Helſingburgh, and a ſmall battery of guns, ſerving only to ſalute the ſhips that paſs by it; and between theſe two places all the ſhipping ſail which are bound to the Baltic. The Danes, however, only receive the toll of all merchant-men who paſs by; though the Swedes are maſters of the oppoſite ſhore, by virtue of the treaty concluded when the Danes yielded up Schonen to them: but the Swedes themſelves were exempted from paying any duties till the laſt peace, in the year 1721, when the affairs of the Swedes were in a very deſperate condition, and then they condeſcended to pay a toll to Denmark, as other nations did, on their paſſing the Sound. This duty claimed by the Danes, is ſuppoſed to have ariſen from the mutual conſent of the merchants trading to the eaſt country; who willingly, at firſt, contributed a ſmall ſum towards the maintaining of light houſes on the coaſt fr

their own ſecurity, and the direction of their pilots; and thereupon this paſſage of the Sound came to be more generally uſed than that of either Belt to the weſtward of the iſle of Zealand, which in other reſpects ſeem to be as commodious as this. From ſome ſuch beginning, the Danes proceeded to demand larger ſums; and that as their indubitable right, being then in poſſeſſion of both ſhores: but the Emperor Charles V. in behalf of his ſubjects of the ſeventeen provinces of the Low Countries, came to an agreement, at Spire, with the Dane, that every ſhip of 200 tons and under, paſſing the Sound, ſhould pay two roſe nobles going and coming from the Baltic, and every ſhip above that burthen three roſe nobles, each roſe noble being worth 18 s. ſterling; which agreement remained in force till the United Provinces revolted and ſet up for independent ſtates; though afterwards the Danes obliged the Dutch to pay extravagant rates. However, the Hollanders and Lubeckers oppoſing theſe exactions about the year 1600, compelled the Danes to accept of more moderate duties. The firſt ſolemn treaty the Dutch, as independent ſtates, made with the Danes concerning this toll, was in the year 1647, wherein they agreed to pay about 25 l. for every ſhip of 200 tons paſſing the Streight for 40 years, at the expiration of which the firſt agreement with the Emperor at Spire was to be in force; and the Engliſh, in their treaties with Denmark, agreed to pay toll, as the Dutch, and other nations in amity with them, did. As to the grand fleets of England and Holland, they aſk no permiſſion of his Daniſh Majeſty to paſs the Sound, who has never been in a condition to diſpute it with them; for the caſtles on the ſhores are at too great a diſtance to prevent it; and if the Danes had not a ſquadron of men of war ready to compel merchantmen to pay the toll, they might paſs by unhurt. Beſides, the paſſage called the Great Belt, between the iſlands of Zealand and Funen, is conſiderably wider; and that of the Leſſer Belt, between Funen and the continent of Jutland, is not impracticable. It is alſo obſervable, that his Daniſh Majeſty is now in poſſeſſion but of one part of the Sound, Schonen being under the dominion of Sweden; ſo that the King of Denmark ſeems to have no more reaſon to demand a toll here at preſent, than the Engliſh have to demand a duty of all ſhips paſſing the Streights of Dover or Gibraltar. Nor have the Engliſh and Dutch ever entirely yielded up this point to the Danes; for though they conſented to pay a ſmall toll on merchandiſe, they never ſuffer their ſhips to be detained or ſearched; but the Danes are obliged to take the word of the maſter of the ſhip for the quality and quantity of his lading.

There are a great number of fine lakes in Denmark, but not one navigable river, either in Zealand, or Jutland, till towards the ſouth of Holſtein, where are the Elbe, the Eyder, the Tron, and the Trave; and in Norway, the only conſiderable rivers are the Glammon and Drammen.

The territories of Denmark are extremely well ſituated, in the German and Baltic ſeas, for foreign traffic; but the two imperial cities of Hamburgh and Lubeck ſeem to have monopoliſed moſt of the commerce on this ſide. The Danes, indeed, have ſome trade with Guinea and the Weſt Indies, as well as in the Eaſt Indies, where they have ſome good ſettlements, particularly in the latter; and their royal navy is eſteemed ſuperior to that of Sweden or Ruſſia: but affairs in the Baltic are abſolutely governed by the maritime powers.

The grand diviſion of the Daniſh dominions are, 1. Denmark, properly ſo called, conſiſting of the iſlands of Zealand and Funen, with ſome other iſlands lying about them, and of that part of the continent called North Jutland. 2. The dutchy of Sleſwick, or South Jutland. 3. The dutchy of Holſtein. 4. The German provinces of Oldenburgh and Delmonhurſt. 5. The kingdom of Norway. And, 6. Iceland, with the other iſlands lying in the northern ſeas.

Denmark, properly ſo called, of which the iſland of Zealand may be well reckoned the principal part, on account of the capital city of Copenhagen, ſituated upon it, which is the moſt beautiful, and has the beſt trade, of all thoſe in the Baltic. Zealand is about 60 leagues in circumference, extending from north to ſouth, but is not much longer than it is broad. It is divided from Schonen by the Sound, from the iſland of Funen by the Streight called the Great Belt, and by a very narrow channel from the iſlands of Mona, Falſter, and Laland, which lie to the ſouthward of it. There are no navigable rivers in the iſland, and very few brooks, big enough to turn a mill. The country is in ſome places prettily diverſified with little hills, woods, and lakes. The chief town of this iſland, and of the whole kingdom, is Copenhagen, ſituated in the latitude of 56 degrees odd minutes, and in 12 deg. 53 min. of N. long. reckoning from the meridian of London. It ſtands in a plain on the weſtern ſide of the Sound, not above 5 leagues diſtant from Schonen, and is computed to be about the bigneſs of Briſtol; but the walls incloſe a great deal more ground than is built upon. Its ſituation at the entrance of the Baltic muſt have been very advantageous on account of trade, if it had not been a fortified place, and awed continually by a numerous garriſon; for it is a general obſervation, that ſoldiers and merchants never agree together. The trading part of the world wiſely withdraw from military men, who they know cannot want pretences to inſult and oppreſs them, eſpecially in arbitrary governments, where the military power is always ſuperior to the civil. The town is ſtrong, ſtanding in the middle of a marſhy ground, and fortified after the modern way. The harbour is ſurrounded by the fortifications, and the entrance of it ſo narrow, that not above one ſhip can paſs in at a time; and a citadel on one ſide, and a block-houſe on the other, commands the entrance of it. A wooden gallery runs round the whole, cloſe to which every ſhip has its ſtation, and the port will contain near 500 ſail, where they may ride in the greateſt ſecurity from ſtorms and enemies, the very name of the city implying the merchant's haven. Theſe ſeas, in ſome winters, are ſo hard frozen, that the Swedes have marched over a great army, with a train of artillery, and actually beſieged Copenhagen, without the aſſiſtance of a fleet: and as the town ſtands in a moraſs, cut through with dykes, poſſibly it may be more eaſily approached in the winter-ſeaſon during the froſts, than in the ſummer. The buildings are generally mean; and even the King's palace, the worſt and moſt inconvenient in Europe. Copenhagen cannot boaſt much of its antiquity; a caſtle was built on the iſland by Archbiſhop Wide, about the year 1168, for a protection againſt the pirates which then ſwarmed in thoſe ſeas; whereupon many people reſorted hither, and it ſoon grew up into a pretty large town. It was an archbiſhopric; but the Danes, like the Swedes, have reduced their biſhops to ſuperintendents, and ſtripped them of great part of their epiſcopal power. The little iſland of Finak, joined to Copenhagen by a bridge, is well furniſhed with all ſorts of fowl, veniſon, corn, milch cattle, and garden-ſtuff; from whence the markets of Copenhagen are ſupported. This iſland was ſome years ago given to a colony of North Hollanders, who were invited hither to make butter and cheeſe for the court; and their poſterity ſtill retain the habit, language, and cuſtoms of their anceſtors, with their cleanlineſs, and induſtry, refuſing to intermarry or mix with the Danes, and have privileges conferred on them, on account of their being uſeful to the court. 2. About 15 miles to the northward of Copenhagen ſtands Elſinore, or Helſingor, on the narroweſt part of the ſtreight called the Sound, oppoſite to the caſtle of Helſinburgh, on the Schonen ſhore, where a conſiderable trade is carried on, and where every ſhip that paſſes the Sound muſt ſtrike ſail before the caſtle of Croonenburg, and come to the town to compound for the cuſtoms, under penalty of forfeiting veſſel and cargo. 3. Frederiſkburgh, twelve miles to the weſtward of Elſinore. 4. Roſchild, ſituated at the bottom of a gulph of the ſea, 20 miles to the weſtward of Copenhagen, which was antiently the metropolis of Denmark, but declined upon the building of Copenhagen, and is now an inconſiderable town. 5. Holbeck, ſituated at the bottom of a bay, which affords it ſome trade. 6. Kallenburg, ſituated near the ſea, 60 miles to the weſtward of Copenhagen, which has a pretty good trade. 7. Coge, a ſmall

town ſituated on the Sound, about 20 miles to the ſouthward of Copenhagen. 8. Preſtoe, a place of ſome trade on the ſouth-coaſt of Zealand, over againſt the iſland of Mona. 9. Warienburgh, 10 miles ſouth-weſt of Preſtoe, over againſt the iſland of Falſter. 10. Skelſkor, ſituated on the weſt-ſide of Zealand, on the ſhore of the Great Belt, 30 miles north-weſt of Warienburgh. 11. Korſor, 10 miles to the northward of Skelſkor, on a promontory over againſt Funen, which forms a good harbour on the north-ſide of it. Beſides theſe towns, which are none of them larger than a common Engliſh market-town, it is computed there are upwards of 300 villages in the iſland.

Funen, the next moſt conſiderable iſland of Denmark, hath Samſoe on the north; the Great Belt, a ſtreight of 20 miles over, which ſeparates it from Zealand, on the eaſt; the Baltic ſea on the ſouth; and the Leſſer Belt, a ſtreight which divides it from the continent of Jutland, on the weſt; being about 40 miles long, and 35 broad; the chief town whereof is Odenſee, ſituated about the middle of the iſland, and 80 miles to the weſtward of the city of Copenhagen; being formerly a flouriſhing little city, but now very much upon the decliné, though remarkable for brewing excellent beer. 2. The town of Nyburg, or Nuburgh, ſituated on the eaſt-ſide of the iſland, over againſt Korſor in Zealand; where is a good harbour for ſhips of the largeſt burthen; and the town, which is well fortified, was once the reſidence of the antient Daniſh kings. 3. Schwinburg, ſituated on the ſouth-weſt part of the iſland, is eſteemed a pretty good harbour, where the Swedes paſſed over the ice, in the year 1658, when they marched to beſiege Copenhagen. 4. Middlefar, ſituated on the weſt-ſide of Funen, being the common paſſage to Kolding in Jutland. Beſides theſe towns, there are about 250 villages in the iſland of Funen.

The iſland of *Langland*, ſo called from its long narrow form, lies on the ſouth-eaſt of Funen, being about 30 miles long, and 8 broad; the chief town whereof is Rudkoping, ſituated on the weſt-ſide of it, over againſt Schwinburg in Funen; beſides which place there are about 16 villages in the iſland.

The iſland of *Laland* hath Zealand on the north, Falſter on the eaſt, the Baltic on the ſouth, and Langland on the weſt; being about 30 miles long, and 20 broad; the chief town whereof is Nankow, ſituated on the weſt-ſide of the iſland.

The iſland of *Falſter* hath Zealand on the north, from whence it is ſeparated by a narrow ſtreight; Mona on the north-eaſt; and Langland on the weſt; being about 20 miles long, and 16 broad; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Nykopping, ſituated on the weſt-ſide of the iſland; and Sudkopping, ſituated towards the north, being the common paſſage to Zealand.

The iſland of *Mona* hath Zealand on the north-weſt, and Falſter on the ſouth-weſt, from whence it is ſeparated by a narrow ſtreight; being about 15 miles long, and 5 broad.

The iſland of *Arroe* lies to the ſouthward of Funen; the chief place in which is Kopping, on the ſouth-part of the iſland.

Bornholm lies the moſt to the eaſtward of any of the Daniſh iſlands, about 20 miles to the ſouthward of the continent of Schonen; being about 20 miles long, and 12 broad, and hath been the ſubject of much contention between the Swedes and Danes. The chief towns are, Sendwick on the north-coaſt, Rottum on the ſouth-weſt part of the iſland, and Nexia, a little diſtance from Rottum.

To the northward of Funen, and eaſt of the continent of Jutland, lies the iſland of *Samſoe*; and farther to the northward, the iſlands of *Anhout* and *Leſſow*: beſides which, there are a vaſt number of little iſlands in theſe ſeas; and to the iſland of Funen only, there belong no leſs than 90 other inhabitable iſlands.

From Zealand and Funen, and the reſt of the Daniſh iſlands in the Baltic, it is proper to proceed to the province of North Jutland, the country of the antient Jutes, confederates of the Angles, who made a conqueſt of South Britain, and gave it the name of their own country, Angleland, or England; which people were, by the Romans, called Cimbri, and their country, with Sleſwick and Holſtein, Cimbrica Cherſoneſus, or the peninſula of the Cimbri.

North Jutland is bounded by the German ocean on the weſt and north, by the Baltic on the eaſt, and by the duchy of Sleſwick on the ſouth; being uſually divided into the four governments of Alburg, Wiburg, Arhuſen, and Ripen. Alburg is the extreme north-part of Jutland. The chief towns are, 1. Alburg, ſituated on the Lymford gulph, 15 miles to the weſtward of the Baltic ſea; 2. Nicopping, ſituated in the iſland of Mors, which is formed by the Lymford, on the weſt-ſide of Jutland: 3. Tyſted, a little to the northward of Mors iſland, near the Lymford bay; 4. Seeby, a port-town on the Baltic, about 20 miles to the northward of Alburg; 5. Scagen, ſituated on the moſt northern promontory of Jutland; a place of good trade, where the ſhipping frequently touch in their voyage to or from the Baltic; and in this province are contained 13 bailiwicks, with upwards of 160 pariſhes.

Wiburg is an inland province; the chief towns of which are, 1. Wiburg, ſtanding about the middle of the province of North Jutland, 35 miles ſouth of Alburg, which is ſtill a town of ſome figure; being ſuppoſed to have taken its name from the pirates who uſed to reſort thither, and were called wigs. 2. Harkier, about 20 miles to the northward of Wiburg. 3. Nybye, 10 miles to the north-eaſt of Wiburg, remarkable for the great fairs of fine horſes, which are annually held there. In this province there are 16 bailiwicks, and upwards of 200 pariſhes.

Arhuſen, about 60 miles long, and 30 broad; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Aarhus, which has a good harbour, near the Baltic ſea, 30 miles north of the iſland of Funen: 2. Randers, ſituated about 15 miles to the north of Aarhus, near the Baltic; which is a town of good trade, and remarkable for ſalmon; beſides which there are upwards of 300 villages in this province.

Ripen, the chief towns whereof are, 1. Ripen, ſituated on the river Nipſick, which, dividing itſelf into three branches, runs thro' the town, dividing it into as many parts, and a little below falls into the German ocean, forming a pretty good harbour; which is a place of conſiderable trade, particularly for black cattle; from whence great numbers are exported to Holland and Germany. The town has good buildings; and the cathedral, which is a magnificent ſtructure, built of hewn ſtone, hath a ſteeple of an extraordinary height, which ſerves as a ſea-mark to mariners. 2. Kolding, ſituated on a bay of the Baltic ſea, over againſt Funen; a place of good trade, where all horſes, cattle, and other merchandiſe, are embarked for Holſtein, and other countries in the Baltic, which is defended by a ſtrong caſtle named Aruſburg. 3. Frederickſodde, a ſmall port, 20 miles to the eaſtward of Kolding, ſituated on the weſt-ſide of the Little Belt, memorable for the King of Sweden's paſſing over the ice here with his army, in the year 1658, when he invaded Funen and Zealand, and laid ſiege to Copenhagen. Weil, ſituated on a bay of the Baltic ſea, about 15 miles to the northward of Kolding; a little, compact, trading city, and a very good harbour. 5. Warde, ſituated about 20 miles to the northward of Ripen, near the mouth of a river, which falls into the German ſea. Ringkopping, ſituated about 30 miles to the northward of Warde, on a bay of the German ſea, eſteemed a pretty good harbour.

II. The duchy of *Sleſwick*, or South Jutland, is bounded by North Jutland, towards the north, by the Baltic ſea towards the eaſt, by Holſtein on the ſouth, and the German ocean towards the weſt; being about 60 miles long and 45 broad; over which the King of Denmark and the Duke of Holſtein are joint ſovereigns: only there are ſome towns and bailiages, in which they have a ſeparate and diſtinct juriſdiction; particularly the baliages of Hadder, Sleben, Ripen, Flenſburg, the territory of Christianpris, the iſles of Roem, and Mandoa, and the weſt-part of the iſland of Foer, are ſubject to the King of Denmark ſolely. The bailiages of Gottorp, Tonderen, Apenrade, Huſum, Eyderſtede, and Lhom Cloſter, the iſle of Femer

Femeren, North Strandſylt, and the eaſt-ſide of Foer, are ſubject to the Duke of Holſtein ſolely. The chief towns are, 1. Sleſwick, ſituated on the river Sley, which a little lower falls into the Baltic, and ſtands about 20 miles north-weſt of Kiel; being a town much reſorted to formerly by foreign merchants. 2. Gottorp, where ſtands the palace of the Duke of Holſtein, ſituated in the middle of a lake about 15 miles to the weſtward of the city of Sleſwick. Here is a toll-booth, or cuſtom-houſe, where toll is paid for ſuch black cattle as paſs from Jutland. 3. Ekrenford, ſituated at the bottom of a bay of the Baltic ſea, in the midway between Sleſwick and Kiel; a good harbour, and a place of ſome trade. 4. Frederickſtat, a litttle town ſituated on the river Eyder, about 30 miles to the weſt of Ekrenford; where Frederick Duke of Holſtein endeavoured to ſettle a trade for Perſian and Indian ſilks, and for that purpoſe ſent a famous embaſſage to Perſia in the laſt century. 5. Tonninghen, ſituated on the ſame river Eyder, about 5 miles below Frederickſtat, and 4 or 5 leagues from the German ocean, one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes belonging to the Duke of Holſtein. 6. Huſum, ſituated on a bay of the German ocean, about 10 miles north of Frederickſtat, having a good harbour, remarkable for oyſters. 7. Flenſburg, ſituated on a bay of the Baltic ſea, 20 miles north-eaſt of Huſum; a fine city, conſiſting of one large ſtreet two miles in length, and ſubject to Denmark; the harbour being ſo convenient, that the merchants lade and unlade their ſhips at their own doors. 8. Luxburgh, or Gluxburg, a little town with a caſtle adjoining, from whence the Dukes of Holſtein-Gluxburg take their title. 9. Haderſleban, a port town, ſituated on a bay of the Baltic ſea, 30 miles to the northward of Flenſburg, and ſubject to Denmark, remarkable for corn and fiſh. 10. Tunderen, a port-town, ſituated on the German ocean, 25 miles to the northward of Huſum, but the harbour is now choaked up. 11. Lhom Cloſter, 10 miles to the northward of Tunderen. 12. Sunderburg, ſituated on the ſouth-part of the iſland of Alſen in the Baltic ſea, the uſual reſidence of the Dukes of Holſtein, eſteemed a very ſtong town. 13. Nordburg, ſituated on the north-part of the ſame iſland, from whence the Duke of Holſtein-Nordburg takes his title. There are ſeveral iſlands alſo belonging to Sleſwick in the German ocean, particularly Norſtrant, ſituated over againſt Huſum; Fora, and Amron, a little to the northward of it; Sylt, over againſt Tonderen, with Rom and Mindo farther northward, and ſeveral other leſſer iſlands which lie about theſe already mentioned.

III. The duchy of *Holſtein*, like that of Sleſwick, hath the King of Denmark, as well as the Duke of Holſtein-Gottorp, for its ſovereign; but it is here only neceſſary to obſerve, that Holſtein is a fief of the German empire; upon which account the King of Denmark is deemed a prince of the empire, as well as the Duke of Holſtein: whereas Sleſwick is a fief of the crown of Denmark. The duchy of Holſtein is bounded by the duchy of Sleſwick on the north; by the duchy of Saxlawenburg, and the Baltic, towards the eaſt; by the Elbe towards the ſouth; and by the German ocean towards the weſt; extending about 100 miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and 50 miles in breadth from north to ſouth; within which limits are included Ditmarſh, Wagerland, and Stormar.

Holſtein, properly ſo called, conſiſts chiefly of the inland parts of this country, lying between Stormar and Jutland; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Kiel, ſituated on a bay of the Baltic ſea, in the latitude of 54 degrees odd minutes, 50 miles to the northward of Hamburgh, and 40 north-weſt of Lubeck; having a good harbour, defended by a caſtle, and is a populous, trading town; in which is held the annual aſſembly of the ſtates of Holſtein, and is ſubject to the Duke of Holſtein. 2. Renſburg, or Reinolſburg, ſituated on the Eyder, by which it is almoſt ſurrounded, 20 miles to the weſtward of Kiel; eſteemed one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes in Holſtein. 3. Wilſter, a pretty well built town, ſituated on a river which falls into the Stoor, about 30 miles ſouth-weſt of Renſburg. 4. Itzehoa, a little to the eaſtward of Wylſter, ſituated on the river Stoor. And, 5. Newmunſter, which lies near the mouth of the river Stoor.

The province of *Ditmarſh* is ſituated between Holſtein proper and the German ocean; being bounded by the river Elbe towards the ſouth, and the river Eyder towards the north; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Meldorp, a town of good trade, ſituated on the German ocean, about 30 miles ſouth-weſt of Renſburg. 2. Lunden, ſituated near the mouth of the river Eyder, 15 miles to the northward of Meldorp; the former ſubject to Denmark, and the latter to the Duke of Holſtein.

The province of *Stormar* is a low marſhy country, bounded by the river Stoor, which divides it from Holſtein, towards the north, and by the river Elbe and Lunenburg towards the ſouth, very much reſembling Holland in its dykes and banks made to keep out the ſea; but the flats are frequently nevertheleſs overflowed. They have great advantages in trade, on account of the neighbourhood of the river, and the city of Hamburg, which ſtands cloſe to the boundaries of this province, but is one of the Hans towns, and governed by its own magiſtrates. The chief towns of Stormar are, 1. Altena, formerly a very pretty town, within leſs than a mile of Hamburg, belonging to the King of Denmark, which hath been greatly encouraged by the Dane, in hopes that it might in time participate of the trade and wealth of Hamburg; but it was burnt to the ground in the laſt war with the Swedes, and, as ſome ſuggeſt, at the inſtigation of the Hamburghers, who apprehended this town might one day become their rival in commerce: however, Altena is now rebuilt, and more beautiful than ever. 2. Gluckſtat, or Geluckſtat, a ſmall city, ſituated on the Elbe, about 30 miles north-weſt of Hamburg, which is eſteemed a place of ſtrength; and it was here the Danes had formed a project, of compelling all veſſels to pay a toll, in their paſſage to and from Hamburg; but the ſubjects of ſo many conſiderable powers were concerned in this impoſition, that the Daniſh monarchs have not yet carried their point: they have, however, frequently obliged the Hamburgers to raiſe them conſiderable ſums, under pretence that they have a right to the dominion of that city; which was formerly, it is true, reckoned to be within the duchy of Holſtein; but is now a free imperial city. 3. Krempe, or Crempen, about 6 miles to the northward of Gluckſtat. 4. Pennyburg, ſituated about 10 miles to the northward of Hamburg, and only remarkable for giving name to the diſtrict about it.

The province of *Wageren*, or Wagerland, encloſed on three ſides by the Baltic ſea, and the river Trave, and bounded by Holſtein proper towards the weſt, is about 50 miles in length from north to ſouth, and 30 in breadth from eaſt to weſt; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Segeburg, ſituated on the river Trave, 12 miles to the weſtward of Lubeck. 2. Odelſloe, or Oldeſloh, a good town, ſituated on the ſame river Trave, almoſt in the midway between Lubeck and Segeburg. 3. Ploen, ſituated on a lake, which almoſt ſurrounds it; ſtanding about 20 miles to the northward of Segeburg, and gives title to one of the branches of the houſe of Holſtein, who are ſtiled Dukes of Holſtein-Ploen.

IV. The other German territories ſubject to the crown of Denmark, are the counties of *Oldenburg* and *Delmonhurſt*, which lie on the ſouth-ſide of the Elbe, and are ſeparated from the reſt of the Daniſh territories, by the whole duchy of Bremen; being bounded by a bay of the German ſea, towards the north; by the river Weſer, towards the eaſt; by the biſhopric of Munſter, towards the ſouth; and by the county of Emden, on the weſt; together about 60 miles in length, and 30 in breadth: the chief town of Delmonhurſt is of the ſame name, and ſtands on the river Delm, 10 miles to the weſtward of Bremen; and the only conſiderable town in Oldenburg, is alſo of the ſame name as the county, and ſituated on the river Hund, not far from the place where it falls into the Weſer; the river being navigable as far as the town, which makes it a place of ſome trade.

V. The kingdom of *Norway* is ſeparated from Denmark by the ſea called the Categate, and is uſually divided into four governments, or dioceſes. 1. The government of the Wardhuys, or Finmark; 2. The government of Dronthiem;

Dronthiem; 3. The government of Aggerhuys; and, 4. The government of Bergen.

1. The government of Wardhuys, or Finmark, or, as it is frequently called, the Norwegian Lapland, is bounded by the ocean on the north and weſt, by Muſcovite Lapland towards the eaſt, and by Swediſh Lapland on the ſouth. The only place which can pretend to the name of a town in this country, is Wardhuys, ſituated at the north eaſt part of an iſland, about 15 miles in circumference; where is an old caſtle, the ſeat of the governor, and a ſtreet of cottages: as to the reſt of the Norwegian Lapland, there are only cottages diſperſed here and there, ſeldom more than two or three together, as in Swediſh and Muſcovite Lapland; only in the iſland of Maggero, the land whereof makes the north cape, well known to mariners who uſe the Ruſſian trade; and, upon two or three little iſlands near it, there are churches built by the Danes, and the people make ſome pretenſions to chriſtianity; but the natives, who live on the continent, are ſtill for the moſt part Pagans.

2. The government of Drontheim is bounded by Wardhuys on the north; by ſome provinces of Sweden, and the Swediſh Lapland, towards the eaſt; by the province of Bergen on the ſouth, and the ocean towards the weſt; being about 500 miles in length, and 100 in breadth; which country was yielded to the Swedes, by the treaty of Roſchild, in the year 1651, but reſtored to the Danes by the treaty of Copenhagen, in the year 1660. The chief towns are, 1. Drontheim, or Truntheim, ſituated at the mouth of the river Nyder, which falls into a bay of the northern ocean, in 64 deg. odd minutes northern latitude, and 10 deg. of E. lon. and was antiently named Nidroſia, from the river on which it ſtands. It was formerly an archbiſhop's ſee, and the ſeat of the Kings of Norway; but is at preſent a very mean town: there is, however, a caſtle ſtill remaining, where the governor reſides. 2. Opdale, ſituated at the bottom of a very narrow bay, about 10 leagues weſt of the ocean, and 100 miles ſouth of Drontheim. 3. Romſdale, ſituated on another bay about 30 miles to the ſouthward of Opdale. 4. Solendale, ſtanding on another bay of the ocean, 30 miles ſouth-weſt of Romſdale.

3. The government of Aggerhuys, is bounded by Drontheim, on the north; by Sweden, towards the eaſt; by the Baltic, towards the ſouth; and by the province of Bergen towards the weſt, extending about 200 miles in length from north to ſouth, and 50 in breadth from eaſt to weſt; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Obſto, or Anſlo, at preſent generally called Chriſtiana, ſituated at the bottom of a bay of the Baltic ſea. Here are held the chief courts of juſtice for the kingdom of Norway. 2. Aggerhuys, from whence the province takes its name, ſituated on the oppoſite ſide of the bay on which Chriſtiana ſtands, and but a few leagues to the weſtward of it, eſteemed a ſtrong fortreſs, having held out a long ſiege againſt the Swedes, in the year 1567. 3. Frederickſtat, ſituated at the mouth of the river Glammon, which falls into another bay of the Baltic ſea, about 60 miles ſouth-eaſt of Chriſtiana. 4. Frederickſhall, a ſtrong fortreſs on the borders of Sweden, a little to the eaſtward of Frederickſtat; in the ſiege whereof the late King of Sweden, Charles XII. the greateſt hero of the age, was killed in the year 1718. 5. Saltzburg, ſituated on the river Drammen, about 20 miles north-weſt of Chriſtiana, which the neighbouring copper and iron mines render a town of pretty good trade. 6. Tonſburg, ſituated on the bay of Obſto, to the weſtward of Chriſtiana. 7. Hollen, ſituated on the bay of the lake Nordſee, 15 miles north-weſt of Tonſburg. And, 8. Hammer, 80 miles to the northward of Chriſtiana.

4. The province, or government of Bergen, containing the ſouth-weſt part of Norway, is bounded by Drontheim, on the north, by Aggerhuys on the eaſt, by the entrance of the Baltic on the ſouth, and by the ocean on the weſt; extending from the Naze point in the ſouth, to the latitude of 63 north; the chief towns whereof are, 1. Bergen, an antient ſea-port on the German ocean with a commodious harbour, to the northward of Naze point, and almoſt ſurrounded with mountains, though eſteemed one of the largeſt, as well as the moſt populous and trading towns in Norway, and is the reſidence of the viceroy. 2. Eyde, 15 miles to the eaſtward of Bergen. 3. Staffenger, ſituated in a peninſula, on a bay of the ocean, 90 miles to the ſouthward of Bergen; a ſmall city, with an indifferent harbour, defended by a caſtle.

The kingdom of Denmark, in the year 1660, was ſuddenly changed from its ancient ariſtocracy to an abſolute monarchy, under the reign of Frederick III. when the commons were extremely diſcontented with the taxes and other oppreſſions of the nobility and gentry, which they had ſuffered during a long war with Sweden, and concluded that their condition could not be worſe under the government of a ſingle perſon, than under ſuch a variety of tyrants: ſince which time, Denmark ſeems leſs conſiderable than their neighbour crown, from a fainter ſpirit which appears of late in their people, and in their government itſelf, as well as a great inequality of number in their forces, both at ſea and land: for this laſt change of their government, from elective to hereditary, has made it ſeem hitherto of leſs force, and unfitter for action abroad. The change in Denmark was the ſafer, by having to deal with a ſoft, eaſy people, and with nobles grown to have ſmall power or intereſt among them, and of whom many were gained by the crown; beſides that, nothing ſeemed to concern property in the change of ſucceſſive for elective; the example of all Chriſtian powers, except that of Poland, made way for it; and yet it is certain that Denmark has continued ever ſince weak and unſpirited, bent only upon ſafety, and enjoying the revenues of the Sound, which are the chief belonging to that crown: ſo as their great intereſt is their defence againſt Sweden; and, for the reſt, a general peace, by which traffic increaſing they may come in for a ſhare, and ſee their cuſtoms grow in the Sound and Norway.

In our age, ſays Puffendorff, the Danes have loſt much of their antient glory; becauſe the preſent nobility and gentry, which are all one there, are rather for enjoying their revenues in eaſe and luxury, than for undergoing the fatigues of war, and the commonalty have followed their example. The Norwegians, ſays the ſame author, undergo all kinds of hardſhips with more courage and vigour, to which they are inured by the climate they live in: but the Danes, ever ſince they have been maſters of Norway, have endeavoured to depreſs and keep that people under, by taking from them all opportunities of exerting their vigour; aud there are now very few of the antient nobility left in Norway.

The nature of the ſoil in dominions ſo far extended and disjoined by ſeas, as thoſe of Denmark are, muſt be various. The iſland of Zealand, wherein the capital city of Copenhagen ſtands, produces no bread-corn, but rye, of which moſt of their bread is made: of this they have enough for the ſubſiſtence of the inhabitants, but none to export. There is not much meadow or paſture ground in the iſland; but what they have is a ſhort, ſweet food. One fourth of the country is foreſt, and reſerved for the King's game, ſuch as ſtags, wild boars, and the like; which no ſubject can meddle with, tho' he finds whole herds of them devouring his corn; and the farmers are generally great ſufferers by them. In a wet ſeaſon, they have the greateſt plenty of graſs in Zealand. Their cattle are ſmall and lean in the winter, kept within doors 7 or 8 months in the year, and fed with grains, roots, weeds, or ſuch other ſtuff as their owners can provide; but, in ſummer, when there is graſs to be had, their beef is pretty good. Near Copenhagen the ſea is not well ſtored with fiſh, which is ſuppoſed to proceed from the water not being ſo ſalt as that in other ſeas.

The iſland of Funen produces corn and wood ſufficient for the natives, with cattle for their uſe; but affords nothing for exportation, except ſome few horſes. Laland is a plentiful iſland, and produces all ſorts of corn in abundance, particularly wheat, with which it ſupplies Copenhagen, and all other parts of Denmark, in ſmall quantities; for wheat is a very great rarity among them: The iſlands of Falſter, Langland, and Mona. are reckoned

ed very fruitful. Arroe and Alſen produce aniſe-ſeeds, which they mix with their bread, and uſe in the ſeaſoning their meat.

Jutland hath corn enough for the natives, and abounds in cattle. The horſes and hogs of this country are reckoned very good; and black cattle are exported lean from hence to Holland, where they grow fat in a ſhort time, of which the Dutch make a conſiderable profit.

The country of Sleſwick hath a ſufficient quantity of corn, horſes, and cattle, with which they furniſh their neighbours.

Holſtein is a pleaſant fruitful country, reſembling England in its variety of hills, woods, rivers, meadows, and corn fields.

Stormar and Ditmarch lye low, near the Elbe, being a rich ſoil, compared to Holland, for its fertility, and the improvement of its lands, which are ſometimes overflowed by the neighbouring ocean. Oldenburgh alſo is a flat country, much expoſed to inundations, but abounds in cattle, and hath a breed of horſes, much eſteemed for their being of a cream colour, though they have generally tender feet, and laſt but a little while. Delmonhurſt is a more hilly country than Oldenburgh, and pretty well wooded.

Norway is a very barren country, having neither corn nor cattle ſufficient for the ſuſtenance of the inhabitants; becauſe a ridge of mountains runs along it from S. to N. dividing it from Sweden; beſides which, the country is full of hills and rocks, producing ſcarce any food for man or beaſt; and being almoſt continually covered with ſnow. As to Lapland, the moſt northerly part of it differs not from the Swediſh and Muſcovite Lapland.

The principal commodities exported from Norway are beautiful maſts, and the beſt timber in the North for the building of ſhips, deal boards, copper in great quantities, iron, ſtock-fiſh, round-fiſh, ſkins, furrs, tallow, butter, and aſhes.

Commodities imported there are ſpices, wines, ſalt, brandy, vinegar, cheeſe, tobacco, woollen and linen cloths, ſilks, and a great ſtore of old rix-dollars.

The Dutch have engroſſed almoſt all the Norway trade; and there are ſcarce any of its mercantile towns they do not annually reſort with a great number of ſhips.

In time of peace ſuch of their ſhips deſtined for this part of the North, depart when they pleaſe, either alone, or with a convoy: but, in war time, they proceed with a fleet of 150 or 200 ſhips; and always convoyed by ſome ſhips of war allowed them by the admiralty.

The Dutch maſters, and captains of ſhips, ſent to Norway, have uſually the whole management of all the trade carried on there, buying and ſelling ſuch commodities as they think proper for the profit of their employer; being permitted even to take in their cargoes in the ports which are not of their deſtination, if the cargo is not ſo good in thoſe where they firſt arrived.

There is a ſilver mine in Norway, at two leagues diſtance from the copper mines, but of no ſervice to trade, as belonging to the King: hence it may be conjectured, that ſilver, as it is in reality, is very ſcarce in Norway; and therefore, that coined ſilver is the beſt commodity which can be brought there; for tho' one commodity may be bartered againſt another, at a very reaſonable rate, yet a better bargain is generally had in ſpecie, which are moſt commonly rix-dollars and ducats.

The commodities of Denmark are ſmall maſts, deal-boards, pitch and tar, horſes, black cattle, butter, tallow, ox hides, goat-ſkins, hemp, ſtock-fiſh, and corn; but the exportation of carpenters timber from Zealand is prohibited.

The goods that ſell beſt in Denmark are ſalts, wines, brandy, paper, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, ſilks, woollen cloths, ſpices, medicinal drugs, tobacco, and pepper: but a conſiderable part of the Daniſh trade is in the exchange of rix-dollars brought there in ſpecie.

The Dane hath generally been reckoned to abound more in ſhipping than the Swede; the reaſon whereof may be, that Norway furniſhes Denmark with a conſiderable number of hardy ſeamen, who are uſed to fiſhing in thoſe boiſterous ſeas; and the Dutch alſo maintain great numbers of the Norwegians in their fleets, where they live better than on their own barren coaſts; which makes this people apply themſelves more to the ſea-ſervice than any other ſubjects of Denmark; and there is always a conſiderable number of them ready to man the royal navy, which leads on an enquiry into the ſtrength and forces of the Danes by ſea and land.

At preſent, the northern and German princes eſtimate their wealth, not by the fertility or extent of their territories, by the trade or induſtry of their people, but by the numbers of horſe and foot in their ſervice; for the ſubſiſtance of which, after they have eaten up their own ſubjects, they make uſe of many cruel and unjuſt pretences to ruin and encroach upon their neighbours; and, when they cannot accompliſh ſuch deſtructive projects, foment quarrels among other princes, that they may have an opportunity of letting out their troops to cut throats for hire, which they are not able otherwiſe to maintain; whereby they have found out the art of receiving pay, without intereſting themſelves in the quarrel, which hath been the conſtant practice of the Danes, and ſome neighbouring princes, for many years. Theſe practices, however, have been very pernicious to Denmark; nor hath the Dane ſucceeded in any of his attempts, either againſt the city of Hamburg, the Duke of Holſtein, or the Swedes; but in the laſt war indeed, taking advantage of the diſtreſs the Swedes were reduced to by a potent confederacy, the Dane made himſelf maſter of Bremen and Verden, which he afterwards conveyed to the Elector of Hanover.

It is computed that Denmark, Holſtein, and Oldenburgh, maintain 5450 horſe, 1500 dragoons, and 17000 foot. Norway maintains 1256 horſe and dragoons, and 14,300 foot, making in all a body of near 40,000 men.

For the ſea ſervice, 3000 mariners are conſtantly maintained at Copenhagen, as well in peace as war; having a weekly allowance of ſalt fleſh, ſtock-fiſh, meal, and grout for themſelves and their families, with about eight rix-dollars a-year in money; and there are ſeveral ſtreets of little houſes, or barracks, near the walls, where they live, and where there wives and children remain while they are at ſea. Their buſineſs, in time of peace, is to work in the King's yards and docks, which are over againſt the palace in Copenhagen, where they take it by turns to ſerve in all laborious employments relating to the ſhipping; and once a year, it is uſual to equip a ſmall ſquadron of men of war, and ſail out of the harbour with them two or three months, for exerciſing the ſailors. All the officers of the fleet are in conſtant pay, as well in peace as war; and the Danes compute that they can rig out thirty ſail of men of war and upwards, at a very ſhort warning.

The King's revenue ariſes, 1. From the duties paid by his own ſubjects. 2. By the cuſtoms paid by foreigners. 3. By the crown lands, fines, and confiſcations.

The taxes paid by his ſubjects are either fixed or variable; that is, the prince in ſome caſes chuſes to follow a certain rule, eſtabliſhed by himſelf, which he may, however, alter if he ſees fit; and in others he frequently varies. Of the firſt ſort are the duties of import and export, and the exciſe, commonly called the conſumption, laid upon every thing that is either eat or drank in the kingdom. There are alſo duties paid for marriage licences, duties of ſtamped paper, on which all bargains, contracts, grants, and proceedings at law are written: ſome of theſe duties amounting to ſeveral rixdollars *per* ſheet. Duties are alſo laid upon brewing, and all malt and corn that is grinded in mills. Theſe duties are certain, or ſeldom altered. The uncertain duties are, 1. The taxes on land, which are not aſſeſſed by the acre, but according to the annual value of the farm. 2. Poll-money, impoſed upon every one according to the perſonal eſtate he is ſuppoſed to have; which is ſometimes levied twice a year. 3. Money levied for erecting or repairing the fortifications. 4. An occaſional tax raiſed only when a daughter of Denmark is to be married, whoſe portion is uſually 100,000 crowns. 5. A tax laid upon every tradeſman, for the liberty of exerciſing his calling, and the gain he is ſuppoſed to make by it; who is obliged alſo to quarter ſoldiers. 6. The ground

rents in all cities and towns, with the King's taxes according to the value of the houſe, or the ability of the poſſeſſor. In Holſtein, the lands are taxed according to the number of the ploughs, each plough paying a certain ſum every month. Not many years ſince, a valuation was made of all the houſes in the cities and towns of the King's dominions, and all the lands in the country were admeaſured, that the crown might better underſtand their value; and the ground-tax in the cities and towns were aſſeſſed at 4 *per cent.* of the whole value the ground was rated at, if it was to be purchaſed. For example, a vintner, the ground of whoſe houſe was valued at 900 dollars, was obliged to pay 36 yearly for the ground tax; and the like proportion was obſerved toward others, in regard to their houſes and poſſeſſions. The moſt moderate aſſeſſment of their poll-tax is according to the following proportion: a citizen, worth 8, or 10,000 rixdollars, pays 4 rixdollars for himſelf, 4 for his wife, 2 for every child, and one for each ſervant, and for every horſe one rixdollar. An alehouſe-keeper pays one rixdollar for himſelf, another for his wife, 24 ſtivers for every child, and 16 for every ſervant. The fortification tax is uſually laid ſo high, that a merchant worth 6 or 8000 rixdollars, hath ſometimes paid 68 dollars; an ordinary citizen 8 or 10, and others in proportion.

In Norway, the revenue ariſes from the tenths, or tythes of timber, tar, fiſh, and oil, with the cuſtoms ariſing thereby; and there is ſomething ariſes from their mines. The exciſe, and other taxes laid on the inhabitants, are the ſame as in Denmark. The laſt, and moſt inconſiderable branch of the revenue, ariſes from the crown-lands and confiſcations; for notwithſtanding the King's demeſnes are daily increaſed by confiſcated eſtates, he is ſometimes the poorer for them; becauſe he no ſooner becomes poſſeſſed of them, but the labour ceaſing which was formerly applied to cultivate and improve them, the lands are frequently converted to foreſt, and ſerve for little but his Majeſty's diverſion; and if they happen to yield any thing, they are uſually conferred on ſome courtiers, who have the government of the King's houſes, or care of his demeſnes, boors, and tenants. Upon the whole, the revenues of the crown of Denmark are computed as follows: the toll of the Sound at 65,000 rixdollars; the conſumption, or exciſe, of Copenhagen, farmed at 140,000 rix-dollars; the ſmaller taxes of Denmark at 100,000 rixdollars; poll-tax, fortification-tax, ground rents, and land-tax, at 100,000 rixdollars. The whole revenue of Norway at 700,000 rix-dollars; the crown lands, and confiſcations, at 200,000 rixdollars; the revenue of Iceland, farmed at 27,000 rixdollars; Oldenburgh and Delmonhurſt 8000; and the toll upon the Weſer 5000 rixdollars: ſo that the whole revenue of Denmark amounts to 2,622 000 rix-dollars, or 589,950 l. ſterling *per annum.* But the poll-tax and fortification-tax are never raiſed the ſame year, upon which account, if 400,000 rix-dollars are deducted out of the ſum total, the whole revenue will then amount to 2,222,000 rix-dollars; or about 500,000 l. ſterling, which, in that part of the world, will go near as far as three times that ſum in England, conſidering the cheapneſs of proviſion and labour, in Denmark and Norway.

It is computed alſo, that there is not the hundredth part of ready caſh in Denmark, as there is in England. Very few have any caſh by them; for trading people, through whoſe hands it runs, being men of ſmall ſubſtance, and deeply in debt to their creditors in Holland and Hamburgh, they no ſooner receive any caſh but they pay it away again. The nation is alſo perpetually drained of its ſpecie by the officers of the army, who are generally foreigners, and if they lay up any thing, place it out in the banks of other countries; as many of their miniſters of ſtate do whatever they can ſcrape together. The over-balance of trade alſo carries off a great deal; for they conſume more foreign commodities than their product can countervail; all which would incline a man to believe, that they have but little running caſh, and great part of this is copper money, as it is in Sweden, where, if a perſon has an ordinary ſum to receive, he takes a wheel-barrow or two along with him to bring it home; and merchants who trade to Sweden and other northern countries have conſtantly a certain ſum ſet down in their accompts for wheel-barrows, which are uſed in tranſporting their caſh from place to place.

Denmark, at this day, ſeems to be much the weakeſt of the three northern powers. Ruſſia, which 30 years ago looked upon with contempt, by the conſtant war it hath maintained with the Swedes, hath ſo improved in military diſcipline, as to become a terror to all its northern neighbours; and that large extent of country, with the ports they have made themſelves maſters of in the Baltic, have let them into a conſiderable ſhare of trade with moſt of the nations in Europe; yet, notwithſtanding Denmark is in itſelf become a very inconſiderable kingdom, as there are ſo many powers whoſe intereſts are bound up with that of Denmark, who can never, with any good policy, ſee the Holſtein, and conſequently the Ruſſian arms, make any progreſs in Germany, the Dane ſeems to be as well ſupported as he can wiſh at preſent; eſpecially ſince he hath nothing to fear from Sweden, which is exceeding poor, having loſt great part of its beſt territories in the late war with Ruſſia, and in continual danger of being itſelf attacked by the ſame power. For, however, theſe powers may be ſeemingly reconciled, by the mediation of other princes for the preſent, they will probably one day ſet all Europe in a flame: the trade of the Baltick will again be interrupted, and want a fleet of men of war to protect it, which may be an expence equivalent to what Great Britain can propoſe to get by that commerce: how happy, therefore, would it be for Great Britain if naval ſtores might be had from its own plantations in America; and the kingdom had no reaſon to concern itſelf in the quarrels of the northern crowns? Honour may be procured by fitting out royal fleets, and viſiting annually every diſtant coaſt; but that the wealth or trade of the nation will be encreaſed by ſuch expeditions is not equally certain.

In caſes of ſhipwreck, the Daniſh ſubjects are required to give all imaginable aſſiſtance to thoſe in diſtreſs, and to preſerve the goods for the owner's uſe. The ſhips which guard the coaſts are directed to ſave what effects they can; for which they have a very moderate reward, and the owners are permitted to ſell them in the country, or embark them on other veſſels. If a ſhip, or goods, be driven on the coaſt, and no body appears to claim them, the King's officers, or the lord of the manor, as the caſe is, takes care to preſerve them; or, if they are periſhable goods, to ſell them to the beſt advantage, and to reſtore them to the owner; but, if they are not reclaimed within a year and a day, they become the property of the King, or the lord of the place. If the maſter of a ſhip finds goods floating on the ſea, he is to take care of the ſame, and deliver them to the next magiſtrate, who muſt keep them a year and a day, to ſee if any one can claim them; and if no body owns them, they belong to the King: but if any one conceals or embezzles ſuch wrecked goods, he is to be puniſhed as a felon; and the law is much the ſame where a perſon finds goods, or cattle, upon the road; for he is obliged to publiſh it in the court of the diſtrict, and can have no property in the goods till a year and a day be paſſed, where no body comes in to reclaim them. If any perſon is known to ſend his effects or money out of the kingdom, to be lodged in foreign banks, the King claims a fourth part of the whole, and the perſon is alſo obliged to pay a tenth to the magiſtrates of the town, or the lords of the ſoil, where he reſides: even foreign merchants have been obliged to ſubmit to theſe exactions on their returning home, notwithſtanding their reſpective ſovereigns have inſiſted upon an exemption; and when they have by importunity, or threats, been induced to make ſatisfaction in ſome particular caſes, they have nevertheleſs ſoon after proceeded to extort the like ſum from others.

There are a great number of iſlands on the coaſt of Norway, and others belonging to that kingdom at a diſtance from it; the moſt remarkable of which is *Iceland*, ſituated between 10 and 20 deg. of W. lon. and 63 and 67 deg. of N. lat. about 500 miles W. of the coaſt of Norway, and almoſt as many N. of Scotland, being about

300 miles long, and 150 broad. The native inhabitants are pagans; but the Danes have ſeveral colonies on the coaſt, where they trade with the natives for their wool, hides, tallow, butter, whale-oil, and bone, dried fiſh, ſea-horſe teeth, which are eſteemed equal to ivory, and the ſkins of ſeveral beaſts, as foxes, bears, and ſuch like. Whales, and other fiſh, are very plentiful on the coaſt, which gives an invitation to the Dutch to come and fiſh there; though the Danes claim the ſole dominion of theſe ſeas. The chief towns of the iſland are Skalholt, Hola, Beredit, and Hammer: but the Daniſh Viceroy reſides at the caſtle of Beſted, which ſtands at the S. W. part of the iſland.

The commodities imported to Iceland by the Danes, which they give in exchange to the natives, are tobacco, corn, beer, wine, brandy, iron, woollen cloth, and linen.

Before the Danes had eſtabliſhed a company for this commerce, the Hamburgers, and ſome other German merchants, imported great quantities of Noremberg toys, and hard-ware, which the Icelanders ſeemed very fond of; and during the whole time of the ſale continual troops of both ſexes might be ſeen, even before they left the ſhore, drinking the different liquors, either beer, brandy, or wine, which they took in exchange for their commodities, and of which the Germans made the beſt part of their cargo.

The *Faro*, or Ferro iſlands, lying between Iceland and Scotland, in 7 deg. of W. lon. and 64 of N. lat. are ſubject to Denmark, being ſituated 200 miles N. W. of the Orcades, and as many S. W. of Iceland: but are no ways conſiderable.

DANISH *Greenland*. Eaſt Greenland is ſituated between 10 and 30 deg. of E. lon. and 76 and 80 deg. of N. lat. claimed by Denmark, but uninhabited.

Weſt Greenland is ſituated between the meridian of London, and 50 deg. of W. lon. and between 60 and 75 deg. of N. lat. being 4 or 5 days ſail to the northward and weſtward of Iceland; inhabited by a ſavage people, among whom the Danes have lately ſent miſſionaries to convert them to Chriſtianity.

Both theſe countries, though productive on land of nothing beneficial to trade, are held in the greateſt eſtimation for the plenitude of whales reſorting thoſe frozen ſeas; and may poſſibly be upon the ſame continent: but as the extent from Cape Farewel, the S. W. part of it, in the latitude of 60 deg. 30 min. to the N. E part in the latitude of 80 and higher, is a prodigious tract of land, if contiguous, they may very well be looked upon as diſtinct countries.

The maps, and moſt of the geographers, called the weſtern ſide Groenland, and the Eaſt ſide Greenland; but it is certain the Weſt, which was firſt diſcovered, went by the name of Greenland long before the other was known; and, probably, the latter was ſo denominated, as imagining it to be the continent with Weſt Greenland: but the Dutch called the E. part of it Spitſbergen, from the craggy rocks and mountains appearing on the coaſt.

The King of Denmark looked upon this N. E. country, on the firſt diſcovery, to be part of old Greenland; of which he pretends to the ſovereignty, and accordingly claimed the dominion of thoſe ſeas, endeavouring to exclude the Engliſh from the whale-fiſhery there. See *Greenland*.

Knives, ſcizars, needles, looking-glaſſes, and ſome inſtruments of iron or ſteel, are what the inhabitants of Greenland eſteem moſt; and for which they readily give, in exchange, blubber, train-oil, ſea dogs and calves ſkins, and the teeth of a fiſh called *towak*, in higher repute than ivory for whiteneſs.

When the inhabitants trade with Europeans, who frequently viſit them upon account of the whale-fiſhery, they make a lump of the commodities they have to barter, and another of thoſe brought them; and by augmenting or diminiſhing either lump, 'till both parties ſeem content, they thus, by mutual ſigns and tokens, put an end to their exchange and bargain: the fiſhermen who cut up their fiſh, and melt their blubber on land, being the occaſion of keeping up this kind of little traffic. See Whale-*Fiſhery*, and *North*-weſt paſſage.

DANISH *America*, conſiſts of the iſland of St. Thomas, ſituated in the North ſea, 15 leagues from Porto-rico, which is the only colony the Danes have in the Weſt Indies.

The productions of this iſland are inſignificant; and altho' ſome ſugar and indigo are manufactured there, yet the inhabitants could not well ſubſiſt without carrying on a good trade with the Spaniards, conſiſting chiefly in negroes, which the Danes tranſport there from their eſtabliſhments on the coaſts of Africa; the Spaniards coming from Porto-rico to receive them, giving in exchange the richeſt goods of their iſland, which is what principally induces the Danes to hold it; for otherwiſe it would be more burdenſome than advantageous.

DANISH *companies of trade*. See *Eaſt* India Company, and *North* company. For Daniſh coins, money, weights, and meaſures. See *Coin*, *Money*, *Weight*, and *Meaſure*.

DENTALIS *Lapis*, *Dentalium*, or the dog-like tooth, is a kind of ſhell, which the apothecaries pulveriſe, and uſe in ſeveral medicaments, as an excellent alkali. The genuine dentalis, deſcribed by M. Tournefort, is of a tubular or conical form, about three inches long, of a ſhining, greeniſh-white colour, hollow, light, and divided lengthways by parallel lines, running from top to bottom; being about the thickneſs of a feather, and bearing ſome reſemblance to a dog's-tooth. It is very ſcarce; and therefore, in lieu of it, they uſually ſubſtitute a ſhell of ſeveral colours, found among the ſand when the ſea is withdrawn; but not channelled or fluted like the dentalis. Doctor Liſter, in the philoſophical tranſactions, makes mention of two ſpecies of dentalia; the firſt commonly enough found about the iſland of Guernſey, being a long, ſlender, round pipe, a little bending and tapering, and hollow at both ends: the other, properly called *entalium*, longer and thicker than the former; and beſides, ſtreaked with ridges, which occaſions the Italian term *intaglia*.

DENTRIFICE. A medicine, or powder, proper to ſcour, cleanſe, and beautify the teeth.

DENUNCIATION, in a maritime ſenſe, ſignifies a ſolemn promulgation of any thing; particularly a proclamation of war, after which all veſſels taken from the enemy are lawful prize.

DEPART. A method of refining, or ſeparating gold from ſilver, by means of aqua fortis, which is the moſt uſual way; though gold is alſo refined by antimony, and ſublimate. See *Gold*, and *Refining*.

DEPARTURE, in navigation, is the eaſting, or weſting, of a ſhip, with reſpect to the meridian it departed, or ſailed from: or, it is the difference of longitude, either eaſt or weſt, between the preſent meridian the ſhip is under, and that where the laſt reckoning or obſervation was made. This departure any where, but under the equator, muſt be accounted according to the number of miles in a degree proper to the parallel the ſhip is under.

DEPHLEGMATE, to purge, or clarify, any diſtilled liquor from phlegm, or water.

DEPILATORY, in phyſic, are ſuch medicines as cauſe the hair to fall of.

DEPOSIT. A thing committed to the charge of a perſon for the uſe of another, as a ſecurity for the performance of ſome contract: thus, when ſales of goods are made by auction, the purchaſer pays in, or depoſites, ſo much *per cent.* for what he buys.

DEPRECIATE, in trade, is to undervalue, or beat down the price of a commodity.

DEPREDATION, is a robbing, ſpoiling, or plundering of ſhips at ſea; particularly applied to the Barbary corſairs, and the Spaniſh guarda coſtas in America.

DEPRESSION *of the viſible horizon*, denotes its ſinking or dipping below the true horizontal plane, whether cauſed by ſome variation in the atmoſphere, or by the different height of the obſerver's eye above the ſurface of the ſea. The eye being one foot above the ſurface of the ſea, the viſible horizon, or edge of the ſea, will be thereby depreſſed one minute; at the height of 3 feet the dip will be 2 minutes; at 7 feet 3 minutes; at 12 feet 4 minutes; at 18 feet 5 minutes; and at 27 feet 6 minutes.

DEPRESSION *of the pole*. So many degrees as mariners ſail, or travel, from the pole to the equator; ſo many they are

ſaid to depreſs the pole; becauſe it becomes, reſpectively, ſo much lower, or nearer to the horizon.

DEPTFORD. A town in Kent, ſituated on the river Thames, 3 miles E. of London, conſiderable on account of its fine docks for building of ſhips, and the King's yard there.

DEPUTATION, the authoriſing or empowering one or more perſons to do certain acts for, and in behalf of another, as his deputy or deputies.

DEPUTATION, is alſo the inſtrument, writing, commiſſion, or warrant, which is given to the cuſtom-houſe or exciſe officers, by virtue of which they make ſeizures, and act in their ſeveral places.

DERHEM. A ſmall Perſian weight, being about the 50th part of a pound avoirdupoiſe, and eſteemed by the Perſians as their drachm.

DERIBANDS. White cotton cloths brought from the Eaſt Indies, which are either narrow or broad; but more of the firſt than ſecond ſort: the length of it being 9 ells, and breadth $\frac{5}{8}$.

DERLINQUI. A ſilver coin ſtruck at Venice, and impreſſed on one ſide with a Chriſt upholding by his hand a globe, and on the reverſe a St. Mark, worth about 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. ſterling.

DERWENT. A river which riſes in the N. riding of Yorkſhire, and running S. falls into the Ouſe.

DERWENTWATER. A river which runs thro' Cumberland, from the S. E. to the N. W. and, forming ſeveral lakes in its paſſage, falls into the Iriſh ſea, below Cockermouth.

DESEADA, or *Deſiderada*, one of the Caribbee iſlands in the Atlantic ocean in America, ſituated in 61 deg. of W. lon. and 16 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. to the E. of Guadalupe, and ſubject to France.

DESEADA *Cape*, or *Cape Deſire*, the moſt weſterly cape of the ſtreights of Magellan, in America, at the entrance of the South Sea; ſituated in 84 deg. of W. lon. and 53 deg. 30 min. of S. lat.

DESERT. A large uninhabited country; alſo ſuch fruits and ſweet-meats as are ſerved up at the concluſion of a feaſt.

DESERT, among ſeamen, is to run away from their ſhip, whereby they loſe all their wages.

DESIGN, in the manufactories, expreſſes the figures wherewith the workman enriches his ſtuff, or ſilk; and which he copies after ſome painter, or draughtſman. See *Tapeſtry*, and *Weaving*.

DESIGN, in navigation, is the drawing or planning of any particular country, coaſt, haven, or place.

DESK. A conveniency for merchants and traders to write on, or put papers in.

DETINUE. A writ which lies againſt a man, who having goods or chattels delivered to keep, refuſes to re-deliver them; whereby the action is brought to recover the thing detained, not the damages ſuſtained by the detinue.

DEVA. A port-town of Spain, in the province of Biſcay, ſituated on the bay of Biſcay, in 2 deg. 10 min. of W. lon. and 43 deg. of N. lat. See *Spain*.

DEVASTAVERUNT, or *Deviaſtavit*, *bona teſtatoris*, a writ lying againſt executors, and adminiſtrators, for paying legacies and debts on ſimple contract, before debts on bonds and ſpecialties; in which caſe, the executors are as liable to actions as if they had notoriouſly waſted the goods of the teſtator, or converted them to their own uſe, and are compellable to pay ſuch debts by ſpecialty out of their own effects.

DEY. The title of the ſovereign prince of the ſtate of Algiers; and the governors of the ſeveral provinces under him are called beys. See *Bey*, and *Barbary*.

DIACODIUM, is a term given to the juice expreſſed from the heads of white and black poppies.

DIAGLYPHICE. The art of engraving, cutting, or otherwiſe working hollow, or concave figures, in metals, ſuch as ſeals, intaglia's, and the matrices or coins for medals.

DIAGRYDIUM, in pharmacy, is ſcammony, prepared or corrected for medicinal uſe. See *Scammony*.

DIAMOND, in natural hiſtory, by the ancients called *Adamant*, is a precious ſtone, the firſt in rank, value, hardneſs, and luſtre, of all gems: the goodneſs of diamonds conſiſting in their water, or colour, luſtre, and weight; the moſt perfect colour being the white: and their defects are veins, flaws, ſpecks of red or black ſand, and a bluiſh or yellowiſh caſt. In Europe the lapidaries examine the goodneſs of their rough diamonds, their water, and points, by day-light. In the Eaſt Indies they do it by night; in order to which, a hole is made in a wall a foot ſquare, and therein a lamp placed, with a thick wick, by the light whereof they judge of the ſtone, holding it in their fingers.

The water called *cæleſtis* is the worſt of all, and yet is ſomewhat difficult to diſcover in a rough diamond: but the only infallible way is to examine it in the ſhade of ſome tufted tree. As to the diſtinguiſhing of diamonds from other ſtones, Dr. Wall, in the philoſophical tranſactions, ſeems to have found an infallible method: a diamond, with an eaſy ſlight friction, in the dark, with any ſoft animal ſubſtance, as the finger, woollen, ſilk, or the like, appears luminous in its whole body: nay, if kept rubbing, and then expoſed to the eye, it will remain ſo for ſome time. If the ſun be 18 deg. below the horizon, holding up a piece of bays, or flannel ſtretched tight between both hands, at ſome diſtance from the eye, and another rubbing the other ſide of the bays, or flannel, pretty briſkly with a diamond, the light is much more vivid and pleaſant than any other way. But what Dr. Wall judges moſt ſurpriſing is, that a diamond being expoſed to the open air, in view of the ſky, gives almoſt the ſame light of itſelf without rubbing, as if rubbed in a dark room: but if, in the open air, the hand, or any thing is put over it, to prevent its immediate communication with the ſky, it gives no light, which is a diſtinguiſhing criterion of a diamond.

Rough DIAMOND, is that not yet cut, but juſt as it comes out of the mine.

Brilliant DIAMOND, is that cut in faces both a-top and bottom; and whoſe table, or principal face a-top, is flat.

Roſe DIAMOND, is that quite flat underneath, but its upper part cut in ſeveral little faces, uſually triangles, the uppermoſt whereof terminate in a point.

Table DIAMOND, is that which has a large ſquare face a-top, encompaſſed with four leſſer.

Diamonds are only found in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies; in the former in the kingdoms of Golconda, Viſapour, Bengal, and the iſland of Borneo; in the latter, in Brazil. In the Eaſt Indies there are four mines, or rather two mines, and two rivers whence diamonds are drawn. The mines are, 1ſt, that of Raolconda, in the province of Carnatica, five days journey from Golconda, and eight from Viſapour, which has been diſcovered about 200 years. 2d, That of Gani, or Coulour, ſeven days journey from Golconda, eaſtwardly, which was diſcovered 120 years ago by a peaſant, who, digging in the ground, found a natural fragment of 25 caracts. 3d, That of Soumelpour, a large town in the kingdom of Bengal, near the diamond-mine; which is the moſt ancient of them all, and ſhould rather be called that of Goual, being the name of the river, in the ſand whereof theſe ſtones are found. Laſtly, the fourth mine, or rather the river, is that of Succudan, in the iſland of Borneo.

DIAMOND *mine of Raolconda*. In the neighbourhood of this mine the earth is ſandy and full of rocks, and copſe. In theſe rocks are found ſeveral little veins, of half, and ſometimes a whole inch broad, out of which the miners, with a kind of hooked irons, draw the ſand, or earth, wherein the diamonds are, breaking the rocks when the vein terminates, that the track may be found again, and continued. When a ſufficient quantity of earth, or ſand, is drawn forth, they waſh it two or three times, to ſeparate the ſtones therefrom: the miners working quite naked, except for a thin woollen cloth before them; and, beſides this precaution, have likewiſe inſpectors to prevent the concealing of ſtones; which, notwithſtanding all the care, they frequently find means to do, by watching opportunities when they are not obſerved, and ſwallowing them down.

DIAMOND *mine of Gani, or Coulour*. In this mine are found a great number of ſtones from 10 to 40 caracts, and even

more. It was here that famous diamond of Aureng-Zeb, the great Mogul, was found, which, before it was cut, weighed 793 carats. The ſtones of this mine are not very clear, their water is uſually tinged with the quality of the ſoil, being black where that is marſhy, red where it partakes of red, ſometimes green and yellow, where the ground happens to be of thoſe colours. Another defect of ſome conſequence is a kind of greaſineſs appearing on the diamond when cut, which takes off part of its luſtre. There are uſually no leſs than 60000 perſons, men, women, and children, at work in this mine; who, on finding a place where they intend to dig, level another ſomewhat bigger in the neighbourhood thereof, and incloſe it with walls about two feet high, only leaving apertures, from ſpace to ſpace, to give paſſage to the water. After a few ſuperſtitious ceremonies, and a kind of feaſt, which the maſter of the mine makes for the workmen, to encourage them, every one goes to his buſineſs; the men digging the earth in the place firſt diſcovered, and the women and children carrying it off to the other walled round. They dig 12 or 14 feet deep, and till ſuch time as they find water, when they ceaſe digging; and the water, thus found, ſerves to waſh the earth two or three times; after which it is let out at an aperture reſerved for that end. This earth being well waſhed and well dried, they ſift it in a kind of open ſieve, or riddle, much in the ſame manner as corn is ſifted in Europe, then threſh it, and ſift it a-freſh, and laſtly ſearch it well with the hands, to find the diamonds. They work naked here as in the mines of Raolconda, and are alſo watched by inſpectors.

DIAMOND *mine of Soumelpour*, or river *Goual*. Soumelpour is a large town built all of earth, and covered with branches of cocoa-trees: the river runs by the foot thereof, in its paſſing from the high mountains towards the ſouth to the Ganges, where it loſes its name; and the fine diamond points, or ſparks, called natural ſparks, are brought from the Goual. They never begin to ſeek for diamonds in this river till after the great rains are over, that is after the month of December; and they uſually even wait till the water is grown clear, which is not before January. When the ſeaſon approaches, eight or ten thouſand perſons, of all ages and ſexes, come out of Soumelpour, and the adjacent villages: the moſt experienced among them ſearch and examine the ſand of the river, going up it from Soumelpour to the very mountains whence it ſprings: and a great ſign there are diamonds in it, is, the finding thoſe ſtones which Europeans call thunder-ſtones. When all the ſand of the river, which at that time is very low, has been well examined, they proceed to take up that wherein they judge diamonds are moſt likely to be found; which is done after the following manner: they dam the place round with ſtones, earth, and faſcines; and, lading out the water, dig about two feet deep: the ſand thus got is carried into a place walled round on the bank of the river: the reſt is performed after the ſame manner as at Coulour, and the workmen are watched with equal ſtrictneſs.

DIAMOND *mine in the iſland of Borneo*, or river of *Succudan*. Europeans are but little acquainted with this mine, the prince who reigns in that part of the iſland not allowing ſtrangers to have any commerce in theſe ſtones; though there are fine ones to be bought at Batavia, brought thither by ſtealth, which were anciently imagined to be ſofter than thoſe of the other mines; but experience ſhews they are in no reſpect inferior to them.

Beſides theſe four diamond mines, there have been two others diſcovered; one of them between Coulour and Raolconda, and the other in the province of Carnatica; but they were both cloſed up almoſt as ſoon as diſcovered: that of Carnatica, by reaſon the water of the diamonds was always either black or yellow; and the other on account of their cracking, and flying in pieces, when cut and ground. See *India*.

The diamond mines of Brazil belong to the King of Portugal; it being about the year 1710 that ſome precious ſtones were brought to the city of Sebaſtian, the capital of the Brazils, taken out of a ſmall river lying weſtward of that city, which were judged to be fine pebbles at firſt; ſome of them being very large, but moſt of them of a black or yelloviſh caſt, which highly prejudiced their ſplendour, and depreciated their value: however, many of the yellow ſtones were brought to Liſbon and ſold for topazes.

The King of Portugal finding that the Brazilian planters had employed their ſlaves in getting larger quantities of theſe ſuppoſed pepples by digging for them, his Majeſty prohibited the working of the mines; though, notwithſtanding the prohibition, they were brought in conſiderable quantities to Europe: it being ſometimes reported they were found in other rivers, and not dug from any mine: at other times they received new names, and being ſent to St. Salvador, were from thence exported to Europe, under a notion of their coming by the Goa fleet from the Eaſt Indies; which involuntary fraud augmented their value; ſo that the crown of Portugal became convinced that they had been deceived in taking theſe ſtones for pebbles, and that ſome of theſe Brazil diamonds were ſcarce to to be diſtinguiſhed from thoſe of the Eaſt Indies: whereupon the court altered their meaſures, and it was permitted by the royal authority to ſend over rough diamonds in the Rio Janeiro fleet, under certain reſtrictions; which permiſſion rendering the value of their jewels ſtill more and more apparent, the King of Portugal reſolved to put this trade under a new regulation, which commenced in the year 1740, when his majeſty lett theſe mines to a company at Rio Janeiro, for the annual rent of 138,000 cruſades, or 18,687 l. 10 s. ſterling, upon condition that the company employed no more than 600 ſlaves at theſe mines.

The introduction of the Brazilian diamonds into Europe, has conſiderably diminiſhed the price of theſe ſtones; and they have been brought in ſuch great quantities, that his Portugueſe Majeſty has lately publiſhed a ſevere edict for the prevention of any frauds in this trade; of which the following are ſome of the articles.

Article 2. I eſtabliſh alſo a ſtanding law, that this prohibition, and the penalties hereby ordained, be put in force, without any difference, not only againſt the principal tranſgreſſors, ſuch as buyers, ſellers, bearers or remitters, but alſo againſt all, and whatever other perſons who may concur with them in it, whether by land or ſea, either by being brokers, contrivers or abettors of the perſons concerned in ſuch ſmuggling, or by ſuffering it to be put in their houſes, carriages, ſhipping or lading, &c.

Article 3. That this law may be the more effectually obſerved, it is my pleaſure to ordain, that the informations be taken in private, according to the ſtile practiſed in the office of the fiſcal for the abſent: and that if the informers be ſlaves, a competent part of the reward due to them for informing, ſhall be applied to the purchaſe of their freedom, and the remainder ſhall be given to themſelves, to employ as they ſhall think fit.

Article 4. With this proviſo always, that in all the abovementioned caſes, if the tranſgreſſors of the preſent law be foreigners, the puniſhment of baniſhment to my dominions of America, or Africa, ſhall not take place againſt them; but rather, inſtead of the ſaid penalty, they ſhall be puniſhed with impriſonment during my pleaſure, and with the confiſcation of all the effects they ſhall be found poſſeſſed of within my dominions, to be finally driven out of them, without ever being admitted into them again. And in caſe they be not poſſeſſed of effects equivalent to the value of what has been ſmuggled, and of double thereof, as above ordained, then they ſhall remain in priſon till the ſaid pecuniary penalty be effectually diſcharged, by the full payment of the perſons therein intereſted.

Article 5. The pecuniary condemnations which I have here eſtabliſhed, together with the effects of tranſgreſſors, ſhall paſs to their heirs and ſucceſſors, to be charged on the ſaid effects as a royal debt, provided the tranſgreſſor be detected, and the penalty be ſued for at any time within the ſpace of twenty years, computed from the time in which the ſame was committed.

But a worthy merchant, who honours me with his friendſhip, has publickly delivered it as his opinion to the world, in his excellent letters on the Portugal trade, "That this diamond law can never be carried into execution; as hardly

any made by the preſent King of Portugal have been, from, the abſurd, rigorous and impracticable exactions that are in them: although, he ſays, the law was manifeſtly calculated to make good a contract which has drawn ſevere reflections, on many accounts, from people of all nations; and the Portugueſe were particularly diguſted at it, as a thing greatly prejudicial to their kingdom." Yet this gentleman obſerves, that this rigorous edict is enacted by, and tranſacted under ſo mild and gracious a King, that he is ſaid never to have ſhewn anger in his life. See *Portugal.*

The diamond, as already obſerved, is the hardeſt of all precious ſtones; being only to be cut and ground by itſelf, and its own ſubſtance. To bring it to that perfection which augments its price ſo conſiderably, they begin by rubbing ſeveral againſt each other while rough; after having firſt glued them to the ends of two wooden blocks, thick enough to be held in the hand; which powder, thus rubbed off the ſtones, and received in a little box for the purpoſe, ſerves to grind and poliſh the ſtones.

Diamonds are cut and poliſhed by means of a mill, which turns a wheel of ſoft iron ſprinkled over with their own duſt, mixed with oil of olives. The ſame duſt, well ground, and diluted with water and vinegar, is uſed in the ſawing of diamonds; which is performed with an iron or braſs wire, as fine as a hair. Sometimes, inſtead of ſawing the diamonds, they cleave them, eſpecially if there are any large ſhivers therein; but the Europeans are not uſually daring, or expert enough, to run the riſque of cleaving, for fear of breaking.

A rough diamond muſt be choſen uniform, of a good ſhape, tranſparent, not quite white, and free of flaws and ſhivers. Black, rugged, dirty, flawey, veiny ſtones, and all ſuch as are not fit for cutting, are uſed to pound in a ſteel mortar, made for that purpoſe; and, when pulveriſed, they ſerve to ſaw, cut, and poliſh the reſt.

Shivers are occaſioned in diamonds by this means; the miners, more eaſily to get them out of the vein, which winds between two rocks, break the rocks with huge iron leavers, which ſhakes, and fills the ſtone with cracks and ſhivers.

The antients had two miſtaken notions with regard to the diamond; the firſt, that it became ſoft, by ſteeping it in hot goats-blood; and the ſecond, that it is malleable, and bears the fire. Experience ſhews us the contrary; there being nothing capable of mollifying the hardneſs of this ſtone; though its hardneſs is not ſuch, that it will endure being ſtruck at pleaſure with the hammer.

The fineſt diamonds now in the world, are that of the Great Mogul, weighing 279 caracts; that of the Great Duke of Tuſcany, weighing 139 caracts; and that known in France under the name of grand ſancy, which is one of the crown jewels, weighing 106 caracts, whence its name ſancy, which is a corruption of cent. ſix, that is, 106; to which may be added the famous diamond ſold by Mr. Pits to the regent of France, for the preſent King, which weighed 547 grains compleat, and coſt 2,500,000 livres; or about 105,000 l. ſterling.

Tavernier, by a rule which he had made for eſtimating the value of diamonds, computes that of the Great Mogul at 11,723,278 French livres, equivalent to 779 244 l. ſterling, and that of the Duke of Tuſcany at 2,608,335 livres, or 195,374 l. ſterling; but this calculation is greatly above the preſent value of the French money.

The following is a rate, or manner of eſtimating the value of diamonds, drawn up by a perſon well verſed in ſuch matters; and which for its curioſity, as well as the uſe it may be of to perſons who deal in precious ſtones, may not be unacceptable.

Table of diamonds.

Dutch cut.

A diamond weighing	l.	s.		l.	s.
1 grain, is worth from	1	0	to	1	1
1½	1	16	to	1	17
2	2	15	to	3	0
2½	3	12	to	3	15
3	4	15	to	5	0
4	7	17	to	8	0

Dutch cut.

A diamond weighing	l.	s.		l.	s.
5 grains, is worth from	15	0	to	15	15
6	22	0	to	25	0
7	30	0	to	34	0
8	42	0	to	45	0
9	60	0			
10	75	0			
12	112	0	to	120	0
15	187	0	to	220	0
19	330	0	to	380	0
24	450	0			
30	700	0	to	735	0
40	1500	0	to	1800	0
50	3500	0	to	4500	0
60	4500	0	to	5620	0

Antwerp cut.

A diamond weighing	l.	s.		l.	s.
1 grain, is worth from	0	15	to	0	18
1½	1	6	to	1	10
2	2	2	to	2	5
3	3	12	to	3	15
4	6	0	to	6	7
5	10	10	to	11	5
6	13	10	to	15	0
7	18	15	to	20	10
8	24	0	to	26	0
9	33	15			
10	37	0	to	40	0
12	55	0	to	58	0
15	112	0	to	130	0
18	247	0			
24	315	0			
40	900	0	to	970	0
50	2200	0	to	2300	0
60	3500	0	to	4500	0

But this calculation is conſiderably more than that publiſhed by Monſieur Savary, who makes a diamond of the Dutch cut, weighing 1 grain, worth about 7 s. and a diamond of the Antwerp cut, weighing 1 grain, to be worth about 9 s. ſterling, and the reſt, as mentioned in the foregoing table, in proportion.

It muſt be obſerved, however, that defects in the water, or ſhape, red or black ſpots, ſhivers, and other failings, frequently found in the ſtones, reduce the price by one third, and ſometimes more.

As to *brilliant* DIAMONDS of very ſmall cut, the price is always leſs by one third, than that of diamonds of a larger cut, tho' the weights are the ſame, by reaſon the latter ſhew themſelves a great deal more, when ſet in their collets, than the former.

Diamonds, and other precious ſtones, may be imported to, and exported from Great Britain, in any ſhip or veſſel, without warrant or fee.

Attempts have been made to produce artificial diamonds, but with no great ſucceſs; for the factitious diamonds made in France, called temple-diamonds, on account of the temple at Paris, where the beſt of them are made, fall vaſtly ſhort of the genuine ones; accordingly they are but little valued, tho' the conſumption of them is pretty conſiderable for the habits of the actors on the ſtage.

Baffa DIAMONDS are ſo called from Baffa, a little town of the iſland of Cyprus; whoſe neighbouring mountains produce a kind of beautiful ſtone, which may eaſily pass for diamonds, among thoſe who are not judges of the real ſtone.

The diamonds of Alençon are alſo another kind of ſpurious diamonds; being ſtones, or cryſtals, found near Alençon, a town of Normandy in France; where the ſoil abounds with a ſhining ſand, and hard and gritty rocks; ſome of theſe diamonds being ſo clean and brilliant, that perſons have been often deceived in them.

Certain hard and tranſparent pebbles are likewiſe met with on the coaſts of Medoc; which, being cut properly, diſtinguiſh themſelves among falſe diamonds, by proving exceeding hard, and brilliant.

DIAMOND-*glaſs.* See *Glaſs.*

DIAMOND-*weights*. See *Weight*, and *Carat*.

DIAMOND, is alſo an inſtrument of conſiderable uſe in the glaſs-manufactory, for ſquaring the large plate or pieces; and among glaziers, forcutting their glaſs; but theſe diamonds are differently fitted up, being only little ſparks: that uſed for looking-glaſſes, and other large pieces, is ſet in an iron ferril two inches long, and a quarter of an inch diameter: the reſt of the cavity of the ferril, is filled with melted lead, which keeps the diamond firm in its place. The glaziers have a handle of box, or ebony, fitted into the ferril to hold it by: but, in the former, there is a little piece of box croſſing the ferril, in form of a little plane, covered at bottom with a thin copper-plate.

DIAMOND-*cutter*, is a perſon whoſe buſineſs conſiſts in cutting diamonds into what figure the jeweller pleaſes; which is done by the help of an engine, and diamond-powder. The mechanic part of cutting requires little art, as it depends on the engine: but his ſkill lies in determining the manner of cutting the diamond, ſo as to conceal what flaws it may have, giving it the full luſtre, and cutting it in ſuch manner as it may make the greateſt ſhow.

DIAPER, is a kind of linen wrought much after the manner of faſhioned ſtuffs, with a variety of deſigns, ſome of flax, others of hemp; having different names according to the places of their manufactures, or the different deſigns appearing on them; whoſe invention is attributed to the Venetians.

The places where they are chiefly manufactured, are in Germany, and Ruſſia, the French and Auſtrian Netherlands, Picardy, Normandy, Beaujolois, and Bayonne, in France; as alſo in the United Provinces, and in Venice, with ſome other parts of Italy.

Of late years, the Iriſh have applied themſelves to this manufacture with ſome ſucceſs, in imitation particularly of a colony of Palatines ſettled in a town called Dunleckney, in the county of Carlow, by Mr. Bagwell.

Damaſk and diaper napkening and towelling of Ruſſia, if above half an Engliſh ell in breadth, is to pay duty *ad valorem*, on importation.

Damaſk and diaper of Sileſia and Holland, are uſually imported in pieces; the napkening ſufficient to make 6 half dozens of napkins, and the tabling ſufficient to make ſix table-cloths, though they are ſometimes imported in ſingle table-cloths; the piece of tabling is about 11 or 12 yards long, and about an ell wide. The piece of towelling and napkening is from 37 to 39 yards long, and under an ell wide. The piece of clouting, if half yard wide, is about 14 yards, and, if yard wide, about 7 yards long. See *Linen*.

DIARY. A journal, or day-book, wherein the occurrences, or tranſactions of every day, are ſet down or recorded.

DICE. See *Die*.

DICKER. A mechanic term, uſed by the tanners to expreſs a parcel or quantity of hides packed up together, containing ten in number.

DICTAMNUM, or *Dittany*. A medicinal plant, commonly called pepper-port, much valued among the antients; being eſteemed a ſpecific for wounds of arrows, which it drew out with wonderful eaſe, and, according to them, only grew in the iſland of Crete, now Candia. The modern dictamnus, called alſo white dittany, or fraxinella, from its leaves, which reſemble thoſe of the aſh, called by the Latins fraxinus, is ſcarce in leſs eſteem than that of the antients. Its root, wherein all its virtue is lodged, is about the thickneſs of a finger, and is frequently divided into a number of little branches: its colour is white, its taſte bitter, and its ſmell ſtrong, ſomewhat like the ſcent of a he-goat; being reputed excellent againſt the bitings of venemous beaſts, worms engendered in the human body, and the like. It muſt be choſen white, both inſide and outſide, not fibrous, and well cleaned. There are ſeveral other kinds of dittany, but of leſs value; as the baſtard dittany, and the wild dittany.

DIE. A cubical piece of ivory, on the ſix faces of which the ſix firſt digits are marked in dots; a pair of which are called dice; being uſed in ſeveral games of diverſion: but, by the ſtatute of Queen Anne, dice are prohibited to be imported into Great Britain.

DIE, in coining, is a ſteel inſtrument upon which the head, arms, or other device of the prince, or ſtate, is engraved, in order to ſtamp it on the metal prepared, and cut into ſmall round pieces, on purpoſe to receive it; by which it is known and diſtinguiſhed from all others, to be the current coin, or allowed money of any nation.

DIEPPE. A port-town of France, ſituated on the Britiſh channel, in 1 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 49 deg 55 min. of N. lat. 30 miles north of Rouen, oppoſite to the port of Rye in England; being a ſtation for French privateers, which occaſioned its being bombarded by the Engliſh in the reign of Queen Anne; but the harbour will not admit of ſhips of burden.

DIER. See *Dyer*.

DIGIT. A meaſure, containing 3-4ths of an inch; alſo a term applied to any of the numerical figures under ten.

DIMITY, or *Dimitty*. Ak ind of cotton cloth, or fuſtian, wove full of ridges, like cords, manufactured in the Eaſt Indies, and alſo in ſeveral European countries, but chiefly in ſome of the iſlands of the Turkiſh archipelago, the piece containing about 12 yards.

DINAR. A Perſian term, ſometimes ſignifying all the ſorts of gold ſpecie; and ſometimes a ſmall money of accompt, 6 of which are worth about a farthing ſtering.

DINAR-*cheray*, in Perſia, is the weight, or value, of the crown, or ducat of gold.

DING, is a term generally applied by the Siameſe to all kinds of weights and coins; which is to be underſtood of thoſe of ſilver, gold not being current as a coin, but bought and ſold as a merchandiſe, at twelve times the value of ſilver.

DINGLE. A port-town of Ireland, in the county of Kerry, aud province of Munſter, ſituated on Dingle bay, in 10 deg. 18 min. of W. lon. and 52 deg. of N. lat. See *Ireland*.

DIP-*ſea-line*. See *Deep*-ſea-line.

DIPPING-*needle*, or *Inclinatory needle*. See *Needle*.

DIPPINGS. A ſort of tanned hides. See *Hide*.

DIRECTION *of the load-ſtone*. That property whereby the magnet, or a needle touched by it, always preſents one of its ends towards one of the poles of the world, and the oppoſite end to the other pole: but the attractive property of the magnet was known long before its directive, aud the directive long before the inclinatory. See *Compaſs*, *Magnet*, *Needle*, and *Pole*.

DIRECTION. The government or conduct of a thing: thus, a director of any public company is ſaid to be in the direction of that company.

DIRECTION-*chamber*, is a court inſtituted in Spain, for the regulation of the commerce to the Weſt Indies; the commiſſioners of which appoint the ſhips to compoſe the armadas and flotas, inſpect all contracts, regulate the freight, and adjuſt all differences between the mariners and maſters of ſhips.

DIRECTOR. A perſon who has the regulation, power, or command of an affair committed to him.

DIRECTORS *of commercial companies*, are uſully conſiderable perſons, choſen by a plurality of voices, among the actioniſts, or proprietors of ſtock, who have a certain number of actions or ſhares, in the funds of a company, having the greateſt probity, reputation, and experience in the trade which the company undertakes. The directors of the Engliſh Eaſt India company are 24, of the bank 26, and of the South-ſea 31, including the governors. The directors of the Dutch Eaſt India company are 60, and of the French India company 21. See *Company*.

DIRHEM. A Perſian term, ſignifying ſilver; yet never ſaid of ſilver conſidered as metal, but of ſilver reduced into current ſpecie, whereof are the chaye, the mamoudi, and the abaſſi,

DISBURSE, is for a perſon to expend, or lay out money, for himſelf, or for the uſe of another.

DISBURSEMENT. The ſpending, or laying out money; alſo the charges, or expence of a thing.

DISCHARGE. To diſmiſs, or put a perſon out of his poſt, place, or office; particularly applied to workmen

when paid off, and diſmiſſed from their employment: it alſo ſignifies to pay a debt, or clear an accompt.

DISCHARGE, is likewiſe a receipt, or acquittance, for money.

DISCOUNT, in commerce, a ſum deducted, or retained in hand, upon paying a greater; particularly uſed for an allowance made on a bill of exchange, note, or any other debt, not become due, to induce the acceptor, debtor, or other perſon, to advance the money. See *Exchange*.

DISCOUNT is alſo uſed among merchants, when they buy commiſſions in truſt, with a condition, that the ſeller ſhall diſcount ſo much *per cent.* with the buyer, for each payment made before the expiration of the limited time. See Prompt *Payment*.

The Sieur de la Porte diſtinguiſhes between theſe two kinds of diſcount. The firſt, or that upon bills of exchange, is reckoned like the exchange, at the rate of ſo much *per cent.* whereby the diſcount at 2 *per cent.* on 100 l. reduces the payment to 98 l.: whereas that on commodities is not only laid on the hundred pounds, but on the hundred and diſcount added together: ſo that diſcounting for goods at 10 *per cent.* there is only 8 abated in 108, and not on the hundred, which, he ſays, is the true diſcount.

DISCOUNTS are alſo frequently given for the payment of dubious or bad debts; being likewiſe a term much uſed among mechanics, and manufacturers, who keep workmen, journeymen, and labourers, for the ſums advanced them before hand, which are diſcounted when the payments are made in courſe.

DISCOUNT is alſo uſed, with leſs propriety, for the tare or waſte of any ſum or commodity; when a merchant ſays of a leaky veſſel, there are ſo many gallons diſcount as have leaked; and a tradeſman ſays there are ſo many ſhillings diſcount in a bag exhauſted by changing of money.

DISCREDIT. To ſpeak ill, or give a bad character of a perſon, or goods, ſo as to leſſen their credit or eſteem in trade.

DISEMBARK. To go from on board a ſhip.

DISEMBOGUE, is generally applied to a river, when emptying itſelf into the ſea; and when a ſhip paſſes out of the mouth of ſome great gulph, or bay, the ſailors call it diſemboguing.

DISENFRANCHIZE, or *Diſfranchiſe*, to take away from a perſon his freedom, or deprive him of the privileges of a citizen.

DISFOREST. To grub up, cut down, or root out the trees of a foreſt.

DISH. A broad ſhallow veſſel, uſed at tables for holding victuals, commonly made of earthen ware, porcelain, or pewter, and ſometimes ſilver.

DISPATCH. To make haſte, to be quick or nimble at buſineſs; alſo a letter of ſtate, or mercantile affairs of importance, ſent by a courier expreſs; as is frequently done by the Engliſh Eaſt India company, over land, through Turky to Perſia and India.

DISPENSARY, or *Diſpenſatory*. A name given to ſeveral collections of compound medicines; wherein are ſpecified the ingredients, proportions, and chief circumſtances of the preparation and mixture; the ſame with what is otherwiſe called a pharmacopœia, or antidotary; ſuch as the diſpenſaries of Meſue, Cordus, Quincy, the college of phyſicians at London, and other places; which are of ſuch importance, that the apothecaries in and about London are obliged to make up their compound medicines according to the formulas preſcribed in the college-diſpenſary, and are enjoined to keep always ready in their ſhops all the medicines there enumerated.

DISPENSARY, is likewiſe uſed for a magazine, or office of medicines, kept ready to be diſpenſed at the prime coſt of the ingredients, for the benefit of the poor people labouring under any indiſpoſition; of which kind are, the college of phyſicians in London, firſt begun in the year 1696; and the diſpenſary in St. Peter's alley, Cornhill; where the beſt medicines are ſold for their intrinſic value; and patients are adviſed every day, but Sunday, at one of theſe places.

DISPOSE, is to ſell, or by any other method get off a commodity.

DISTANCE, in navigation, is the number of miles, or leagues, that a ſhip has ſailed from any point.

DISTILLATION, in chemiſtry and pharmacy, the art, or act of ſeparating or drawing off the ſpirituous, aqueous, oleaginous, or ſaline parts of a mixed body, from the groſſer and more terreſtrial parts, by means of fire, and collecting and condenſing them again by cold; which is of very great utility, it being by means hereof that waters, ſpirits, eſſences, and extracts, are chiefly made. See *Spirituous* liquors.

Diſtillation is uſually performed two ways, by means of fire, raiſed to a greater or leſſer degree, as circumſtances require. 1. By aſcent, when the matter to be diſtilled is above the fire, and the ſpirit, or other principle, is raiſed from it. 2. By deſcent, when the matter which is to be diſtilled is below the fire, and the vapour drawn from it precipitated to the bottom of the veſſel.

DISTILLER. A perſon who makes diſtillations; but, by this word, it is now commonly underſtood thoſe tradeſmen that draw off, or make brandy, rum, or Geneva, from malt, molaſſes, cyder, or the like.

DISTILLERY, or *Diſtilling*, is an art ſo exceedingly improved in England, that had it not met with diſcouraging laws, it would by this time have attained to a very great heighth, and brought great profit to the nation; for, next to making ſomething out of nothing, is the making ſomething that is valuable out of what would be otherwiſe worth nothing: therefore this art ought to have been handled tenderly, to have been trained up with a great deal of gentleneſs, and not loaded with taxes in its infancy; by which means it had like to have been diſcouraged in the beginning: however, it has ſtill bore up under all the weight laid upon it.

Mr. Carey ſays, it was a great miſtake to appoint meaſures, by act of parliament, to the diſtillers in their workings. Mens knowledge increaſes by obſervation; and this is the reaſon why one age exceeds another in any ſort of myſtery, becauſe they improve the notions of thoſe who went before them. Therefore, confining the diſtillers to corn only, was an error; though it is true, other things were allowed to be uſed, but on ſuch terms and reſtrictions as were next to a prohibition; for the diſtillers, by degrees, would have made experiments on that themſelves, uſing it with other mixtures, and thereby drawing from it a cleaner ſpirit than it affords of itſelf, which they might in time have rectified to ſuch a fineneſs, as to have increaſed very much its uſe.

No kingdom can give more encouragement to diſtillers than Great Britain, whoſe plantations being many, and well peopled, where thoſe ſpirits are ſo neceſſary and uſeful for the inhabitants; and theſe depending wholly on the mother-country for all things, would have cauſed a conſumption of very great quantities, beſides what is uſed in navigation. Great Britain has many materials of her own to work on, ſuch as, molaſſes, cyder, perry, barley, and others, all which in time the diſtillers would have uſed; for as they found their ſales increaſed, they would have made new eſſays: therefore, ſays the above author, it was a very wrong ſtep to diſcourage diſtilling from molaſſes, ſcum, tilts, and waſh; an error the Dutch, or any other trading nation, would not have been guilty of; and proceeded from ill advice given the parliament, by thoſe who, under pretence of advancing corn deſigned to diſcourage diſtilling, only offered it by that handle they thought it would be beſt received in the houſe. Trade and lands go hand in hand as to their intereſt; if one flouriſhes, ſo will the other: ſo that he makes this concluſion, 'Encourage diſtilling, and it will ſpend hundreds 'of things now thrown away.'

The malt diſtiller is the father of all the other claſſes, as he furniſhes them with the chief of their materials. The firſt production of malt diſtilled, is called low wines; theſe low wines are again put into the ſtill, and, being diſtilled a ſecond time, become pure ſpirits of malt.

The malt diſtiller proceeds no farther, but ſells his malt-ſpirits to the compound diſtillers, who put a quantity of juniper-berries, anniſeed, or other materials, with which they intend to flavour their ſpirits, into a ſtill, with a quantity of malt lowered with water; which being diſ-

tilled, produce thoſe pernicious liquors called gin, anniſeed, &c. Molaſſes ſpirits are diſtilled from treacle by the compound diſtillers; which, when fermented, is ſingled into low wines, and redrawn into ſpirits in the ſame manner as malt.

DISTILLERS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of Charles I. dated the 9th of Auguſt 1638, by the ſtile of The maſter, wardens, aſſiſtants, and commonalty of the trade, art, or myſtery, of diſtillers of London; which corporation conſiſts of a maſter, 3 wardens, 19 aſſiſtants, and 122 liverymen; whoſe fine, upon admiſſion, is 13l. 6 s. 8 d. See *Spirituous* liquors.

DITTANY. See *Dictamnum*.

DITTO, in books of accompts, wrote contracted by D°, ſignifies *the ſame*, or as the preceding article, being a corruptive derivation from the Italian *detto*.

DIU. A little iſland, and town, ſituated in 69 deg. of E. lon. and 21 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. on the coaſt of Guzurat, in the Hither India, and ſubject to Portugal. See *India*.

DIVAN. A council-chamber, or court, wherein juſtice is adminiſtered in the eaſtern nations, particularly among the Turks.

DIVAN-*beghi*. The appellation of one of the miniſters of ſtate in Perſia.

DIVER. A perſon who goes, or ſwims, under water, for fiſhing pearls, or getting up the wreck of a ſhip.

DIVIDEND. Something to be divided, or ſhared, among ſeveral perſons.

In public companies, it is the money divided among the proprietors, as intereſt upon the ſtock, proportionably to the particular ſhare of each perſon. See *Bank* of England, *Eaſt* India company, and *South* ſea company.

In trade, it is when a man fails, and makes a voluntary propoſal to ſurrender up and divide his effects among his creditors; or when his effects are taken by ſtatute, inventoried, and valued, and, after all charges are deducted, the amount is divided among the ſeveral creditors, in proportion to their debts. See *Bankrupt*.

DIVING-*bell*. A machine contrived to let down perſons to a great depth in water; by which means they can remain there a long time together, without being incommoded for want of air; during which time, they can ſee or do what is convenient towards getting up what has been loſt, or caſt away in a ſtorm, or ſhipwreck.

DIVING-*company*, is a ſociety of merchants, eſtabliſhed at Maſterland in Sweden, for fiſhing up wrecks at ſea; in which they are very ſucceſsful in the Baltic.

DIVISION, in arithmetic, that rule which ſhews how many times one number is contained in another.

DIVISION, in the ſea-language, is the third part of a naval army, or fleet, or of one of the ſquadrons thereof, under the command of ſome flag-officer. See *Fleet*.

DIUL. A port-town in the province of Tatta, or Sinda, in the Hither India, ſituated in 67 deg. of E. lon. and 25 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. weſt of the river Indus, on the Indian ocean, and lately transferred by the Mogul, with the reſt of the province, to Perſia.

DOCK, in the ſea-language, a pit, pond, or creek, by the ſide of a harbour, made convenient to work in, for the building or repairing of ſhips; being of two ſorts, a dry dock, and a wet dock: the former being where the water is kept out by great flood-gates, till the ſhip is built or repaired, but afterwards can be eaſily let in again to float, and launch her; and the latter is any place in the ouze, out of the way of the tide, where a ſhip may be hauled in, and ſo dock herſelf, or ſink herſelf, in a place to lie in.

DOCKET, ſometimes denotes a little bill tied to wares, or goods, being directed to the perſon and place they are to be ſent to.

DOCTORS *Commons*. See College of *Civilians*.

DODDER. See *Epithyme*.

DOE. A female deer. See *Deer*.

DOG. A four-legged animal, very familiar and uſeful to mankind, of whoſe ſkin gloves are frequently made.

DOGE. The chief magiſtrates in the republics of Venice and Genoa.

DOGGER. A ſmall ſhip, built after the Dutch faſhion, with a narrow ſtern, and commonly but one maſt, uſed in fiſhing for cod on the

DOGGER's *Bank*, a ſand between the Britiſh coaſt and Holland, where the cod-fiſhery is carried on by the Engliſh and Dutch. See *Fiſhery*.

DOIT. See *Duyte*.

DOLCIGNO. A port-town of the province of Albania, in Turky, ſituated on the gulph of Venice, in 19 deg. of E. lon. and 2 deg. 5 min. of N. lat. See *Turky*.

DOLLAR, or *Daller*. A ſilver coin, ſtruck in ſeveral parts of Germany and the north; as alſo in Holland, and Switzerland. They are not all of the ſame fineneſs and weight; but the Dutch dollar, or rix-dollar, is moſt common, being about 4 s. 4½ d. ſterling; the rix-dollar of Vienna and Cologne, are 4 s. 8 d. ſterling, of Hamburg 4 s. 6 d. of Dantzic and Poland 4 s. 6 d. of Denmark 4 s. 6 d. of Sweden 4 s. 8 d. of St. Gall 4 s. 6 d. the ſpecie-dollars of Saxony and Frankfort are 4 s. 8 d. ſterling each, the double dollar of Denmark 6 s. and the ſilver dollar of Sweden 1 s. 6⅔ d ſterling.

DOLLAR is alſo a money of accompt, in moſt of the above mentioned places, and valued as the coin.

DOLLART *bay*. A large gulph, ſeparating Eaſt-Frieſland, in Germany, from Groningen, one of the United Provinces.

DOLPHIN. A ſea-fiſh; alſo the handle to a piece of ordnance, becauſe uſually caſt in ſhape of this fiſh.

DOMEA. A great river of Tonquin, in Aſia, ſometimes called Chaule, upon which the capital city of Keccio, and moſt of their towns, are ſituated; the river riſing in the province of Yunan in China; and, running ſouth through the kingdom of Tonquin, diſcharges itſelf into the gulph of Cochin-China, in 106 deg. of E. lon. and 21 deg. of N. lat.

DOMINGO, or *St. Domingo*. The capital of the iſland of Hiſpaniola, in North America, ſituated in 70 deg. of W. lon. and 18 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. See *French America*.

DOMINGO, or *St. Domingo*, is alſo a river on the coaſt of Africa, 30 leagues diſtant from the Gambia.

DOMINGO, or *St. Domingo company*, was eſtabliſhed in France in 1698, for 50 years; but though it was carried on with honour to the year 1720, it was then united to the India company. See *India* company.

DOMINICA. One of the Caribbee iſlands, ſituated in 61 deg. of W. lon. and 61 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. ſubject to G. Britain, but very little cultivated. See *Britiſh* America.

DON, or *Tanais*. A river riſing in the province of Rezan, in Ruſſia; which running ſouth-eaſt, paſſes by Woronets; and, continuing its courſe ſtill ſouth eaſt, approaches near the river Wolga, where Peter the Great was cutting a canal for a communication between the two rivers: the Don afterwards turns to the ſouth-weſt, and, dividing Aſia from Europe, falls into the Palus Meotis, a little below the city of Aſoph. But though the Czar Peter did not live to finiſh the laſt canal, he had made another between the river Woronets, and another river which falls into the Wolga, whereby the Don had a communication with it; and both thoſe rivers are deep enough to carry ſhips of conſiderable burthen down to the Euxine and Caſpian ſeas: however, the loſing of Aſoph has made the navigation of the Ruſſians to the Euxine ſea impracticable.

DOORGUZZES. One of the kinds of callicoes imported by the Engliſh Eaſt India company, the piece being about 18 yards.

DOOSOOTIES. Another kind of callicoes imported by the ſame company, the piece being about 15 yards.

DORDONNE. A river of France, which riſes in the mountain of Auvergne; and, running weſt through the province of Guienne, falls into the river Garonne 12 miles below Bourdeaux. See *Garonne*.

DOREAS. A kind of muſlin, brought from the Eaſt Indies, particularly from Bengal, both coarſe and fine, ſtriped and chequered; the length of the piece being uſually about 16 ells long, and 7-8ths in breadth.

DOR-EMUL. A flowered muſlin, brought from the Eaſt Indies, being 16 ells long, and 3-4ths broad.

DORONICUM *Romanum*, is a ſmall root, yellowiſh on

the outſide, and white within; of a ſweet taſte, but aſtringent, and accompanied with ſome viſcoſity; its figure in the ground reſembling the ſcorpion's tail; and its leaves are broad, not unlike the plantane, or wild cucumber; being thought to be a ſovereign counter-poiſon for mankind, and a mortal poiſon for quadrupeds; its good choice conſiſting in its largeneſs, and being well cleared of filaments, not worm-eaten, and, when broken, of a very white colour; which is uſually brought from the mountains of Switzerland, Germany, Provence, and Languedoc.

DORSER. A pannier, or baſket, to carry goods on horſeback.

DORT, or *Dordrecht*. A city of the United Provinces, in the province of Holland, ſituated in 4 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 47 min. of N. lat. on an iſland in the river Maes, 10 miles E. of Rotterdam. See *United* Provinces.

DOUBLA. A ſilver coin ſtruck at Algiers, or Tunis, worth about 2 s. 5¼ d. ſterling.

DOUBLE. What is worth twice as much as another: thus a double piſtole, a double louis, a double rial, a double ducat, are gold or ſilver coins worth twice as much as the ſimple pieces.

DOUBLER. A perſon who works with a throwſter, and twines or doubles two or more threads of ſilk together, for the uſe of ſewing.

DOUBLING *a Cape*, or *Point*, in navigation, ſignifies the coming up with it, paſſing by it, and leaving it behind the ſhip.

The Portugueſe pretend to be the firſt that ever doubled the Cape of Good Hope, under their Admiral Vaſquez de Gama: but there are accounts in hiſtory, particularly in Herodotus, of the Egyptians, Carthaginians, and other nations, having done the ſame many centuries before.

DOUBLON, or *Doubloon*. A Spaniſh coin, being the double of a piſtole, or worth two piſtoles: but there are alſo double doublons current for 3 l. 12 s. See *Piſtole*.

DOUDOU. A copper coin, current in ſome parts of the eaſt, particularly at Surat and Pondicherry, 4 of which are worth about a halfpenny.

DOVER. An Engliſh borough, port-town, and caſtle, in the county of Kent, ſituated in 1 deg. 25 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 10 min. of N. lat. on a rock, oppoſite to Calais in France; for the repair of whoſe pier, and of Rye harbour, a duty of 1½ d. a ton is to be levied on all ſhipping, though not without ſome exceptions.

DOUGLAS. A port-town on the coaſt of the iſle of Man, ſituated in 4 deg. 25 min. of W. lon. and 54 deg. 7 min. of N. lat. equally diſtant from the Engliſh, Scotch, and Iriſh ſhores, being the beſt harbour in the iſland.

DOUILLARD. A meaſure uſed at Bourdeaux, and in moſt parts of Guienne, in France, for meaſuring Engliſh and Scotch coals, 9 of which make a ton.

DOULEBSAIS, or *Mulmuls*. A kind of muſlin. See *Mulmuls*.

DOUTIS. White cotton cloths, pretty coarſe, and brought from the Eaſt Indies, particularly from Surat, which are ſometimes confounded with the Sauvaguzes, or Sauvagogis; their length being 14 ells, or thereabouts, and the breadth from 5-16ths of an ell, to 1 ell and 1-16th.

DOWLASS. A coarſe, ſtrong ſort of linen, principally manufactured in Germany, and uſed to make ſhirts, or ſhifts, for hard-working people; the ſingle or demi-piece containing about 26 ells Engliſh, and the double piece about 52 ells; the former being 3-4ths wide, and the latter 7-8ths.

DOWN. The ſhorteſt, ſmootheſt, ſofteſt, and moſt delicate feathers of birds, growing on their neck, and a part of their ſtomach.

Though there are ſcarce any birds, but down may, and is in effect extracted from, particularly from thoſe called domeſtic birds; yet ſwans, geeſe, and ducks, are thoſe that furniſh moſt, and the beſt; which are carefully every year ſtripped off, without any perceptible prejudice; the down, on the contrary, becoming thereby more ſoft and thick.

Geeſe are plucked three times in the year; towards the end of May, about Midſummer, and at the latter end of Auguſt; but chiefly when the feathers are ripe, that is, when they are perceived to fall of themſelves.

The down of dead birds is in the leaſt eſteem, upon account of the blood imbibed by the quill; which putrifying, communicates an offenſive ſmell to the feather, and takes ſome time to evaporate; for which reaſon live birds ſhould not be ſtripped till their feathers are ripe, leſt the ſame ſmell might happen, and vermin be thereby engendered.

Down is a commodity of moſt countries: but that in moſt repute throughout Europe, either for fineneſs, lightſomeneſs, or warmth, is called ederdon, or edredon, which comes from Denmark, Sweden, and other northern countries. See *Ederdon*, and *Feather*.

Oſtrich's DOWN, called otherwiſe oſtriches hair, and ſometimes, but corruptly, oſtriches wool, is of two ſorts; whereof that called ſimply the *fine* of oſtrich is uſed by hatters in the manufacture of common hats; and that called *coarſe* of oſtrich ſerves for the making of liſt for fine white cloth, which are to be dyed black. See *Oſtrich*.

DOWNS. A bank, or elevation of ſand, gathered by the ſea, and formed along its ſhores, which ſerves it as a barrier. The Downs are particularly uſed for a remarkable road for ſhips on the Engliſh coaſt, along the eaſtern part of the county of Kent, from Dover to the North foreland, where the Britiſh fleets uſually aſſemble; the road having excellent anchorage, and being well defended by the caſtles of Sandwich, Deal, and Dover: but the Downs have been held to be neither port, place, or creek, of the realm, within the act of tonnage and poundage. See *Navigation*.

DOZEN, or *Doſen*, generally ſignifies the number 12; but ſeveral commodities have 13 or 14 to the dozen, and 12 dozen make a groſs. See *Tale*.

DRAB, among ſailors, a ſmall top-ſail; and it is alſo an extraordinary ſort of woollen cloth, chiefly worn in the winter-time.

DRABLER, among mariners, is a ſmall ſail, uſed where the courſe and bonnet are not deep enough to cloath the maſt.

DRACHM, or *Dram*. The 16th part of an ounce avoirdupois; but with apothecaries it is only the 8th part of an ounce, being equal to 3 ſcruples, or 60 grains.

DRAGEES, or *Sugar-plumbs*. See *Confects*.

DRAGOMAN, or *Drogman*. A term of general uſe through the eaſt, for an interpreter, whoſe office is to facilitate commerce between the Aſiatics and the Europeans.

DRAGON's *blood*, *Sanguis Draconis*, in medicine, a reſinous ſubſtance, brought from the eaſt, of conſiderable uſe as an agglutenant againſt fluxes. The genuine dragon's blood is the juice, or reſin, of a large tree, called dracoarbor, growing in Africa and America, as well as in China; the reſin being of a dark red, and eaſily diſſolving when brought towards the fire: if caſt into the fire, it flames, but diſſolves with much difficulty in any liquor. There is alſo a counterfeit dragon's blood, made of the gum of the cherry, or almond-tree, diſſolved and boiled in a tincture of Brazil wood; but this is of no uſe, except for external diſeaſes of horſes.

DRAGS. Pieces of timber faſtened together, more generally called floats, for carrying ſome ſorts of burthen down a river; alſo any thing that hangs over the ſide of a ſhip, as an impediment to her ſailing freely. See *Float*.

DRAM. A ſmall quantity of any ſpirituous liquor, uſually drank out of a glaſs, now prohibited to be retailed by diſtillers; it is alſo a weight, being the ſame as the drachm. See *Spirituous* liquors, and *Drachm*.

DRAP, or *Drab*. A particular kind of woollen cloth.

DRAP-*de-Berry*. A freeze, or thick, ſtrong, warm cloth, fit for winter-wear.

DRAPER. A vender, or ſeller of cloth, either linen or woollen. See *Linen* draper, and *Woollen*-draper.

DRAPERS *company of London*, was incorporated, by letters-patent of Henry VI. in 1439, by the title of The maſter, wardens, brethren, and ſiſters, of the guild, or fraternity, of the bleſſed Mary the Virgin, of the myſtery of drapers of the city of London: at which time their arms were granted by Sir William Brugges, garter king at arms, and confirmed by Clarencieux king at arms, in 1561. The

This fraternity is governed by a maſter, 4 wardens, and 30 aſſiſtants; the number of members upon the livery being 140, whoſe fine on admittance is 25 l. They have a magnificent hall in Throgmorton-ſtreet, to manage their affairs in, and they pay to charitable uſes about 4000 l. a-year.

DRAVE. A large navigable river, riſing in the archbiſhopric of Saltzburg, in Germany; it runs ſouth-eaſt through the province of Stirria, and, continuing the ſame courſe, divides Hungary from Sclavonia; after which it falls into the river Danube, at Eſſeck. See *Danube*.

DRAUGHT, in trade, is ſo much goods as are carried upon one carriage at a time: it is alſo an allowance made in the weighing of commodities; being the ſame as clough. See *Clough*.

It alſo implies ſo much goods as are carried upon one carriage at a time; likewiſe the demand, ſale, or diſpoſal, of any commodity is ſo called.

In navigation, it is the depth of a ſhip in the water, when under ſail.

DRAW. A ſhip is ſaid to draw ſo much water, according to the number of feet ſhe ſinks into it: thus, if 15 feet from the bottom of her be under water, or if ſhe ſink into the water 15 feet perpendicularly, ſhe is ſaid to draw 15 feet water; and according as ſhe draws more or leſs, ſhe is ſaid to be of more or leſs draught.

DRAW-*back*, in commerce, is the repaying to a merchant the duties or cuſtoms he has paid at the importing foreign goods, upon his exporting them again.

The intention of the Britiſh legiſlature in allowing of drawbacks, was certainly for the promotion of trade in the ſame manner as they granted bounties; for, by drawbacks, the merchant is encouraged to export ſuch Britiſh manufactures as are liable to duties, with a view to ſell them cheaper than foreigners: beſides, when foreign merchandiſes have continued here three years, the Britiſh merchant is alſo encouraged by the drawbacks, to export them to ſuch foreign countries where they are wanted; which makes the advantage of the freight ſo much clear profit to the kingdom, beſides the profit accruing to the merchant.

If foreign goods and merchandiſes, which have been regularly imported into Great Britain, and for which all duties have been duly paid, are again regularly exported to foreign parts, within three years from the importation, accounting from the maſter's report of the ſhip, they are intitled to a drawback, or repayment, either of the whole, or part of the duties paid, unleſs they are ſuch goods as are particularly excepted: and all allowances and abatements upon, or out of, any duties now in force, are to continue till thoſe duties ceaſe.

The oaths of merchants importing and exporting, required to obtain the drawback of foreign goods, affirming the truth of the officer's certificate of the entry and due payment of the duties, may be made by the agent or huſband of any corporation or company, or by the known ſervant of any merchant, uſually employed in making his entries, and paying his cuſtoms: but no allowance is made for any foreign goods exported to the iſle of Man.

If any foreign goods entered outwards, ſhould be fraudulently ſhipped out, being leſs in quantity and value than is expreſſed in the importer's certificate, the goods therein mentioned, or their value, are forfeited, and no drawback to be allowed for the ſame.

Foreign goods entered outwards by certificate, in order to obtain the drawback, not ſhipped and exported, or relanded in Great Britain, unleſs in caſe of diſtreſs, to ſave them from periſhing, which muſt be immediately ſignified to the officers of the cuſtoms, are to loſe the benefit of the drawback, and are forfeited, or their value, with the veſſel, and boats, horſes and carriages, employed in the relanding thereof: and the perſons concerned in the unſhipping and relanding, or to whoſe hands the goods ſhall knowingly come, or by whoſe privity, knowledge, or direction, they are relanded, are to forfeit double the amount of the drawback, to be ſued for within five years after the commiſſion of the offence.

Officers of the cuſtoms conniving at, or aſſiſting in any fraud relating to certificate goods, beſides other penalties, are to forfeit their office, be rendered incapable, and ſuffer ſix months impriſonment, without bail or mainprize. Maſters, or other perſons belonging to any ſhip, aſſiſting in, or conniving at the fraudulent relanding of ſuch goods, beſides other penalties, are to ſuffer ſix months impriſonment, without bail or mainprize.

Bonds given for the exportation of certificate goods to Ireland, muſt not be delivered up, nor drawback allowed for any goods, till a certificate under the hands and ſeals of the collector, comptroller, and ſurveyor of the cuſtoms, or any two of them, of ſome port in Ireland, is produced, teſtifying the landing: the condition of the bonds being to produce ſuch certificate in ſix months from the date thereof. All which different regulations were enacted by the ſtatutes of the 13th and 14th of Charles II. the 2d, 3d, and 8th of Anne, the 3d, 5th, 8th, 9th, 11th, and 12th of George I. and the 2d of George II.

For the computation of what is to be drawn back, ſee book of *Rates*; and for the proper regulations relating thereto, ſee the rules, &c. for the advancement of trade, &c. under the article of *Cuſtoms*, and alſo *Debenture*.

DRAWING *of a bill of exchange*, is the writing, ſigning, and giving it the perſon who has already paid the value, or content thereof, to receive it in another place; but a perſon ſhould never draw a bill of exchange, unleſs he is well aſſured it will be accepted and paid. See *Exchange*.

DRAWING-*table*. A board to put a ſheet of paper upon, for the more convenient making of draughts, being very uſeful in navigation for conſtructing charts.

DRAY. A ſtrong, low, open carriage, particularly uſed by brewers for carrying beer to their cuſtomers.

DRAYMEN. See *Carmen*.

DREDGER, or *Oyſter fiſherman*. See Oyſter *Fiſhery*.

DREGS. The bottom, ſettling, or waſte part of any liquid; likewiſe the dirty, waſte, or impure part of any commodity.

DRESDEN. A city of Germany, capital of the electorate of Saxony, ſituated on the river Elbe, in 13 deg. 36 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. of N. lat. See *Germany*.

DRESS, is to prepare leather for uſe, by the leather-dreſſers.

DRESSER. A perſon who dreſſes any kind of commodity, ſuch as a leather-dreſſer, taw-dreſſer, or flax-dreſſer.

DRIBLET, in trade, is ſometimes ſaid, by way of deriſion, when a ſmall part is made in payment of a large ſum.

DRIED *fiſh*. See *Fiſhery*.

DRIFT, in navigation, ſuch things as float upon the water, without a perſon to guide them, or without being faſtened to any thing: thus a ſhip, when deſerted by her crew at ſea, is ſaid to be a-drift; and a boat is ſaid to be ſent a-drift, when put off from the ſhore without any perſon in her.

DRIFT-*ſail*, in a ſhip, a ſail uſed underwater, veered out right a-head, by ſheets, as other ſails are; its uſe being to keep the head of the ſhip right upon the ſea, in a ſtorm; and to hinder a ſhip from driving too faſt in a current; with which view it is generally uſed by fiſhermen, eſpecially in the north-ſea.

DRIFT-*way*, is the ſame with *Lee-way*.

DRILL, in the manufactures, is to pierce, bore, or make holes, in iron, ſteel, braſs, or any other metal, with an inſtrument called a drill.

DRILLING. A linen cloth, the piece containing about 17 ells Engliſh.

DRINO. A port-town of Turky, ſituated in 20 deg. of E. lon. and 42 deg. of N. lat. on a bay of the Adriatic, to which it gives name. See *Turky*.

DRIPPING. The fat that falls from meat roaſted before the fire, uſed for making candles.

DRIVE, in the ſea-language. A ſhip is ſaid to drive, when an anchor being let fall, it will not hold her faſt, but that ſhe ſails away with the tide, or wind; for the prevention of which, the beſt way is to veer out more cable, becauſe the more cable ſhe has, the ſurer and ſafer ſhe rides, or elſe to let fall more anchors. Alſo when a ſhip is a-hull, or a-try, they ſay, ſhe drives to leeward, or in with the ſhore, according to the way ſhe makes.

DRIVER. A perſon employed by graziers and drovers, for

for driving cattle from one town to another: but it is moſt particularly applied to waggoners, and the drivers of other carriages.

DROGHEDA. A port-town of Ireland, in the county of Lowth, and province of Leinſter, ſituated on the river Boyne, 5 miles W. of the Iriſh channel, in 6 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 53 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. See *Ireland*.

DROMEDARY. A kind of camel, ſmaller and weaker than the real camel. See *Camel*, and *Caravan*.

DRONTHEIM. A city and port-town of Norway, capital of the province of Drontheim, ſituated in 10 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 64 deg. of N. lat. on a bay of the northern ocean. See *Norway*, included under *Denmark*.

DROPS, in chemical medicines, are ſuch as are uſually taken by dropping 20, 30, or 40 particles at a time in any liquid; as hartſhorn and others.

DROSS. The waſte, or ſcum of metals in flux; alſo the ſediment, or dirty-part, of ſugar, tobacco, and other goods.

DROVE. A large number, flock, or herd of cattle, great or ſmall.

DROVERS. Such perſons as bring up cattle from Lincolnſhire, and other diſtant parts, to London, for the ſaleſmen, graziers, and butchers.

DRUG, or *Drugs*, in commerce, a general name for all ſpices, and other commodities, brought from diſtant countries, of uſe in the buſineſs of medicine, dying, and the mechanic arts.

The drugs uſed in medicine are very numerous, and make the principal part of the commerce of druggiſts; of which ſome of them grow in England, France, and other European countries; but the greateſt part are brought from the Levant, and the Eaſt Indies. A general liſt of all theſe commodities would be endleſs; but ſome of the moſt eſſential are, aloes, ambergreaſe, aſſa fœtida, antimony, balſams, bezoar, borax, benjoin, camphor, cantharides, cardamum, caſſia, caſtoreum, coloquintida, civet, coral, cubebs, coffee, cocoa, gums animæ, armoniac, adraganth, elemi, gutta, labdanum, opopanax, ſagapenum, ſandarac, jalap, lacca, manna, maſtic, myrrh, muſk, opium, pearls, quinquina, hellebore, galanga, zedoary, rhubarb, ſarſaparilla, ſtorax, galbanum, ſanguis draconis, ſenna, ſperma ceti, ſpica nardi, ſcammony, ſal ammoniac, tamarinds, tea, turpentine, turbith, tutia, and ſeveral others mentioned in the book of rates, under the article *Rate*. But for a particular deſcription thereof, reference muſt be had under their reſpective articles.

The drugs uſed by dyers are of two kinds; colouring, which give a dye or colour; and non-colouring, which only diſpoſe the ſtuffs to take the colours the better, or to render the colours more ſhining. Of the firſt kind are, paſtels, woad, indigo, kermes, cochineal, madder, tumeric, and others: of the ſecond kind are, allum, tartar, arſenic, realgal, ſaltpetre, common ſalt, ſal gemmæ, ſal ammoniac, cryſtal of tartar, agaric, ſpirit of wine, urine, pewter, iron, bran, ſtarch, lime, aſhes, and others.

There is a third ſort of drugs, which anſwer both intentions; as the root, bark, and leaf of the walnut-tree, galls, copperas, and other things. See *Dying*.

Drugs, in the Britiſh cuſtoms, are diſtinguiſhed by the names of *rated*, and *unrated*; the former being ſuch whoſe duties on importation are particularly ſpecified in the book of rates; and the latter are thoſe which are ſo called by the act of the 3d and 4th of Queen Anne, whereby they were to pay for every 20 s. of their values, according to the different circumſtances of importation therein mentioned; for it muſt be obſerved, that the Britiſh legiſlature have exempted moſt of the drugs uſed in dying from any duties of importation. See Book of *Rates*, and *Dying*.

DRUG, is uſed alſo to ſignify things of little value, expoſed to ſale; and it is alſo a term, among fan-makers, for a compoſition of gum arabic, and ſome other ingredients, uſed for laying gold or ſilver leaves on their fans, and for ſuch other uſes.

DRUGGET, is a ſort of ſtuff, very thin and narrow, uſually all wool, and ſometimes half wool and half ſilk, having ſometimes the whale, but more uſually without, and woven on a worſted chain. See *Stuffs*.

DRUGGIST, or *Druggſter*. A perſon who principally deals in foreign gums, roots, plants, and other drugs, for the uſe of phyſicians, apothecaries, and chemiſts. His buſineſs is to buy up all manner of uncompounded drugs, both foreign and domeſtic, in large quantities; which he ſells to the apothecary, who compounds them; yet the druggiſt generally compounds drugs for ſale in his own ſhop, like the apothecary. But the druggiſt is not ſuppoſed to know any thing of the uſes or properties of drugs; becauſe he only buys them as a merchant, and diſpoſes of them as a commodity, without any reſpect to their particular uſes. He is acquainted with the outward marks, and ſigns of good, and freſh drugs, what are proper to be bought, the quantities neceſſary for the market, and prices which are commonly given for them; tho' this varies, according to the demand, as in other commodities: but that the public may not be impoſed on, there is a printed bill weekly handed about in London, containing the common price of drugs, like the price of ſtocks and exchange. The druggiſts are under the inſpection of the college of phyſicians; and they not only ſupply the apothecaries of London with drugs, but the country-apothecaries are alſo chiefly ſupplied by the druggiſts of London.

DRY. Any thing that has none, or little moiſture: thus, in the Britiſh cuſtoms, dry goods are all kinds of drugs and cloths. See *Duty*.

DRY *confects*, See *Confects*.

DRY *dock*. See *Dock*.

DRY *ducking*. See *Ducking*.

DRY *goods*. See Dry *Goods*.

DRY *meaſure*. See *Meaſure*.

DRY *ſalter*, is a perſon whoſe buſineſs conſiſts in ſelling dyes or colours for the dyers moſtly, and ſometimes differ little from the oilman. The blue-maker alſo keeps a ſhop ſomewhat like the dry-ſalter, where he ſells dyes and ſtarch, particularly a ſpecies of blue dye moſtly uſed by the callico-printers.

DUBELTIES. A current coin of Holland, worth $\frac{1}{2}$ of a ſtiver, or a halfpenny and $\frac{1}{10}$ ſterling.

DUBLIN. The capital of the province of Leinſter, and of the kingdom of Ireland, ſituated in 6 deg. 25 min. of W. lon. and 53 deg. 16 min. of N. lat. at the mouth of the river Liffee, near the Iriſh channel, 60 miles W. of Holy-head in Wales, and 270 miles N. W. of London. See *Ireland*.

DUCAT. A coin, both of gold and ſilver, current in ſeveral ſtates of Europe, particularly Germany and Italy.

The gold ducat	Sterling. s.	d.
Of Holland, coined at *legem imperii*, and the ducats of Campen in Holland, are each of them worth - -	9	3.6
Of the Biſhop of Bamberg -	9	3.2
The double ducat of the Elector of Hanover	18	4.8
The ducat of ditto - -	9	2.7
Of Brandenburg - -	9	3.2
Of Sweden and Denmark, each -	9	3.2
Of Poland - - -	9	2.1
Of Hungary - -	9	3.6
Of Tranſylvania - -	8	11.6
The double ducats of Hungary, Caſtile, Portugal, Venice, Florence, and Genoa, each	18	7.7
Single ducats of the ſame places -	9	3.8
Double ducats of ſeveral forms in Germany	18	4
Single ducats of the ſame places -	9	2
Of Beſancon and Zurich - -	9	3.2
Of Barbary - -	9	3.5

Silver ducats.

	s.	d.
Ducat, or cruſado of Portugal, is worth	2	10. 3
The old ducat of Venice -	3	4.5
The half ducat of ditto - -	1	8.2
The ducat de banco of Naples -	3	4.4
The half ditto - - -	1	8.2
The ducat of Florence and Leghorn	5	4.6

DUCAT, is alſo a money of accompt in ſeveral cities of Italy; as at Naples, Venice, and Bergamo, being of the ſame value as the ſilver coin.

DUCATOON. A gold coin ſtruck and current in Holland, worth 20 guilders, or 1 l. 15 s. ſterling.

DUCATOON, is alſo a ſilver coin, ſtruck for the moſt part in Italy. There are likewiſe ſilver ducatoons of Flanders, and Holland; as alſo others of the Prince of Orange: all which are much about the ſame weight and fineneſs, weighing one ounce one pennyweight.

The ſilver ducatoon of Flanders is worth 5 s. 6 d. .15 ſterling; of Holland 5 s. 5 d. .69; of Cologne 5 s. 5 d. .2; and of Savoy 5 s. 3 d.

DUCATOON, is alſo a name in Holland for the pieces of 3 guilders, whereof there are two ſorts; the old worth 63 ſtivers, or 5 s. 5 ½ d. ſterling; and the new worth 60 ſtivers, or 5 s. 2 d. ſterling: theſe laſt having for diminutions halfs, thirds, and fourths; and were almoſt all coined from the bullion brought from England.

DUCK, or *Holland's Duck*, is a kind of Dutch ſail-cloth; the piece or bolt containing uſually about 28 ells Engliſh.

DUCKING, is a puniſhment for ſeamen; who are thrown into the ſea from the top of the yard of the main-maſt ſeveral times, according to the quality of their offence; and ſometimes a cannon-ball is faſtened to their feet, to make them fall with more rapidity. There is alſo a kind of dry-ducking, wherein the patient is only ſuſpended by a rope, a few yards above the ſurface of the water, which is a ſpecies of ſtrapada; and in both caſes the puniſhment is uſually made public by the diſcharge of a cannon.

DUE. What remains unpaid of a debt; alſo the right or property of a perſon for work done; likewiſe the fee or reward to be given to public officers, as thoſe of cuſtoms.

DUERO, or *Duro*. A river of Portugal, riſing in the N. E. of Old Caſtile in Spain, and running from E. to W. through that province by Valladolid: it then croſſes the province of Leon, paſſing by Toro and Zamora; and entering Portugal at Miranda, runs S. dividing the kingdoms of Spain and Portugal; then, turning W. croſſes Portugal, and falls into the Atlantic ocean at Oporto.

DUN. A ſort of brown colour.

DUN, in trade, is to teaze, or frequently go after a perſon for a debt.

DUNDALK. A port-town of Ireland, in the county of Lowth, and province of Leinſter, ſituated in 6 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 54 deg. 5 min. of N. lat. on a bay of the Iriſh ſea, to which it gives its name. See *Ireland*.

DUNG. A ſmall Perſian weight; 3600 dungs, or thereabouts, making the batman of Tauris, or 7 lb. Engliſh avoirdupoiſe; and near 7200 dungs make the batman of Chahi, or 13 lb. Engliſh avoirdupoiſe. See *Batman*.

DUNG, is likewiſe a ſmall ſilver coin ſtruck and current in Perſia, worth about 3 halfpence ſterling.

DUNG, is alſo ordure, filth, ſoil, or manure, ſo prepared that it is proper to lay or ſpread on the earth, to render it more fertile; being abſolutely neceſſary in agriculture and gardening.

DUNGARRES. White cotton cloths, or callicoes brought from Surat, the piece being 14 ells long, and ¾ broad.

DUNGARVAN. A port-town of the county of Waterford in Ireland, ſituated in 7 deg of W. lon. and 52 deg. of N. lat. on a bay of the ſame name.

DUNGENESS. A cape, or point of land, on the coaſt of Kent, 5 miles S. of Romney.

DUNKIRK. A port-town of the French Netherlands, ſituated in 2 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 56 deg. 36 min. of N. lat. on the Engliſh channel, at the mouth of the river Coln. See French *Netherlands*.

DUNNEGAL *Bay*, lies on the coaſt of Dunnegal in Ireland, ten miles N. of Baliſhannon.

DUNNOSE. A Cape on the S. coaſt of the Iſle of Wight.

DUODECIMO. A thing divided into 12 parts; as a ſheet of paper into 12 leaves, from whence this kind of books are named.

DUPLICATE. The exact copy or counterpart of a letter, or writing.

DURAZZO. A port-town of Turky, in the province of Albania, ſituated on the E. ſide of the gulph of Venice, in 20 deg. 10 min. of E. lon. and 41 deg. 37 min. of N. lat.

DURY-AGRA. A ſtriped blue and white cotton, brought from the Eaſt Indies; 11 ells in length, and half an ell in breadth.

DUST. The fine powder that any gum or herb is reduced to when dry and pulveriſed.

Lead DUST. See *Lead*.

DUTCH *Republic*, *Dutch America*, and *Dutch Iſlands*. See *United* Provinces.

DUTCH *companies of Trade*. See *Eaſt* India Company, *Weſt* India company, *North* company, and *Turky* company.

DUTCH *Netherlands*. See *Netherlands*.

DUTY, in policy and commerce, an impoſt or tax, laid by authority of a prince, or ſtate, on merchandiſes, and commodities, either exported from their own country, imported from abroad, or conſumed at home, towards ſupporting the expences of the government. The duties on various commodities are infinite: but the principal are thoſe of exportation and importation, paid on the bringing in, or carrying out, of the ſeveral kinds of goods, animals, and even perſons; agreeable to the tariffs ſettled between the reſpective nations. See *Cuſtoms* and *Exciſe*.

It is neceſſary that duties ſhould be levied for the maintenance of government; but then they ſhould be laid as tenderly as poſſible upon the articles of trade; and the labour of working people. Let it be conſidered, that it would be to no purpoſe for the rich and great men to ſay, that they have no obligation to thoſe who labour for them, becauſe their particular intereſt puts them in motion. This is true; but is their work therefore of leſs advantage to the ſuperior claſs? God, to whom only it belongs to produce good from evil itſelf, makes even uſe of the avarice of ſome men for the benefit of others. It is with this view providence has eſtabliſhed ſo wonderful a diverſity of conditions among men, and has diſtributed the goods of life with ſo prodigious an inequality. If all men were eaſy and opulent in their fortunes, who would give himſelf the trouble to till the earth, to dig in the mine, or to croſs the ſeas? Poverty, or avarice, charge themſelves with theſe laborious but uſeful toils. From whence it is manifeſt, that all mankind, rich or poor, powerful or impotent, kings or ſubjects, have a mutual dependance on each other for the demands of life; the poor not being able to live without the fortunes of the rich, nor the rich without the labour of the poor: but it is commerce, ſubſiſting from theſe different intereſts, which ſupplies mankind with all their neceſſities, and at the ſame time with all their conveniences: therefore it ſhould never be checked, eſpecially in a country entirely dependant upon trade, by heavy duties and impoſitions: for trade is certainly one of the parts of government, capable of contributing the moſt to the riches and plenty of a ſtate; and therefore merits the particular attention of princes and their miniſters.

A King who truly loves his ſubjects, and endeavours to plant abundance in his dominions, will ſpare no pains to make traffic flouriſh, and ſucceed in them without difficulty. It is a maxim generally received, that commerce demands only liberty and protection: liberty within wiſe reſtrictions, in not tying down ſuch as exerciſe it to the obſervance of inconvenient, burthenſome, and frequently uſeleſs regulations; protection in granting them all the ſupports they have occaſion for. An intelligent and well inclined prince will intermeddle only in commerce, to baniſh fraud and bad arts from it by ſeverity, and will leave all the profit to his ſubjects, who have the trouble of it; well convinced that he ſhall find ſufficient advantage from it, by the great riches it will bring into his dominions.

In treaties of commerce, whenever they are negotiated between Great Britain and other nations, care ſhould be taken that the duties and cuſtoms ſhould be reciprocal in both countries, and ſuch at leaſt as may make the Britiſh exports equal the imports from the other nation; ſo that a balance of money ſhould not be iſſued out of Great Britain to pay for the goods and merchandiſes of other countries; and that no greater numbers of landholders and manufacturers ſhould be deprived of their revenues ariſing from the product of the lands, and the labour of the people, by foreign importations, than in other countries by Britiſh exportations to thoſe countries.

We may perceive, that the ſame rules which help us to

judge by what trade we gain or loſe, will direct us what duties are neceſſary, and what treaties of commerce are gainful, or otherwiſe; and may be ſhortly ſummed up in this manner. If a treaty of commerce is likely to add to our capital ſtock; if it ſhall add to the rents of our landed gentlemen; if it ſhall increaſe the employments and ſubſtance of the poor; it muſt of courſe be beneficial. On the contrary, if it does not make the cuſtoms and duties reciprocal in both countries; if it diminiſhes our gold and ſilver; if it ſhall prove a means of introducing the product of other countries to interfere with our own; if it ſhall leſſen the demand of our own manufactures at our own or foreign markets, and bring our manufacturers to the pariſh and lands for their ſubſiſtence; ſuch a treaty muſt be pernicious to the intereſt of the kingdom, by laying duties on foreign goods erroneouſly.

The increaſe and ſupport of our foreign trade was the chief care of our wiſe anceſtors; from whence has aroſe all thoſe animal ſpirits, thoſe ſprings of riches, which have enabled us to ſpend ſo many millions for the preſervation of our liberties; and we ought rather to take meaſures for the ſake of our poſterity, than ſuffer any branches of our trade to be loaded with exceſſive duties, which muſt infallibly bring on the greateſt grievance to the Britiſh nation.

But how greatly have the Britiſh merchants and manufacturers, owners of ſhips and freighters, been burthened with high duties of cuſtoms and exciſes, is evident to any perſon who conſiders what duties were exiſting before the revolution, which is repreſented under the article of *Cuſtoms*: but it is ſtrange that the inſeparable affinity there is between the landed and the trading intereſt was never duly conſidered, when it is even a demonſtration, that it cannot go ill with trade but land will fall, nor ill with land but trade will feel it. They mutually furniſh each other with all the meaſures and conveniencies of life: the land ſupplies the traders with corn, cattle, wool, and generally all the materials either for their ſubſiſtance or their riches: the traders in return provide the gentlemen with houſes, cloaths, and many other things, without which their life at leaſt would be uncomfortable: yet theſe very intereſts have been always claſhing: the traders conſidered every high duty upon any part of their trade, as proceeding from jealouſy in the gentlemen of their rivalling them too faſt, and they were often enemies on this account: the gentlemen, on the other hand, thought they could never lay too great a burthen upon trade; though in every thing they eat, drink, and wear, they are ſure to bear the greateſt part themſelves.

It was long ago ſaid, by Doctor Davenant, that many in their debates and councils, ſeem to have no other view and aim, than to promote the immediate intereſt of land; and are always more warm in the concerns of it, and more indifferent and careleſs in what relates to trade, than perhaps is conſiſtent with the welfare and ſafety of this kingdom. Such perſons ſhould conſider, that when a nation is running to decay and ruin, the merchant and monied man will be ſure to ſtarve laſt. Obſerve it where they will, the decays that come upon, and bring ruin to any country, conſtantly firſt fall upon land; and though the country gentleman, (who, as Mr. Locke obſerves, uſually ſecurely relies upon ſo much a year as was given at his marriage-ſettlement, and thinks his land an immoveable fund for ſuch an income,) be not very forward to think ſo; yet this, nevertheleſs, is an undoubted truth, that he is more concerned in trade, and ought to take a greater care that it be well managed and preſerved, than even the merchant himſelf: for he will certainly find, when a decay of trade has carried one part of our money away out of the kingdom, and the other is kept in the hands of the merchants and tradeſmen, that no laws he can make, nor any little arts of ſhifting property among ourſelves, will bring it back to him again; but his rents will fall, and his income every day leſſen, till general induſtry and frugality, joined to a well-ordered trade, ſhall reſtore to the kingdom the riches and wealth it had formerly.

Theſe duties may be divided into cuſtoms, exciſes, and inland duties.

Cuſtoms, are thoſe duties which are paid by the importer of any commodities, and are under the management of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms. See *Cuſtoms*.

Exciſes, are thoſe duties which are paid by the manufacturers, or retailers, of any commodities; being under the management of the commiſſioners, and governed by the laws of exciſe: or under particular commiſſioners armed with the powers of exciſe. See *Exciſe*.

Inland duties are thoſe which are paid by the retailers of any commodities; but are under the management of particular boards of commiſſioners, with officers appointed for collecting them.

The duties, or chief branches of the revenues, according to a computation delivered to the houſe of commons at the beginning of the revolution, ſtood clear of all charges in the annual collection as follows.

The tonnage and poundage, including the wood-farm, coal-farm, and ſalt-farm, was computed at - - -	600,000l.
The exciſe on beer and ale - -	666,383
The hearth-money, at 2 s. on every hearth, about - - -	245,000
The poſt-office, about - -	65,000
Impoſition upon wines and vinegar, about	10,000
New impoſitions upon wine and vinegar, about	172,901
Duty on tobacco and ſugar - -	148,861
Duty on French linen, brandy, ſilk, &c. produced - - - -	93,710
Small branches, as ſeizures, wine-licences, &c. about - - - -	60,000
In all	2,061,855

To which may be added the coinage duty, being 10 s. a ton on wine, vinegar, cyder, or beer, and 20 s. a ton on brandy-wines, or ſtrong waters imported. Alſo a duty of 1 s. 6 d. *per* chaldron or ton of coals imported into London, beſides all other duties then payable; which was appropriated to the finiſhing of St. Paul's church in London.

But ſoon after the revolution, the nation paid dearly to its protector; a war was commenced, money was wanted, and for raiſing it new burthens were thrown upon our trade and manufactures: thus, for one inſtance only, in 1696, a bill was rejected for laying a new duty of 12 l. 12 s. *per* ton upon all wines to be paid by the retailer; and, inſtead thereof, an additional ſubſidy of tonnage and poundage was impoſed, whereby the rich appear to have made it their choice to load our trade and manufactures with additional duties, difficulties, and dangers, rather than load a branch of luxury with any new duty: and though this duty was wholly drawn back on exportation, yet the paying or bonding it diſtreſſed the credit of the merchant, and prevented his extending his trade ſo far as he might otherwiſe have done; beſides, as he muſt export within a certain time, it often prevented his being able to wait for a proper market.

The public revenue, during the reign of King Will. III. from the 5th of November 1688 to Lady-day 1702, produced as follows:

Cuſtoms - - - -	13,296,833l.
Exciſe - - - - -	13,649,328
Hearth-money, &c. - - -	2,008,597
Land-taxes - - -	19,174,059
Polls - - - -	2,557,649
Promiſcuous taxes - - -	7,531,305
Divers other receipts - -	480,915
In all	58,698,686

It ſhould be obſerved, that of the eight branches of the revenue, or duties, ſubſiſting at the revolution, four only were conſiderable, or ſuch as could load the merchant with any great advance of money upon importation or exportation: for the coinage-duty, coal-duty of London, exciſe on foreign liquors imported, and the duties of prizage and butlerage were ſo inconſiderable, that they were hardly worth notice: but the many new branches added during the reign of King William, eſpecially the two impoſ-

impoſts of 1690 and 1692, made the buſineſs of a merchant a perfect myſtery in Great Britain, and put every merchant to ſuch an advance of money for paying the duties upon importation, that a much greater ſtock of ready money was required for carrying on an extenſive commerce, than was formerly neceſſary for the ſame purpoſe. It may be ſaid, that with reſpect to moſt of theſe duties, the merchant might give bond for the duty, which bond was to be vacated upon exportation: but as merchants are allowed at the rate of 10 *per cent.* for prompt payment, no merchant will ever give bond for the duties, if he has money of his own, or can raiſe it upon his credit at legal intereſt, for making prompt payment; therefore, the giving bond for the duty muſt be always an impeachment of a merchant's credit; and beſides, as he muſt have one or two friends to join with him in the bond, it ſubjects him to the inconvenience of troubling his friends, and the danger of being obliged to become ſecurity to others; for he who aſks muſt grant in his turn; and no man who ſtands ſecurity for others can ever be ſure of his own circumſtances, becauſe an extent may ſtrip him of all his property, when from his books he juſtly ſuppoſes himſelf to be in affluence.

Thus it is evident, that after theſe heavy duties were laid upon importation, no cautious dealer could carry on ſuch extenſive commerce as he might have done formerly upon the ſame ſtock of ready money. But to render this more plain, ſuppoſe a merchant has advice from a correſpondent in one foreign country, that a certain ſort of commodity is then very cheap in that country; and has advice, at the ſame time, from a correſpondent in another foreign country, that the ſame ſort of commodity is then, or ſoon will be, very dear in this country; ſo that 20 *per cent.* profit may be made in a year or two, by purchaſing in one country, and ſending it to be ſold in another: and ſuppoſe, that the merchant who has theſe advices, has 10,000 l. ready money at command, and that he may import this commodity into Great Britain duty free: in theſe circumſtances, he will of courſe inveſt his whole 10,000 l. in the purchaſe of this commodity; and, by exporting it again, he will in a year or two add 2000 l. to his own, and conſequently to the national ſtock of the kingdom. But if he muſt pay at the rate of 5000 l. for duties upon importation, he can inveſt but 6600 l. of his money in the purchaſe of that commodity, and conſequently can add but 1320 l. either to his own ſtock, or the ſtock of the nation; becauſe he muſt reſerve money in his hands for paying the duties on importation.

Theſe duties muſt, therefore, cramp and diminiſh the trade of every individual; and, as the public conſiſts of the collective body of individuals, they muſt conſequently cramp and diminiſh the trade of the nation. But this of laying high duties on importation, was not the only injury done to trade; for by making thoſe duties a fund for borrowing money at intereſt, we diminiſhed the national ſtock of money ready to be employed in trade, as we thereby furniſhed our rich monied men with an opportunity to get an intereſt for their money, without lending to merchants and others employed in trade. To illuſtrate this, ſuppoſe the above mentioned merchant to have no ready money of his own, beſides what is neceſſary for carrying on the projects of trade he is already engaged in; but that he can borrow 10,000 l. from a perſon who will be glad to let it lie in his hands for two years or more at common intereſt: in this caſe he will certainly borrow the money, and take advantage of the advice he has received; becauſe, at the end of two years, he can repay the principal with intereſt, and put 1000 l. clear into his own pocket, by which means he adds 1000 l. to the ſtock of the lender, 1000 l. to his own, and conſequently 2000 l. to the ſtock of the nation: but if the public funds have abſorbed the money of all the rich monied men, ſo that none can be borrowed for any long certain term upon perſonal credit, he can make no advantage of the advice he has received, and the nation thereby loſes the opportunity of having 2000 l. added to the ſtock of ready money. Theſe duties, at the end of the reign of Queen Anne, were greatly increaſed, as is repreſented under the article of cuſtoms; to which alſo may be added, many additional branches of exciſe; and alſo the following inland duties. See *Cuſtoms* and *Exciſe*.

1. The poſt-office revenue, or duty on letters by the poſt, firſt granted in the 12th year of King Cha. II. for ever; which is a duty of a great many kinds, according to the ſize of the letter, and the place it comes from, or is ſent to; the loweſt for a ſingle letter being 2 d. and the higheſt for packets being 6 s. *per* ounce. See *Poſt-office*, and *Letter*.

2. The ſmall branches and caſual profits ariſing to the crown by wine-licences, ſeizures, and other articles, which have been immemorially poſſeſſed by the crown, or granted by ſeveral ſtatutes.

3. The firſt ſtamp duty, granted in the 2d year of King Will. and Mary, and by the 2d of Q. Anne, continued to the 1ſt of Auguſt 1807, being a duty of different kinds upon every ſkin, ſheet, or piece of vellum, parchment, or paper, on which is written any authentic document, or law proceeding; except bills of exchange, and a few others.

4. The duty on hackney coaches and chairs, granted in the 2d year of King William and Queen Mary, being a tax of 5 s. *per* week on each of 800 hackney coaches, and 10 s. a year on each of 400 hackney chairs within the bills of mortality.

5. The duty on houſes and windows, granted in the 3d year of King William, and continued for ever; being a tax of 2 s. a year on every inhabited houſe, except cottages; and on every ſuch houſe having ten windows or more, and under twenty, 6 s. a year; and on every houſe having twenty windows or more, 10 s. a year.

6. An additional duty on houſes granted in the 3d year of Q. Anne; being an additional duty of 10 s. on every inhabited houſe having twenty windows or more, and under thirty; and an additional 20 s. on every houſe having thirty windows or more; which addition was granted for thirty-two years from Michaelmas 1710.

7. The duty on hawkers and pedlars, granted in the 1ſt year of Will. III. and by the 3d of Q. Anne continued to Midſummer 1807; being a tax of four pounds a year on every hawker or pedlar, and 4 l. a year more for every horſe, or beaſt, bearing or drawing burden, with which he travels.

8. A ſecond-ſtamp duty, at firſt granted for ever in the 2d year of William III. being an additional ſtamp duty, in moſt reſpects the ſame with the former.

9. The apprentice-duty, at firſt granted for five years by the 3d of Q. Anne, being a duty of 6 d. in the pound, for all ſums paid with cletks or apprentices; and if the ſum to be paid, or agreed to be paid, exceed 50 l. the tax is then 1 s. in the pound; but apprentices put out by the pariſh or by any public charity, are excepted.

10. A third ſtamp duty, granted by the 4th of Queen Anne for 32 years, from the 1ſt of Auguſt 1711; being a ſtamp duty on ſome things not before charged, as debentures 8 d. bills of lading 4 d. almanacks on one ſheet 1 d. if on more 2 d. a year; wine-licences 4 s. ale-licences 1 s. a year.

11. The duty on cards and dice, made or imported, granted by the ſame act for 32 years, from June 11th, 1711; being a duty of 6 d. a pack on cards, and 5 s. a pair for dice.

12. A fourth ſtamp-duty, firſt granted for 32 years from Auguſt 1. 1712, by the 4th of Anne; being a new duty of ſeveral kinds upon writings not before charged; as alſo upon papers, or pamphlets, and advertiſements; with an additional duty of 2 s. and 3 d. on every transfer of ſtock, in any company.

13. A fifth ſtamp-duty, firſt granted as before by the 4th of Queen Anne, being an additional ſtamp duty of 2 s. 4 d. upon every policy of inſurance whatſoever.

14. A ſixth ſtamp-duty, firſt granted for 32 years, from Auguſt 2. 1714, by the 4th of Queen Anne, being an additional ſtamp-duty of five different kinds, upon a great variety of deeds and writings therein mentioned.

15. The civil liſt tax; being a tax of 35,000 l. on the civil liſt revenue.

16. The land-tax; for though this tax was never for above a year at a time; yet as it was annually granted, and was ſubſiſting at the death of Queen Anne, it may be

be reckoned among our inland duties; and, perhaps, we may be ſubjected to it as long as we are liable to any tax whatever: the land-tax, when at 2 s. in the pound, producing about a million annually.

During the reigns of King Geo. I. and King George II. the following inland duties were added.

1. The 6 d. *per* pound on penſions, &c. which is mortgaged, and perhaps for ever.

2. The new ſtamp-duty on law proceedings, continued for ever.

3. The duty on licences to retail ſpirituous liquors, granted for ever.

4. The duty on all coaches, &c. granted for ever; and which, as it is charged on a branch of luxury, ought never to be repealed.

There are alſo duties payable in the Britiſh plantations in America, for all ſhips coming there, to take in the commodities of thoſe plantations; which duties are payable when bond has not been given to bring the ſame to Great Britain only; but with intent to carry the ſame to ſome other Britiſh plantation; and are as follows.

	l.	s.	d.
Sugar white, the hundred weight -	0	5	0
Sugar brown, and muſcavadoes, the hundred weight - - - - -	0	1	6
Tobacco the pound - - - -	0	0	1
Cotton wool the pound - - -	0	0	$0\frac{1}{2}$
Indico the pound - - - -	0	0	2
Ginger, the hundred weight - -	0	1	0
Logwood the hundred weight - -	5	0	0
Fuſtick, and all other dying wood, the hundred weight - - - - -	0	0	6
Cocoa nuts the pound - -	0	0	1

There are likewiſe the following duties to be paid on the following commodities, of the product of any plantation in America, not in the poſſeſſion of his Britannic Majeſty, imported into any of the Britiſh plantations in America; being to be paid in money of Great Britain, according to the value of 5 s. 6 d. *per* ounce in ſilver.

	l.	s.	d.
Rum, or ſpirits, the gallon - -	0	0	9
Molaſſes, or ſyrups, the gallon - -	0	0	6
Sugar, and paneles, the hundred weight	0	5	0

And ſo in proportion, for a greater or leſſer quantity, to be paid down in ready money, before landing. See *Plantations*.

When we conſider, that many of theſe cuſtoms, exciſes, and inland duties affect the neceſſaries, or at leaſt the indiſpenſible conveniencies of life, as well as many of the materials neceſſary for working up our manufactures; and that when a tax is laid upon any commodity, the dealers in that commodity always do, and indeed muſt raiſe the price a great deal more than the tax laid upon it, to make good the intereſt of the money they advance for paying that tax, and the hazard they run of loſing it by bad debts; we cannot be at a loſs to find the true cauſe of the increaſe of wages, and the advanced price of all manufactures in Great Britain, without maliciouſly imputing it to the idleneſs or extravagance of our people; for the labourer muſt live by his wages, and he that employs him by his profits; and if we increaſe the neceſſary expence of both by taxes, the former muſt have higher wages, and the latter greater profits; otherwiſe the one muſt ſtarve, and the other become a bankrupt.

However, we ſhould alſo conſider, that theſe taxes in the end fall on the conſumer: for the merchant firſt pays the duty; then he pays himſelf intereſt for the money he advances for that duty; then he pays fees ordinary and extraordinary; next he pays himſelf intereſt on theſe; he then ſells to the wholeſale man on credit, and pays himſelf intereſt on that credit: the wholeſale man, conſidering all this, raiſes his price on the retailer accordingly, and that retailer on the conſumer in courſe: ſo that the conſumer pays for duty and credit on an average at leaſt 60 *per cent.* on every commodity he conſumes; which has occaſioned ſeveral ſchemes for reducing the preſent multiplicity of taxes to one general tax, to be paid by the conſumer. See *Tax*.

DUYIVELAND, or *Diveland*, one of the iſlands of Zeland, in the United Provinces, E. of the iſland of Schonen, from which it is divided by a narrow channel.

DUYT. A ſmall copper coin, ſtruck and current in Holland, eight of which make the ſtiver, or about $1\frac{1}{10}$ d. ſterling.

DWARF-*trees*. A ſort of diminutive fruit-trees, frequently planted in the borders of gardens; thus called from the lowneſs of their ſtature: for they ſeldom grow above 4 or 5 feet high, and have uſually a hoop tied within the middle of the branches, to make them ſpread around.

Dwarf-trees are of ſpecial advantage for table fruit, whether pears, apples, plums, or cherries; the fruit they yield being uſually the fineſt and beſt; and as ſuch they make a conſiderable article in the gardeners province.

DWINA. A river which gives name to the province of Dwina in Ruſſia; and, running through it from S. to N. diſcharges itſelf into the White ſea, a little below Archangel.

DWINA, is alſo a river of Lithuania, in Poland, which, running N. W. divides Livonia from Courland, and falls into the Baltic ſea, at the Dunamunder fort, a little below Riga.

DYE, or *Dying*, the art or act of tinging cloth, ſtuff, ſilk, or other matter, with a permanent colour, which penetrates the ſubſtance thereof: or it may more particularly defined to be the art of colouring wool, linen, cotton, ſilk, hair, feathers, horn, leather, and the threads and webs thereof, with woods, roots, herbs, ſeeds, and leaves, by means of ſalts, linens, lixiviums, waters, heats, fermentations, macerations, and other proceſſes. See *Drug*.

Upon the art or myſtery of dying in ſilk and wool, a nation is dependent for one of the moſt eſſential recommendations of its woven goods, as what procures them the readieſt vent, both at home and abroad: for it will turn to ſmall account, that the materials are good, and well wrought up, unleſs the mixture and colours be anſwerable, and grateful to the eye of the purchaſer: becauſe it may be ſaid, that a piece of cloth, or any other ſort of goods ill dyed, is equally the ſame as if it was very much ſtained. The importance of a good dye is confirmed by experience: for the great eſteem and univerſal market, which the ſilks of Lyons have obtained in all the four quarters of the world, proceed more from the livelineſs of the colours, and a happy fancy in diſpoſing them, than all other things put together. Upon theſe conſiderations, the dyers have received conſiderable encouragement in moſt countries, by having a certain portion of dying ingredients exempted from all duties; which is alſo practiſed in England.

DYING, with regard to the manner of applying the colours, is divided into hot and cold.

DYING *hot*, is that wherein the liquors and ingredients are boiled, before the cloth is dipped therein; or even where the cloths themſelves are boiled in the dye.

DYING *cold*, is where the ingredients are diſſolved cold; or at leaſt ſuffered to grow cold before the ſtuffs are put in them.

The art of dying is of great antiquity, as appears from the traces of it in the oldeſt ſacred, as well as profane writers. The honour of the invention is attributed to the Tyrians; tho' what leſſens the merit of it is, that it is ſaid to have owed its origin to chance. The juices of certain fruits and leaves accidentally cruſhed, are ſuppoſed to have furniſhed the firſt hint: Pliny affirms, that, even in his time, the Gauls made uſe of no other dyes. Coloured earths, and minerals waſhed and ſoaked with rain, gave the next dying materials: but purple, an animal juice, found in a ſhell-fiſh, called murex, conchylium, and purpura, ſeems, from hiſtory, to have been prior to any of them. This, indeed, was reſerved for the uſe of kings and princes; for private perſons were forbidden, by law, to wear the leaſt ſcrap of it. The diſcovery of its tinging quality is ſaid to be taken from a dog, who having caught one of the purple fiſhes among the rocks, and eaten it up, ſtained his mouth and beard with the precious liquor; which ſtruck the fancy of a Tyrian nymph ſo ſtrongly, that ſhe refuſed her lover Hercules any favours till he had brought her a mantle of the ſame colour.

After

After the Phœnicians, the Sardinians ſeem to have arrived at the greateſt perfection in the dying art: inſomuch, that βαμμα Σαρδίνιακε, Sardinian dye, paſſed into a proverb among the Greeks. Till the time of Alexander no other ſort of dye is to be found in uſe, but purple and ſcarlet. It was under the ſucceſſors of that monarch that the Greeks applied themſelves to the other colours; when they invented, or at leaſt perfected, blue, yellow, and green; for the ancient purple has been long loſt; but the perfection to which the moderns have carried the other colours abundantly indemnify them of the loſs: in which the French, under the auſpices of that excellent miniſter Mr. Colbert, ſeem to have outſtripped moſt of their neighbours. See *Gobelins*.

There are three things requiſite, and demanded by the Greek chemiſts for a good dye; 1ſt, Opening or rariſying of the body to be dyed; to diſpoſe it to imbibe the colour. 2d, The tincture, or the dye itſelf, which was, by the Romans, called *alligatio*. 3d, The binding, or fixing of the colour, to prevent its fading, or being diſcharged. Some add a fourth condition, by the Latins called *lumen*; by the Engliſh luſtre, or brightneſs.

Among ſome, theſe three were done ſeverally, at three different operations, in different liquors, or decoctions: by the firſt, the ſtuff was prepared to receive the dye; by the ſecond, the deſired colour was given it; and by the 3d, the colour was fixed on it: but others performed all three at once, with one decoction and one dip.

The baſis of a juſt hiſtory of dying, muſt be a theory of light and colours; but it may be obſerved, that two things are chiefly aimed at in the enquiry of colours; 1ſt, to increaſe the *materia tinctoria*; 2d, to fix the known colours.—In order to theſe it may be remembered, that ſome colours are apparent; as thoſe of flowers, the juices of fruits, and the ſanies of animals: others are latent, and only diſcovered by the effects which the ſeveral ſpecies of ſalts and other things have on them.

DYING-*ingredients*, are beſt reduced under two heads: 1ſt, Thoſe which properly give the colour. 2d, And thoſe which are uſed to prepare the ſtuffs for better taking the dye, and to heighten the luſtre of the colours.

The colouring ingredients are of three ſorts; blue, yellow, and red. To the firſt ſort belong indigo, woad, weld, wood-wax, and logwood; to the ſecond fuſtic; to the third madder, brazil, cochineel, kermes, ſafflower, and anders. To which may be added annotto, and young fuſtic for orange colours; laſtly wood-ſoot.

For the colouring ingredients they are, 1ſt, Iron and ſteel, or what is made from them, which are uſed in dying blacks; tho' how they contribute thereto is not ſo obvious: it is known that green oaken boards become black by the affriction of a ſaw; a green four apple, cut with a knife, turns of the ſame colour; the white greaſe wherewith the wheels of coaches are anointed, becomes likewiſe black, by means of the iron boxes wherewith the nave is lined, and the friction between the nave and axle-tree; and that an oaken ſtick becomes black, by a violent friction againſt other wood, in a turning lath; and the black colour on earthen ware is given with ſcalings of iron vitrified. From all which it ſeems to follow, that the buſineſs of blacking lies in iron, and particularly in its uſtulation aud affriction. Be this as it will, copperas, the moſt uſual ingredient for dying black, is the ſalt of pyrites, wherewith old iron is incorporated; and wherever this is uſed, ſome of the aſtringents are to accompany it. 2. Red-wood chopped, and ground in a mill, is uſed for dying cloth, rugs, and the like of the coarſer ſort: its tincture, which is a ſort of brick-colour, being got out by long boiling it with alls, and the cloth along with it; and it ſtands better than brazil. 3. Brazil, chopped alſo, and ground, dyes a pink colour, or carnation, neareſt approaching cochineel; it is uſed with alum: with pot-aſhes it alſo ſerves for purples; but eaſily ſtains. 4. Madder gives a colour near approaching the bow dye, or new ſcarlet; and thoſe called baſtard-ſcarlets are dyed with it. It endures much boiling, and is uſed both with alum and argol, and holds well: the brighteſt dyes with madder, are made by overdying the ſtuff, and then deſtroying part of it by back-

boiling in argol; but it muſt be uſed with bran-water inſtead of white liquor. 5. Cochineel, uſed with bran-liquor in a pewter furnace, with aqua fortis, gives the dye, called, tho' improperly, ſcarlet in grain; but any acid takes off the intenſe redneſs of this colour, and turns it towards an orange, or flame colour; though with this colour, the Spaniſh leather and wool uſed by ladies are dyed. 6. Annotto gives an orange-colour, eſpecially to ſilks, linens, and cottons; being uſed with pot-aſhes, but does not penetrate cloth. 7. Weld, by the help of pot-aſhes yields a deep lemon-colour; tho' it is uſed to give all ſorts of yellows. 8. Wood-wax, or green wood, called alſo the dyers weed, has the ſame effect as weld; tho' its uſe is chiefly confined to coarſe cloths, being ſet with pot-aſhes, or urine. 9. Fuſtic, which is of two ſorts, young and old; the former, chopped and ground, yields a kind of orange-colour: the latter, a hair colour, diſtant ſeveral degrees of yellow from the former: it ſpends with or without ſalts, works either hot or cold, and holds firm. 10. Wood-ſoot, containing not only a colour, but a ſalt, needs nothing to extract its dye, or make it ſtrike on the ſtuff: the natural colour it yields is that of honey; but it is the foundation of many other colours on wool and cloth only. 11. Woad, ground or chopped, with a mill for the purpoſe, is made up into balls; which being broken and ſtrewed on lime, or urine, is uſed with pot aſhes, or ſea-weed, and gives a laſting blue: the lime, or calk, accelerates the fermentation of the woad, which, in three or four days, will work like a guile of beer, and be covered with a greeniſh froth or flower. An intenſe woad-colour is almoſt black; that is, of a damſon colour: but it is the foundation of ſo many colours, in its different degrees, or ſhades, that the dyers have a ſcale to compute the lightneſs and depth of this colour. 12. Indigo is of the like nature, and uſed for the ſame purpoſe as woad, only that it is ſtronger. 13. Logwood, chopped and ground, yields a purpliſh blue, and may be uſed with alum: formerly it was of ill repute, as a moſt falſe and fading colour; but, ſince it has been uſed with galls, it is leſs complained of.

The non-colouring ingredients are, certain aſtringent or binding materials; as galls, ſumac, alder bark, pomegranate-peel, walnut-rinds and roots, ſapling, and crab-tree bark. Certain ſalts; as alum, argol, ſalt-petre, ſal armoniac, pot-aſhes, lime, and urine. Liquors; as well-water, river-water, aqua vitæ, vinegar, lemon-juice, aqua fortis, honey, and molaſſes. Gums; as tragacanth, arabic, maſtic, and ſanguis draconis. Smectics, and abſterſives; as ſoap, fuller's earth, linſeed oil, and ox-gall. Metals; as ſteel-filings, ſlipp, and pewter; to which may be added copperas, verdegreaſe, antimony, litharge, and arſenic. Laſtly, bran, wheat-flower, yolks of eggs, leaven, cummin-ſeed, fenugreek ſeed, agaric, ſenna, and leaves.

Of moſt of theſe ingredients ſome account may be found under their reſpective articles; but, with regard to their uſe and effect in dying, it will be neceſſary to conſider them more particularly.

Among the non-colouring drugs brought from the mineral kingdom, are, 1ſt, Copperas, ſteel filings, and ſlipp, or the ſtuff found in the troughs of old grind-ſtones, whereon edge tools have been ground, which are uſed for all true, or Spaniſh blacks; though not for the Flanders blacks. 2. Pewter diſſolved in aqua fortis, uſed for the new ſcarlet, or bow-dye. 3 Litharge, though not owned or allowed, is uſed to add weight to dyed ſilks. 4. Antimony uſed chiefly for the ſame purpoſe; tho' it alſo contains a tingent ſulphur, which, by precipitation, affords a great variety of colours. 5. Arſenic uſed in dying crimſon, on pretence of giving a luſtre. 6. Verdegreaſe, uſed by linen dyers in their yellow and green colours. 7. Alum, much uſed, but with what intent is not agreed on; whether to render water a proper menſtruum to extract the tingent particles of certain hard drugs, or to ſcower the ſordes, which may interpoſe between the ſtuff and the dye, and hinder their due adheſion? Or to intenerate the hairs of the wool, and hair-ſtuffs, that they may better imbibe their colours? Or to contribute to the colour itſelf, as copperas does to galls in making blacks,

or juice of lemons to cochineel, or aqua fortis impregnated with pewter in the bow-dye; or, which ſeems moſt probable, to ſerve as a vinculum between the cloth and the colour, as clammy oils, and gum waters, do in painting; alum being a ſubſtance whoſe aculeated particles, diſſolved with hot liquors, will enter the pores of ſtuffs, and on which the particles of dying drugs will catch: tho' it may alſo ſerve another uſe, namely, to dry up certain particles, which diſagreed with the colour to be ſuperinduced: to which add, that it may alſo ſerve to brighten a colour, by incruſtating the ſtuff to be dyed with its cryſtals, on which the dye coming to be applied, has a finer effect than if it were applied on a ſcabrous matter, ſuch as is an unalumed cloth? 8. Bran, and bran-water, whoſe flower, entering the pores of the ſtuff, levigates its ſurface, and thus renders the colour laid on it more beautiful; much like the woods to be gilded, which are firſt ſmoothened over with white colours. 9. Salt-patre, uſed chiefly in aqua-fortis, in the bow-dye, to brighten colours by the boiling; for which purpoſe, 10thly, argol is more commonly uſed. 11. Lime, or calke, uſed in the working of blue fats.

Non-colouring ingredients of the animal kind, are, 1ſt, Honey. 2. Yolks of eggs. 3. Ox-gall: tho' theſe are only uſed by particular dyers, to ſcower, promote fermentation, and increaſe weight. 4. Stale urine, uſed as a lixivium to ſcower; as alſo to help the fermenting and heating of woad; though it is likewiſe uſed in the blue fats, inſtead of lime: in reality, as it diſcharges the yellow, wherewith blue, and moſt greens, are compounded, it is uſed to ſpend weld withal; yet it is known, that the urine, or old mud of piſſing places, will dye a well ſcowered piece of ſilver of a golden colour; it being with this that the Bath ſixpences and ſhillings are prepared, and not with Bath-water, as imagined by ſome people.

To the claſs of non-colouring ingredients may alſo be added water, by dyers called the white-liquor, which is of two ſorts; 1ſt, Well-water, uſed in reds, and in other colours wanting reſtringency, as well as in dying ſtuffs of a looſe contexture; as callicoes, fuſtians, and the ſeveral ſpecies of cottons; but it is bad for blues, and makes yellows and greens look ruſty. 2. River-water, ſofter and ſweeter than the former, and diſſolving ſoap better; uſed in moſt caſes, by the dyers, for waſhing and rinſing their cloths after dying. 3. Liquor, abſolutely ſo called, which is bran liquor, made of one part bran, and fine river-water, boiled an hour, and put in a leaden ciſtern to ſettle: four or five days in ſummer turn it too ſour, and unfit for uſe: its office is to contribute to the holding of the colour: it is known that ſtarch, which is only the flower of bran, makes a clinging paſte that will conglutinate paper, tho' not wood or metals. Accordingly, bran-liquors are uſed to mealy dying ſtuffs; as to madder, which is rendered clammy and glutinous by being boiled in bran-water, and thus made to ſtick better to the villi of the ſtuff dyed. 4. Gums, tragacanth, arabic, maſtic, and ſanguis draconis, are uſed in dying ſilk, chiefly to give it a gloſſineſs, which may make it ſeem finer, as well as ſtiffer; and to encreaſe the weight.

The dying materials are generally applied in decoctions made in water, more or leſs ſtrong, according to the occaſion; ſometimes by only dipping the ſtuff in the vat of dye; ſometimes by boiling it therein; and ſometimes by leaving it a day or more to ſteep: but alum, in dying ſilks, is always applied cold; in which ſtate alone it contributes to the brightneſs of the dye.

The art of DYING may be divided into as many branches as there are different colours to be communicated, and ſorts of different ſtuffs to be the ſubject of it.

DYING *of cloths, ſerges, ſtuffs, and other woollen manufactures.* For black, in cloths and ſtuffs of price, it is begun with a ſtrong decoction of woad and indigo, which give a deep blue; after which, the ſtuffs being boiled with alum, tartar, and pot-aſhes, are to be maddered with common madder, then dyed black with Aleppo galls, copperas, and ſumac, and finiſhed by back-boiling in weld. Scarlet is dyed with kermes and cochineel; with which may be alſo uſed agaric and arſenic. Crimſon, is given with cochineel, maſtic, aqua fortis, ſal armoniac, ſublimate, and ſpirit of wine. Violet-ſcarlet, purple, amaranth, and panſy-ſcarlets, are given with woad, cochineel, indigo, braziletto, brazil, and orchal. For common reds pure madder is uſed, without other ingredients. Crimſon reds, carnations, flame and peach-colours, are dyed according to their ſeveral hues, with cochineel mettle, without madder or the like. Crimſon red is prepared with Roman alum, and finiſhed with cochineel. Peach-colour, muſt be back-boiled a little with galls, copperas, or the like. Orange-aurora, or golden yellow, brick-colour, and onion-peel-colour, are given with weld and madder, tempered according to their reſpective ſhades. For blues, the darker are given with a ſtrong tincture of woad; the brighter with the ſame liquor, as it weakens in working. Dark-browns, minims, and tan-colours, are given with woad, weaker in decoction than for black, with alum and pot-aſhes; after which they are maddered higher than for black. For tan colours, a little cochineel is added. Pearl-colours are given with gall and copperas; ſome are begun with walnut-tree roots, and finiſhed with the former; though, to make them more ſerviceable, they are dipped in a weak tincture of cochineel. Greens, are begun with woad and finiſhed with weld. Pale-yellow, lemon-colour, and ſulphur-colour, are given with weld only. Olive colours of all degrees, are firſt put in green, and taken down again with ſoot, more or leſs, according to the ſhade required. Feulemort, hair-colour, muſk, and cinnamon-colour, are given with weld and madder. Nacarat, or bright orange-red, is given with weld and goats hair boiled with pot-aſhes: but fuſtic is forbid here, as a falſe colour.

DYING *of wools for tapeſtry*, is performed after the ſame manner as cloths; excepting blacks, which are only to be woaded, and then put in black, as above. Black wools, for cloths and ſerges, may be begun with walnut-tree root, or walnut-rinds, and finiſhed by dipping in a vat of black.

DYING *of ſilks*, is begun by boiling them with ſoap, then ſcowering and waſhing them out in the river, and ſteeping them in alum water cold: but for crimſon they are ſcowered a ſecond time before putting them in the cochineel vat. Red-crimſon is dyed with cochineel mettle, adding galls, turmeric, arſenic, and tartar, all put together in a copper of fair water, almoſt boiling: with theſe the ſilk is to be boiled an hour and half; after which, it is ſuffered to ſtand in the liquor till next day. Violet-crimſon is alſo given with pure cochineel, arſenic, tartar, and glaſs; but the galls in leſs proportion than the former: when taken out it is to be well waſhed, and put in a vat of indigo. Cinnamon-crimſon is begun like the violet; but finiſhed by back-boiling; if too bright, with copperas; if dark with a dip in indigo. Light-blues are given in a back of indigo. Sky blues are begun with orchal, and finiſhed with indigo. For citron-colours, the ſilk is firſt alumed, then welded, with a little indigo. Pale-yellows, after aluming, are dyed in weld alone. Pale and brown auroras, after aluming, are welded ſtrongly, then taken down with rocou diſſolved with pot-aſhes. Flame-colour is begun with rocou, then alumed, and dipped in a vat or two of brazil. Cinnamon-colour, after aluming, is dipped in brazil and braziletto. Lead-colour is given with fuſtic, or with weld, braziletto, galls, and copperas: but the galls, on theſe and other occaſions, are not to be overdoſed, which increaſes the weight to the damage of the purchaſer; for which reaſon it is puniſhed in France as a fraud: and, in reality, few but black ſilks require galls. Black ſilks, of the coarſer ſort, are begun by ſcowering them with ſoap, as for other colours; which done, they are waſhed out, wrung, and boiled an hour in old galls, where they are left to ſtand a day or two: after which, they are waſhed again with fair water, wrung, and put in another vat of new and fine galls; then waſhed and wrung again, and finiſhed in a vat of black. Fine blacks, are only put once into galls, of the new and fine ſort, which has only boiled an hour; then they are waſhed, and wrung out, and dipped thrice in black, to be afterwards brought down, by back-boiling with ſoap.

DYING *of thread*, is begun by ſcowering it in a lye of good aſhes; after which it is wrung, rinſed out in river-water, and wrung again.—For a bright blue, it is given with braziletto and indigo. Bright-green is firſt dyed blue, then back-boiled with braziletto and verdeter, and laſtly woaded. For a dark-green it is given like the former, only darkening more before woading.—Lemon, or pale-yellow, is given with weld mixed with rocou.—Orange, and iſabella, with fuſtic, weld, and rocou.—Red, both bright and dark, with flame-colour, are given with brazil, either alone, or with a mixture of rocou.—Violet, dry roſe, and amaranth, are given with brazil, taken down with indigo.—Feulemort, and olive-colour, are given with galls and copperas, taken down and finiſhed with braziletto wood.

DYING *of hats*, is done with braziletto, galls, copperas, and verdegreaſe, diſſolved, and boiled in a copper capable of receiving, beſides the liquor, 12 dozen of hats on their blocks, or moulds. Here the hats are ſuffered to boil ſome time, after which they are taken out and left to ſtand and cool, then dipped again; and thus alternately, oftener or ſeldomer, as the ſtuff is of a nature to take the dye with more or leſs difficulty.

Proof of dyes.—There are ſeveral ways of proving the truth of dyes, or examining the juſtneſs and legitimacy of their compoſition. To diſcover whether a cloth has been duly treated by the dyer, and the proper foundations laid, a white ſpot, of the bigneſs of a ſhilling, ought to be left; beſides a white ſtripe between the cloth and the liſt. Farther proof is had by boiling the dyed ſtuff in water, with other ingredients, different according to the quality of the dye to be proved: if the colour ſuſtains the teſt, that is, does not diſcharge at all, or very little, ſo that the water is not tinctured by it, the dye is pronounced good; otherwiſe falſe.

Proof of the dyes of ſilks.—For red crimſon, the proof is made by boiling the ſilk with an equal weight of alum. For ſcarlet-crimſon it is boiled with ſoap, almoſt the weight of the ſilk. For violet-crimſon, with alum of equal weight with the ſilk, or with white citron juice, about a pint to a pound of ſilk. Theſe ingredients are to be mixed, and put in fair water when it begins to boil; after which, the ſilks are alſo to be put in; and after boiling the whole for half a quarter of an hour, if the dye is falſe the liquor of the red-crimſon will be violet, in caſe it has been dyed with orchal; or very red, if with brazil: that of crimſon-ſcarlet, if rocou has been uſed, will become of an aurora colour; or, if brazil has been uſed, red: and that of violet crimſon, if brazil or orchal has been uſed, will be of a colour bordering upon red. On the contrary, if the three ſorts of crimſon are truly dyed, their liquors will diſcover but very little alteration. A ſtill ſurer way to diſcover if crimſon ſilks are rightly dyed, is by boiling a piece of ſtandard crimſon ſilk, kept for that purpoſe at dyers-hall, after the ſame manner, and then comparing the tinctures of the two liquors.

To diſcover whether other colours have been dyed with galls, the ſilk is put in fair boiling water, with pot-aſhes, or ſoap, nearly of the weight of the ſilk; after ſome time it is taken out, upon which, if it has been dyed with galls, the colour will be vaniſhed, and nothing but that of the galls left, which is a ſort of feulemort, or wood colour. The dying of ſilk with galls may alſo be detected by putting it in boiling water, with a gallon of citron juice; being taken out and waſhed in cold water, and then dipped in a black dye, if galls have been uſed it, it will turn black; if not, it will be of a brown-bread colour.

To diſcover if black ſilk has been over-doſed with galls, ſteel-filings, or ſlipp, it ſhould be boiled in fair water, with twice its weight of ſoap: if it is loaden with galls, it will turn reddiſh; otherwiſe it will keep its colour.

To diſcover whether black cloth has been firſt woaded and maddered, a ſample of it, and at the ſame time a ſample of ſtandard black, kept for that purpoſe for the dyers company, is to be taken; and then as much Roman alum as is equal in weight to both, together with a like weight of pot-aſhes, is to be put over the fire in a pan of bran-water; when it begins to boil, the two ſamples ſhould be put in, and after half an hour to be taken out and compared. The piece which has only been woaded, will be found bluiſh, with ſomewhat of a dull green; if it hath been both woaded and maddered, it will be of a tan, or minim colour; and if it has been neither woaded or maddered, its colour will be dunniſh, between yellow and ſallow.

For cloths dyed of a minim colour, the proof is to be made after the manner of that of blacks.

To know whether ſcarlet, or crimſon cloths, have been dyed with pure cochineel, they are to be boiled, with an ounce of alum to a pound of cloth. For cloths of other colours, the proof is to be made in the ſame manner as that of blacks and minims.

Theory of DYING. 1. All the materials, which of themſelves give colour, are either red, yellow, or blue; ſo that out of them, and the primitive fundamental colour, white, all that great variety, which is ſeen in dying ſtuffs, ariſes. 2. Few of the colouring materials, as cochineel, ſoot, woad-wax, or woad, are, in their outward and firſt appearance, of the ſame colour, which, by the ſlighteſt diſtempers and ſolutions in the weakeſt menſtrua, they dye upon cloth, ſilk, or ſuch like. 3. Many of the colouring materials will not yield their colours without much grinding, ſteeping, boiling, fermenting, or corroſion by powerful menſtrua; as red-wood, weld, woad, and annotto. 4. Many of the ſaid colouring materials will of themſelves give no colouring at all; as copperas, or galls; or with much diſadvantage, unleſs the cloth or other ſtuff to be dyed is firſt covered, or incruſtated, as it were, with ſome other matter, though colourleſs afore hand; as madder, weld, and brazil, without a gum. 5. Some of the colouring materials, by the help of other colourleſs ones, ſtrike different colours from what they would alone, and of themſelves; as cochineel, and brazil. 6. Some colours, as madder, indigo, and woad, by re-iterated tinctures, will at laſt become black. 7. Though green is the moſt frequent and common of all natural colours; yet there is no ſimple ingredient, which is now uſed alone, to dye green with upon any material; ſap-green, the condenſed juice of the rhamus-berry being the neareſt, and this only uſed by country-people. 8. There is no black thing in uſe which dies black; though both the coal and ſoot of moſt things burnt, or ſcorched, are of that colour; and the blacker, by how much the matter, before it was burnt, was whiter; as in the remarkable inſtance of ivory black. 9. The tincture of ſome dying ſtuffs will fade even with lying, or with the air, or will ſtain even with water; but very much with wine, vinegar, or urine. 10. Some of the dyers materials are uſed to bind and ſtrengthen a colour; ſome to brighten it; ſome to give luſtre to the ſtuff; ſome to diſcharge and take off the colour, either in whole or in part; and ſome out of fraud, to make the material dyed, if coſtly, to be heavier. 11. Some dying ingredients, or drugs, by the coarſeneſs of their bodies, make the thread of the dyed ſtuff ſeem coarſer; ſome, by ſhrinking them, ſmaller; and ſome, by levigating their aſperities, finer. 12. Many of the ſame colours are dyed upon different ſtuffs, with different materials; as red-wood, uſed in cloth, not in ſilks; annotto in ſilks, not in cloth; ſo that they may be dyed at ſeveral prices. 13. Scowering, and waſhing of ſtuffs, to be dyed, is to be done with appropriate materials, as ſometimes with oxgalls, ſometimes with fuller's earth, and ſometimes with ſoap; but this latter is pernicious in ſome caſes, where pot-aſhes will ſtain, or alter the colour. 14. Where great quantities of ſtuffs are to be dyed together, or where they are to be done with great ſpeed; and where the pieces are very long, broad, and thick, they are to be differently handled, both in reſpect to the veſſels, and ingredients. 15. In ſome colours, and ſtuffs, the tingent liquor muſt be boiling; in other caſes blood-warm; in others it may be cold. 16. Some tingent liquors are fitted for uſe by long keeping, and in ſome the virtue wears away by the ſame. 17. Some colours, or ſtuffs, are beſt dyed by re-iterated dippings ever in the ſame liquor, at ſeveral intervals of time; ſome by continuing a longer, and others a leſſer time therein. 18. In ſome caſes, the matter of the veſſel wherein the liquors are heated, and the tinctures prepared,

muſt

muſt be regarded, as that the kettles are pewter for bow-dye. 19. Little regard is had how much liquor is uſed in proportion to the dying drugs; the liquor being rather adjuſted to the bulk of the ſtuff, as the veſſels are to the breadth of the ſame; the quantity of dying drugs being proportioned to the colour, higher, or lower, and to the ſtuffs both; as likewiſe the ſalts are to the dying drugs.

Concerning the weight which colours give to ſilks, for in them it is moſt taken notice of, as being ſold by weight, and being a commodity of great price, it is obſerved, that one pound of raw ſilk loſes four ounces by waſhing out the gums, and natural ſordes; as alſo that the ſame ſcowered ſilk may be raiſed to above 30 ounces from the remaining 12, if it is dyed black with certain materials. The reaſon why black colour may be dyed the heavieſt is, that all ponderous drugs may be dyed black, being all of a lighter colour; whereas, perhaps, there ſeem to be few or no materials wherewith to increaſe the weight of ſilk, which will conſiſt with fair light colours; ſuch as will, having been uſed, as white arſenic to carnations.

Of things uſeful in dying, eſpecially black, nothing increaſes weight ſo much as galls; by means whereof black ſilks recover the weight which they loſt by waſhing out their gum: nor is it counted extraordinary, that blacks ſhould gain about 4 or 6 ounces in the dying upon each pound. But, next to galls, old fuſtic increaſes the weight about an ounce and an half in 12, madder an ounce, and weld half an ounce. The blue vat, in deep blues of the fifth ſtall, adds no conſiderable weight; neither does log-wood, cochineel, or annotto; nor even copperas of itſelf, without galls; though ſlipp adds much to the weight, and gives a deeper black than copperas, which affords a good excuſe for the dyers that uſe it.

DYING, in a more extenſive ſenſe, is applied to all kinds of colouring given to bodies of any ſort; in which ſenſe, dying amounts to the ſame with coloration, as it includes ſtaining, painting, gilding, marbling, and printing. The Chineſe are ſaid to practiſe the dying of tea with catechu, which gives the green tea leaf the colour, and its infuſion the tincture of bohea.

The ſorts of dying, or coloration, now commonly uſed in vulgar trades, are, 1. Whitening of wax, and ſeveral ſorts of linen, and cottons, by the ſun, air, and reciprocal effuſions of water. 2. Staining of wood and leather, by lime, ſalt, and liquors, as in ſtaves, canes, and marquetry. 3. Marbling of paper, by diſtempering the colours with ox-gall, and applying them upon a ſtiff gummed liquor. 4. Colouring, or rather diſcolouring, ſilks and tiffanies, by brimſtone. 5. Colouring iron and copper-work with oil. 6. Giving leather a gold colour, or rather dying ſilver leaves like gold, by varniſhes, and in other caſes by urine and ſulphur. 7. Staining of marble and alabaſter, with heat and coloured oils. 8. Colouring the barrels and locks of guns blue, and purple, with the temper of ſmall coal-heat. 10. Colouring-glaſs, chryſtals, and earthen wares, with the ruſts and ſolutions of metals; but glaſs dyed is the common matter of artificial jewels, the tinctures being given with zaffer, manganeſe, ferretto, and crocus martis. 11. Colouring live-hair, as in Poland, both horſe, and human hair, and alſo of furs: for the uſe of angling, white hair is dyed green, by boiling it in ale with alum; then ſteeping it in a decoction of copperas with wax and water. It is dyed yellow by boiling in alum and ale, with walnut-tree leaves ſtamped in it; and brown, by ſteeping in ſalt and ale. 12. Enamelling, and annealing. 13. Application of colours, as in printing of books, and pictures; the making of playing cards, and japanning. 14. Gilding, and tinning with mercury, block-tin, and ſal armoniac. 15. Colouring metals, as copper with calamine into braſs, and with zink or ſpelter into gold, or into ſilver with arſenic, and of iron into copper with Hungarian vitriol. 16. Making painters colours, by preparing of earth, chalk, and ſlates, as in umber, oker, and cullen's earth; out of the calces of lead, as ceruſs and minium; by ſublimates of mercury and brimſtone, as in vermilion; by tinging of white earths variouſly, as in verdeter, and ſome of the lakes; by concrete juices or fœculæ, as in indigo, pinks, ſap-green, and lakes; as alſo by ruſts, as in verdegreaſe. 17. The applying of theſe colours by the adheſion of ox-gall, as in the marbled paper; or by gum-water, as in limning; or by clammy, drying oils, as the oils of linſeed-nuts, ſpike, turpentine, and the like. And, laſtly, The watering of tabbies.

DYING *of leather and ſkins*. Blue is given by ſteeping the ſubject a day in urine and indigo, then boiling it with alum; or it may be given by tempering the indigo with red-wine, and waſhing the ſkins therewith. Red is given by waſhing the ſkins, and laying them two hours in galls; then wringing them out, dipping them in a liquor made with liguſtrum, alum, and verdigreaſe, in water; and, laſtly, in a dye made with brazil wood boiled with lye. Purple is given by wetting the ſkins with a ſolution of roche alum in warm water, and when dry again, rubbing them with the hand in a decoction of log-wood in cold water. Green is given by ſmearing the ſkin with ſap-green and alum-water boiled; but to darken the colour a little indigo may be added. Dark green is alſo given with ſteel filings and ſal armoniac ſteeped in urine till ſoft, then ſmeered over the ſkin, which is to be dried in the ſhade. Sky-colour is given with indigo ſteeped in boiling water, being the next morning warmed, and ſmeered over the ſkin. Yellow is given by ſmearing the ſkin over with aloes and linſeed-oil diſſolved and ſtrained, or by infuſing it in weld. Orange-colour, by ſmearing with fuſtic berries boiled in alum-water; or, for a deep orange, with turmeric.

DYING, or ſtaining of wood, for inlaying and veneering. Red is done by boiling the wood in water and alum; then taking it out, adding brazil to the liquor, and giving the wood another boil in it. Black, with bruſhing it over with log-wood boiled in vinegar, hot, then waſhing it over with a decoction of galls, and copperas, till it is the colour required. Any other colour may be given by ſqueezing out the moiſture of horſe-dung through a ſieve, mixing it with diſſolved roche alum and gum arabic, and to the whole adding green, blue, or any other colour deſigned: after ſtanding two or three days, pear-tree, or other wood, cut to the thickneſs of half a crown, is put into the liquor boiling hot, and there ſuffered to remain till it is ſufficiently coloured.

DYING of bone, horn, or ivory. Black is performed by ſteeping braſs in aqua fortis, till it is turned green; with which the bone, horn, or ivory, is waſhed, once or twice; then put into a decoction of log-wood and water, warm. Green is given by boiling the ſubject in alum-water; then with verdegreaſe, ſal armoniac, and white vinegar, keeping it hot therein till ſufficiently green. Red is begun by boiling it in alum-water, and finiſhed by decoction in a liquor compounded of quick-lime ſteeped in rain-water, ſtrained, and to every pint an ounce of brazil wood added; the bone, horn, or ivory, to be boiled therein till ſufficiently red.

By the ſtatute of the 13th of George I. it was enacted, That if any perſon ſhould within England, Wales, or Berwick upon Tweed, dye black any bays, or other woollen goods, as mather blacks, the ſame not being dyed throughout with woad, indigo, and mather only; or ſhould dye black any cloth, long ells, bays, or other woollen goods, for woaded blacks, the ſame not being woaded throughout, he ſhould forfeit for ſuch falſe mathered blacks, or woaded blacks, as follows:

For every long Bocking bays, containing 70 yards, 44 s.

For every Colcheſter bays, or ſhort bays, containing 35 yards, 22 s. and ſo in proportion for bays, or other woollen goods.

And for every cloth dyed black, without being woaded throughout, containing 44 yards, 40 s.

For every piece of bays falſely dyed as aforeſaid, containing 70 yards, 30 s.

For every Colcheſter, or ſhort bays, containing 35 yards, 12 s.

For every perpetuana, or ſtuff, falſely dyed, 4 s. and ſo in proportion for any other woollen goods dyed for woaded blacks.

It was thereby alſo enacted, That all woollen goods which ſhould be truly mathered black, ſhould be marked with a red roſe and a blue roſe; and all woollen goods which ſhould

ſhould be truly woaded black throughout, ſhould be marked with a blue roſe; and if any perſon ſhould counterfeit the ſaid marks, or ſhould affix any ſuch mark to any of the goods falſely dyed for mather or woaded blacks, ſuch offender ſhould forfeit 4 l. for every piece of goods to which the ſaid mark ſhould be affixed. That if any perſon ſhould uſe logwood in dying of blue, he ſhould forfeit 40 s. for every piece of cloth ſo dyed, containing 44 yards; 22 s. for every long piece of Bocking-bays, containing 70 yards; 12 s for every Colcheſter or ſhort bays, containing 35 yards; 4 s. for every perpetuana or ſtuff, containing 14 yards, and ſo in proportion for all other woollen goods. That all perſons occupying the trade of dying woollen manufactures within the city of London, or within 10 miles compaſs of the ſame, ſhould be ſubject to the inſpectors of the company of dyers of London; and it ſhould be lawful for the maſter, wardens, and court of aſſiſtants, of the ſaid company, by writing under their common ſeal, to appoint ſearchers within the ſaid limits; and out of the ſaid limits, it ſhould be lawful for the juſtices of peace, at their quarter-ſeſſions, to appoint ſuch ſearchers; and it ſhould be lawful for the ſearchers, taking to their aſſiſtance a conſtable, or other peace-officer, at all ſeaſonable times in the day, to enter into the ſhop, or workhouſe, of any perſons uſing the trade of dying, or concerned in the dying of woollen goods, to ſearch all cloths, and other woollen goods, to be dyed black or blue; and if any perſon ſhould oppoſe ſuch ſearch, he ſhould forfeit 10 l. but all proſecutions for offences againſt this act ſhould be commenced within 40 days after the offence committed.

As the art of dying is ſo very eſſential for the grand branch of the Britiſh trade, the woollen manufactory, the legiſlature have thought proper to give it ſome encouragement; for, by the ſtatutes of the 3d and 4th of Queen Anne, and 1ſt of George I. alum of all ſorts, antimony, except crude, Britiſh berries for the plantations, cakelack, caſſumba, copperas of all ſorts, French berries, grain or ſcarlet powder, grains of Portugal or Rota, grains of Seville in berries, litharge of all ſorts, platain, ſaltpetre, weld, and woad, are exempted from the new, one third, and two third ſubſidies, and the additional duty on ſpice. By the 3d and 4th of Q. Anne, and the 8th of George I. agaric, annotto, antimonium crudum, aquafortis, argol, arſenic, bay-berries, Brazil wood, Braziletto wood, cochineel, cream of tartar, fuſtic, galls, gum arabic, indico of all ſorts, iſinglaſs, litmus, logwood, madder of all ſorts, madder-roots, Nicaragua wood, orchal, orchelia or Spaniſh weed, pomegranate peels, redwood, ſafflore, ſal armoniac, ſal gem, ſapan wood, red ſaunders, ſhumac, ſticklack, turnſole, valonia, and verdigreaſe, may be imported free of all duties; provided entry, and other requiſites of law, are performed as before, elſe to pay as formerly: though, upon exportation of any of theſe foreign dying-goods, a ſubſidy is to be paid of 6 d. for every 20 s. of their rates, or $2\frac{1}{2}$ *per cent.*

As for indico, fuſtic, or other dying wood of the Britiſh plantations, ſee *Plantations.*

DYER. A perſon whoſe employment conſiſts in the trade of dying; of which there are ſeveral ſorts; ſome dye only in wool, others in ſilk: ſome confine themſelves to particular colours, ſuch as ſcarlet and blues; but the ſcarlet-dyer is by much the moſt ingenious and profitable branch of the dying buſineſs; and the beſt dyes ſtruck of that colour are done upon the river Severn, the water of this river having ſome influence upon the operation, which renders the cloths finiſhed there preferable to thoſe made any where elſe in Europe.

DYERS *company of London*, which was antiently one of the twelve, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 11th of Edward IV. in 1472, by the name of The wardens and commonalty of the myſtery of dyers, London; and, among other privileges granted this ſociety, there is one of keeping ſwans upon the river Thames.

This corporation conſiſts of 2 wardens, 30 aſſiſtants, and 147 liverymen, who pay a fine of 15 l. upon admiſſion; but their hall, which was ſituated near the Old Swan-lane, Thames-ſtreet, being deſtroyed by the conflagration in 1666; and the ſame not rebuilt, a number of ware-houſes are erected on the ſide thereof; wherefore the company has converted one of their houſes in little Elbow-lane, Dowgate-hill, into a hall to tranſact their affairs in.

At Paris, and in moſt of the great cities of France, the dyers are divided into three companies; being thoſe of the *great dye*, who are only to uſe the beſt ingredients, and ſuch as ſtrike the ſureſt and moſt permanent colours. *Dyers of the leſſer dye*, who are allowed to uſe the inferior ſorts of drugs, which only yield falſe and fading colours. And *dyers of ſilk, wool, and thread.* All the higher-prized cloths and ſtuffs are reſerved to the dyers of the firſt ſort; thoſe of leſs value, particularly ſuch as are rated at above 40 ſols the ell in white, are committed to the maſters of the leſſer dye. Blue, red, and yellow, are reſerved more peculiarly to thoſe of the great dye; browns, fallows, and blacks, are common to both ſorts; but as to black, it is begun by the dyers of the great dye, and finiſhed by thoſe of the leſſer.

DYERS *black.* See *Black.*

DYERS *blue.* See *Blue.*

DYERS *weed*, called alſo *Wood-way*, or *Geniſta tinctoria*, is an herb uſed by dyers for a green colour.

E.

EAR

E, On the compaſs, in ſea-charts, and maps, marks the eaſt point or wind; ſo that E. is eaſt, E. S. E. eaſt ſouth eaſt, N. E. north eaſt, and E. N. E. eaſt north eaſt.

EAGER, in reſpect of liquors, is the ſame as pricked, or turning ſour. See Eager *Beer*, and Eager *Wine*.

EARN, in trade, ſignifies what a labouring perſon can get by his work or buſineſs.

EARNE *lake*, or *Lough Earne*. A great lake of Ireland, in the county of Fermanagh, and province of Ulſter, extending 30 miles in length, joined by a narrow ſtrait, on which ſtands the town of Iniſkilling.

EARNEST, *Arrhæ*. Money advanced to complete, or aſſure, a verbal bargain, and bind the parties to the performance thereof. By the civil law, he who recedes from his bargain, loſes his earneſt; or if the perſon who received the earneſt give back, he is to return the earneſt double. But, according to the laws of England, the effect of earneſt is more: for the perſon who gave it, is, in ſtrictneſs, obliged thereby to abide by his bargain; and, in caſe he declines it, is not diſcharged upon forfeiting his earneſt, but may be ſued for the whole money ſtipulated.

EARTH, in geography, this terraqueous globe, or ball, whereon we inhabit, conſiſting of land and water; and, conſidered in different relations or habitudes, makes the ſubject of geography and geometry.

The antients entertained various opinions as to the figure of the earth; ſome, as Anaximander, held it cylindrical; and others, as Leucippus, in form of a drum. But the principal opinion was, that it was flat; that the viſible horizon was the bounds of the earth, and the ocean the bounds of the horizon; that the heavens and earth above this ocean made the whole viſible univerſe; and that all beneath the ocean was Hades, or the infernal region; which opinion was not only received by ſeveral of the antient poets and philoſophers, but alſo by ſome of the Chriſtian fathers, as Lactantius, St. Auguſtine, and others. However, modern philoſophy has ſufficiently demonſtrated the earth to be nearly ſpherical, for the inequalities on its ſurface prevent its being perfectly ſo: beſides, Huygens and Sir Iſaac Newton have ſhewn, that the earth is higher and bigger under the equator, than at the poles: ſo that its figures nearly, is that of an oblate ſpheroid, ſwelling out towards the equatorial parts, and flatted or contracted towards the poles, which has alſo been corroborated by the late obſervations of Monſieur Maupertuis, aſtronomer to his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty; who, by actually meaſuring a degree of the meridian in the ſouth of France, and a degree of the meridian at the polar circle, found the latter exceeded the former by 255 toiſes, or 510 yards; making the earth an oblate ſpheroid, or like a flat turnip, confirming what was before laid down by Sir Iſaac Newton, that the equatorial diameter exceeded the axis by 34 Engliſh miles. If the earth were in a fluid ſtate, its revolution round its axis would neceſſarily make it put on ſuch a figure, by reaſon the centrifugal force being greater towards the equator, the fluid would there riſe and ſwell moſt; and that it ſhould be ſo now, ſeems neceſſary to keep the ſea in the equinoctial regions from overflowing the earth thereabouts.

This ſphericity of the earth is further confirmed, by its having been frequently ſailed round. The firſt time was in the year 1519, when Ferdinand Magellan made the tour of the whole globe, in 1124 days; in the year 1557, Sir Francis Drake performed the ſame voyage in 1056 days; in the year 1586, Sir Tho. Cavendiſh made the ſame voyage in 777 days; Simon Cordes, of Rotterdam, in the year 1590, and Oliver Noort, in the year 1598, in 1077 days; William Cornelius Van Schouten, in the year 1615, in 749 days; James Heremites, and John Huygens, in the year 1623, in 802 days; and the Right Honourable George Lord Anſon, in the year 1744, in 1367 days: but Lord Anſon met with ſeveral extraordinary impediments in his voyage; for, beſides his continuance at Juan Fernandes, and the time he took up in the deſtruction of Paita, he was detained 67 days in cruizing about Acapulco, in expectation of that valuable ſhip which he afterwards took; he alſo continued 55 days at Tinian; and he ſpent 398 days, from his firſt arrival at Macao in China, before his final departure from thence for Europe. All of whom ſailing continually from eaſt to weſt, at length arrived in Europe, whence they ſet forth; and in the courſe of their voyages obſerved all the phænomena, both of the heavens and the earth, to correſpond to and confeſs this ſpherical figure: beſides, the accounts they have given of theſe voyages, particularly that elegant relation of Commodore Anſon's, have greatly promoted the important purpoſes of navigation, commerce, and national intereſt. And the natural cauſe of this ſphericity of the globe is, according to Sir Iſaac Newton, the great principle of attraction, which the creator has ſtamped on all the matter of the univerſe; whereby all bodies, and all the parts of bodies, naturally attract one another.

The magnitude of the earth, and the number of miles its diameter contains, have been variouſly determined by various authors, both antient and modern: but the beſt way to arrive at any certainty, is by finding the quantity of a degree of a great circle of the earth; though this degree is found very different, according to the different methods and inſtruments made uſe of, as well as the different obſervers. The method obſerved by Mr. Norwood, and the French aſtronomers Picard, Caſſini, and Maupertuis, by meaſuring the diſtance between two remote places on the ſame meridian, is undoubtedly the beſt; and, according to their obſervations, the ambit or circumference of the earth is 25,031½ Engliſh ſtatute miles: whence, ſuppoſing the earth ſpherical, its diameter muſt be 7967 ſtatute miles; and conſequently its radius, or ſemi-diameter, may be taken in a round number for 200,000,000 feet; its ſurface will be 199,444,206 miles; which being multiplied by one third of its ſemi-diameter, gives the ſolid content of the terreſtrial globe 264,856,000,000 cubic miles.

The terraqueous globe is now generally granted to have two motions; the one diurnal, around its own axis, in the ſpace of 24 hours, which conſtitutes the nycthemeron, or natural day; and other annual, round the ſun, in an elliptical orbit, or track, in 365 days, and 6 hours, conſtituting the year; the diverſities of night and day being derived from the former, and the viciſſitudes of ſeaſons from the latter. And whether the earth move, or remain at reſt; that is, whether it be fixed in the center, with the ſun, heavens, and ſtars, moving round the ſame from eaſt to weſt, according to Ptolemy; or whether the heavens and ſtars being at reſt, the earth moves from weſt to eaſt, according to Copernicus, is the great article that diſtinguiſhes the Ptolemaic from the Copernican ſyſtem, the latter of which is now univerſally received, being what was originally the doctrine of Pythagoras; and is reconcileable to the wiſdom of the divinity, that to ſuppoſe the earth at reſt, confounds and deſtroys all the order and harmony of the univerſe, annuls its laws, and ſets every part at variance with other, robbing the Creator of half the praiſe of his work, and mankind of the pleaſure of contemplating its beauties. See *Globe*, *Europe*, *Aſia*, *Africa*, and *America*.

EARTH, in natural hiſtory, is a foſſil, or terreſtrial matter, whereof our globe principally conſiſts; whoſe character is, neither to be diſſoluble by fire, water, nor air

not tranſparent, more fuſile than ſtone, and generally containing ſome degree of fatneſs.

Of ſuch earths, ſome are ſimple and immutable, others compound and fatty: of the firſt kind is chalk, pumice, and rotten ſtone: of the ſecond, or compound kind, are boles of all kinds, red, white, and brown; fuller's earth; the ſeveral kinds of medicinal earth, as lemnian earth, and terra ſigillata; to which claſs are likewiſe referred argillæ, or clay earths formed into potters ware. See *Earth*-black, *Fullers* earth, *Japan* earth, *Lemnian* earth, *Samian* earth, *Sigillata* terra, *Soap* earth; alſo *Clay*, *Loam*, *Lime*, *Sand*, *Chalk*, *Coal*, *Sulphur*, and *Alabaſter*.

ARTHEN *ware*, is a general name for all kinds of goods of the pottery manufacture. See *Clay*, *Pottery*, *Porcelain*, *Delft*, and *Fayance*.

ARTHEN-*ware dealer*, is a dependent on the pot-houſe. Theſe perſons buy their goods from ſeveral houſes in England, from Holland, and at the ſales of the Eaſt India company; they alſo frequently deal in tea, coffee, and chocolate.

ASE, in the ſea-language, ſignifies as much as ſlacken, or let go ſlacker: thus they ſay, eaſe the bowling, eaſe the ſheet; that is, let it go ſlacker.

AST, in coſmography, one of the cardinal points of the horizon; being the point wherein the prime vertical interſects that quarter of the horizon which the ſun riſes in. See *Cardinal* point, *Horizon*, and *Orient*.

ASTERN *ocean*, or *Indian ocean*, has its firſt name from its ſituation to the eaſt, as its latter from India, the chief country it waſhes; extending from the coaſt of Anian on the eaſtern part of Africa, to the Ladrone or Marian iſlands, about 1800 miles eaſt of Canton in China; theſe iſlands ſeparating it from the South or Pacific ſea; being about 2000 miles long, and 600 broad. See *Ocean*.

AST INDIES. The continent of India, ſo denominated from its eaſtern ſituation. See *India*, and *Weſt* Indies.

AST INDIA *companies*. A general term given to ſuch companies as trade to India, and other eaſtern parts; which are the moſt conſiderable of any throughout all the European ſtates, for the proſecution of commerce.

The trade to the Eaſt Indies was long carried on by the Iſraelites through the Red ſea, and the ſtreights of Babelmandel, not only to the coaſts of Africa on the weſt, but alſo to thoſe of Arabia, Perſia, and India, on the eaſt; who reaped a prodigious profit thereby. King David was the firſt who begun it; for having conquered the kingdom of Edom, and reduced it to be a province of his empire, he thereby became maſter of two ſea-port towns on the Red ſea, Elath, and Ezion-geber, which then belonged to that kingdom; and, ſeeing the advantage that might be made of theſe two places, he wiſely took the benefit of it, and there begun this traffic. After David, Solomon carried on the ſame commerce to Ophir, and had from thence, in one voyage, four hundred and fifty talents of gold. But the uſe of the compaſs being then unknown, the way of navigation was in thoſe times only by coaſting, whereby a voyage was frequently of three years, which now may be finiſhed almoſt in three months. However, this trade ſo far ſucceeded, and grew to ſo high a pitch under Solomon, that thereby he drew to theſe two ports, and from thence to Jeruſalem, all the trade of Africa, Arabia, Perſia, and India, which was the chief fountain of thoſe immenſe riches he acquired, and whereby he exceeded all the kings of the earth in his time, as much as by his wiſdom: but at length, the whole of this trade was engroſſed by the Tyrians; who managing it from the ſame port, made it by the way of Rhinocorura, a ſea-port lying between the confines of Egypt and Paleſtine; ſo that it centered all at Tyre; from whence all the weſtern parts of the world were furniſhed with the wares of India, Africa, Perſia, and Arabia, which thus, by the way of the Red ſea, the Tyrians traded to; who hereby exceedingly enriched themſelves during the Perſian empire, under the favour and protection of whoſe kings they had the full poſſeſſion of this trade. But when the Ptolemies prevailed in Egypt, they, by building Berenice, Myos-Hormos, and other places on the Egyptian or weſtern ſea, and by ſending forth fleets from thence to all thoſe countries to which the Tyrians traded, ſoon drew all this trade into that kingdom, and there fixed the chief mart of it at Alexandria, which was thereby made the greateſt mart in all the world; where it continued for a great many years after; all the marine traffic which the weſtern parts of the world had with Perſia, India, Arabia, and to the eaſtern coaſt of Africa, being wholly carried on through the Red ſea, and the mouth of the Nile, till a way was found, about 256 years ſince, of ſailing to thoſe parts by the way of the Cape of Good Hope. After which the Portugueſe for ſome time managed this trade; but now it is, in a manner, wholly got into the hands of the Engliſh, French, and Dutch.

The Portugueſe firſt ſailed round the Cape of Good Hope to the Eaſt Indies, in the year 1498; and the firſt ſettlement they made on the continent of India was at Cochin, on the coaſt of Malabar, in the year 1502. The Engliſh and Dutch did not attempt to trade to India, till about the year 1600, and then only to the iſlands at firſt; though it is true, ſeveral of their commanders had, before that time, been ſent out upon diſcoveries, and ſailed round the globe, through the ſtreights of Magellan, particularly Sir Francis Drake, in the year 1586, and Oliver Noort in 1598. Beſides, in the year 1595, the province of Holland fitted out four ſhips for diſcovery, which ſailed to Bantam, in the iſland of Java, and brought back with them ſuch ſamples of the goods of the eaſt, as induced the United Provinces to erect one general company for that trade, in the year 1594; but the Portugueſe had, for 100 years, engroſſed all the rich trade of India to themſelves, except that the Spaniards had a little interrupted their commerce, in the Moluccas and the Philippines, on their diſcovering a paſſage to the Indies through the South-ſea, in the year 1520; though, when the other European powers became ſenſible of the value and facility of this commerce, they ſoon began to participate the emoluments, by erecting the following companies.

The Dutch EAST INDIA *company* commenced in 1594, in the midſt of thoſe military confuſions attendant on the revolt of the United Provinces from the allegiance of Spain. The Spaniards having ſhut up all their ports againſt theſe new republicans, whom they looked upon as rebels, and having even prohibited them all commerce to the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, of which they were then, in ſome ſenſe, the maſters; neceſſity inſpired ſome Zealanders to go in queſt of a new paſſage for China and the Eaſt Indies by the N. E. and to coaſt, if poſſible, along Norway, Muſcovy, and Tartary.

This enterpriſe was undertaken in 1594, 1595, and 1596, by fitting out ſhips three different times, but all without any ſucceſs; the extreme colds of Nova Zembla, and the impenetrable ice of Weigats, having either deſtroyed the ſhips ſent there, or diſcouraged the adventurers.

Whilſt this paſſage was unſucceſsfully attempting, a ſecond company was formed at Amſterdam; which, under the direction of Cornelius Houteman, ſent four ſhips, in 1595, by the uſual way which the Portugueſe went, with orders to conclude treaties with the Indians, for the trade of ſpice and other commodities; but more eſpecially in the places where the Portugueſe were not as yet eſtabliſhed.

This ſmall fleet returned, two years and four months after its departure, with little or no gain in reality; but with good information, and large hopes.

The old company, and a new one juſt eſtabliſhed at Amſterdam, being incorporated, they fitted out a fleet of eight veſſels, which ſet ſail, under Admiral James Vaneck, from the Texel in 1598; and another fleet of three ſhips was fitted out, which weighed anchor the 4th of May 1599. Theſe were followed by ſeveral others; and ſo many new companies were erected at Amſterdam, Rotterdam, and other places, that the States-General apprehended they muſt prove detrimental to each other; which fear, juſtified by ſome ſad conſequences, cauſed the directors of all the different companies to aſſemble: the reſult of this meeting was the union of all, which was confirmed by the ſtates the 20th of March 1602; whoſe ſucceſs was very great, both on account of the immenſe riches brought into the United Provinces, or the kingdoms and ſtates which this company ſubdued in ſo many different countries of Aſia.

The firſt fund of this company conſiſted of 6,459,840 guilders, or 565,236 l. ſterling; of which Amſterdam advanced 3,674,915; Zealand 1,333,882, Delft 470,000, Rotterdam 177,400, Hoorn 266,868, and Enchuyſen 536,775: and the firſt grant of the ſtates was for 21 years, to commence from the date of the grant, which was the ſame with that of the confirmation.

The company is governed by ſixty five directors, divided into thirteen different chambers. The chamber of Amſterdam has 18 directors, the chamber of Zealand 12, the chambers of Delft and Rotterdam 14; thoſe of Enchuyſen and Hoorn 14; thoſe of Haerlem, Leyden, Dort, Tergow, the provinces of Guelderland, Frieſland, and Utrecht, each of them one director.

Seventeen directors were alſo choſen from among the ſixty-five, for the common affairs of the chambers; eight out of the chamber of Amſterdam, four out of that of Zealand, two out of thoſe of Delft and Rotterdam, and two out of thoſe of Enchuyſen and Hoorn, the ſeventeenth being choſen alternatively out of Zealand, the Meuſe, or North Holland; and it is this ſecond direction that regulates the number, the fitting out, and the departure of ſhips.

The company is privileged to contract alliances with the princes, whoſe eſtates are eaſtwards of the Cape of Good Hope, and in the ſtreights of Magellan, along the ſtreights, and beyond them; to build fortreſſes there, and to eſtabliſh governors, garriſons, and officers of juſtice and police; but the treaties are concluded in the name of the ſtates; in whoſe name all officers, both military and civil, take their oaths.

At the expiration of each grant, the company is obliged to obtain a new one, which has happened four times ſince the firſt was granted; but the renewal of grants coſt the company conſiderable ſums of money.

By the grant of 1698, which was alſo confirmed in 1717, all the ſubjects of the States-General are prohibited the ſending of ſhips, and ſailing throughout the whole extent of the company's conceſſion, or carrying on a trade therein, either directly or indirectly; as alſo aſſociating with ſtrangers for this trade, or ſerving in their veſſels.

Nothing can be more wiſely and prudently concerted, than the police and diſcipline, whereby every thing is regulated in this company, either for the election of the directors of the chambers, or for the fitting out, and returns of ſhips; the choice of the ſeventeen particular directors, the ſale of merchandiſes, and the dividends of the profits; or, laſtly, for the conduct of their ſovereignties in the Indies.

This company has ſeveral large ſettlements, and many factories, for the ſupport of their trade. They are in poſſeſſion of the Cape of Good Hope, which ſerves them as St. Helena does the Engliſh Eaſt India company, for ſupplying their ſhips with water and other refreſhments in their voyage. The iſland of Mauritius ſerves them alſo for the ſame purpoſe. They have a factory at Mocha in Arabia, and two others at Gombroon and Ormus in Perſia, as alſo one at Iſpahan, the capital of that empire. They have likewiſe factories at Barak, Choule near Bombay, Rigapore Dunde, Baſſaloco, or Baynenar, and Bodven, on the proper coaſt of India; at Cananore, Pamari, Crananera, Chochin, Porchatt, Carnapole, Quilon, and Tegapatan, on the coaſt of Malabar; at Negapatan, Porta Nova, Sadraſſapatan, Cabelon, Pellicat, Catelore, Petipoly, Maſualapatan, and Bimlipatan, on the coaſt of Coromandel; at Balaſore, and Pipley, farther up the coaſt towards Bengal; at Baſnagul, Malda, Huegly, and Dacca, in Bengal; and at Patna, up the Ganges.

They have alſo a ſettlement in the kingdom of Aracan: they trade along the coaſt up to Siam, where they have the city of Malacca; and from thence they trade up to China.

They engroſs the whole trade of the iſland of Ceylon; they have ſome trade in the iſlands of Sumatra, and Borneo: but the whole trade of Java, and the Molucca iſlands is in their poſſeſſion; as is alſo ſome part of the trade of the Celebes and Banda iſlands; beſides, they are the only perſons who trade to Japan: ſo that no leſs than 40 factories, and 25 fortreſſes, are reckoned belonging to this company in the Eaſt Indies; who employ in this long and painful navigation, above 150 ſhips, from 30 to 60 guns, manned with 25,000 ſailors, comprehending officers, ſoldiers, and mariners; beſides 12,000 troops of their own republic, to garriſon the forts.

Though all theſe factories are very conſiderable, they are not to be compared with Batavia, the center of the company's commerce; and the Cape of Good Hope, the ſtaple, or rather the place of refreſhment, for all its ſhipping, either going or coming.

The Dutch Eaſt India company carry out great quantities of ſpecie, and of European goods, but chiefly of the latter, to India. From China, they bring home ſilks, both raw and wrought, China and Japan ware, tea, and arrack; from Bengal and Patna, ſilks, raw and wrought, diamonds, indico, and coris; from the other ports of India, ſilks, calicoes, muſlins, and great variety of other manufactures of cotton and flax; alſo ſhell-lack, ſtick-lack, red-wood, ſalt-petre, dying ſtuffs, and many drugs; beſides coffee, and ſome drugs, from Perſia. See *Perſia*, *India*, and *China*.

From the iſland of Japan they bring home all kinds of Japan work, and lacquered ware; as alſo gold-duſt: from the Moluccas, they bring cloves: from the Banda iſlands, nutmegs and mace: from the Celebes, pepper, and opium: from the Sunda iſlands, pepper, gold, coffee, and canes: and cinnamon from Ceylon. See *Japan*, *Moluccas*, *Banda*, *Celebes*, *Sunda*, and *Ceylon* iſlands.

Theſe commodities being articles of luxury, and too great for the conſumption of the parſimonious Dutch, they export them to all parts of the world where they have any commerce; particularly to France, Spain, Germany, Italy, Turky, Dantzic, Denmark, Sweden, and Ruſſia.

This company has been ſo ſucceſsful, as to make the following dividends annually, from 1605 to 1720.

Years.	Months.	Dividends.	
In 1605,	in July,	15	*per cent.* in money.
1606,	March,	75	
1607,	July,	46	
1608,	April,	20	
1609,	June,	25	
1610,	Auguſt,	50	
1612,	December,	57½	
1615,	Auguſt,	42½	
1616,	February,	62½	
1620,	April,	37½	
1623,	November,	25	*per cent.* in cloves.
1625,	Auguſt,	20	*per cent.* in money.
1627,	March,	12½	
1629,	January,	25	
1631,	January,	17½	
1633,	January,	12½	
1633,	December,	20	
1635,	March,	20	
1635,	May,	12½	*per cent.* in cloves.
1635,	Auguſt,	12	
1636,	March,	25	
1636,	November,	12½	
1637,	March,	15	
1637,	November,	25	
1638,	October,	19	*per cent.* in ſpice.
1638,	November,	25	*per cent.* in money.
1640,	January,	15	*per cent.* in cloves.
1640,	November,	25	*per cent.* in money.
1641,	February,	15	*per cent.* in cloves.
1641,	November,	25	
1642,	December,	50	*per cent.* in money.
1643,	January,	15	*per cent.* in cloves.
1644,	November,	25	
1644,	December,	20	
1646,	January,	22½	
1646,	December,	25	
1648,	January,	25	
1649,	January,	30	
1650,	January,	20	
1651,	January,	15	
1652,	January,	25	
1653,	January,	12½	

Years.	Months.	Dividends?
In 1654,	in June,	15 *per cent.* in money.
1655,	January,	12½
1656,	December,	27½
1658,	December,	40
1659,	December,	12½
1660,	November,	40
1661,	November,	25
1663,	November,	30
1665,	January,	27½
1668,	June,	12½
1669,	July,	12½
1670,	June,	40
1671,	June,	45
1671,	July,	15
1672,	June,	15
1673,	June,	33⅓ *per cent.* in obligations upon Holland.
1676,	February,	25 *per cent.* in money.
1679,	January,	12½ *per cent.* in obligations upon Holland.
1680,	January,	25 *per cent.* in obligations
1681,	January,	22½ upon the company.
1682,	July,	33⅓
1685,	February,	40 *per cent.* in money.
1686,	May,	12½
1687,	April,	20
1688,	April,	33⅓
1689,	April,	33⅓
1690,	April,	40 *per cent.* in obligations.
1691,	Auguſt,	20
1692,	April,	25
1693,	April,	20
1694,	April,	20
1695,	November,	25
1696,	June,	15
1697,	June,	15
1698,	June,	15
1698,	September,	15
1699,	June,	20
1699,	December,	15
1700,	July,	25
1701,	May,	20
1702,	May,	20
1703,	May,	25
1704,	June,	25
1705,	May,	25
1706,	May,	25
1707,	April,	25
1708,	May,	25
1709,	May,	25
1710,	May,	25
1711,	May,	25
1712,	May,	15
1713,	May,	30
1714,	May,	33½
1715,	April,	40
1716,	May,	40
1717,	May,	40
1718,	May,	40
1719,	May,	40
1720,	May,	40

Total of the dividends 2602⅔ *per cent.* which amounts to about 22⅞ *per cent.* of the capital fund, one year with another.

This company is both rich in its funds, and formidable in its ſettlements: they carry on the greateſt trade of any company in Europe; and their Indian preſidency at Batavia, where they have a potent fleet, renders them ſo far maſters of the Indian navigation, that when Lewis XIV. over-run ſome of their provinces in 1672, many of the principal people belonging to the republic ſeemed inclinable to remove to Java with all their effects, where ſuch an acceſſion of ſtrength and opulence, muſt have made them the abſolute maſters of that part of the world.

Engliſh EAST INDIA *company.* The united company of merchants of England trading to the Eaſt Indies, is the moſt conſiderable and flouriſhing company of trade in Great Britain, and the greateſt in Europe for riches, power, and extenſive privileges; as appears by the many ſhips of burthen which they conſtantly employ; the very advantageous ſettlements they have abroad; their large ſtorehouſes and ſales of goods and merchandiſes at home; and the particular laws and ſtatutes made in their favour.

This company was originally formed in the laſt years of Queen Elizabeth, who granted letters patent to the London merchants that entered into an aſſociation for carrying on this trade; and the charter which ſhe granted them in 1599, has ſerved as a model for all thoſe the company has obtained from her royal ſucceſſors.

The Portugueſe and the Dutch were in poſſeſſion of ſeveral large territories along the coaſts of India, before this time; as alſo in ſeveral other parts of Aſia, proper for the proſecution of this trade: the former, indeed, had no company, which is ſtill the caſe: but the latter had formed ſeveral companies ſo early as the year 1596, which were afterwards incorporated together.

The firſt fleet the Engliſh ſent to the Eaſt Indies conſiſted of four ſhips, which ſet ſail in 1600, with Mr. John Mildenhal, who was employed as an agent to procure a trade, and carried a letter from Queen Elizabeth to the Great Mogul, in behalf of her ſubjects: which fleet returned ſo richly laden, that in a few years near twenty others were ſent there by the company.

After the death of Queen Elizabeth, James I. confirmed and augmented, by a new charter, all the privileges that had been granted the company in the preceding reign; and, to ſhew how much he had at heart this eſtabliſhment, he ſent ambaſſadors in 1608, and 1615, to the Mogul, the Emperor of Japan, the King of Perſia, and ſeveral other eaſtern princes, to conclude, in his name, and that of the company, different treaties of commerce, of which ſome are ſtill ſubſiſting.

It is well known how many privileges the King of Perſia granted the Engliſh company, for aſſiſting him in the expulſion of the Portugueſe from Ormus; who made uſe of that famous iſland, and its almoſt impregnable forts, as a citadel, to ſupport them in the uſurpation of the commerce of the Perſian gulph, which they engroſſed for almoſt an age to themſelves.

But it was in the reign of Charles II. that this company was complimented with the greateſt favours, when it was in the height of its ſplendor; tho' it might be ſaid to be a little upon the decline, towards the five or ſix laſt years of his reign: however, there were four charters of this prince, whereby the company were granted ſome new privileges.

The firſt was dated the 3d of April 1662, containing a confirmation of the former charters; or, it is rather a new one, which attributes to the company ſeveral rights it had not as yet enjoyed; and adds to, or ſets forth in a proper light, almoſt all thoſe granted to it by the charters of Elizabeth and James I. which will be more amply ſpoken of in the ſequel; becauſe it is properly the baſis of all the commerce of this company; and becauſe upon this charter are founded all the privileges and policy of the company eſtabliſhed in 1698.

The ſecond charter granted by Charles II. was dated the 27. of March 1669, whereby his Majeſty made a ceſſion to the company of the iſland of Bombay, with all its royalties, revenues, rents, caſtles, ſhips, fortifications, and enfranchiſements; ſuch as then belonged to him by the ceſſion of his Portugueſe Majeſty, reſerving only to himſelf the ſovereignty, to be held in fee from the royal hoſpital of Greenwich, in the county of Kent; and for all duty, rent, or ſervice, the ſum of 10 l. ſterling in gold, payable yearly on the 30th of September, at the cuſtom-houſe of London.

By the third charter, of the 16th of December 1674, the King likewiſe made a ceſſion to the company of the iſland of St. Helena, as belonging to him by right of conqueſt. This iſland, which afterwards ſerved as a ſtaple to the company's ſhipping, was diſcovered by the Portugueſe in their firſt navigations to the Eaſt Indies by the Cape of Good Hope; but having abandoned it, the iſland was poſſeſſed by the Dutch; who quitted it in their turn to eſtabliſh themſelves at the Cape of Good Hope, and

were ſucceeded by the Engliſh, who were expelled in 1672 by the Dutch company: but Captain Monday, who commanded a Britiſh ſquadron, retook it the year following; and this was the right of conqueſt that Charles II. made a ceſſion of to the company by the charter of 1674.

The fourth charter the company obtained from this monarch orders the erection of a court of judicature, compoſed of a civilian and two merchants, in all the factories and places poſſeſſed throughout the extent of its conceſſion, to judge of all caſes in ſeizures, and conteſtations, with regard to ſhips or goods going to the Indies, contrary to the excluſive privilege granted by the letters-patent of 1662; as alſo to take cognizance of all cauſes regarding merchandiſe, marine, navigation, purchaſes, ſales, exchange, inſurance, letters of exchange, and other things; even of all crimes and miſdemeanours committed at ſea, or in the countries, ſtates, and territories belonging to the company; the whole, notwithſtanding, purſuant to the uſages and cuſtoms of merchants, and the laws of England.

Theſe four charters were afterwards confirmed by James II. by a charter granted in the firſt year of his reign: but the charter of 1662 was the principal, and conſiſted of 28 articles, whereof the moſt material are as follow.

By the firſt his Majeſty erects the company into a corporation, or body politic, under the denomination of the governor and company of merchants trading to the Eaſt Indies.

The third grants it a common ſeal to ſerve in all its expeditions; with a power of breaking and changing it at pleaſure, and of making and engraving a new one.

The fourth eſtabliſhes a governor, and 24 aſſiſtants, choſe out of the proprietors, or ſtock-holders, of the company, to have the direction of affairs, and to give all neceſſary orders with regard to the freighting and ſending away of ſhips, together with all particulars belonging to the commerce carried on throughout the extent of its conceſſion.

The fifth, ſixth, ſeventh, eighth, and ninth, nominate, for the firſt time, the governor and directors; and regulate, for the future, the form to be obſerved in the election of the ſaid governor and directors, and a deputy-governor, or ſub-governor, to preſide in the abſence, or in caſe of the governor's death. They alſo ordain before whom the elected ſhall be obliged to make oath, and what this oath is to be; laſtly, they fix the time that all theſe officers are to continue in their poſt; and when the general courts of the company are to be held.

The tenth article fixes the extent of the conceſſion, and allows all thoſe that ſhall be of the company, their ſons of one and twenty years of age, their apprentices, factors, and domeſtics, to trade and negotiate freely by ſea in all the routes and paſſages already diſcovered, or that ſhall be ſo hereafter, in Aſia, Africa, and America, beyond the Cape of Good Hope, as far as the ſtreights of Magellan; and where any commerce can be exerciſed, ſo that it is before-hand concluded on by the company; and ſo that alſo the ſaid commerce is not carried on in the places already poſſeſſed by the ſubjects of ſome other prince.

The eleventh article empowers the company to enact all the laws and regulations it ſhall judge proper, to be obſerved by its factors, captains, maſters of ſhips, and other officers in its ſervice; to revoke them and make new ones; and, in caſe of contravention with regard to the ſaid laws, to ordain for offenders ſuch penalties, fines and puniſhments, as it ſhall judge to be juſt and reaſonable, without being accountable to any one whatſoever, not even to his Majeſty's officers; provided that the ſaid laws, and regulations, are not contrary to thoſe in England.

By the twelfth, his Majeſty wills that for all the duties and cuſtoms, on goods coming from the Eaſt Indies in the company's ſhips, a whole year ſhall be allowed for their intire payment; that is, ſix months for the firſt moiety, and ſix months for the other, by giving notwithſtanding a ſufficient ſecurity; which ſhall hold good alſo for the goods exported from England for the Eaſt Indies, which goods ſhall pay no duty, if loſt, before their arrival at the place of their deſtination; and, in caſe any duties are paid, a reſtitution ſhall be made, on the company making affidavit before the Lord High Treaſurer of the kingdom, of the amount of the ſaid loſs; provided that if the goods imported be exported again in the ſpace of 13 months, no duties ſhall be paid for ſuch export, if it be done aboard Britiſh veſſels.

The thirteenth article allows the exportation of foreign ſpecie out of the kingdom, to be employed in the commerce of the company; and even thoſe of England coined in the Tower of London, provided that the total ſum exceeds not 50,000 l. ſterling in each year.

By the fourteenth and fifteenth the company is allowed to have ſix large veſſels, and ſix pinks, laden and equipped with all kinds of ammunition and proviſion, together with 500 good Engliſh ſailors, to ſupport its commerce throughout the whole extent of its conceſſion; whereon his Majeſty cannot lay an imbargo upon any pretext whatſoever, unleſs he cannot abſolutely do without the ſaid veſſels in ſome preſſing and unforeſeen want in time of war to augment his fleet.

The ſixteenth grants to the company an excluſive privilege of trade to the Indies, ordaining the ſeizure and confiſcation of veſſels and goods which the other ſubjects of his Britannic Majeſty might ſend there; the impriſonment of the captains and maſters of ſhips who brought them there; and laſtly, a ſecurity of 1000 l. ſterling of going no more within the limits of the company's conceſſion, in contravention to this article.

The nineteenth obliges the company to bring back into England at leaſt as much gold and ſilver, as carried out every year; and aſſigns the ports of London, Dartmouth, and Plymouth, as the only places in the kingdom, from which it ſhall be for the future allowed to export the ſpecie it ſhall have occaſion for in its traffic, which ſpecie of gold and ſilver ſhall be entered in the ſaid ports, either going out or coming in; though without paying any duties.

By the twentieth the cuſtom-houſe officers are enjoined not to ſuffer the entrance of any goods coming from the places within the extent of the company's conceſſion, unleſs by a permit in writing.

The twenty-firſt fixes the ſum in the capital ſtock neceſſary to have a vote in the meetings at 500 l. ſterling, empowering, notwithſtanding, thoſe who ſhall ſubſcribe a leſs ſum to join ſeverally together, for the forming of one vote.

The twenty-fourth article allows the company to ſend ſhips of war, and ſoldiers; to build caſtles and forts in all the places of its conceſſion; to make peace or war with all kinds of people that are not Chriſtians; and to obtain ſatisfaction by the force of arms from all thoſe who prejudice them, or interrupt their commerce.

And the twenty-ſixth empowers it likewiſe to arreſt and ſecure all the ſubjects of his Britannic Majeſty who ſhall trade in Indian or Engliſh veſſels, or who ſhall dwell in any of the places of its conceſſion, without a ſpecial licence from the ſaid company.

After the publication of this charter the parliament ſeemed to diſlike the excluſive privilege granted by the ſixteenth article; which was no novelty, for it had been already agitated in the reign of James I. but this prince, fearing to riſque his authority, choſe rather to repeal a like privilege, which he granted to the colonies of Virginia, than to uphold the royal prerogative.

Charles II. was more reſolute, or more happy, than his grand father: the queſtion was debated in the court of Common Pleas, where it was decided in favour of the King; but, notwithſtanding this ſucceſs, the company benefited little by their privilege; for the indulgence ſhewn by this prince, joined to the conſiderable ſums which interlopers furniſhed him with from time, gave a ſanction to their trade in the Indies, which the company could not diſcontinue during his whole reign.

The meaſures of the company were better concerted in the reign of James II. for having repreſented to this prince how much it was to his intereſt, and to that of England, to ſupport it in the full extent of its rights, the company obtained, on the 1ſt of April 1685, the above-mentioned charter; whereby, beſides the confirmation of the ſeveral charters of his predeceſſor, his Majeſty ſo expreſſly and rigorou-

rigorouſly prohibited all his ſubjects, that were not of the company, from trading to the Indies, that interlopers ſeemed intirely excluded.

The proclamation for the execution of the charter of James II. with regard to the company's excluſive privilege, for the Eaſt India trade, is of the ſame date with the charter: and it will not be amiſs to remark, that the indulgence of Charles II. was of ſuch prejudice to the company, that, towards the end of his reign, its ſhares, which in 1682 were at 370 l. fell almoſt ſuddenly to 200 l.

The ſhares, or ſubſcriptions, of the company, were originally only 50 l. ſterling; but the directors having a conſiderable dividend to make in 1676, the profits of the ſtock, or the dividend, were added to the capital; ſo that the ſhares were doubled, and amounted to 100 l. ſterling. The firſt capital of this company amounted to 369,891 l. 5 s. which being doubled as above, amounted to 739,782 l. 10 s. which, with the company's profits to the year 1685, amounting to 963,639 l. 16 s. 1 d. makes the whole ſtock 1,703,422 l. 6 s. 1 d.

Before ſpeaking of the decay of this firſt company, and the eſtabliſhment of the new one with which it was incorporated in 1698, it may be proper to give an extract of its books ſtated in 1685, a time when it was in a flouriſhing condition; as alſo of the ſtate of the ſhipping ſent to the Indies, ſince the year 1684 to 1687, which will afford a ſufficient idea of its funds and commerce.

Extract from the books of the Engliſh Eaſt India company.

1685.

Should have			l.	s.	d.
For effects at Surat	-	-	135,609	13	2
At Fort St. George	-	-	342,722	15	6
At the bay of Bengal	-	-	286,022	10	2
South Sea	-	-	90,911	12	10
Ready for ſeveral ſhips	-	-	23,851	5	7
In London ware-houſes	-		1,608,194	16	0
			2,487,312	11	3

The company debtor				
To parties concerned	569,244	5	2	
For Expences at London	175,646			
Expences in the Indies	4000			783,890 5 2
Intereſt of money	15,000			
Due to the Indies	20,000			
Remains clear - -				1,703,422 6 1

The capital of the company was 739,782 l. 10 s. but, by the above book of accompts, was increaſed to 1,703,422 l. 6 s. 1 d. wherein 111,417 l. 2 s. 6 d. of bad debts in Europe, and 719,464 l. 16 s. for Fort St. George, Bombay, St. Helena, and other places belonging to the company, are omitted.

State of the Engliſh ſhips ſent to the Eaſt Indies by the company, or with its permiſſion, from the 10th of April 1684 to the month of September 1687.

1684. Six ſhips; three for Surat; one for Fort St. George; one for Tonquin, and one for Mindanao.

1685. Six ſhips; one for St. Helena, two for Surat, two for the South Seas, and one for Priaman, and the coaſt of Coromandel.

1686. Nine ſhips; three for the coaſt of Coromandel, and the bay of Bengal; five for Bombay; one for Priaman, and the bay.

1687. Seven ſhips; four for Fort St. George; one for St. Helena, and Fort St. George, and two for Tonquin. All which ſhips were to make their returns into England. Four departed alſo in 1685, and two in 1686, which were to remain in the Indies to trade from coaſt to coaſt; being three for Fort St. George, two for Bombay, and one for Priaman.

There were alſo in 1686 five ſhips ſent out by permiſſion; four for Fort St. George, and one for Surat: and in 1687 three; one for Bombay, one for Madagaſcar and Bombay, and one for China.

The number of all theſe ſhips amounts to forty-four; twenty-eight upon the company's account, which were to return to Europe; ſix alſo upon its account to remain in the Indies; and eight upon the account of others, with the company's permiſſion, purſuant to a charter-party.

This firſt company had from time to time ſuſtained great loſſes: firſt in 1680, when it was obliged to retire from Bantam, where its ware-houſes were plundered by the Dutch, who, under the ſpecious pretext of aſſiſting Sultan Agui againſt Sultan Agom his father, ſeized upon this place, from whence they excluded all Europeans.

Secondly, in 1682, when the great number of interlopers, to whom Charles II. with too much facility, granted permiſſions, lowered the company's ſhares to more than *cent. per cent.* leſs than they were before.

Thirdly, in 1685, by the war which the company was obliged to maintain in the Indies, againſt the Mogul; during which time it was obliged to abandon its factory at Surat, and to retire to Bombay; however it always recruited its funds, and ſupported the reputation of its commerce; as may be ſeen from what has been ſtated above.

But, laſtly, the revolution that happened in England in 1688, and the war that followed it, during which the company ſuſtained incredible loſſes by the means of French privateers, expoſed it to a more perilous ſituation than ever before; a ſituation which proved ſo deſtructive, that its recovery was deſpaired of, and a new one eſtabliſhed; with which, ſome time after, the old company was incorporated.

The riſe of this new company was occaſioned by the great caſe of the old company being taken into conſideration by the parliament; which caſe had been depending ſeveral years, and, becauſe of its intricacy, had been firſt referred by the parliament to the King, and by him back to the parliament again in the year 1698, when the old company offered to advance 700,000 l. at 4 *per cent.* for the ſervice of the government, in caſe the trade to India might be ſettled on them, excluſive of all others; and the parliament ſeemed inclined to embrace their propoſal. But another number of merchants, of whom Mr. Shepherd was the chief, and who were protected by Mr. Montague, chancellor of the exchequer, propoſed to the houſe of commons, to raiſe two millions at 8 *per cent.* upon condition the trade to India might be ſettled on the ſubſcribers, excluſive of all others: they alſo propoſed, that theſe ſubſcribers ſhould not be obliged to trade in a joint ſtock; but if any members of them ſhould afterwards deſire to be incorporated, a charter ſhould be granted to them for that purpoſe. The houſe judged this new overture not only to be more advantageous to the government, but alſo very likely to ſettle this controverted trade on a better foundation than it was on before; a bill was therefore brought in for ſettling the trade to the Eaſt Indies, according to the limitations before mentioned, and the following reſolutions.

Firſt, that every ſubſcriber might have the liberty of trading yearly, to the amount of his reſpective ſubſcription; or might aſſign over ſuch his liberty of trading to any other perſon. Secondly, that his Majeſty be empowered to incorporate ſuch of the ſaid ſubſcribers as ſhould deſire the ſame. Thirdly, that the powers and privileges for carrying on the Eaſt India trade ſhould be ſettled by parliament. Fourthly, that the ſaid ſubſcribers ſhould enjoy the ſaid 8 *per cent.* and liberty of trading to the Eaſt Indies, excluſive of all others, for the term of ten years, and until the ſame ſhould be redeemed by parliament. Fifthly, that every perſon ſubſcribing 500 l. have a vote; and no perſon to have more votes than one. Sixthly, that all ſhips laden in the Eaſt Indies, ſhould be obliged to deliver in England. Seventhly, that no perſon that ſhould be a member of any corporation trading to the Eaſt Indies, ſhould trade otherwiſe than in the joint ſtock of ſuch corporation of which he was a member. Eighthly, that 5 *per cent. ad valorem*, upon all returns from the Eaſt Indies, be paid by the importer; to be placed to the accompt of the ſubſcribers, towards the charge of ſending ambaſſadors, and other extraordinary expences. And, ninthly, that over and above the duties then payable, a further duty of 1 s. 10 d. *per* lb. weight,

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be laid upon all wrought ſilks imported from India and Perſia, to be paid by the importer.

The old Eaſt India company preſented a petition againſt this bill, which, notwithſtanding, was paſſed in favour of the new company, who obtained a charter of incorporation, dated the 5th of September 1698, by the name of "The general ſociety intitled to the advantages given by an act of parliament for advancing a ſum not exceeding two millions, for the ſervice of the crown of England:" whereby the ſum total of all the ſubſcriptions was made the principal ſtock of the corporation, and the new company was inveſted with the ſame privileges as were granted to the old company by the charter of King Charles II.

The fund of this new company became ſo conſiderable, and ſubſcriptions were carried on with ſuch facility, that, in leſs than two years, the company put to ſea 40 ſhips equipped for its trade; which was double the number employed by the old company in the moſt flouriſhing time of its commerce; and it ſent annually a million ſterling in ſpecie to the Indies; whereas the old company had never ſent above 500,000 l.

The two companies ſubſiſted a few years in a ſeparate ſtate; when, having a due regard to their common intereſt, and for the prevention of ſeveral inconveniencies that might otherwiſe have happened, both to themſelves and the nation in general, they agreed upon ſeveral articles for the union of the ſaid companies; whereby it was agreed, that the effects of each company ſhould be brought home, with all convenient ſpeed, for their ſeparate accompts, that the old company's 315,000 l. in the funds, ſhould be united to the capital ſtock of the new company; and that the old company ſhould purchaſe of the new company 673 500 l. in the capital ſtock and fund of 1,662,000 l. with the benefits to ariſe thereby; ſo that the old company might have 988,500 l. in the ſaid fund; which would make that company equal with the new in fund and title to the trade. That the old company's dead ſtock at home and abroad, ſhould be valued at 33,000 l. and the new company's dead ſtock, abroad and at home, at 70,000 l. and that the old company transfer all their dead ſtock to the new company, which ſhould pay the other 16,500 l. for one moiety thereof: and that the old company ſhould alſo pay the new company 35,000 l. for the moiety of their dead ſtock; whereupon the old company ſhould be intitled to a moiety of both the ſaid dead ſtocks, as members of the new company. That each company ſhould immediately deſiſt from any ſeparate exportation: and each company, during ſeven years, ſhould have an equal power in the adminiſtration and management of the fund and trade; to which end twelve perſons ſhould be yearly nominated by the general courts of each company reſpectively, out of the courts of committees and directors of the ſaid companies, who ſhould be called in the new charter, Managers of the united trade to India: and a new additional ſtock ſhould be raiſed for carrying on the future trade; and be advanced in ſuch proportions as the ſaid twenty-four managers, or the major part of them, ſhould appoint; the general courts of each company agreeing thereunto. That the old company, during ſeven years, ſhould preſerve their ſtock in their politic capacity, and for that time remain a ſeparate corporation, ſo as to transfer and aſſign in their own books, as they then did; and at the end of the ſaid ſeven years, the old company ſhould transfer and aſſign in the books of the new company, their ſhare in the fund to their ſeveral members, who ſhould be then intitled to the ſame; whereupon the ſaid members of the old company ſhould become, and be admitted members of the new company. That each company ſhould indemnify the other from their reſpective debts and demands, and a proper proviſion be made for that purpoſe: and that the new company ſhould not take up any money upon their common ſeal, or do any other act, without the concurrence of the old company. That the old company, within one month after the expiration of the ſaid ſeven years, ſhould ſurrender their charters and corporation; and that the King ſhould make a new grant of all ſuch eſtates and effects of the old company, as ſhould devolve upon the crown, by reaſon of the ſaid ſurrender. That immediately after ſuch ſurrender, the new company ſhould change its name, and be called, The united company of merchants of England trading to the Eaſt Indies. Nevertheleſs, the future management of the ſaid ſtock and trade, after the expiration of the ſaid ſeven years, ſhould be according to the new company's charter of 1698. That for the better attaining of the purpoſes aforeſaid, a tripartite indenture ſhould be executed by his Majeſty and both the ſaid companies; wherein ſuch covenants and proviſions might be made, as ſhould be thought reaſonable, with proper releaſes from his Majeſty to each company: ſo that, on the expiration of the ſaid ſeven years, allowed for the conveniency of affairs on both ſides, the two companies might be entirely one in name and effect. Accordingly, in 1702, a new charter of union was granted the two companies by Queen Anne, under the name of *The united company of merchants trading to the Eaſt Indies*; which was eſſentially the ſame with thoſe of King Charles and King William, and has been therefore omitted here; becauſe by the union of the two companies, they have adopted all the regulations made for the government of the old company: ſo that the united company ſhould rather be deemed the old company continued, than a corporation erected upon a different eſtabliſhment. This charter was renewed, with ſome new powers, in 1730; and, in the 20th year of King George II. was continued until the 25th of March 1780; when, on repayment of the capital ſtock, borrowed by the government, and the annuities, the company's right to the ſole and excluſive trade to the Eaſt Indies is to ceaſe and determine.

To the 2,000,000 l. advanced by the new company to King William III. the united company, in the 6th year of Queen Anne, lent the government 1,200,000 l. more, without intereſt; for which the government withdrew the duty of 5 *per cent.* on goods imported by the company, and authoriſed them to add the ſame ſum to their ſtock; whereby their whole loan to the goverment amounted to 3,200,000 l. being what may properly be called the capital ſtock of the company. The firſt loan of two millions was ſecured by the government out of the duties upon ſalt, and the additional ſtamp duties granted in the 9th and 10th year of King William III. chargeable with the payment of 160,000 l. as a yearly fund for keeping down the intereſt at 8 *per cent.* but, by the act of 3d the of Geo. II. this annuity of 160,000 l. was reduced to 128,000 l. and transferred as a charge upon the aggregate fund, which, in the year 1749, was reduced to 3½ *per cent.* till May 1757, and afterwards to 3 *per cent.* See National *Debt* and *Fund.*

By the ſtatute of the 1ſt of Queen Anne, it was enacted, That during the continuance of the union of the India companies, 494 tons and one quarter of good ſalt-petre, ſhould yearly, if demanded, be delivered into the royal ſtores, for the firſt coſt, freight, duties, and other charges, by the company out of the united trade; and 5 tons and 3 quarters by the other members of the general ſociety: the price, in time of peace, to be 45 l. *per* ton; and 53 l. in time of war; alſo, in any charter to be granted to the companies, they ſhould be obliged by covenant, to deliver their proportion of ſalt-petre.

By the 9th and 10th of William III. and 6th Anne, no perſon may trade thither till ſufficient ſecurity be given to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, that all the goods cauſed by them to be there laden, ſhall be brought without breaking bulk, to ſome port of England: which ſecurity the Engliſh Eaſt India company are to give under their common ſeal, after the rate of 2500 l. for every 100 tons they are lett at, for every ſhip by them ſent out.

But by the 13th of Geo. I. and 3d Geo. II. the South Sea company may, by conſent of the Eaſt India company, under their common ſeal, ſend yearly to Madagaſcar, four ſhips to take in negroes to be tranſported to Buenos-Ayres, having firſt given ſecurity to the Eaſt India company not to trade for any other goods.

By the 9th and 10th of Will. III. and 6th Anne, the goods imported from thence, muſt be brought to ſome port of Great Britain, and be there unladen, and be openly and publickly ſold by inch of candle, upon forfeiture, of their value.

By

By the 9th and 10th of Will. III. perſons not qualified, going or trading thither, forfeit the ſhip and goods, and double the value thereof; one fourth part to the ſeizer or informer, and the other three fourths to the uſe of the company, who are to bear the charges of proſecution; which was confirmed by three ſubſequent acts.

By the 5th, 7th and 9th of Geo. I. any of his Majeſty's ſubjects, not lawfully authorized, going to, or being found in the East Indies, ſhall be guilty of a high crime and miſdemeanor, and may be proſecuted within 6 years, and being convicted thereof, ſhall be liable to ſuch penalty as the court ſhall think fit. And every perſon ſo offending may be ſeized and brought to England, and committed to the next county-goal, by any juſtice of peace, till ſufficient ſecurity be given, by natural-born ſubjects or denizens, for their appearance to anſwer the proſecution; and not to depart out of the kingdom without leave.

By the 5th of Geo. I. perſons trading or going thither, under foreign commiſſions, forfeit 500 l. but the South Sea company's trade to any of the limits, to which they are entitled, not to be prejudiced by theſe acts.

By the 7th of Geo. I. goods traded for contrary to law, are forfeited with double the value: contracts for ſhips, in foreign ſervices, to trade thither, are void: goods not belonging to the company, or perſons licenſed by them, ſhipped on board ſhips bound thither, or taken out of ſhips from thence, before their arrival, are forfeited, with double the value; and the maſter privy thereto, forfeits 1000 l. and all his wages: bills of complaint may be exhibited againſt illegal traders, for diſcovery thereof, and recovery of the duty, and 30 *per cent.* to the company: officers are not to proſecute for forfeitures and penalties, without the conſent of the directors of the company: but by the 3d of George II. the Levant company's trade to the Levant ſeas, not to be prejudiced by theſe acts. Goods of the product of the East Indies, may not be imported into any place belonging to the Britiſh crown, unleſs ſhipped from Great Britain, on forfeiture of ſhip and goods, or their value; and officers of the cuſtoms conniving thereat, or delaying proſecution, to forfeit 500 l. and be rendered incapable.

By the the 9th of Geo. I. none of his Majeſty's ſubjects may contribute to, or promote the eſtabliſhing, or carrying on any foreign company trading to the East Indies, from any part of the Auſtrian Netherlands, or any other place, upon forfeiture of their ſhare in ſuch company, with treble the value: one third part thereof to the uſe of his Majeſty, and two thirds to the uſe of the company, if they inform or ſue, otherwiſe one third part of ſuch two thirds to the uſe of the informer or ſuer.

Bills of complaint may be exhibited for the diſcovery of offences, and recovery of the ſingle value only; one third part whereof for the uſe of his Majeſty, and the other two thirds for the uſe of the company: but if a common informer declares his intention of proſecution at law, and inſtead thereof, the directors ſhall chuſe to have it commenced by bills of complaint, they are to allow him one third of the aforeſaid two thirds: any of his Majeſty's ſubjects accepting of any ſhare in truſt, or knowing any other ſubject to have any intereſt or ſhare in any foreign company; not diſcovering the ſame to the united company, within ſix months, ſhall forfeit treble the value of ſuch ſhares, or one year's impriſonment. But making a voluntary diſcovery to the directors in writing, within the time afore-limited, to have a moiety of the forfeiture.

By the 7th of Geo. I. and 3d of Geo. II. the forfeitures and penalties inflicted by the acts of 9th and 10th Will. III. 6th Anne, and 5th Geo. I. and theſe acts, may be proſecuted by the attorney-general, the united company, or any officer of the cuſtoms: one third part to be for the uſe of his Majeſty, one third to the uſe of the company, and the other to the uſe of the officers.

By the 7th of Geo. I. the united company may export ſtores, proviſions, utenſils of war, and neceſſaries for their garriſons and ſettlements, free of duty, provided the duty would not have exceeded 300 l. in any one year.

By the 9th of Geo. I. a capias in the firſt proceſs may be iſſued for offences againſt any act for the encouraging and ſecuring the lawful trade thither.

By the 9th and 10th of Will. III. and 6th Anne, the duty of 5 l. *per cent.* for the maintenance of ambaſſadors, *&c.* is after 29th September 1714, repealed for goods imported from thence by the Engliſh company.

By the 11th and 12th William III. wrought ſilks, bengals and ſtuffs, mixed with ſilk or herba, of the manufacture of East India, China, or Perſia, and callicoes printed, ſtained, or dyed there, are prohibited to be worn in Great Britain; but, upon importation, to pay only the half ſubſidy. Such goods to be imported into the port of London only, and there regularly entered, upon forfeiture, and 500 l. After entry, to be ſecured in proper warehouſes, approved by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms; and not to be taken thence, but in order for exportation, and until ſufficient ſecurity be given accordingly. Such ſecurity may be diſcharged, upon certificate under the common ſeal of the chief magiſtrate, or under the hands and ſeals of two known Britiſh merchants, at the place where landed, teſtifying the ſame, or upon proof that the goods were taken by enemies, or periſhed at ſea.

But by the 8th of Anne, ſuch bonds not proſecuted within three years, nor judgment obtained within two years after proſecution, are void; and officers refuſing to deliver them up accordingly, are to pay damage, and treble damages.

By the 11th and 12th of William III. proprietors may affix one lock to every warehouſe, and may view, ſort, or deliver ſuch goods for exportation, in the preſence of the warehouſe-keeper, who is to attend at all ſeaſonable times: but if they are found in any place, other than in the aforeſaid warehouſes, they are forfeited; and, upon ſeizure, muſt be carried to the next cuſtomhouſe, and, after condemnation, are to be publicly ſold by the candle for exportation, the buyers giving ſecurity accordingly; one third part of the produce of ſuch ſale, to be paid to the King, and the other two thirds to the ſeizer or proſecutor. The perſons knowingly harbouring or ſelling ſuch goods, are likewiſe to forfeit 200 l. one third to the King, and two thirds to the proſecutor.

If the place of the manufacture is diſputed, the proof to lie upon the owner.

Warehouſe-keepers are to enter in a book, every cheſt, bale, and number of pieces therein contained, brought into, and carried out of the aforeſaid warehouſes; and every ſix months tranſmit to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, upon oath, an exact account thereof, and of what are then remaining, in order to be by them laid before the parliament in the firſt week of every ſeſſion. Within one month after the aforeſaid account has been tranſmitted, the commiſſioners are to cauſe the books and warehouſes to be inſpected, and the account examined; and if it appears that any goods have been illegally delivered, the warehouſe-keeper is to forfeit the value thereof, and 500 l. and be diſabled from any public employment.

By the 2d and 3d, and 3d and 4th Anne, unrated goods, callicoes, China ware, and drugs of the product of East India or China, if landed or taken out of any ſhip before entry, and ſecurity of the duties, or without a warrant from the officers, are forfeited, or their value; two thirds to the uſe of his Majeſty, who is to bear the charges of proſecution, and one third to the ſeizer or ſuer.

By the 15th and 16th Geo. I. wrought ſilks, bengals, and ſtuffs, mixed with ſilk or herba, of the manufacture of Perſia, China, or East India, or callicoes painted, dyed, printed and ſtained there, imported into Great Britain, and ſecured in warehouſes, purſuant to 11th and 12th William III. and appearing, upon examination by the proper officer, to be ſtained or damaged, or unfit for foreign markets, unleſs cleaned and refreſhed, dyed, glazed, or calendered, may, by leave of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, be taken out to be ſo manufactured under the care, and in the cuſtody of an officer appointed by them; bond being firſt given, in double the value, to return them again within the time the commiſſioners ſhall think reaſonable to limit. The officer to be paid for his trouble by the perſon at whoſe requeſt the goods are taken out; and any diſpute ariſing about his allowance, is to be determined by the commiſſioners.

The warehouſe keeper, in the account of the goods received into, and delivered out of the warehouſes, which he is directed to keep and tranſmit to the commiſſioners upon oath every ſix months by 11th and 12th William III. is to inſert an account of all goods delivered out to be cleaned, &c. in purſuance of this act, and of what is returned to the warehouſe, with the days and times when, and of what is remaining in the care and cuſtody of the officer out of the warehouſe.

Any officer intruſted with the care and cuſtody of the goods delivered out, and not returning them again to the warehouſe, is to forfeit the value of the goods, and 500 l. and be for ever diſabled from any public employment for the future.

The method of aſcertaining the values of unrated goods imported by the Eaſt India company, was not to be altered by the additional book of rates. See *Cuſtoms*.

The company poſſeſſes, as its property, only a few ſmall veſſels, which are uſed for the coaſting trade of India; where of late they have alſo a 50 gun ſhip for the protection of trade; the other ſhips employed in its commerce from Europe, uſually belonging to ſome able traders or ſhip-builders of London, who purpoſely build them for letting out on freight to the company; for, by the by-laws of the company, no veſſel is to be hired, wherein any director is concerned, directly or indirectly, either as owner, or part-owner; a regulation which, it is ſaid, is not over ſtrictly obſerved.

The cargoes from England to the Eaſt Indies, conſiſt in ingots of gold, French louis-d'ors, Spaniſh piſtoles, a great quantity of piaſters, ſilver-bars, or even Engliſh money coined at the Tower of London, but according to the conditions of the 13th article of the charter. This gold and ſilver are uſually the 3-4ths, or 7-8ths, of the cargo of the ſhips which the company ſends; the other fourth conſiſting in lead, Swediſh and Spaniſh iron, iron cannon, gun powder, and matches, Engliſh cloths of ſeveral colours, particularly ſcarlet and blue; great parcels of ſerges, and other ſtuffs of the Britiſh manufacture, whereof are ſold to the amount of about 150,000 l. a year; as alſo cochineal, quickſilver, vermilion, brute coral of Italy, amber in grain, and ſome other ſmall works.

The returns from the Indies and China are, ſpun cotton, cotton cloths, callicoes, muſlins, ſilk ſtuffs, with gold and without, quantities of raw Perſian and Chineſe ſilk, Carmania wool, cabinets, folding-ſcreens, varniſhed works, porcelain, quickſilver, gold, common and long pepper, coffee, rice, frankincenſe, ſaltpetre, terra merita, three kinds of lacca, indigo, myrrh, tea, ſago, bezoar, oppoponax, vitriol, camphor, ſal armoniac, galbanum, galanga, ſagapenum, ſeveral kinds of aloes, red-wood, ſena, folium indum, rhubarb, and a variety of other drugs, beſides a great number of painted cloths, and ſtuffs mixed with ſilk, cotton, and herba, which the company's ſhips, for a conſiderable time, have made the principal object of their returns; all theſe returns generally amounting to about 1,000,000 l. a year.

The company alſo allows of the commerce of diamonds, in conſequence of a certain duty agreed upon for the freight; that is, 2 *per cent.* for the members of the company, 6 *per cent.* for the Engliſh who are not of the company, and 8 *per cent.* for foreigners.

The company has three principal eſtabliſhments in the Indies; Fort William, in the gulph of Bengal; Fort St. George, on the coaſt of Coromandel; and the iſland of Bombay.

The principal factories dependent on Fort William, are Caſſimbuzar, or Caſſumbazar, Patna, Dacca, Baliſore, or Ballaſore, and Jugdea: thoſe on Fort St. George are, Fort St. David, Vizagapatan, Ingeram, and Madipollam; as alſo Fort Marlborough, or Bencoolen, in the iſland of Sumatra: and thoſe dependent on the iſland of Bombay are, Gombroon, Surat, Anjengo, and Tellicherry; and they are alſo in poſſeſſion of St. Helena, an iſland in the Atlantic ocean: beſides which, they have a trade or factories at Muſcat, and other places, in Arabia Felix; at Gombroon, and other places in Perſia; at Canton, and other places in China; in Siam; at Achem, and other places in the iſland of Sumatra; and in ſome other of the iſlands of the Indian archipelago.

When the Engliſh quitted Bantam, they erected a new general eſtabliſhment at Priaman, in the iſland of Sumatra, which eventually appeared to be of no conſequence.

The ſhips which the company ſends to the gulph of Bengal, and the coaſt of Coromandel, depart uſually in the months of December and January; and when they proceed after the manner of a fleet, a commodore is nominated; but no ſhips for the Indies are armed like men of war, as none ſuch are commiſſioned by the company, tho', on their arrival there, if neceſſary, they are armed; when the commander upon the ſpot gives them a commiſſion, ſealed with the ſeal of the company, and authoriſed by the letters-patent of his Britannic Majeſty.

Laſtly, the company can make war upon the Indian kings and princes, who are not allies of England, without orders from the court of London, purſuant to the 24th article of the great charter of Charles II.

For the œconomy and policy of the united Eaſt India company, all perſons, without exception, are admitted members of it, native and foreigners, men and women; with this circumſtance, that 500 l. in the ſtock of the company gives the owner a vote in the general courts, and 2000 l. qualifies him to be choſen a director.

The directors are 24 in number, including the chairman and deputy-chairman, but may be re-elected for four years ſucceſſively; having each a ſalary of 150 l. a year, and the chairman of 200 l.; whoſe meetings, or courts of directors, are to be held at leaſt once a week; but they are commonly oftener, being ſummoned as occaſions require; and the general court is to be held once a year at leaſt, in the month of April.

Out of the body of directors are choſen committees, who have the particular inſpection of certain branches of the company's buſineſs; as the committee of correſpondence, committee of buying, committee of treaſury, committee of warehouſes, committee of ſhipping, committee of accompts, committee of private trade, committe of houſe, and committee to prevent the growth of private trade.

Other officers of the company are, a ſecretary, and aſſiſtant, with ſix clerks; two caſhiers, with five clerks; a chief accomptant, with three aſſiſtants, and twenty-two clerks; a head accomptant of the freight-accompts, with three clerks; a paymaſter, with two aſſiſtants, and one clerk: to which may be added a ſurveyor of ſhips, and two aſſiſtants; a ſhip's huſband, for receiving the company's goods at the water-ſide, with an aſſiſtant, and three elders; a ſolicitor for law-affairs; beſides warehouſe-keepers, elders, and labourers employed in the ſeveral warehouſes.

The warehouſes, or magazines of the company, are, 1. That for Bengal goods, which is managed by a warehouſe-keeper, and his aſſiſtant, with three elders, under whom are a number of porters employed at daily wages: 2. Helen's warehouſe, for coaſt and Surat goods; in which are two warehouſe-keepers, and four elders, beſides labourers: 3. The drug-warehouſe, for drugs, and China ware: 4. The pepper-warehouſe: and, laſtly, The private trade warehouſe; all officered much like the firſt.

Scotch EAST INDIA *company of commerce.* Though Scotland, for a conſiderable time paſt, makes no ſmall ſhare of Great Britain; yet a national jealouſy had almoſt always cauſed a diviſion, the intereſts either political or commercial of both people being ſeldom the ſame; as each nation had its parliament, ſo each nation had alſo its trading companies. But after ſeveral endeavours, all to no purpoſe, in the reign of James I. and eſpecially in that of William III. the union of the two kingdoms and their parliaments being made in 1707, the Scotch and Engliſh Eaſt India companies were united much about the ſame time.

French CHINESE *company.* Some perſons, in France, having entered to an aſſociation for this commerce, obtained letters-patent, in 1660; whereby the King granted them an excluſive privilege of ſending ſhips to China, Tonquin, Cochinchina, and the adjacent iſlands. But before this company was properly eſtabliſhed, it was in a manner abſorbed by that of the Eaſt Indies, eſtabliſhed in 1664; from which laſt, by a kind of reſtitution, a new Chineſe company proceeded, formed by the Sieur Jourdan, towards the end of 1697.

The firſt ſetting out of this company was attended with

great ſucceſs; for the Amphitrite, its firſt ſhip, departing in the month of March 1698, returned the 3d of Auguſt 1700, with a very rich cargo.

This veſſel ſet ſail a ſecond time in the month of March 1701, and was equally ſucceſsful, returning richly laden in the month of September 1703.

There were ſuch hopes of this company's ſupporting itſelf, that the King, after the firſt return of the Amphitrite, granted a new conceſſion for fifteen years; whereupon three ſhips were ſent: but the war for the Spaniſh ſucceſſion diſcouraged this company, which contented itſelf, or rather ceaſed, after theſe voyages, for fear of the Engliſh and Dutch fleets, which were then very powerful in the Indian and Chineſe ſeas: beſides, ſome diviſion among the aſſociates prevented them from taking any advantage of the union made with a company at St. Malo, formed by Monſieur Lepine-Danican; ſo that this company was afterwards united to the weſtern company.

French EAST INDIA *company.* The propoſals of this company in 40 articles, bearing date the 26th May 1664, were preſented to the King at Fountainbleau, who confirmed them, by his letters-patent, in form of an edict, and had them ratified in parliament the 1ſt of September following.

Their import, among other things, was, that the company ſhould be formed of his Majeſty's ſubjects, even of the nobles, without any dread of derogating from their nobility.

That each ſhare could not be leſs than a thouſand livres, nor the augmentations under 500.

That ſtrangers, of any prince or ſtate whatſoever, might be incorporated with the company; and that thoſe who ſhould have in it 20,000 livres, ſhould be reputed denizens, and in that reſpect ſhould enjoy all the privileges of real ſubjects.

That a chamber of general direction ſhould be eſtabliſhed, compoſed of 21 directors; whereof 12 ſhould be of the city of Paris, and 9 others of the provinces; and that the ſaid chamber might eſtabliſh particular ones, when and where it ſhould judge proper.

That his Majeſty empowered the company, to navigate ſolely, excluſive of his other ſubjects, in all the Indian ſeas, eaſt and ſouth, during the term of 30 years.

That it ſhould have for ever the poſſeſſion of the iſland of St. Laurence, or Madagaſcar, and of all the other lands, places, and iſles, it might conquer from the enemy, and the natives, to enjoy them in all property, ſeigneury, and juſtice, without reſerving any thing therein, but ſole fealty and liege-homage, with the duty, rent, or ſervice, of a crown and ſcepter of gold, weighing 100 marks, upon each demiſe of a king: granting him alſo the power of nominating and eſtabliſhing all officers, military and civil; though the company might have it in its power to nominate ambaſſadors in his Majeſty's name to the Indian kings and princes, and make treaties with them.

That the company might ſend the ſpecies of gold or ſilver it ſhould have an occaſion for in its commerce, notwithſtanding the prohibitions enacted by the laws and ordonances of the kingdom; and this by a particular permiſſion, and a writing granted in its favour.

That his Majeſty ſhould advance, or defray out of his own revenues, the fifth part of the expence neceſſary for the three firſt equipments; for which he was not to be reimburſed till the expiration of the firſt ten years, and without intereſt; and in caſe it ſhould be found, by a general accompt, that the company had ſuſtained a loſs in its capital, the loſs ſhould devolve upon the ſum advanced by his Majeſty.

That the Indian merchandiſes conſumed in France ſhould pay but the half of the duties regulated by the tariffs; and that thoſe deſigned for other countries, and the exempted provinces, either by ſea or land, ſhould pay no duties of importation or exportation; as alſo the timber, and other neceſſary articles for the building and fitting out of the company's ſhips.

Laſtly, That his Majeſty ſhould pay the company 50 livres *per* ton for the merchandiſe its ſhips ſhould carry into the countries of its conceſſion, and 75 livres for thoſe brought back and diſcharged in the kingdom.

His Majeſty alſo granted the company a ſeal, having for legend, *Ludovici* XIV. *Franciæ et Navarræ Regis ſigillum, Uſum ſupremi conſilii Galliæ Orientalis*; and for arms, an azure globe and flower de luce of gold, with this inſcription, *Florebo quocumque ferar*; the ſupporters being two figures, one repreſenting Peace, and the other Plenty.

The extraordinary funds eſtabliſhed, whereof the King advanced the greater part, and which amounted to no leſs than 7 or 8 millions of livres, though theſe were to have been 15; the departure of ſeveral fleets, either for the eſtabliſhment projected at Madagaſcar, which was to be the company's chief ſtaple, or for the eſtabliſhment of the factories it was deſirous of having in the Indies; and, laſtly, the union and aſſiduity with which the French directors endeavoured to uphold this enterpriſe, gave great ideas of this company, and vaſt hopes of ſucceſs.

But the ill choice of this firſt ſtaple in an unwholſome iſland, inhabited by cruel and unconquerable people, leſs rich, and leſs fruitful than it was believed to be upon exaggerated relations; the death of the moſt able and experienced directors ſent to the Indies, the diviſion of others; a breach of faith in M. Caron, a Dutchman, inconſiderately ſet over affairs in ſo diſtant a country; the wars of 1667 for the rights of the Queen, and of 1672 againſt Holland; the little ſucceſs of the ſquadron commanded by M. Deſhayes, whereof a part periſhed in 1672, at Trinquimale, in the iſland of Ceylon, where the ſaid Caron had unadviſedly engaged; and the other at the taking, defence, and ſurrrender of St. Thomas, in 1673 and 1674, brought affairs into ſuch a ſituation, that what ſubſiſted afterwards of this company, or rather thoſe formed out of its ruin, which the traders of St. Malo ſupported with ſome ſucceſs to 1719, were no ways conſiderable.

The company being thus incapacitated from fulfilling its engagements, and continuing its commerce, it was thought adviſable to give it a new form, whereby its credit, if poſſible, might be reanimated: to ſucceed wherein, a general aſſembly of the parties was held on the 29th of May 1684, purſuant to a *lettre de cachet* of the 17th of April preceding.

This *lettre de cachet* ordained the election of a ſufficient number of directors to fill the place of the deceaſed, or of thoſe who could no longer acquit themſelves of that function. It nominated commiſſioners, for the moſt part the ſame that had been nominated in 1675, to examine the company's books and accompts; ſignifying withal, that it was his Majeſty's intention a proviſion ſhould be made of ſuitable gratifications for the directors; both of the general chamber of Paris, and the particular ones of the provinces.

The new directors being choſen purſuant to the *lettre de cachet*, the company's books were laid before the King's commiſſioners, and the director's gratifications being debated upon, were fixed at 3000 livres for each director of the general chamber of Paris, and 1000 livres for each director of the particular ones.

But this aſſembly, and the examination of the company's books, having ſerved only to diſcloſe its deſperate condition, and the impoſſibility of ſubſiſting without being reduced to another form, his Majeſty ordained, by an arret of his council of the 3d September of the ſame year, a ſpeedy convocation of a new aſſembly; wherein, in preſence of his commiſſioners, the books of the Indian factories, as alſo the clerks of the ſaid factories newly arrived, ſhould be heard and examined; and that out of the ſaid books, and other memoirs, a new book of accompts of the quality and value of the company's effects ſhould be made; which, when inſpected into by his Majeſty, with the advice of his commiſſioners, he might be in a condition to reſolve upon what was to be done.

In conſequence of this aſſembly, it appeared, by the company's accompts, that its funds amounted in all only to the ſum of 3,353,966 livres, or about 136,255 l. ſterling; that only 80 actioniſts had afforded their fourths over and above; and that this, with the remainder of the company's

company's effects, was not ſufficient to uphold its commerce; whereupon the King iſſued out a declaration, in the month of February 1685, whereby it was ordained,

1ſt, That the edict of the month of September 1664, ſhould be executed, purſuant to its form and tenor, for the benefit of the antient actionaries, who ſhould have furniſhed their fourth over and above, as well for the fourth remaining of their actions, as for their new fund of the fourth over and above.

2d, That thoſe who had not paid the ſaid fourth, ſhould forfeit all the intereſt they had therein.

3d, That the ſum of 728,975 livres, to which the ſupplement amounted, and unpaid by the actioniſts, ſhould be advanced by thoſe nominated by his Majeſty, who were to take the place of thoſe that had not ſupplied the ſaid fourth, with the injunction of paying them a like ſum of 728,975 livres for the fourth, to which all the actions had been reduced.

4th, That thoſe who contributed new funds for this reimburſement, and for the continuation of the company's commerce, ſhould be paid the intereſt of their ſaid funds and reimburſements, upon the footing of payment uſed in maritime commerce, that is, upon the proviſo of profits that might iſſue from the ſaid commerce.

5th, That, to take care of the company, and its trade, 12 directors ſhould be choſen from among the actioniſts of the city of Paris, who ſhould have at leaſt furniſhed 30,000 livres of new funds.

6th, That, upon the deceaſe of any of the ſaid directors, others ſhould be nominated, by a plurality of voices, as well from among the ſurviving directors, as from among the actioniſts, who ſhould have furniſhed at leaſt 20,000 livres of actions.

7th, That the ſaid directors ſhould have the ſole management of the affairs, and commerce of the company; his Majeſty ſuppreſſing all the directors nominated in the general chamber of Paris, and in all the other chambers of the kingdom.

8th, That in caſe the company was willing to keep the iſland of Madagaſcar, it ſhould be held purſuant to the fealty, homage, and duties, owing to his Majeſty; or, on the contrary, ſhould be acquitted and diſcharged from the ſaid fealty.

But the company renounced its right to this iſland in 1686; when, by an arret of council of the 4th January of the ſame year, Madagaſcar was united to the crown.

It was upon this foundation that the company ſubſiſted, and was governed till 1719; at which time it was incorporated with the company of the weſt, known afterwards by the name of the *Indian company*.

In the month of April 1687, the number of directors was increaſed to twenty; which new directors were to pay for their reception 40,000 livres, if they had already 20,000 livres of actions in the company, and 60,000 livres, if they had no actions therein.

By this new form given to the company, its funds amounted to 2,100,000 livres, or about 104,000 l. ſterling; whereof the directors advanced 1,200,000, being 60,000 livres each, and the actioniſts about 900,000 livres.

It ſeemed, that, under theſe new directors, the company became ſomewhat vigorous; and, in effect, its commerce being proſperous, two dividends were made for its actioniſts in 1687 and 1691, amounting together to 30 *per cent.*

After 1691, its commerce was greatly interrupted by the war that followed the revolution in England, and that wherein France was engaged for the Spaniſh ſucceſſion.

Immediately after the peace of Ryſwick, the directors made more extraordinary efforts than ever before; but here may be properly dated the epocha of the company's fall, the war of 1700 having endangered it to ſuch a degree, that when it was incorporated 19 years afterwards with the company of the weſt, its debts, contracted both in the kingdom and in the Indies, amounted to upwards of ten millions of livres, or about 500,000l. ſterling.

It ſeems that, in 1701, the company having repreſented to the miniſtry its unhappy ſituation, obtained from his Majeſty a loan of 850,000 livres, provided that each of the directors would augment their fund to the amount of 40,000, and the actioniſts to 50 *per cent.*

The execution of theſe conditions cauſed great troubles among the directors and actioniſts; the former accepting them, and the latter refuſing to execute them, notwithſtanding two arrets of council, of the 21ſt February, and 16th May 1702, that authoriſed the reſult of the general aſſembly held the 24th January of the ſame year.

Laſtly, in 1704, all conteſtations were terminated by an arret of council, of the 1ſt of April; which, notwithſtanding all other arrets ſince that of the 16th of May 1702, ordained, that all the company's actioniſts ſhould be intereſted in its commerce, both for the dividing of profits, and the ſuſtaining of loſſes, each with regard to their fund, as well for the paſt, as for the time to come.

That to be acquainted with the ſtate of the company's affairs, the directors ſhould immediately, and above all things, give in the accompts of their commercial tranſactions.

That, for the future, the actioniſts need not be engaged in any new loans, unleſs the deliberations were ſigned by three actioniſts from among the five that ſhould be nominated by them for the examination of the ſaid accompts; and in caſe of refuſal, the parties ſhould refer the matter to the Sieur Pontchartrain, according to whoſe report his Majeſty would proceed to a deciſion.

This ſtating of accompts reviving the directors and actioniſts conteſtations, and the company's affairs being daily upon the decline; two arrets were iſſued out, one of the 6th, and the other of the 12th of November 1708.

The firſt arret ordained, that within two months time, a general aſſembly of the company's directors and actioniſts ſhould be held, in preſence of the *prevot de marchands*, to expedite whatever was neceſſary for the upholding and augmenting of the commerce of the ſaid company, that his Majeſty might be in a condition to know what regulations ſhould be made.

The ſecond ordained the execution of the former, and ſuperſeded all purſuits, compulſions, and executions, upon the company's effects, on account of its debts, and upon the perſons and goods of the directors. Yet the creditors might indemnify themſelves in the council, and might make therein whatever demand they ſhou d judge proper; with a prohibition of endeavouring to obtain juſtice by any other means, upon pain of nullity.

But things being not diſpoſed as yet, to erect a new *Eaſt India company* in France, and the miniſtry willing that the French ſhould continue their commerce there with ſome reputation, the court allowed the company's directors to treat with the rich traders of St. Malo, and to give up to them their privilege upon certain conditions: in whoſe hands it was that the French trade began to reflouriſh in the Indies, till this company was incorporated with that of the weſt in 1719. See French *Weſt* India company.

It ſhould be obſerved, that, for a conſiderable time, the Eaſt India company was allowed to ſhare its privilege with others, through the hopes that the profits accruing from its treaties might be a ſupport to its commerce, or at leaſt that it might have wherewithal to pay in France the intereſts of ſo many bills, and the credit of renewing them.

The firſt of theſe treaties was of the 4th January 1698 with the Sieur Jourdan, and his aſſociates, for the Chineſe trade; the ſecond w th the Sieur Crozat, and his company, in the month of December 1708, authoriſed by an arret of the 15th of the ſame month.

By this laſt treaty, the directors of the company allowed the Sieur Crozat to ſend to the Indies, in the ſaid company's name, two ſhips, upon proviſo that the company ſhould have 15 *per cent.* from the ſale of the effects brought back by theſe ſhips, without any deduction; as alſo 50 *per cent.* accruing from the prizes the ſaid ſhips might make beyond the line; with liberty for the ſaid company to bring back in theſe two ſhips, freight free, to the amount of ten ton of Indian goods; the company reſerving to itſelf the duty of tonnage, as well going as coming, granted by his Majeſty; that is, the duty of 50 livres

ton of the merchandiſes exported by theſe ſhips into the countries of its conceſſion, and 75 livres *per* ton for thoſe brought back to be unladen in the country; which his Majeſty acceded to by way of gratification for the company.

The conditions of the treaty with Jourdan were much the ſame with thoſe of the Sieur Crozat.

Ponichery, which the French uſually call Pontichery, or Pondicherry, is their chief Indian factory; the reſidence of the director-general of the company, and the center of their commerce: their other eſtabliſhments being only factories, where few clerks are left, very often but one, except that of Surat, which is pretty conſiderable.

The company ſecured Pondicherry, in 1688, by a fort flanked with four towers; upon which is a battery of 24 pieces of cannon, with a good garriſon.

The Hollanders beſieged it in 1693, and took, it after a long ſiege: during which the Sieur Martin, director-general, who, two years before, was complimented with letters of nobility from the King, and who was afterwards of the order of St. Michael, ſignaliſed himſelf greatly, aand obtained for himſelf and his garriſon a very honourable capitulation, beſides ſeveral advantageous articles for the company.

Pondicherry was four years after reſtored to the French by the treaty of Ryſwick, and is, to this day, their chief eſtabliſhment in the Indies: but the Engliſh, in the year 1748, under the conduct of Admiral Boſcawen, unſucceſsfully attempted the reduction of it. The commodities imported to France by the French Eaſt India company, are the ſame as thoſe imported into England by the Engliſh Eaſt India company.

Daniſh EAST INDIA *company*. It is but of late that the Danes undertook long voyages, at leaſt for the Indies; their flags making no appearance in the gulph of Bengal, and about the coaſts of Pegu, till near the middle of the 17th century. Their chief factory is at Tranguebar, or Trincombar, where they ſend two or three ſhips yearly, and where they have a conſiderable fortreſs; but they have lately extended their trade to China, and appointed Altena, near Hamburgh, for the port where the Eaſt India commodities are to be unloaded, and public ſales made of them.

Oſtend EAST INDIA *company*. As ſoon as the Spaniſh Netherlands were yielded to the Emperor by the treaty of Raſtadt, the merchants of Oſtend, Antwerp, and ſome other towns of Flanders and Brabant, thought of reaping ſome advantage from the protection and power of their new maſter, for the eſtabliſhment of their commerce in the Eaſt Indies.

Their firſt ſetting out was without authority and letters-patent; yet with the hopes, at their return, of being made a regular company, like the Engliſh, Dutch, and French.

But the infant commerce of this company was immediately troubled by the Dutch; who, the 19th December 1718, took, upon the coaſts of Africa, an Oſtend veſſel richly laden, though protected by a paſſport from the Emperor.

Towards the end of the year 1719, the Emperor allowed the directors to receive ſubſcriptions, and began to encourage the ſubſcription of actioniſts: he alſo granted a deduction of $2\frac{1}{2}$ *per cent.* of all the duties accruing to him from the commodities imported by the company's ſhips, beſides ſeveral other privileges they were made to expect; and, about the ſame time, he demanded ſatisfaction from the States-General for the ſeizure of the Oſtend ſhip; but to no purpoſe, for the Dutch Eaſt India company ſeized upon another.

The merchants of Oſtend, by commiſſion from the Emperor, fitted out privateers to protect their commerce, took a Dutch ſhip, would not make reſtitution, and, in deſpight of the Hollanders menaces, fitted out for the Eaſt Indies in 1720 five ſhips richly laden, and in 1721 ſix more; three for China, one for Mocha, one for Surat and the coaſt of Malabar, and the ſixth for Bengal; their principal ſtation in the Indies being at Coblon, 56 miles N. of Pondicherry, on the coaſt of Coromandel.

The Dutch, on their ſide, to ſtop their progreſs, confiſcated a ſhip fitted out for the Eaſt Indies by the traders of Bruges, notwithſtanding the remonſtrances of the imperial miniſter at the Hague.

The Engliſh pirates having taken, in the ſeas of Madagaſcar, an Oſtend ſhip richly laden, and bound for Europe, this new loſs ſeemed to diſcourage the Imperial company: but, upon the ſafe arrival of four others, in 1722, it found itſelf in a condition, not only to repair its loſſes, but alſo to continue its commerce with more ſucceſs and reputation.

At laſt his Imperial Majeſty granted this company his letters-patent, in a moſt ample and authentic manner; the duration of its conceſſion being 30 years, its limits the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, with all the coaſts of Africa, both beyond and on this ſide the Cape of Good Hope; as alſo all the ports, harbours, places, and rivers, where other nations had any freedom of trade.

The company's fund was fixed at ſix millions of guilders, or about 475,000 l. ſterling, and at 6000 actions, of 1000 guilders each.

The news of theſe letters-patent made the Engliſh and Dutch unite to obtain their revocation; and the Dutch Eaſt India company preſented two memorials on this head to the ſtates; in the latter whereof, of the 9th Auguſt 1723, a liberty of diſputing their rights by the force of arms was required. The Oſtend company founded themſelves upon the natural liberty which all nations have of trading where-ever it ſeems convenient, unleſs ſome particular convention might deprive them of it; and the Dutch pretended that there was ſuch a convention between them and thoſe of Oſtend, ſpecified by the treaties of barrier, and that of Munſter.

The courts of London and Paris, whoſe ſubjects had been allowed, by treaty, to import ſilks into Germany, and the Emperor's hereditary dominions, backed the remonſtrances of the republic; and France thought it neceſſary to hinder her traders to intereſt themſelves in this company; for which purpoſe the French monarch iſſued out a declaration, of the 16th Auguſt 1723, among other things, impoſing a penalty of 3000 livres, a confiſcation of all funds and effects in the ſaid company, and three years baniſhment in caſe of a ſecond offence; which example was followed in Great Britain. See *Engliſh Eaſt* India company.

The Emperor, continuing his utmoſt efforts to ſupport the new company, entered into a treaty with Spain in 1725, called the *Vienna alliance*; whereby the Spaniſh monarch engaged to allow greater advantages in trade to the Imperialiſts than to any other nation, particularly to the Oſtend company. Whereupon the French inſinuated, that there were ſtill ſome further ſecret articles, much more prejudicial to the trade of Britain than thoſe that appeared; which induced the Britiſh miniſtry to enter into an alliance with them, commonly called the *Hanover alliance*, in oppoſition to that of Vienna; whereby the contracting parties guarantied their reſpective rights and privileges in relation to trade, which ſtruck chiefly at the Oſtend company; and the Dutch were afterwards induced to accede to this treaty, with a view to prevent the trade of this company to the Eaſt Indies; while Great Britain commenced hoſtilities againſt Spain in the Weſt Indies: ſo that the Emperor being prevailed on by the Dutch, who acted as mediators, to conſent that the charter ſhould be ſuſpended for ſeven years, preliminaries for a general peace were ſigned at Paris, in May 1727, between the allies of Vienna, and thoſe of Hanover; ſince which time, the Oſtend company has never been revived.

EAST INDIA *company of Sweden*. In the year 1730, a Dutchman, named Van Aſper, who had projected the ſame thing in Denmark, propoſed the erecting of an Eaſt India company in Sweden; which being approved of, the King took upon himſelf to be its protector; and when the Dutch, who apprehended this would be as prejudicial as the Oſtend company had been to their trade, complained of it, they were given to underſtand that commerce was open to all nations, and that the Swediſh kingdom had an equal right to it with others; ſince which time the Swedes have ſent ſeveral ſhips to the Indies; and have been ſo ſucceſsful in this trade, as to be under

no neceſſity of purchaſing the merchandiſe of India from their European neighbours, as they formerly did, unleſs it be the fine ſpices; which the Swedes, and all other nations, are obliged to purchaſe of the Dutch, who have robbed the reſt of the world of them, and conſequently ſet what prices they pleaſe upon thoſe commodities.

Embden EAST INDIA, or *Pruſſian Aſiatic company*. His Pruſſian Majeſty, ſenſible of the advantages reſulting from a maritime intereſt, granted in 1751 a patent for 20 years, to Henry Thomas Stuart, and company, for eſtabliſhing a Pruſſian Aſiatic company at Embden, an Imperial city, and port-town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia; empowering it to ſend an indefinite number of ſhips annually to Canton in China; which grant was ſolemnly regiſtered; and ſuch effectual means were concerted for the proſecution of the deſign, that the adventurers were perfectly ſatisfied; for his Majeſty not only iſſued his letters patent for making the port of Embden a free port, but ordered memorials to be preſented to the maritime powers, and ſuch other princes whoſe ſubjects traded to the Eaſt Indies, concerning the navigation of the ſhips belonging to the Embden company: upon which the States-General of the United Provinces declared, that his Majeſty's ſhips ſhould have the ſame liberty as thoſe of other nations, to trade to all the ports, except thoſe which the Dutch Eaſt India company have the ſole right of trading to: that they ſhould be alſo at liberty even to put into thoſe ports to refit, after bad weather, or to get proviſions and water, in caſe they were in diſtreſs for them: but that, as the ſubjects of the republic, employed in their India company, incur very ſevere penalties, by going into the ſervice of any other power, they hoped his Pruſſian Majeſty would not permit ſuch perſons to ſail in his ſhips to the Eaſt Indies, ſeeing, in ſuch caſes, the Dutch Eaſt India company could not avoid ſeizing them, and puniſhing them with the utmoſt rigour. The directors of this company reſolved to ſend only two ſhips to China for the firſt year; and, upon the ſucceſs of theſe, to regulate their future proceedings: accordingly one of their ſhips, called the King of Pruſſia, ſet ſail from Embden on the 17th of February 1752; and as the other powers granted the ſame conceſſions with the Dutch, this company has more reaſon to expect a ſucceſsful event than that of Oſtend, which was circumvented by thoſe very powers who, in complaiſance to his Pruſſian Majeſty, granted to the Embden company what the Emperor could never obtain for the other.

Remarks.

One of the reaſons why the Dutch Eaſt India company flouriſhes, and is become more rich and powerful than all the others, is its being abſolute, and inveſted with a kind of ſovereignty and dominion, more eſpecially over the many ports, provinces, and colonies, it poſſeſſes in thoſe parts. For it appoints magiſtrates, admirals, generals, and governors, ſends and receives embaſſies from Kings and ſovereign princes, makes peace and war at pleaſure, and by its own authority adminiſters juſtice to all, appoints tribunals to judge in their name, with plenary power and no appeal, puniſhes and remits offences, beſtows rewards becoming the dignity of Kings, ſettles colonies, builds fortifications, levies troops, maintains numerous armies and garriſons, fits out fleets, and coins money. And though there is acknowledged a dependance upon the States-General, it may be ſaid they ſeldom exert their power; and while the republic preſerves the right of ſovereignty, it tacitly leaves the exerciſe and poſſeſſion of it to the merchants of this company. Theſe vaſt powers were, and are ſtill, requiſite to cheriſh and preſerve this flouriſhing branch of trade: and the proprietors juſtly merited them; for, by their own vigilance, care, and expence, they conquered, and preſerve all the countries they poſſeſs in thoſe parts of Aſia, and their fortreſſes on the coaſt of Africa for the refreſhment, refitting and protection of their ſhips.

The power of the Dutch by ſea and land is very great in the Eaſt Indies; where, by force, addreſs, and alliances, they raiſed themſelves, and ſtill ſupport a great ſuperiority, in ſpite of the Engliſh, Portugueſe, and other Europeans, that have ſome trade there; but ſo inconſiderable, that, all together, is not equal to what the Hollanders ſingly enjoy, and who could give law to the very Engliſh in 1662, obliging them to a peace very advantageous to Holland, and their Eaſt India company in particular, after a bloody and expenſive war that aroſe from jealouſy and rivalſhip in commerce. Therefore it may be for the advantage of England, France, and even Portugal, to tolerate and encourage other companies, from reaſons of ſtate, and ſelf-preſervation, which put all princes and republics upon reducing the power of ſuch as aſpire after univerſal dominion, or have already acquired it; as the Aſſyrians, Chaldeans, Medes, Perſians, Greeks, and Romans did, and againſt whom thoſe neareſt to danger, uſually form conſpiracies, courting even diſtant alliances to ballance the great and ambitious power that threatens them; and to reduce it to an equality, or even lower, that all may live ſecure, and confined within their own limits. If the power of the Dutch, though great in Europe, does not put princes and ſtates upon their guard, they muſt poſſeſs a kind of univerſal monarchy or dominion in the ſouthern provinces, iſlands and ſeas of Aſia, from Arabia to Japan; ſubjecting, by all poſſible ways, many of the powers of Europe to their law, in every thing reſpecting that important branch of trade; a thing which, beſides the diſhonour of it, very much interferes with their intereſt. For, in thoſe parts, Holland commands and directs every thing at pleaſure, bringing ſovereigns under ſubjection, conquering or reducing large and plentiful provinces, after it laid the foundation of its empire upon the ſpoils of Portugal, and enlarged it by preſcribing narrow limits to the juriſdiction and commerce of the Engliſh, and diſappointing or reducing that of the French and other Europeans. For this, and other reaſons, good policy ſeems to ſuggeſt, that the Engliſh, French, and Portugueſe, intereſted and aggrieved, ſhould unite, and not only tolerate, but encourage any proper new company, and receive it as an auxiliary and confederate power, to aſſiſt in humbling the pride of the Dutch, and weakening their univerſal dominion in the Eaſt Indies, that all may live independent, and not under a ſubjection that bears hard upon their honour and commerce.

The Eaſt India trade, however, is in the opinion of Mr. Cary, very prejudicial to Great Britain, as it is now driven; becauſe it exports her bullion, ſpends little of her product or manufactures, and brings in commodities perfectly manufactured; which hinder the conſumption of her own, and diſcourage the wearing ſuch as are purchaſed with them; the chief profit thereof ariſing from underſelling the labour of the poor, becauſe it is bought there cheaper, than, by reaſon of the value of lands, and the prices of proviſions, they are able to work in England.

The parliament having been pleaſed by an act made in the 10th and 11th years of his late Majeſty King William III. to prohibit the wearing of wrought ſilks, Bengals, ſtuffs mixed with ſilk or herba, of the manufactue of Perſia, China, and India, and all callicoes painted, dyed, printed, or ſtained there; the reaſon of it is therein ſet forth to be, the great detriment the nation received, as the trade was then managed, by exhauſting the treaſure thereof, and taking away the labour of the people, whereby very many of the manufacturers were become exceſſively burthenſome and chargeable to their reſpective pariſhes, and others compelled to ſeek for employment in foreign parts. The making this law gave a new life to the Britiſh manufactures, and would have given more, if the true intent of the parliament had been anſwered. But it has ſince been found that it has not; for it neither keeps the treaſure at home, nor prevents thoſe commodities from being worn in Great Britain, which the parliament deſigned it ſhould; and Mr. Cary very much queſtions whether any thing leſs than a total prohibition of their importation will do it; for, he ſays, though they are directed to be exported again, yet there is great reaſon to believe that they are privately brought back, both from Ireland, the Britiſh plantations, and other places to which they are ſent, to the loſs of his Majeſty's cuſtoms, and the prejudice of the Britiſh ſtainers and painters, beſides the injur-

njury to the manufactures at home; otherwiſe, how ome ſuch great quantities to be worn and uſed in Eng- and, when the ſtock in hand hath been ſo long ſpent?

There are other commodities, which the company may rade in, and the tract of land within their charter is arge enough to afford an advantageous commerce there, he profits whereof might be returned in things no ways njurious to the Britiſh manufactures, ſuch as raw ſilk, ndigo, pepper, ſaltpetre, ſpices, drugs, china-wares, offee, tea, and many other things, if they were induſ- rious to make diſcoveries, as private merchants would do, f the trade lay open; and the ſame gentleman obſerves, t will not be diſputed that greater quantities of raw ſilk ave been brought thence ſince the making that law, than were uſed to be done before.

It hath been alledged, that, by the exportation of thoſe manufactures again, more bullion in ſpecie is brought into Great Britain, than is carried out for the buying them in India: but this was never yet made out, and it would be much to the ſatisfaction of the people, who daily ſee that bullion carried away, and alſo for the honour of the com- pany, that it was done.

As for white callicoes and muſlins, they have beat out the wearing of lawns, cambrics, and other thin German and Sileſia linens, which has been the occaſion of turning many of thoſe looms to the woollen manufactures there, that were formerly employed in the weaving them, and hath abated the exportation of great quantities of woollen cloth from England; beſides the hinderance callicoes give to the conſumption of Scotch linens, which being thin and ſoft, are as proper for dying, printing, and ſtaining, as they are, and may be made as white.

The Eaſt Indies is a bottomleſs pit for bullion, which can never circulate back to England; whereas, if it was ſent to any part of Europe, there might be ſome hopes, by the ballance of trade, to bring it back again; and when bullion fails, that trade muſt ceaſe of courſe, which it will ſoon do, if the company carry out yearly as much as other trades bring in.

It is to be wiſhed that the nobility and gentry of Great Britain would be in love with their own manufactures, and thoſe which are purchaſed with them; as alſo, that they would, by their examples, encourage the uſing them; which would be attended with the prayers of the poor, beſides the advantage it would bring to their eſtates.

And as to navigation, it will not be diſputed, that long voyages rather uſe ſailors than make them; both the em- ployers, and the employed, chuſing rather to make their firſt experiments on ſhort ones.

That this is the preſent ſituation of all the kingdoms of Europe, with reſpect to the trade which they carry on with the Eaſt Indies, is alſo aſſerted by the Marquis Je- rome Belloni, a celebrated merchant and banker at Rome; and this for no other reaſon than that immenſe gulph of paſſive commerce, wherein they are involved by means of the commodities which the European import from thoſe parts: for, according to this author, not only the great quantities of jewels and manufactures, with the number- leſs liquors and ſpices, the greateſt part whereof the lux- ury and pride of men have raiſed to high prices, render that trade ſo exorbitant, that the great advantage which the European kingdoms receive from the Weſt Indies, and the great quantities of gold and ſilver, and other uſe- ful things, which are brought from thence, are not ſuffi- cient to compenſate the loſs ſuſtained by that exceſſively expenſive trade; but even the many commodities which come from the Eaſt Indies to Europe, and thoſe inex- preſſibly vaſt ſums of money, beſides ſome few ſorts of European commodities, which are exhauſted by the im- portation of thoſe Eaſt Indian goods, give juſt ground to make it a queſtion, whether the money that is brought to Europe from the Weſt Indies, is more conſiderable than that which is exported from Europe to the Eaſt Indies.

The Baron de Monteſquieu, in his Spirit of laws, ſpeak- ing of the trade of Europe in general to thoſe parts, not only acknowledges this truth, but alſo gives reaſons for it. "We at preſent, ſays he, carry on the trade of the "Indies, merely by means of the ſilver we ſend thither, "which is exchanged for merchandiſes brought to the "weſt. Every nation that ever traded to the Indies, "has conſtantly carried bullion, and brought merchan- "diſes in return. It is nature itſelf that produces the "effect. The Indians have their arts adapted to their "manner of living. Our luxury cannot be theirs, nor "their wants ours. Their climate hardly demands, or "permits any thing which comes from ours. They go, "in a great meaſure, naked; ſuch cloaths as they have, "the country itſelf furniſhes; and their religion, which "is deeply rooted, gives them an averſion for thoſe "things which ſerve for our nouriſhment. They want, "therefore, nothing but our bullion, to ſerve as the me- "dium of value; and for which they give us, in return, "merchandiſes, with which the frugality of the people, "and the nature of the country, furniſh them in great "abundance."

Upon the whole, the Eaſt India trade is carried on from Perſia and Egypt, to Turky, by caravans; which alſo ſupport a trade between China and Ruſſia: but the gene- ral part of the trade is carried on by ſea, particularly by the European companies; as alſo by the Portugueſe and Spaniards, who have ſeveral ſettlements in India; the former on the continent of India, from whence, as well as from Macao on the coaſt of China, and their ſettle- ments on the coaſts of Mozambique and Zanguebar on the coaſt of Africa, they carry on a trade with their co- lonies in America; and the latter from the Philippine iſlands, from whence they carry on a trade with their poſſeſſions in America, acroſs the Pacific ocean. Beſides, there is alſo a conſiderable trade carried on from one part of India, and the other eaſtern countries, to another. See *India*, *China*, and *Perſia*.

EAST INDIA *fund*. See *Fund*.

EASTLAND was formerly a term for ſuch countries as lie up the Baltic: but for Eaſtland company, ſee *North* companies.

EASTONESS. The moſt weſterly point or cape, on the coaſt of Suffolk, north of Southwold bay.

EBB. The going out of the tide; alſo the decay of trade. See *Tide*.

EBONY, *Ebenum*, in natural hiſtory, a kind of wood, brought from the Indies, exceedingly hard and heavy, ſuſceptible of a very fine poliſh, on which account it is uſed in moſaic and inlaid works, toys, and other things. There are ſeveral kinds of ebony; of which the moſt uſeful are black, red, and green; all of them the product of the iſland of Madagaſcar; where the natives call them, indifferently, *hazon mainthi*, or black wood: but the iſland of St. Maurice, belonging to the Dutch, likewiſe furniſhes part of the ebonies brought to Europe. F. Plu- mier mentions a black ebony-tree, diſcovered by him at St. Domingo; and the iſland of Candia alſo bears a little ſhrub, known to the botaniſts under the name of *ebenus cretica*.

Pliny and Dioſcorides ſay, the beſt ebony comes from Ethiopia, and the worſt from India; but Theophraſtus prefers that of India. Black ebony is much more prefe- rable than the other colours; the beſt being a jet black, free of veins and rind, very maſſive, aſtringent, and of a ſharp pungent taſte; it yields an agreeable perfume, when laid on the coals; when green, it readily takes fire, from the abundance of its fat; if rubbed againſt a ſtone, it becomes brown; and its rind infuſed in water, is ſaid to purge pituita, and cure venereal diſorders; whence Matthiolus took guiacum for a ſort of ebony: but this ſort of ebony is now much leſs in uſe, among inlayers, and moſaic workmen, than antiently; becauſe of the diſcovery of ſo many ways of giving other hard woods a black colour. See *Marquetry*.

As to green ebony, beſides Madagaſcar and St. Maurice, it likewiſe grows in the Antilles, and eſpecially in the iſland of Tobago: beneath its bark is a white rind, about two inches think; all under which, to the very heart, is a deep green, approaching towards a black; though ſometimes ſtreaked with yellow veins: its uſe is not con- fined to Moſaic work; for, as yielding a fine green tinc- ture, it is likewiſe valuable among dyers.

As to red ebony, called alſo grenadilla, it is but imperfectly known.

The cabinet makers, inlayers, and other workmen, make pear-tree, and other woods, paſs for ebony, by ebonifing, or giving it a ſimilar black colour.

EBRO, antiently *Iberus*, is a river of Spain, riſing in the north-weſt part of Old Caſtile, upon the confines of Aſturia; it runs ſouth-eaſt through Old Caſtile and Biſcay; then dividing Old Caſtile from Navarre, continues its courſe through Arragon, viſiting the capital city of Saragoſa; from whence it runs ſouth-eaſt to the confines of Catalonia, where it receives the Cinca and Segra; then croſſing the ſouth-weſt part of Catalonia, paſſes by the city of Tortoſa, and diſcharges itſelf with great rapidity into the Mediterranean, 20 miles below that city. The Ebro is almoſt the only navigable river in Spain; and in this the navigation is very difficult, except between Tortoſa and the ſea; for though it will carry veſſels 250 miles down the ſtream, it runs with that violent force, that a boat cannot go up the ſtream higher than Tortoſa; and it is very dangerous going down, on account of the rocks, which lie in the channel for 50 or 60 miles below Saragoſa.

ECCLESIASTICAL *ſtate*, in Italy, is that which is ſubject to the Pope. See *Italy*.

ECLIPTIC, in aſtronomy, is a line, or circle, on the ſurface of the ſphere of the world, under which the center of the ſun proceeds in its proper motion; or a line, which the center of the ſun deſcribes in its annual progreſs.

ECLIPTIC, in geography, is a great circle of the globe, cutting the equator under an angle of 23 deg. 29 min. The terreſtrial ecliptic is therefore in the plane of the celeſtial ecliptic; like which, it has its equinoctial and ſolſtitial points, and is bounded by tropics.

ECU, or *Eſcu*. The French crown, being of two ſorts: the exchange ecu, and the ſpecie ecu; the former, whatever augmentation or diminution happens in the French coins, always paſſes for three livres, or 60 ſols tournois, or 2 s. $5\frac{1}{4}$ d. ſterling; the latter is taken for 6 livres, or 4 s. $10\frac{1}{2}$ d. ſterling. See *Coin*.

There are alſo other ecus, or crown-pieces, of other countries; as the Eſcudi ecu, or crown of Rome, worth about 6 s. ſterling; the piaſter ecu, or crown of Ferdinand II. Duke of Tuſcany, worth 4 s. 6 d. ſterling; the piaſter ecu, or crown of Milan, worth about 4 s. 6 d. ſterling; and the ecu d'argent of Genoa, worth about 6 s. ſterling.

EDAM. A town of North Holland, ſituated on the weſt ſhore of the Zuyder ſea, 12 miles north-eaſt of Amſterdam. See *United Provinces*.

EDDY *water*. See *Dead water*.

EDDY *wind*, is that which returns, or is beat back from any ſail.

EDEN. A river riſing in Weſtmoreland, on the confines of Yorkſhire; which running north by Appleby and Carliſle, falls into Solway frith, 6 miles weſt of that city.

EDERDON, or *Edredon*. A kind of very fine down, brought from the north, particularly from Swediſh and Daniſh Lapland, being plucked from the neck, belly, and under the wings, of falcons, or other birds of prey. See *Down*.

This rich down is ſold in Lapland for about 5 s. 6 d. ſterling the pound; and when brought to England or France, it is generally purchaſed from 15 to 25 livres, or from about 12 s. to 20 s. ſterling.

EDICT. An inſtrument, ſigned and ſealed by a prince, to ſerve as a law to his ſubjects. Edicts have no room in England, where the enacting of laws is not ſolely lodged in the King, but equally in the parliament; though, in the French law, edicts make a great figure, where they are much the ſame as proclamations in England; with this difference, that the former have the authority of a law in themſelves, from the power which iſſues forth; whereas the latter are only declarations of a law, to which they refer, and have no power in themſelves.

EDINBURGH. The capital city of Scotland, ſituated in 3 deg. of W. lon. and 56 deg. of N. lat. See Great *Britain*.

EDISTON *rock*, is a rock ſituated in the Engliſh channel, equally diſtant from the coaſts of Devon and Cornwall, 16 miles S. of Plymouth in Devonſhire; on which a light-houſe is erected, for the direction of ſhips going in or out of the channel. See *Trinity* Houſe.

EFFECTS, in commerce, the goods poſſeſſed by any perſon, whether moveable or immoveable; particularly thoſe which merchants and dealers acquire by trade: thoſe among merchants are uſually diſtinguiſhed into three claſſes, good, bad, and doubtful; and, by an ordonance of the French court, in 1673, every merchant is obliged to take an inventory, or review, every year of all his effects of every kind.

Vacant EFFECTS, *prædia Vacatia*, or *Vacua*, are ſuch as are abandoned for want of the heir, after the death or flight of the former owner.

EGEAN-*ſea*, now the Turkiſh Archipelago, is ſituated between Greece and the Leſſer Aſia.

EGRIPOS. See *Negropont*.

EGYPT. The name of Egypt, according to the claſſicks, is derived from Egyptus, the brother of Danaus, once ſovereign of this country: it is called Miſraim by the Hebrews and Arabs, which name, it is ſuppoſed to have obtained from Miſraim, the ſon of Cham and grandſon of Noah: it has alſo been known by the name of Copta, the capital city of Upper Egypt, from whence the natives were called Cophtis, as the Chriſtians of Egypt are at this day, who, notwithſtanding they are not the moſt numerous, are looked upon to be the true deſcendants of the ancient Egyptians. The Turks call this country Dekebit, or the over-flowed country, and a multitude of other names have been given to it; but by theſe it has been moſt generally known.

Egypt is ſituated on the north-eaſt part of Africa, being bounded by the Mediterranean ſea on the north; by the Red ſea, and the iſthmus of Suez, which divide it from Aſia, towards the eaſt; by the empire of Abyſſinia, and Nubia, towards ths ſouth; and by the deſart of Barca, towards the weſt; extending from the 21ſt degree of northern latitude, to the 31ſt and ſome odd minutes beyond; and conſequently muſt be about 600 miles in length from ſouth to north: but the breadth in many places does not ſeem to be near 200 miles.

The air of this country is not heathful, the ſituation being very low, and the mud which covers the beſt part of it after the overflowing of the Nile, ſending up a noiſome vapour. The ſandy deſerts alſo, which encloſe Egypt on three ſides, render it exceſſive hot: nor is there more than two ſprings in the whole country, to refreſh the parched inhabitants; ſo that they ſeem to be under a neceſſity of building their towns on the banks of the Nile. Accordingly, moſt of them ſtand near that river, on riſing ground, ſo made by art or nature; and, when the river overflows, appear like ſo many iſlands, which have no communication with each other only by boats.

This country is uſually divided into lower, middle, and upper Egypt. Lower Egypt is moſt part of it contained in a triangular iſland, made by the Mediterranean ſea and the two great branches of the Nile, which, dividing itſelf five or ſix miles below old Cairo, flows one part of it towards the north-weſt, falling into the ſea at Damietta, the ancient Peluſium: but there is a great extent of country both to the eaſtward and weſtward of this triangle, which is included under the name of Lower Egypt.

The chief towns of Lower Egypt are, 1ſt, Alexandria, the only tolerable harbour belonging to Egypt. This city, called by the Turks Sandria and Scanderick, was built, or enlarged by Alexander the Great, about 300 years before the incarnation of Chriſt; being ſituated about 100 miles to the northward of Cairo, and 40 miles to the weſtward of the moſt weſterly branch of the river Nile, upon a promontory, which runs into the Mediterranean ſea, and forms two harbours; but one of them is at preſent almoſt choaked up. The ground it ſtands upon is ſo extremely low that it can ſcarce be diſcerned by mariners, till they are just upon it, which was probably the occaſion of erecting the famous pharos, or high watch-tower, ſo frequently mentioned in hiſtory for a ſea-mark. The old town of Alexandria

andria ſtretched from eaſt to weſt, and was about 7 miles in circumference; but, excepting one long ſtreet indifferently built, and the houſes which face the harbour, the reſt is nothing but a heap of ruins at this day: ſcarce any thing antient is left ſtanding, except part of the walls, which are very magnificent, having great ſquare towers, at about 200 paces diſtant from each other, and a little tower between them.

The iſland of Pharos, on which the famous watch-tower or light-houſe ſtood, eſteemed one of the wonders of the world, was formerly ſeparated from Alexandria, by a channel a mile broad; but is now joined to the continent; and in the room of the pharos, a caſtle is built, called Pharillon, which ſerves as a ſea mark to mariners at this day.

The next conſiderable town to Alexandria is Roſetto, which ſtands 50 miles to the eaſtward of it; and was formerly the place of Cleopatra's reſidence; being ſeated upon the beſt branch of the river Nile, which falls into the ſea 5 miles below this town. There is a bar which prevents large veſſels entering the river, and is not a little hazardous for leſſer barks in ſtormy weather. The form of this city is almoſt round, being about 6 miles in circumference, and containing about 80,000 inhabitants; though there are not above 15,000 in Alexandria. Roſetto is reckoned one of the prettieſt towns in Egypt, having a fine piazza, and ſeveral fair hans, or caravanſeras: the private houſes alſo are well built, and encompaſſed with pleaſant gardens, which makes it look more like a village than a city, eſpecially as it is without walls. Here is a tolerable briſk trade, and plenty of all things; but their beſt manufacture is that of coarſe and ſtriped linen; and their chief buſineſs is to carry ſuch European merchandiſes as are brought there from Alexandria to Cairo in boats, which makes the Europeans have their vice-conſuls here. But they are put to very great inconveniencies for want of freſh water ſome months in the year, when the water of the river is brackiſh, being mixed with that of the ſea.

About 100 miles eaſtward of Roſetto, and as much N. E. of Cairo, ſtands the city of Damietta, or Peluſium, on the moſt eaſterly branch of the river Nile, about 8 miles diſtant from the ſea: it was anciently a conſiderable port, and it now contains about 30,000 inhabitants, who carry on ſeveral mechanic trades, particularly a manufacture of fine linen cloth. The country about it affords plenty of proviſions and fruits; but the other branch of the Nile, on which Roſetto is ſituated, is more frequented.

Seventeen miles to the ſouthward of Damietta, on the ſame branch of the Nile towards Grand Cairo, lyes the city of Manſoura, and on both branches of the Nile the towns and villages ſtand exceeding thick; ſome pretend to have counted no leſs than 300 between Roſetto and Grand Cairo, affirming that there are not much fewer on the other branch towards Damietta. This part of Egypt, which is encloſed by the two branches of the Nile, and the ſea, antiently called *Delta*, from its triangular figure, is much the moſt fruitful part of the country, and the moſt conveniently ſituated for foreign trade. Alexandria, which lies not far from the weſtern mouth of the river, is the only port on the coaſt, having the greateſt trade of any town in the world, when the rich merchandiſe of the Eaſt was brought hither by the Red ſea, and from hence diſperſed to all the kingdoms of Europe: but upon finding out the paſſage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, this, and all the towns in lower Egypt, found a ſenſible decay in their trade.

Middle Egypt lyes to the ſouthward of Lower Egypt; the capital city whereof is Grand Cairo, the ſeat of the Begler-beg, or Viceroy of the whole kingdom. It is ſituated in 32 deg. of E. lon and 30 deg. of N. lat. about a mile and a half diſtant from the eaſtern bank of the river Nile, and 100 miles S. of its mouth; being built upon a plain, at the foot of a mountain of a triangular form, about ten miles in compaſs, and containing above a million of inhabitants. There are ſcarce any wide ſtreets in Cairo, except thoſe of the great bazar, or market place; and the ſehalis, or canal, a low ſtreet, which runs through the middle of the city, from one end of it to the other, in which the water ſtands one half of the year, and is dry the other: it being into this canal, or ſtreet, they let the river Nile, when it is at the height; from whence they diſtribute the waters to their gardens, and the adjacent country. Cairo was formerly remarkable for its trade, and there are now ſeveral manufactures eſtabliſhed there; particularly that of Turky carpets: it is the ſtaple of trade for Egypt; which occaſions the Engliſh and other Europeans to have their conſuls here for the protection and management of the Turky trade in this quarter.

The next conſiderable town in middle Egypt is Baluc, or Bulac, ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the river Nile, about 5 or 6 miles above the place, where that river divides, and forms the Delta; and 2 miles to the weſtward of Grand Cairo; being the port town to that city, and by ſome reckoned a ſuburb to it. The town contains about 4000 houſes, or families, and has a pretty good trade; all veſſels going up the Nile making ſome ſtay, and paying their duties here. Old Cairo ſtands about 2 or 3 miles higher up the ſame river, over againſt the place where the famous city of Memphis ſtood, and is about half a league diſtant from Grand Cairo. This town makes no great figure at preſent, being for the moſt part in ruins; though the ſituation of it on the bank of the river renders it much cooler, and more commodious, than the new Cairo, in the opinion of moſt travellers. As for Memphis, which is ſuppoſed to have ſtood over againſt it on the weſt-ſide of the river, and was once the metropolis of the kingdom, there are ſcarce any ruins left to diſcover where it was, tho' it is thought to extend a pretty way to the weſtward of the Nile, on account of the burying-places or repoſitories of the mummies, which reach ſeveral leagues into the country, and are ſuppoſed to be the tombs of the antient inhabitants of Memphis.

Materea is ſituated about 5 miles north-eaſt of Grand Cairo.

Suez ſtands upon the Red ſea, about 80 miles to the eaſtward of Cairo; being the port where the Grand Seignor's galleys, in the Red ſea, rendezvous; and whither they bring coffee, drugs, and other merchandiſe, from Arabia, and India; which makes it crowded with people at ſome ſeaſons of the year; while at others it is almoſt deſerted, on account of the heats, and the ſcarcity of freſh water: but the haven is very ſhallow, and the town does not contain above 200 houſes at preſent; tho' it was formerly a conſiderable city, and is ſuppoſed to be the antient Arſinoe.

Fium is a large populous city, with a good trade in linen, leather, carpets, fine mats, and fruits, which it ſends to Cairo.

Upper Egypt, or higher Egypt, anciently called Thebais, or Thebaida, and at preſent Sayd, is bounded on the E. by the Red ſea; on the N by middle Egypt; on the W. by the Deſart of Barca; and on the S. by Nubia and the coaſt of Abex. The chief towns are, 1. Sayd, antiently Thebes, the capital of the kingdom: by Strabo called Dioſpolis, or the city of Jove; and by other writers Hecatompylos, or the city with a hundred gates.

Beneſoneffe, where there is a manufacture of carpets.

Minio, remarkable for an earthen manufacture.

Aboutic, famous for black poppies, which make the beſt kind of opium.

Aſna, or Sienna, in the ſouth of Egypt, ſituated on the weſt ſide of the Nile. The river is navigable to this place, but a little beyond are the cataracts, where all merchandiſe is put on ſhore, and carried by land till the veſſels are paſt them.

Girge, or Grege, on the weſt-ſide of the Nile.

Coptus, once a great city, and the capital of Egypt, from whence the natives obtained the name of Cophti, which lies upon the Nile: but moſt of the towns of Upper Egypt are now in ruins, or reduced to inconſiderable villages, and poſſeſſed by Arabs, or Cophti Chriſtians, the trade being diverted another way; eſpecially from thoſe which lye upon the Red ſea, where there is not one conſiderable town mentioned by travellers on the Egyptian ſide, except Suez, above deſcribed, and that ſeems to be very much upon the decline.

Egypt was made a province of the Ottoman Empire in 1517, ſince which time it has always been governed

by a Viceroy, ſtyled the Baſſa of Grand Cairo: but as this kingdom is ſub-divided into ſeveral inferior governments, theſe governors are not ſent from Conſtantinople, or appointed by the Viceroy; but are natives of Egypt, and ſeem to be veſted with ſovereign power in their reſpective diſtricts, and to have the command of the militia of the ſeveral provinces; many of them being of the race of the Mamalukes. It is true, the Viceroy has a conſiderable body of ſpahis and janiſſaries about Cairo to keep them in awe; and every one of theſe petty princes, it is ſaid, is obliged to mount the Viceroy's guard in his turn, with a body of national troops. There is a perpetual jealouſy between the Turkiſh baſſa, and theſe Egyptian royalets; ſometimes the Baſſa will take upon him to depoſe one of them, or, perhaps take his head; and there are inſtances, on the other hand, where they have depoſed the Baſſa, and compelled the Porte to ſend them another more acceptable to them; for the Grand Seignor has thought fit to humour them in it, rather than hazard the revolt of ſo rich a province, which is now eſteemed the granary of Conſtantinople, as it was anciently of Rome: for this is a ſoil ſo fertilized by the Nile, that it is not in the power of the Turks to render it barren But one great reaſon of its continuing to be manured is, that they are yet governed by their own princes, and have an inheritance in their lands; which are privileges very few of the ſubjects of Turky enjoy beſides: neither dare the Turkiſh government overload this people with taxes, for fear of a general revolt; inſomuch, that except what the Viceroy and his creatures illegally extort from them, the whole revenue raiſed by the government does not amount to a million ſterling, of which two thirds are ſpent within the kingdom; and not more than one third comes into the Grand Seignor's treaſury.

Egypt is as remarkable for camels, dromedaries, and fine horſes, as the neighbouring country of Arabia. Oxen, buffaloes, goats, and ſheep, are here alſo to be met with in great plenty, eſpecially the ſheep with fat tails, which weigh ſeveral pounds: they abound alſo with poultry, geeſe, and ducks; and a great variety of birds: but fiſh are ſcarce, unleſs in thoſe countries which lie on the ſea, and near the mouth of the Nile.

As to the huſbandry of the Egyptians, they have no more to do than to harrow their grain into the mud, on the retiring of the waters of the Nile into their proper channel, and in March following they ſeldom fail of a plentiful harveſt; but they reſerve water to let into their rice fields, from time to time, as they do in other countries; for this is a grain that grows in water till the harveſt every where. As to peaſe and beans, and other kinds of pulſe, they have them almoſt all the year round.

At preſent the Egyptian trade may be confined to Cairo, Alexandria, and Roſetto; the latter ſerving as ports to the former; it being at either one or the other of thoſe places that European ſhips arrive, to unload their merchandiſe, whereof the better part is deſtined for Cairo, from whence they have ſuch commodities as they want in return: for at Cairo all kinds of Aſiatic goods are to be had, except the Dutch ſpices.

The French have a conſul at Cairo, who is the moſt conſiderable they keep in the Levant; under whom are two vice-conſuls; one at Alexandria, and the other at Roſetto, who give him an account of the duties of conſulſhip, which they receive upon the footing of 3 *per cent.*

The Venetians, who next to the French have the moſt extenſive trade there, keep their conſul at Alexandria; this conſulſhip being one of the two which are conferred only upon noble Venetians. And the Engliſh have alſo a conſul at Cairo.

Whatever diminution there is in the commerce of Cairo, there is ſcarce a year but upwards of ſixty ſhips from Provence in France arrive at the port of Alexandria, and ſometimes even to the amount of ninety-four. Thoſe reſorting Roſetto are not ſo numerous, tho' pretty conſiderable for the number.

The duties of importation paid for European merchandiſe at Alexandria, Roſetto, and Cairo, are 20 *per cent.* and only one half *per cent.* for the exportation of merchandiſe of the country's growth, or which come from the Red ſea. The Turks, who paſs notwithſtanding for barbarians among Chriſtians, eaſily comprehended that the riches of a ſtate conſiſt in putting off its own merchandiſe, and manufactures; and in doing, if poſſible, without thoſe of others; beſides, that the ſale of Europeans cannot be equal to their purchaſe, upon account of the inequality of duties, which give the Egyptians a diſguſt for thoſe of Europe: ſo that there is a neceſſity for Europeans to make up the overplus in ready money, which remains in and enriches the country.

Beſides great quantities of corn ſent from Egypt to Turky, the Egyptians ſupply Europeans with theſe exports from Cairo: benjoin, bdellium, gum arabic, adraganth, lacca, turmeric, Abyſſinian myrrh, frankincenſe, ſtorax, aloes cicotrina, opium, indigo of three ſorts, powder-ſugar, loaf ſugar, ſugar candy, ſherbet, cinnamon, caſſia, cocoa, coriander, coffee, myrobolans, citrons, nutmegs, nux-vomica, cardamomum, tamarinds, coloquintida, pepper, cloves, flax of ſeveral ſorts, ſenna, ſpica nardi, ſaffron, cotton of ſeveral kinds, wax, ginger, rhubarb, ſalſaparilla, ivory, wool, oſtrich feathers, mummies, ſal armoniac, ſal nitre, rock allum, botargo, pearl, linens of ſeveral kinds, ſtuffs, carpets, muſk, hides, ſkins, and leather.

The European merchandiſe imported into Egypt is chiefly compoſed of agaric, arſenic, arquifow, orpiment, antimony, quick-ſilver, vitriol, vermilion, cinnabar, braſs-wire, tin, ſteel, lead, paper, ſilks, woollen cloths, caps, cochineel, coral rough and wrought, red tartar, and Brazil wood.

All theſe merchandiſes are bought or ſold, at Cairo, by French and Italian factors, who receive and ſell the European merchandiſe directed to them, and purchaſe thoſe they are ordered to buy; their duty of commiſſion being 2 *per cent.* for the ſale, and as much for the purchaſe.

There are alſo factors from theſe two nations at Alexandria, and Roſetto, for ſelling and buying ſome merchandiſe; but their principal employment is to receive thoſe which arrive from Europe on French, Venetian, and Leghorn bottoms, and to conduct them to Cairo, on barks up the Nile, and afterwards to reimbark thoſe ſent back to them by the factors of Cairo, or of which they themſelves have made the purchaſe in the places of their reſidence.

The greater part of the Cairo trade paſſes thro' the hands of Jews and Arabs; who, in conjunction with ſome Turkiſh merchants, carry on the trade of the Red ſea, whence they have the greater part of the above-mentioned merchandiſe.

Beſides the commodities exported by Europeans from Cairo and Alexandria, the Turks import great quantities into Conſtantinople, and other towns of the Ottoman empire, on board veſſels they call ſaicks, which are a kind of large tartans, carrying from 4 to 16 pieces of cannon. The Turks alſo load rice, flax, ſugar, and ſome other commodities; this trade being computed to amount to 500,000l ſterling yearly, and to employ from 100 to 120 of theſe ſaicks. See *Turky*.

EIGHT-*piece of*, or *Piaſter*. See *Piece* of Eight.

EKRENFORD. A port-town of the Dutchy of Sleſwick, ſituated in 10 deg of E. lon. and 54 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. on a bay of the Baltic ſea. See *Denmark*.

ELATCHES. An Indian ſilk and cotton ſtuff, being uſually in length from 4 to 12 ells, and ¾ breadth.

ELBA. An iſland in the Mediterranean, ſituated in 11 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 42 deg. of N. lat. 15 miles W. of the coaſt of Tuſcany in Italy; part whereof belongs to Spain, and part to Tuſcany.

ELBE. A river riſing in the confines of Sileſia, which after paſſing Koningsgratz in Bohemia, runs N. W. till it receives the Moldau, at Malnick, below Prague; and then, continuing its courſe N. paſſes through Saxony, viſiting Dreſden, Meiſſen, Wittenburg, and Madgeburg; then, running N. E. through Brandenburg, receives the river Havel; after which, it divides the Duchy of Lunenburg from Mecklenburg; then, running between the Dutchy of Bremen and Holſtein, viſits Hamburg; and paſſing on ſtill N. W. falls into the German ſea, a little below the fortreſs of Gluckſtat. It is navigable for

hips higher than moſt other European rivers; veſſels of
and 400 tons coming up to Hamburg, which is 70
niles from the ſea; whereby an incredible quantity of all
orts of merchandiſe is imported and exported to and
rom Germany.

BING. A city of regal Pruſſia, in the palatinate of Marienburg, ſituated in 20 deg. of E. lon. and 54 deg. 5 min. of N. lat. on a bay of the Baltic, called the Friſ-haff, near the mouth of the river Viſtula, 30 miles E. of Dantzick, being a large populous town, and a place of good trade, ſubject to the crown of Poland. See *Poland.*

BURG. A town of the United Netherlands, ſituated on the E. coaſt of the Zuyder ſea, in 5 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. See *United Provinces.*

CATIF. The capital of a territory in Arabia felix, lying on the weſtern ſhore of the gulph of Perſia, in 49 deg. of E. lon. and 25 deg. of N. lat. near which, not long ſince, was a very rich pearl-fiſhery. See *Arabia.*

lph of ELECATIF. See *Perſian* Gulph.

ECAMPANE, or the herb horſe-heal, is much recommended for colds.

ECAMPANE *wine.* See *Wine.*

ECTION, in pharmacy, is that part of it which teaches ow to chuſe the medicinal ſimples and drugs; and to iſtinguiſh the good from the bad: but ſome diſtinguiſh general election, which gives the rules and marks for all edicines in general; and a particular one for each me-icine in particular.

ECTRUM, is ſometimes uſed for amber. See *Amber.*

EGIT, in the Engliſh law, a judicial writ, which lies or him who has recovered debt or damages: or upon a ecognizance in any court, againſt one not able in his oods to ſatisfy; being directed to the ſheriff, command-ng him to make delivery of half the party's lands, and all is goods; oxen, and beaſts for the plough excepted: hen the creditor is to hold the moiety of the ſaid land ſo elivered to him, till his whole debt and dama es are ſa-isfied. and, during that time, he is tenant by elegit.

EMI, or *Elemy*, in pharmacy, a pellucid reſin, of a hitiſh colour, intermixed with yellowiſh particles, which ive it much the colour and conſiſtence of wax; of a retty briſk bitter t ſte, t ough not diſagreeable; and a mell like that of fennel. It is uſually called gum elemi, ut very improperly; becauſe it takes fire ready enough, nd diſſolves in olea inous liquors, which are the cha-acters of a reſin.

t flows from inciſions made in the trunk, and large ranches, of a kind of wild olive-tree, growing in Ethi-pia, and Arabia Felix: but it is alſo found in Apulia, province of the kingdom of Naples. Pomet, in his iſtory and Lemery, in his dictionary of drugs, deſcrib elemi as a white reſin bordering on green; odoriferous, nd brought from Ethiopia in cakes of 2 or 3 pounds a iece, wrapped up in the leaves of the Indian cane.

here are ſeveral ſpurious ſorts, ſome natural, and others actitious, frequently ſold for the true gum elemi. The ormer, obtruded for elemi, are, 1ſt, a gum brought from he American iſlands, in cags of different weights, covered p with the leaves of a plant unknown in Europe: the econd might be taken for roſin, but for its ſmell, which ſomewhat ſweeter, and more aromatic: and the third of an aſh colour, bordering on brown, brought over large pieces, very dry and friable: any of which Po-et does not take for natural gums; but rather ſuppoſes em to be originally elemi, only impure and coarſe ſince elted down, and made up by the fire. The latter, or ounterfeit elemi, is uſually made of roſin waſhed in oil aſpic; though the ill ſmell, and white colour of this, ight eaſily diſcover the fraud.

lemi paſſes for a natural balſam, being of extreme efficacy r the healing of all ſorts of wounds, and is therefore mployed in the compoſition of balſam of arſenic.

PHANT. A monſtrous animal, allowed the firſt rank mong quadrupeds, being uſually met with on the coaſts of frica, and in the Eaſt Indies; whoſe teeth, called ivory, e a conſiderable object of trade. See *Ivory* and *Caravan.*

VATION *of the pole*, denotes the altitude of the pole bove the horizon of any place; or an arch of the meridian, intercepted between the pole and the horizon. The elevation of the pole is always equal to the latitude of the place; that is, the arch of the meridian intercepted between the pole and the horizon, is equal to the arch of the ſame meridian intercepted between the equator and the zenith: thus the north pole is elevated 51 deg. 32 min. above the horizon of Lon on; and there is the ſame diſtance, or number of degrees, between London and the equator; ſo that London is alſo in 51 deg. 32 min. of northern latitude. See *Latitude.*

ELEVATION *of the equator*, is an arch of the meridian leſs than a quadrant, intercepted between the equator and the horizon of the place. The elevations of the equator and of the pole together, are always equal to a quadrant: conſequently, the greater the elevation of the pole, the leſs the elevation of the equator; and ſo on the contrary.

ELIXIR, in medicine, a compound extract, tincture, or eſſence, drawn from a mixture of ſeveral ingredients, by infuſing them in a proper menſtru m, being a ſtrong ſpirituous liquor, or juice, to be taken inwardly, containing the pureſt and moſt efficacious parts of ſeveral mixed bodies, communicated to it by infuſion and maceration; of which there are ſeveral kinds.

ELIZABETH *iſland.* An iſland in the Atlantic ocean, ſituated in 70 deg. of W. lon. and 41 deg. of N. lat. near the coaſt of New England, having Cape Cod on the north, the iſland of Nantucket on the eaſt, and the iſland of Martha's vineyard on the weſt, ſubject to Great Britain; the natives whereof are employed chiefly in fiſheries, particularly that of whales.

ELKHOLM. A port-town of Sweden, in the province of Gothland, and territory of Bleking, ſituated on the Baltic in 14 deg 30 min. of E. lon. and 56 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. See *Sweden.*

ELKS-*claws*, in pharmacy, a drug, ſuppoſed to be good againſt the epilepſy; known in the ſhops by the name of *ungula alcis:* the elk, which is the animal that yields it, being a wild beaſt in the foreſts of Muſcovy, Sweden and Pruſſia; but more abundantly in Canada, and moſt parts of North America.

The hunting of the elk is one of the principal and moſt agreeable employments of the Indians of Canada, and the adjacent countries: when they have killed beaſts enough with their fire-arms to feaſt for ſeveral days, they flea them, and ſend the ſkins to the French, who dreſs them in oil, like the buffalo ſkin. The Indians alſo take care to cut off the left hind foot of each beaſt; eſpecially if it be a female; the hoof whereof is that applauded remedy for the falling ſickneſs; of which Pomet gives the marks to diſtinguiſh the genuine ſort: but as the virtue of elks-claws is very equivocal, not to ſay abſolutely falſe, there is no great prejudice in being deceived.

ELL. A meaſure, which obtains under different denominations, in moſt countries, being the ſtandard whereby cloths, ſtuffs, linens, ſilks, and ſuch like are uſually meaſured, or eſtimated, anſwering in good meaſure to the yard of England, the canna of Italy, the vara of Spain, the palm of Sicily, and ſo forth.

The ells which occur moſt frequently in England are Engliſh and Flemiſh: the ell Engliſh contains three feet nine inches, or one yard one quarter Engliſh meaſure: the ell Flemiſh contains 27 inches, or $\frac{1}{4}$ of a yard; ſo that the ell Engliſh is to the ell Flemiſh as 5 to 3.

Mr. Ricard, in his treatiſe of commerce, reduces the ells thus: 100 of Amſterdam are equal to 98 ; of Brabant, Antwerp, and Bruſſels; to 58 and $\frac{1}{2}$ of England and France; to 120 of Hamburg, Francfort, Leipſic, and Cologne; to 125 of Breſlaw; to 110 of Bergen and Drontheim; and to 117 of Stockholm.

ELSIMBURG, or *Helſemburg*. A port-town of Sweden, in the province of Gothland, and territory of Schonen, ſituated on the Sound, in 13 deg. of E. lon. and 56 deg. of N. lat. See *Sweden.*

ELSINORE, or *Helſingor*. A port-town of the iſland of Zealand, ſituated in 13 deg. of E. lon. and 56 deg. of N. lat. on the ſound, or ſtreight, at the entrance of the Baltic, 22 miles N of Copenhagen, where it is that the Danes take toll of all merchant-ſhips, going to the ports in the Baltic. See *Denmark.*

EM-

EMBARCADERO, in commerce, a Spaniſh term, frequently uſed along the coaſts of America, particularly thoſe on the S ſide of the South Sea, ſignifying a place which ſerves ſome other conſiderable city further within land, for a port, or place of ſhipping, for embarking and diſembarking commodities: thus Calao is the embarcadero of Lima, the capital of Peru; Arica, the embarcadero of Potoſi, and ſeveral others; ſome of them being 40, 50, and even 60 leagues off the city which they ſerve in that capacity

EMBARGO, or *Imbargo*, a reſtraint, or prohibition, laid by a ſovereign, or government, on merchant veſſels, to prevent their going out of port; ſometimes their coming in, and ſometimes both, for a limited time: which are more uſually done in time of war, in apprehenſions of invaſions, in times of ſcarcity, or peſtilence abroad, and other extraordinary circumſtances: one great reaſon of embargoes being, that the government may make uſe of the merchant veſſels, with their equipage, in armaments, expeditions, and tranſporting of ſoldiers; but they are extremely prejudicial to commerce, except in caſes of quarentine See *Quarentine*.

By the ſtatute of the 9th of Queen Anne, ſhips belonging to the South Sea may not at any time be ſtopped, unleſs particularly mentioned in the embargo.

EMBASSADOR. or *Ambaſſador*, a public miniſter, ſent from one ſovereign prince, or ſtate, as a repreſentative of his perſon, or the ſtate, to another; of which there are embaſſadors either ordinary or extraordinary.

Embaſſador in ordinary, is he who reſides ſtatedly in the court of another prince, to maintain a mutual good underſtanding, look to the intereſts of his maſter, and tranſact ſuch affairs as may occur; and commonly to take the merchants of his own country under his protection. Theſe embaſſadors are but of modern invention; it being little more than 200 years ago ſince they were firſt heard of; for, till then, all embaſſadors were extraordinary, who retired as ſoon as they had diſpatched the affair they were ſent upon.

EMBASSADOR *extraordinary*, is he who is ſent to ſome foreign prince, or ſtate, on ſome particular and emergent occaſion: but there is no eſſential difference between ordinary and extraordinary embaſſadors; their errand is all, and they equally enjoy all the privileges and prerogatives which the law of nations decrees.

The name of embaſſador, Cicero obſerves, is ſacred and inviolable: David made war againſt the Ammonites, to revenge the injury done his embaſſadors: Alexander put the inhabitants of Tyre to the ſword, for having inſulted his embaſſadors: and the youth of Rome, for affronting the embaſſadors of Vallona, were delivered up into their hands, to be puniſhed at diſcretion; but, though all other nations pay the utmoſt reſpect to embaſſadors, the Turks cannot be perſuaded to do it; looking upon them rather as public meſſengers, than the repreſentatives of their princes or ſtates.

It is diſtinguiſhed by civilians, that an agent, or conſul, repreſents the affairs only; but an embaſſador ought to repreſent the greatneſs of his maſter and his affairs. See *Conſul*.

No ſubject, though ever ſo great, can ſend or receive an embaſſador; and embaſſadors may be warned not to come to the place where ſent; and if they then do it, they may be taken as enemies: but being once admitted, even with an enemy in arms, they are to have the protection of the laws of nations, and be preſerved as princes: their bodies are not to be arreſted: if they offend againſt penal laws and ſtatutes, their embaſſadorſhip will excuſe them; but not if the offence be in a caſe of high treaſon, which is an offence againſt the law of nature, and magiſtracy is by the law of nature. By the civil law alſo, the moveable goods of embaſſadors, which are accounted an acceſſion to their perſons, cannot be ſeized on, either as a pledge, or for payment of debt, nor by order or execution of judgment, although by permiſſion of the king or ſtate where reſident; for they ought to have full ſecurity, as well concerning their neceſſaries as their perſons; therefore, if any embaſſador contracts a debt, he is to be called upon kindly; and, on refuſal of payment, letters of requeſt may be ſent to his maſter: but Sir Edward Coke ſeems to be of another opinion, by aſſerting, that as for contracts and debts good, *jure gentium*, by the law of nations, embaſſadors muſt anſwer in England.

The Ruſſian embaſſador, in the reign of Queen Anne, being arreſted in London, taken by violence out of his coach in the ſtreet, and kept in cuſtody; it occaſioned the diſpleaſure of the Czar, whoſe reſentment was not abated till an act of parliament was paſſed, whereby it was enacted That all ſuits againſt his embaſſador ſhould be void, and the proceedings againſt him or his bail be vacated; and that proceſs, whereby the perſon of any embaſſador, or other public miniſter, or of his ſervants, might be arreſted and detained, or his or their goods diſtrained, ſhould be adjudged void for the time to come. It was thereby alſo enacted, That the perſons ſuing forth ſuch proceſs, their attornies and ſollicitors, and the officers executing the ſame, ſhould be deemed violators of the laws of nations; and alſo ſuffer ſuch penalties and corporal puniſhment as the Lord Chancellor, the chief juſtices, or any two of them, ſhould judge fit. But that no merchant, or trader, within the deſcription of any of the ſtatutes of bankrupts, putting himſelf into the ſervice of any embaſſador, ſhould have any benefit by this act: neither ſhould the ſervant of any embaſſador have any privilege, unleſs his name be regiſtred in the ſecretaries office, and tranſmitted to the ſheriffs of London and Middleſex; who muſt hang it up in ſome public place in their office.

EMBDEN. A port-town and city of Germany, in the principality of Eaſt Frieſland, and territory of Weſtphalia, ſituated in 6 deg. 45 min. of E. lon. and 53 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. on the Dollart bay, near the mouth of the river Ems, being an imperial city under the protection of the Dutch: but the King of Pruſſia took poſſeſſion of the adjacent country on the death of the laſt prince; which the Dutch lay claim to. See *Germany*.

EMBDEN *Aſiatic*, or *Eaſt India company*. See *Eaſt* India company.

EMBOSSING, or *Imboſſing*, the act of forming, or faſhioning works in relievo; whether caſt, moulded, or cut with the chiſſel; being that part of ſculpture which has to do with figures raiſed, or prominent from the plain, or ground of the other part, which makes figures indented, or cut in below the ground, is called engraving See *Engraving*.

EMBROIDERY, the enriching of a cloth or ſtuff, by working ſeveral figures thereon, with needle and thread of gold, or ſilver: but that done with ſilk, flax, or the like, is not now called embroidery; though anciently and properly, the word denoted all kind of figuring or flouriſhing. See *Broderer*.

There are ſeveral kinds of embroidery: as embroidery on both ſides, that which appears on both ſides, and only practicable on thin light ſtuffs, as taffetas, gawſe, muſlins: embroidery on the ſtamp, where the figures are very high and prominent, being ſupported on wool, cotton, and hair: and low embroidery, where the figures are low, without any enrichment between them.

The chief uſe of embroidery is in church-veſtments, cloaths, houſings, guidons, and ſtandards; and the invention of this art is attributed to the Phrygians, whom the Latins call embroiderers *phrygiones*.

As great quantities of foreign embroidery, gold and ſilver thread, lace, fringe, and brocade, continued to be brought into, and ſold within Great Britain; and great ſums were exported for the buying thoſe commodities, the importation whereof was contrary to ſeveral acts of parliament: this occaſioned another act of parliament in the year 1749, whereby it was enacted, that after the 1ſt of July 1749, no foreign embroidery, or gold or ſilver brocade, ſhould be imported into Great Britain upon pain of being forfeited and burnt, and the importer paying 100 l. for each piece or parcel thereof. That no perſon ſhould vend, exchange, or otherwiſe diſpoſe of any foreign embroidery, gold or ſilver thread, lace, fringe, brocade; or any other work made thereof, or of gold or ſilver wire, or plate, manufactured in foreign parts, or ſhould work up the ſame in or upon any garments or wearing apparel, upon pain that the ſame, and the

ment or other materials ſhould be forfeited and burnt, and the party forfeit 100 l. That all ſuch goods and manufactures which ſhould be ſeized, whether mixed or made up with other goods, or otherwiſe, and the apparel or other materials in or upon which the ſame ſhould be wrought or made up, ſhould be forfeited and burnt; and the dealer or maker up of the ſaid manufactures, in whoſe houſe or cuſtody the ſame ſhould be found, and which ſhould have been there by his privity, ſhould for each piece or parcel thereof forfeit 100 l. but no penalty was to be inflicted on the wearer of any ſuch goods or manufactures.

EMERALD. A precious ſtone, very green and tranſparent, being as to its hardneſs the next after the ruby. See *Gem*, *Precious Stone*, and *Diamond*.

Pliny reckons up twelve kinds of emeralds, and denominates each from the provinces or kingdoms where he ſuppoſed them to be found; as the Scythian, Bactrian, Egyptian, Perſian, and others: but the modern naturaliſts, and jewellers, only know of two kinds, the oriental and peruvian; and if we may credit Tavernier, in his treatiſe of coloured ſtones found in the Indies, inſerted in the ſecond volume of his voyages, theſe two ſhould be further reduced to one; for he maintains that there is not, nor ever was, any mine of emeralds in the Eaſt Indies; and that all thoſe found there were brought from Peru, by the way of the South Sea, which, he ſays, was a method of commerce, carried on by the Peruvians, before the diſcovery of America by the Spaniards: but as the point of ſuch commerce is not ſufficiently proved, it is more adviſeable to keep to the ancient diviſion.

The oriental emerald is harder, more brilliant and tranſparent than the Peruvian, which has generally clouds found in it: beſides, there are ſuch quantities brought from Peru, by the way of Carthagena, that they are much ſunk in value and reputation. They talk likewiſe of emeralds found in Cyprus, and even in Great Britain: but they are very inconſiderable, if, indeed, there are any true ones at all.

Some authors hold emeralds to be taken out of iron mines: and Pomet aſſures us, he had one, to which the iron ore was ſtill ſticking; but this could not be a Peruvian, becauſe there is no iron mine in the country.

The emerald is ſuppoſed to grow more and more perfect in the mine, like the ruby, and to arrive at its greenneſs by ſlow degrees: for it is the common opinion, that the emerald grows in the jaſper; and there certainly are ſome jaſpers ſo perfectly green, that many have taken them for emeralds. See *Jaſper*.

But the proper matrix, or marcaſite, of this ſtone, is the preme, which is held among the coarſer precious ſtones, being hard, tranſparent, half opake, and uſually intermixed with yellow, green, white, and blue.

The following is a curious and accurate eſtimate of the values of the different kinds of Peruvian emeralds.

Rough EMERALDS. Thoſe of the firſt and coarſeſt ſort, called plaſmes, for grinding, are worth 1 l. 7 s. ſterling the marc, or eight ounces. The demi-morillons 8 l. ſterling the marc. Good morillons from 13 to 15 l. the marc. Emeralds, larger than morillons, and called of the third colour, or ſort, are valued from 50 to 60 l. the marc. Emeralds, called of the ſecond ſort, which are in larger and finer pieces than the preceding, are worth from 65 to 75 l. the marc. Laſtly, thoſe of the firſt colour, otherwiſe called negres cartes, are worth 110 to 115 l. the marc.

EMERALDS ready cut, or poliſhed and not cut, being of good ſtone, and a fine colour, are worth,

	l.	s.
Thoſe weighing one caract, or four grains	0	10
Thoſe of two caracts - - -	1	7
Thoſe of three caracts - - -	2	5
Thoſe of four caracts - - -	3	10
Thoſe of five caracts - - -	4	10
Thoſe of ſix caracts - - -	7	10
Thoſe of ſeven caracts - - -	15	0
Thoſe of eight caracts - - -	19	0
Thoſe of nine caracts - - -	23	0
Thoſe of ten caracts - - -	33	0

EMERY. A ſort of metallic ſtone, found in moſt, or all, mines of metals; but chiefly thoſe of iron, copper, or gold; of which three kinds are uſually diſtinguiſhed; the Spaniſh, red, and common emery. The firſt ſort is found in the gold mines of Peru, and other provinces of Spaniſh America: it is judged a kind of marcaſite of that rich metal, being ſtreaked with little veins and ſpecks of gold; for which reaſon the King of Spain prohibits its being exported; whereby it is rendered exceeding ſcarce, to the great regret of the ſeekers of the philoſopher's ſtone, who build great hopes in the tranſmutation of this precious mineral. The red emery is found in copper mines; and the little there is of it in England comes from Sweden and Denmark. The common emery is taken out of iron mines; and is almoſt the only ſort uſed in England: the conſumption of which is very conſiderable among the armorers, cutlers, lockſmiths, glaziers, lapidaries, maſons, and other mechanics; ſome of whom uſe it to poliſh and burniſh iron, and ſteel works; others, to cut and ſcallop glaſs, marble, and precious ſtones.

The common emery is of a browniſh colour, bordering a little on red; exceeding hard, and of conſequence difficult to pulveriſe: the Engliſh are the only people that have got the art of making it into powder; which they do chiefly by means of certain mills contrived for that purpoſe; and thus ſend it in powder to their neighbours. Of the powder, the moſt ſubtile and impalpable is the beſt: as to the ſtone, it ſhould be choſe of a high colour, and as free of the rock as poſſible. Emery fuſed with lead and iron, hardens them; it increaſes and heightens the weight and colour of gold; and it is uſual to mix a little of it with the gold from Madagaſcar, which is naturally pale and ſoft.

The Engliſh, who trade greatly in this commodity, bring a great part of it from the Levant, particularly from the iſland of Naxia, where its coſts but a crown the 28 quintals, the quintal weighing 140 pounds; which is, therefore, what they uſually ballaſt all their ſhips with.

Putty of EMERY, is a kind of dirty matter, found on the lapidaries wheels, containing part of the powder of emery.

EMIR. A title of dignity, or quality, among the Turks, and Saracens; attributed to ſuch as are relations, or deſcendants, of their great prophet Mahomet: there are ſeveral emirs, or ſovereign princes, in Arabia; and it is likewiſe a title, which being joined to ſome other word, frequently denotes an office or employ; as Emir Bazar, the provoſt, or ſuperintendent of the markets, who regulates the prices of proviſions.

EMS. A river of Germany, riſing in the biſhopric of Paderborn, in the S. E. part of Weſtphalia: it firſt runs W. through the county of Ritberg; then, turning N. paſſes through the county of Tecklenburg, and the biſhopric of Munſter; and, continuing its courſe N. through the county of Embden, or Eaſt Frieſland, diſcharges itſelf into the Dollart bay, at the city of Embden.

ENAMEL, popularly *Amel*, a kind of metalline colour, by the Latins called *encauſtum*; uſed in enamelling, and painting in enamel. The baſis of enamels is the fineſt cryſtal, made of the beſt kali from Alicant, and ſand, vitrified together; to which are added tin and lead, in equal quantities, calcined by a reverberatory fire: this being the fundamental compoſition of enamels; though other metallic or mineral matters are added, to give them the colours required; as *æs uſtum* for green, and *crocus martis* for yellow.

There is a diſtinction of three kinds of enamel: the firſt intended for the counterfeiting and imitating of precious ſtones: the ſecond for painting in enamel: and the third uſed by enamellers, jewellers, and goldſmiths, on gold, ſilver, and other metals; with which laſt kind, particularly the white, the makers of the Dutch earthen-ware, or Delft, give the gloſs to their works. The enamel uſed in imitating precious ſtones, and thoſe for painting, are prepared by the workmen themſelves, employed in that art; and the enamels uſed by jewellers, goldſmiths, and enamellers, are brought from Venice and Holland: the compoſition is the ſame, in the main, in all the three kinds, all the difference conſiſting in giving the colour or tranſparency.

The enamels brought from Venice and Holland, are in little cakes of different ſizes, uſually four inches in diameter, and half an inch thick: every cake has the mark of the maker ſtruck on it with a puncheon; the moſt common marks being the name Jeſus, a ſyren, monkey, ſun, or other thing. Thoſe brought from Venice are chiefly white, ſlate-colour, ſky-blue, carnation, yellow, green, and a deep blue, called a falſe lapis: theſe ſeven are the principles of all the others uſed by jewellers, goldſmiths, and enamellers, which ariſe out of the mixture of theſe; and the white, in particular, is eſteemed the baſis of all the other ſix principal colours.

ENAMEL, is alſo to paint, colour, or japan things with glaſs, and other metalline materials, for imitating precious ſtones, and ſeveral other purpoſes.

ENAMELLER, is a perſon whoſe buſineſs conſiſts in enamelling, which is properly a kin to the buſineſs of a potter, as they uſe the ſame colours, and lay them on the ſame way; differing only in this, that the ground-work of the potter is earthen ware, but that of the enameller is metal. Copper and gold are the metals commonly uſed to enamel on; but copper moſt, as this metal can bear the greateſt heat before it is brought to flow. The enameller ſhould be a better painter than the potter, as he is more employed in pictures than the other; and the whole of enamelling-work depends on the proportion of the figures.

ENCHASE, to ſet precious ſtones, pictures, and other things, in gold, ſilver, or other metals.

ENCHASING, *Inchaſing*, or *Chaſing*. The art of enriching, and beautifying, gold, ſilver, and other metal works, by ſome deſign or figures repreſented thereon, in low relievo; which is only practiſed on hollow thin works, as watch-caſes, cane-heads, tweezer-caſes, or the like.

ENCHUYSEN. A city and port of the United Provinces, ſituated on the Zuyder ſea, in 5 deg. 10 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. See *United Provinces*.

ENDORSEMENT, or *Indorſement*, is particularly uſed in commerce for a writing on the back of a bill of exchange, by the proprietor or bearer, either thereby to transfer it to ſome other, or to render it payable to the order of ſome other, or to ſerve for an acquittance, or receipt.

The endorſement is only the name of the proprietor, or endorſer: but when the endorſement of a bill of exchange is to render it payable to another, it is called an *order*; to which it is neceſſary the endorſement be dated, and contain the name of him who paid the value thereof; and, in this caſe, the bill belongs to the perſon with whoſe name the order is filled, without any other transfer; for, without theſe conditions, the bill is judged to belong to the perſon who endorſed it.

The bearer of a bill of exchange proteſted, has a remedy againſt the endorſers for the payment of the rechange of the places where the bill was negotiated by their order; and, in caſe a bill or note is refuſed to be paid, the bearer has a remedy againſt any one of the endorſers, where there are ſeveral. See *Exchange*.

ENFRANCHISEMENT. The incorporating any man into a ſociety, or body politic: thus he that, by charter, is made denizen of England, is ſaid to be enfranchiſed; and the like is underſtood of a perſon made a citizen of London, or other city, or corporate town; becauſe he is thereby made partaker of the liberties appertaining to the corporation whereof he is enfranchiſed.

ENGIA *gulph*, or *Gulph of Engia*, lies between Achaia and the Morea, in European Turky.

ENGINA. An iſland of European Turky, ſituated in the gulph of Engia, in 24 deg. of E. lon. and 37 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. See *Turkiſh* iſlands.

ENGINE. A mechanical inſtrument, uſed to effect any thing, compoſed of wheels, ſcrews, and other parts. But the term is more particularly applied to thoſe inſtruments kept in moſt pariſh-churches, for throwing large quantities of water upon houſes, or other places, on fire, to extinguiſh the flame.

There are alſo engines for raiſing of water by fire, either for ſupplying reſervoirs, or draining mines; and water-engines, made by chain-pumps.

ENGINE *maker*, is a perſon who makes engines, which art is greatly improved of late years.

ENGLAND. See Great *Britain*.

New ENGLAND. See *Britiſh* America.

ENGLISH *ſtock*. See *Stationers* company.

ENGRAVER. A perſon whoſe buſineſs conſiſts in engraving; of which there are ſeveral kinds. There are engravers employed in cutting dies for money and medals, in making moulds to caſt metals into various figures, and in cutting ſeals; which buſineſs requires a very ſteady hand, and a quick ſight.

There are alſo copper-plate engravers, whoſe buſineſs requires a genius for drawing, a delicate hand, and a clear ſtrong ſight.

ENGRAVING, or *Graving*. The art, or act, of cutting metals and precious ſtones, by repreſenting figures, letters, and other matters thereon; that on metals being an art of modern invention; having its riſe no earlier than the 16th century; when it was diſcovered, and brought into practice, by Maſo Finiguerra, a goldſmith of Florence; though that on ſtones was well underſtood by the antients. See *Prints*.

Engraving is properly a branch of ſculpture; being divided into ſeveral branches, according to the matters it is practiſed on, and the manner of performing it. The original way of engraving on wood, is now diſtinguiſhed by the name of *cutting in wood*; that on metals with aqua fortis, is called *etching*; that by the knife, burniſher, punch, or ſcraper, *metzotinto*; that on ſtones, for tombs, and inſcriptions, *carving*, or *ſtone-cutting*; and, laſtly, that performed with the graver on metals and precious ſtones, retains alone the primitive denomination of *engraving*. See *Emboſſing*.

ENGROSSING, in matters of trade, ſignifies the buying up any commodity in the groſs; or foreſtalling the market. See *Foreſtalling*, and *Monopoly*.

ENSIGN. The flag, or ſtreamer, borne in the ſtern of a ſhip.

ENTRY, in book-keeping. See *Book-keeping*.

ENTRY, bill of. See the article *Bill* of entry.

ENTRY alſo denotes a duty, or impoſt, laid on commodities imported into, or exported out of a ſtate, either by land or ſea; theſe duties are paid according to a tariff ſettled for that purpoſe; and where the duty of entry on any commodity is not fixed by the tariff, it is paid by eſtimation; that is, in proportion to what ſome other commodity, of nearly the ſame quality and value, uſes to pay.

All merchants making entries of goods and merchandiſe, either inwards or outwards, at the cuſtom-houſe, are to be diſpatched in ſuch order as they come, and not to be put by of their turn; and officers and clerks of the cuſtoms receiving greater fees for entries, than ſuch as are eſtabliſhed by act of parliament, are to forfeit their offices, and be diſabled to hold any place in the cuſtom-houſe. See *Cuſtoms*.

In France, all merchandiſes cannot enter by all ſorts of towns, and ports, even paying the duties; but only in places particularly ſpecified, either by the ordonnances, or the arrets of council; as drugs and ſpice by Rochelle, Rouen, Calais, Bourdeaux, Lyons, and Marſeilles; horſes by Dourlens, Peronne, and Amiens; and many foreign manufactures by St. Vallery and Calais.

EPITHYME. A medicinal plant, of a very extraordinary nature, and figure; which ſoon periſhes, unleſs it meet with ſome other plant to give it nouriſhment: it is called dodder in Engliſh, and grows indifferently on all kinds of herbs; but the moſt known, and thoſe moſt uſed in medicine, are ſuch as grow on thyme, which are the proper epithymes, and thoſe on flax: however, there are two other kinds in the ſhops, the one from Venice, and the other from Candia; being both of an aromatic taſte, but that of Venice the ſtrongeſt; both being alſo reputed good for fortifying the parts, and removing the obſtructions of the viſcera.

The good choice of this plant conſiſts in being new, odorous, and not bruiſed or broken.

EPITROPUS. A kind of judge, or rather arbitrator, which the Greek Chriſtians, under the dominion of the Turks, elect, in the ſeveral cities, to terminate any commercial, or other differences, ariſing among them, and to avoid carrying them before the Turkiſh magiſtrate.

OCHA, in chronology. A term, or fixed point of time, hence the years are numbered, or accounted, obtaining fferently in different nations; becauſe, as there is no ſtronomical conſideration to render one preferable to anther, their conſtitution is purely arbitrary. That prinipally regarded among Chriſtians, is the epocha of the ativity, or incarnation, of Jeſus Chriſt; that of the Maometans, the hegira, or the flight of Mahomet from Mecca to Medina, in the year 662 after the birth of Chriſt; and that of the Jews, the creation of the world.
ee *Stile*.

UATOR, in aſtronomy and geography, a great moveble circle of the ſphere, equally diſtant from the two oles of the world. It is called the equator; becauſe hen the ſun is therein, the days and nights are equal; whence alſo it is called the equinoctial, and when drawn n maps and planiſpheres, the *equinoctial line*, or ſimply *he line*.

Every point of the equator is the diſtance of a quadrant rom the poles of the world; whence it follows, that the equator divides the ſphere into two hemiſpheres, in one of which is the northern, and in the other the ſouthern ole.

By the paſſages, or tranſits, of arches of the equator over he meridian, its equal, or mean time, is eſtimated: hence there is frequent occaſion for the converſion of degrees of the equator into time; and again, for the reconverſion of parts of time into parts of the equator.

vation, or *Altitude of the* EQUATOR, is an arch of a vertical circle, intercepted between the equator and the horizon; the elevation of the equator with that of the ole being always equal to a quadrant.

UINOCTIAL, in aſtronomy. A great and immoveable circle of the ſphere, under which the equator moves its diurnal motion: it is ordinarily confounded with the equator; but there is a difference, the equator being moveable, and the equinoctial immoveable; the equator is alſo drawn about the convex ſurface of the ſphere, but the equinoctial on the concave of the magnus orbis.

The equinoctial is conceived, by ſuppoſing a ſemi-diameter of the ſphere, produced through a point of the equator; and there, by the rotation of the ſphere about its axis, deſcribing a circle on the immoveable ſurface of the primum mobile. Whenever the ſun, in its progreſs through the ecliptic, comes to this circle, it makes equal days and nights all around the globe; as then riſing due eaſt, and ſetting due weſt, which it never does at any other time of the year: the equinoctial then is the circle which the ſun deſcribes, or appears to deſcribe, at the time of the equinoxes; that is, when the length of the day is every where equal to that of the night, which happens twice in every year.

UINOCTIAL, in geography, is called, by geographers and navigators, the line; and from this circle is the declination, or latitude, of places, accounted in degrees of the meridian. See *Line*, *Equator*, *Latitude*, and *Longitude*.

UINOCTIAL *points*, are the two points wherein the equator and ecliptic interſect each other; the one being in the firſt point of Aries, called the *vernal*; and the other being in the firſt point of Libra, called the *autumnal point*.

UIP, in a maritime ſenſe, is the ſtoring or furniſhing the crew of a ſhip with proper conveniencies and neceſſaries for proceeding on the voyage.

UIPAGE, in navigation, implies the officers, ſoldiers, ſailors, ſwabbers, and cabbin-boys, ſerving on board a ſhip, and manning her; but the term is alſo uſed for the arms, proviſions, and merchandiſe, with which the ſhip is laden; though, in this ſenſe, the word

UIPMENT is more in uſe.

RIE *lake*, lies between 80 and 87 degrees of W. lon. and between 41 and 42 degrees of N. lat. being weſt of the colony of Penſylvania in North America. It has a communication with the lake Ontario, or Frontinac, by the ſtrait of Niagara, the greateſt cataract, or fall of water, in the known world. The country between theſe lakes and the Britiſh colonies, is inhabited by the five nations of Iroquois Indians, who always oppoſed the French and their Indians of Canada; forming a good barrier to the Britiſh plantations. See *Indian* America.

ERMIN, or *Ermine*. The ſkin of an animal, which ſome will have a water-rat, others a ſort of weazle, and others an Armenian mouſe, very common in the Northern countries, but more particularly in the province of Siberia in Ruſſia.

This little animal, whoſe ſkin is very white, except the tip of the tail, which is very black, affords an exceeding rich fur; but furriers, to heighten the white, variegate it with ſpots made out of little ſcraps of the ſkin of a lamb from Lombardy, very black and ſhining.

Some authors pretend that the ermin is only white in winter; and that, towards the end of May, it reſumes its uſual colour, which inclines to a ſea-green, or red.

The Engliſh and Dutch trade chiefly in thoſe ſkins, with which they ſupply other nations.

ERMIN, is a term in the port-towns of the Levant, particularly at Smyrna, for the cuſtomhouſe-duty paid for the importation and exportation of merchandiſe. The French, for a conſiderable time, paid 5 *per cent.* duty of ermin, whilſt the Engliſh paid only three; but, in virtue of capitulations between France and the Port, renewed by M. de Nointel in 1673, this duty was alſo reduced to 3 *per cent.* in favour of the French, and all ſuch as reſort the Levant under French colours; though there is another duty, called the golden duty, which is about 4 *per cent.*

ERQUIKO. A port-town of the Red ſea, on the coaſt of Abex in Africa, ſituated in 39 deg. of E. lon. and 17 deg. of N. lat. ſubject to Turky. See *Ethiopia*.

ERRATIC *winds*. See the article *Wind*.

ERZERUM. The capital of the province of Turcomania, or Armenia, in Aſiatic Turky, ſituated in 41 deg. of E. lon. and 40 of N. lat. See *Turky*.

ESCALIN, or *Scalin*. A ſmall ſilver Dutch and Flemiſh coin, worth about $3\frac{1}{2}$ d. ſterling.

ESCAMBIO, was antiently a licence granted any one for the making a remittance, or giving a bill of exchange, to another beyond ſea; for, by the ſtatute of the 5th of Richard II. no perſon might exchange, or return money out of England, without the royal licence. See *Exchange*.

ESCAMITE. A ſort of cotton cloth, brought from the Levant by the way of Smyrna, the piece containing about 20 yards.

ESCORT. A French term, ſometimes uſed in Engliſh to denote a convoy for mercantile veſſels. See *Convoy*.

ESCU. See *Ecu*.

ESCURIAL. A magnificent palace belonging to the King of Spain, ſituated in the kingdom of Toledo, 7 leagues to the weſt of Madrid; which is frequently the reſidence of the Spaniſh monarchs; whence many of the great tranſactions of that court are dated from the Eſcurial.

ESK. A river, which forms part of the boundary between England and Scotland; and running from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt, falls into Solway frith.

ESKIMAUX, ſometimes called New Britain, and Terra de Labrador. See *Britiſh* America, and *Indian* America.

ESPARTEL *Cape*, or *Cape Sparte*l. The moſt north-weſt promontory of Africa, ſituated at the entrance of the ſtreight of Gibraltar.

ESSAY. See *Aſſay*, and *Coinage*.

ESSENCE, in medicine and chemiſtry, denotes the pureſt, moſt ſubtile, and balſamic part of a body, extracted from the reſt by means of fire; of which there are a great variety, drawn from flowers, fruits, and the like, uſed on account of their agreeable ſmells and taſtes, by the apothecaries, perfumers, and people of dreſs; the principal being the eſſence of roſemary, of turpentine, of aniſe and cloves, of cinnamon, and of citron.

ESTAPLES. A port-town of France, in the province of Picardy, ſituated in 1 deg. 38 min. of E. lon. and 50 deg. 33 min. of N. lat. near the mouth of the river Canche. See *France*.

ESULA. The bark of a ſmall reddiſh root, producing green, narrow, and milky leaves, growing in gardens, fields, and high ways; which is uſed in medicine by infuſion, to purge away phlegm, ſeroſities, and melancholic humours; alſo as a ſpecific againſt the dropſy, lethargy, phrenſy, and maladies occaſioned by groſs humours.

There

There are ſeveral ſorts of the eſula; but none are either ſold, or uſed without anſwering the preſent deſcription; which, to be good, ſhould be new, reddiſh, clean, of a ſharp, and ſomewhat diſagreeable taſte. Before uſe, it is generally infuſed in vinegar; and there are extracts from it, which are held good in the dropſy.

ETHIOPIA, is one of the grand diviſions of Africa, but ſubdivided into Ethiopia ſuperior, or Upper Ethiopia; and Ethiopia inferior, or Lower Ethiopia.

Ethiopia ſuperior, contains the countries of Abyſſinia, Nubia, Abex, and Anian; being bounded by Egypt, and the deſart of Barca, on the north; by the Red ſea, and the Eaſtern ocean, on the eaſt; by Zanquebar, and Nigritia, on the ſouth; and by Nigritia, and Zaara, on the weſt; lying between 20 and 42 degrees of eaſtern longitude, and between 6 and 25 degrees of northern latitude; being 1320 miles long, and 1100 broad.

Abyſſinia, or the empire of Preſter John, is a large and populous country; though it has now ſcarce any communication with any other people but the ſubjects of the Grand Signior; the Turks having made themſelves maſters of that part of Ethiopia lying upon the Red ſea; and the reſt of it being ſurrounded by mountains, or unpaſſable deſarts.

It is in this country that the black complexion takes place; and travellers reckon up nine principalities, or provinces, in Abyſſinia, every one of them having a diſtinct ſovereign, that acknowledges, however, the Emperor of Abyſſinia for their chief lord. 1. The province of Ambara, the chief towns whereof are Ambara, the capital of Abyſſinia; and Lalibela. 2. Begamedri; the chief towns whereof are, Amadora, Alata, and Maket. 3. Dambea; the chief towns whereof are, Amba-Marjan, Dancas, and Jenda. 4. Shoa; the chief towns whereof are, Debra, Libanos, and Wenthit. 5. Gojam; the chief towns whereof are, Ledanegus, Debra, Semonah, and Selah. 6. Bugna; the chief towns whereof are, Egala, and Arguan. 7. Samen; the chief towns whereof are, Waldeba, and Toraf. 8. Gonga: And, 9. Walaka; in the two latter whereof no towns are mentioned.

The river Nile riſes in the middle of Abyſſinia, and is of great advantage to their interior commerce: there are alſo two other great rivers, called the Moraba, and Albara, which run through the country from ſouth to north, and fall into the Nile; and there is ſtill a fourth great river, called the Haouache, which, after a courſe of 600 miles to the ſouth-eaſt, falls into the Red ſea, or Arabian gulph.

This country, thus happily watered, produces plenty of corn, rice, millet, dates, grapes, flax, cotton, ſugar, ſalt, and ſulphur; and the Turks, who are maſters of the Red ſea, annually fetch great quantities of rice from Abyſſinia; particularly at the times of the great pilgrimages to Mecca, Arabia not affording proviſion ſufficient for their ſubſiſtence.

Gold, ſilver, copper, and iron, are the principal metals extracted from the mines of this vaſt region of Africa; but the three former are only merchandiſe, being not converted into coin, whereof there is no uſe in Abyſſinia, unleſs the gold reduced into plates is looked upon as a kind of money, which is occaſionally cut into ſmall pieces of the weight of half a drachm, worth about 15 d. ſterling.

Theſe gold plates are chiefly uſed for the payment of the troops, and the expences of the court; which is a modern cuſtom, the King's gold, before the end of the 17th century, being laid up in the treaſury in ingots, never to be carried out; or at leaſt, to be employed only in veſſels, and jewels, for the ſervice of the palace.

Rock ſalt, as white as ſnow, and as hard as ſtone, is uſed for ſmall money; being found in the mountain of Lafta, and thence brought into the King's warehouſes, where it is reduced into ſmall tablets of a foot long, and three inches broad, 10 of theſe tablets being worth about 2 s. 6 d. ſterling: but when they are uſed in trade, they are broken into ſmaller pieces, according to the occaſion. This ſalt is alſo employed in all the ordinary uſes of ſea-ſalt, though it is ſold weight for weight with gold; both of theſe commodities being weighed by the ſame weight, and exchanged almoſt for an equality.

With this mineral ſalt the Ethiopians alſo purchaſe pepper, ſpice, and ſome ſilk ſtuffs, which the Indians bring to the ports the former have on the Red ſea.

Cardamum, ginger, aloes, myrrh, caſſia, civet, ebony-wood, ivory, wax, honey, cotton, and cotton-cloths of different ſorts, and colours, are alſo merchandiſe brought from Abyſſinia; to which may be added ſugar, hemp, flax, and excellent wines, if theſe people had the art of preparing them; all theſe particulars growing among them, in as great an abundance, and as good in quality, as in any other part of the world.

Some are of opinion, that the coffee berry was tranſplanted from Ethiopia into Arabia, where now it is abundantly met with: but this opinion ſeems ſomewhat uncertain; it being ſcarce probable, that the plant which produces it was entirely demoliſhed among the Ethiopians, who give no cultivation to it at preſent, or at leaſt neglect it as a mercantile commodity.

The greateſt part of theſe commodities are more for foreign than inland conſumption; the trade among themſelves conſiſting moſtly in ſalt, honey, Saracen corn, grey peas, beans, citrons, oranges, lemons, and other fruits, with herbs and proviſions neceſſary for the ſupport of life. However, they have camels, oxen, ſheep, and other cattle, in great plenty: they are reported to have the largeſt emeralds in the world: but what they are moſt remarkable for, is an excellent breed of horſes, equal to thoſe of Arabia; or, as ſome conjecture, the Arabian horſes are in reality bred in Abyſſinia, where they abound in rich paſtures.

The places frequented moſtly by Abyſſinian merchants, are Arabia felix, and the Eaſt Indies, particularly Goa, Cambay, Bengal, and Sumatra.

Their moſt conſiderable ports on the Red ſea, are Mett, Azum, Zajalla, Maga, Dazo, Patea, and Brava; they had formerly Erquiko and Quaqueu; but the Turks, who poſſeſſed themſelves of theſe places towards the middle of the 17th century, engroſſed all their trade, which in ſome reſpects has ruined the Abyſſinian traffic in the other maritime towns above mentioned.

The Portugueſe are ſuppoſed to be thoſe who taught the Ethiopians what little they knew of navigation; who likewiſe, with ſome other Europeans eſtabliſhed at the Abyſſinian court, ſince the paſſage to the Indies was opened by the Cape of Good Hope, gave them ſome taſte for arts and ſciences, and ſome knowledge of commerce with ſtrangers.

Their trade by land is inconſiderable; however, ſome Abyſſinian bands reſort annually to Egypt, and particularly to Cairo, loaden with ſome gold-duſt; which they exchange for ſuch commodities of the country, or of Europe, as are neceſſary for them.

Theſe cafilas, or caravans, if a troop of 40 or 50 perſons can be ſo properly called, who unite for mutual aſſiſtance, are uſually three or four months on their journey, who, after croſſing foreſts, and almoſt impracticable mountains, make their purchaſes, or rather exchanges, and return immediately with what they have bought or bartered; though they have frequently goods on credit from the Jews and Egyptians: but it ſeems extraordinary, that perſons of ſuch intereſted views as the Jews, ſhould truſt to the fidelity of wretches, againſt whom, if they failed in their word, they could have no remedy. However, experience has proved, that this confidence was never deceived, not even by death; becauſe, if ſuch a thing ſhould happen either going or returning, the companions of their journey would preſerve the effects of the deceaſed, either for his family, or to pay off his debts at Cairo.

The other nations with whom the Abyſſinians trade by land, are the inhabitants of the kingdom of Adel, the Turks who are maſters of Erquiko and Quaqueu, the Melindeze, the people of Moſambique, and the Portugueſe eſtabliſhed on theſe coaſts.

It ſhould not be omitted, that one of the moſt conſiderable branches of the Abyſſinian trade conſiſts in ſlaves, who are eſteemed in the Indies, and Arabia, for the beſt and moſt faithful of all thoſe furniſhed by the other kingdoms of Africa; even to ſuch a degree, that the Indian and Arabian merchants employ them as commiſſioners

and factors in their commerce: beſides, they frequently, not only ſet them at liberty, but reward them very liberally for their ſervice and fidelity.

The Jews are reported to be the only weavers and ſmiths in Abyſſinia: but for other handicrafts, ſuch as carpenters, taylors, and ſhoemakers, every man breeds up his children to the trade or profeſſion he uſes himſelf; and theſe ſeveral trades, like the caſts or tribes in the Eaſt Indies, live ſeparately; nor ever intermix with any other trade or tribe, either by marriage or otherwiſe.

The ſilks, ſtuffs, calicoes, linen, and carpets, they uſe for furniture or cloathing, are received chiefly from the Turks, by the way of the Red ſea, who take the gold and emeralds of Abyſſinia in return for this merchandiſe, with ſome beautiful horſes. The brokers, or merchants, between the Turks and Abyſſinians, are Jews, Arabians, or Armenian Chriſtians: few or none of the natives travel abroad; and it is very probable the Turks would not ſuffer them, ſhould they attempt it, leſt a communication ſhould be opened again between them and other nations, who might alſo exchange their manufactures for the gold and precious ſtones of Abyſſinia.

The antients called all that they knew of Africa to the ſouthward of Egypt, Ethiopia, and the people Ethiops, on account of their dark complexions: but Ethiopia has been lately confined by ſome writers to Abyſſinia; which was once a formidable empire, ſubject to one ſovereign, who commanded the ſea-coaſt as well as the inland country: but now the Emperor of this country, commonly called Preſter John, is a prince of inconſiderable power; his territories being divided into abundance of little principalities, like Germany; the princes whereof ſcarce acknowledge a ſuperior; and, as they are ſeldom united, are by no means a match for their powerful neighbours the Turks; who therefore keep them ſhut up within the bounds of Abyſſinia, without permitting them to correſpond or traffic with the Europeans; a privilege which the Abyſſines would willingly procure, becauſe their religion is relative to that of Chriſtianity, though intermingled with Judaiſm.

Nubia may be conſidered as a part of Upper Ethiopia, and is uſually bounded by the deſarts of Barca, and Egypt, towards the north; by Abyſſinia on the eaſt, by the Lower Ethiopia on the ſouth, and Zaara on the weſt; being reported to be 1200 miles long, and 600 broad: but ſcarce any two hiſtorians, or geographers, agree in theſe matters; they ſeem to carry only conjecture with almoſt every thing they relate of Nubia, which is generally the caſe of almoſt every other inland country of Africa. Some authors affirm, that a large river riſes in Nubia, and falls into the Nile; that the country abounds in gold, muſk, ſandal-wood, and ivory; having elephants, horſes, camels, lions, and ſuch other animals, wild and tame, as are to be found in Abyſſinia: but they are ignorant whether it is a monarchy, or a commonwealth; or whether it is divided into many little kingdoms and ſtates; the laſt of which is moſt probable, becauſe they are ſo imperfectly known.

Abex, and *Aian* or *Anian*, are bounded by Egypt and Abyſſinia, towards the north and weſt; by the Red ſea, and the Eaſtern ocean, on the eaſt; and by Zanquebar on the ſouth, extending from the 5th degree of N. lat. to the 20th.

Anian lies upon, or near the Eaſtern ocean, and the Red ſea: but it is a perfect deſart, from the 5th degree of latitude to the ſtreights of Babel-mandel, or the entrance into the Red ſea, and even with thoſe ſtreights for ſeveral miles.

It contains the republic of Brava, the kingdoms of Magadoxa and Adea, the ſtate of Dancali, and ſome others.

The capital of Brava is of the ſame name, and ſituated between two arms of the river Quilmanci, where is a tolerable harbour: the town is large, and well inhabited; having a good trade in gold, ſilver, ſilk, ſtuffs, and ſome other commodities; beſides, there is a great deal of ambergreaſe found on the coaſt of Brava; but the merchants pay a tribute annually to the Portugueſe, for the protection of their trade.

Magadoxa has alſo a capital of its name; the country abounds with barley and fruit, breeding many horſes and other cattle.

Zeila is the principal town of Adea; ſome parts of the country abound with corn, fruit, and cattle; beſides which, there are gold, ivory, frankincenſe, and pepper.

Bailar is the moſt conſiderable place of Dancali, which is a port-town; but the country is every where barren, and produces nothing for the uſe of trade.

The princes of Anian are frequently at war with the Abyſſinians, many of whom they take priſoners, and ſell to the merchants of Cambaya, Aden, and other Arabs, who come to trade in their harbours, and give them in exchange coloured cloths, glaſs-beads, raiſins, and dates.

Abex lies to the north of Anian, on the weſtern ſhore of the Red ſea, ſome degrees within the ſtreights of Babel-mandel, of which the Turks are maſters; being a fruitful province, the principal parts whereof are, Suaquem, or Suaquee, and Erquiko, or Ercoco, about 150 miles diſtant from each other; where the Turks keep ſtrong garriſons, to command the country, and collect great quantities of rice and other proviſions, which they ſend over to Jeddo in Arabia, the port-town to Medina and Mecca.

ETHIOPIA *inferior*, or *Lower Ethiopia*, contains the countries of Caffraria, Monomotapa, Monomuegi, and Zanquebar; being of a very great, but uncertain extent, and inhabited by many different nations of negroes.

Caffraria, or Caffreria, is the moſt ſouthern part of Africa, lying in the form of a creſcent about the inland country of Monomotapa, and bounded by the ocean on the eaſt, ſouth, and weſt; extending itſelf from the tropic of Capricorn on the eaſt, to the moſt ſoutherly point of Africa, called *Cape d'Aquilas*, in latitude 35, running up from thence to the northward as high as the ſame tropic on the weſt-ſide of Africa; and, by ſome writers, is carried to the latitude of 15 degrees ſouth; the country being divided into two parts, that of the Hottentots, and Caffraria proper.

The country of the Hottentots, which is remarkable for having the Cape of Good Hope ſituated there, is the moſt ſouthern part of Caffraria; the country lying between 28 and 35 degrees of latitude, and between the Eaſtern and Weſtern ocean; being about 300 miles from eaſt to weſt, and about 400 from north to ſouth; the Dutch town, which has obtained the name of the Cape, lying in latitude 34 degrees 15 minutes, and in 18 degrees of longitude, to the eaſtward of London. This country was firſt diſcovered in 1493, by the Portugueſe Admiral Diaz, in his attempt to find a way to the Eaſt Indies round Africa. The Portugueſe, ſome years after, attempted to make a ſettlement there; but the inhabitants falling upon them, and there being no harbours for the ſecurity of their ſhipping againſt the violent ſtorms upon that coaſt, they relinquiſhed their deſign. The Engliſh afterwards viſited the Cape, and were diſcouraged from ſettling there in the ſame manner as the Portugueſe had been. However, the Dutch, obſerving the fertility of the country, and judging it would be of ſingular utility in ſupplying them with proviſions in their voyages to and from the Indies, fixed a colony at the Cape, about the year 1651, erected a fort, and entered into a treaty with the natives; who, for a very moderate conſideration, transferred a great part of their country to theſe republicans, where they have continued ever ſince; enlarging their territories to ſuch a degree, that they have now ſettlements upwards of 200 miles to the north and eaſt, well planted and cultivated.

The country of the Hottentots is mountainous, where the winds rage very turbulently great part of the year, making the coaſts very dangerous for navigation. Theſe winds, when the ſun is in the ſouthern ſigns, blow from the ſouth-eaſt, and are then very dangerous to ſhips coming in the Cape: when the ſun is in the northern ſigns, they blow from the north-weſt, and then are equally dangerous to the ſhips at anchor in the bay.

The Hottentot nations, inhabiting the country about this ſouthern promontory of Africa, are 16 in number, at

leaſt the Dutch are acquainted with ſo many; but it amounts almoſt to a certainty, that there are more to the northwards of theſe.

The 16 nations are, 1. the Gongeman nation; 2. the Kochaqua; 3. the Suſſaqua; 4. the Adiqua; 5. the Chirigriqua; 6. the greater and leſſer Namaqua; 7. the Attaqua; 8. the Koopman; 9. the Heſſaqua; 10. the Sonqua; 11. the Dunqua; 12. the Damaqua; 13. the Gauros, or Gauriqua; 14 the Hauteniqua; 15. the Chamtouer; and 16. the Heykom. Every Hottentot nation has its chief, or king, called konquer, whoſe authority devolves upon him by hereditary ſucceſſion: this chief has the power of making peace or war, and preſides in all their counſels, and courts of juſtice; but his authority is limited by the captains of the ſeveral kraals, or villages, which ſeem to compoſe the Hottentot ſenate.

The Hottentots are groſs idolaters; they are undoubtedly the moſt indolent generation of people inhabiting the globe; and though they are not naturally negroes, they take all imaginable care to obtain a ſooty complexion. The principal ornaments, both of men and women, are braſs or glaſs-beads, with little thin plates of braſs, and mother of pearl, which they wear in their hair, or about their ears; and they alſo make necklaces, bracelets for the arms, and girdles, of theſe braſs and glaſs beads ſtrung, wearing ſeveral ſtrings of them upon their necks, waiſts, and arms. They are extremely filthy, both in dreſs and diet; and their language principally conſiſts in inarticulate ſounds and noiſes made in their throats, which it is extremely difficult to learn, and impoſſible to imitate or expreſs in writing.

The wealth of every Hottentot conſiſts in his number of cattle, which they feed in common; becauſe they have no encloſures, nor has any ſingle man a property in any particular lands: but when a Hottentot has no cattle, he uſually lets himſelf to one of his countrymen, or preferably to a Dutchman, till he gets money ſufficient to buy a cow, or 2 or 3 ſheep. The produce of their country is very inconſiderable; and they are frequently deprived of their cattle, by the ravages of lions, tygers, leopards, and wolves, which are very numerous in this country; tho' the Hottentots have bravery enough to encounter them, and make a great deſtruction among theſe rapacious animals, which they even hunt for their diverſion.

They are too ignorant to underſtand any thing of manufactures; nor do they ever ſee any coin, except ſome ſmall pieces of money ſometimes given them by the Dutch for their wages at the Cape. Their trade is very inconſiderable; and, as they have no money among them, they truck and barter one thing for another. The poor Hottentots employ themſelves in making arms; ſuch as bows and arrows, lances and dart, bartering them with the rich for cattle, to begin the world with: others get elephants teeth, which they procure in abundance by their ſtratagems in deſtroying theſe enormous animals; and what is not uſed in making rings and ornaments for themſelves, they generally diſpoſe of to the Portugueſe, and other Europeans, who touch at Terra de natal, and other parts of the eaſtern or weſtern coaſts. The Hottentots ſell very few teeth to the Dutch, though it is manifeſt they kill abundance of elephants: however, they ſupply the Hollanders with cattle; for which they receive an exchange in wines, brandy, tobacco, or ſuch trinkets as they are fond of for ornament; though at ſo extraordinary a rate, that a Hottentot has been known to ſell an ox for a pound of tobacco, and a large ſheep for half a pound; nor ſhould it be forgot that the Hottentots find abundance of oſtriches eggs in the ſand, which they barter with the ſea-faring men that touch at the Cape, for brandy and tobacco.

The Dutch, by their eſtabliſhment at the Cape of Good Hope, the moſt conſiderable they poſſeſs upon the coaſts of Africa, have deprived all other European nations trading to the Eaſt Indies, of a commodious place of refreſhment; and have aſſured to themſelves a ſtaple, without which it is difficult to proſecute ſo tedious a navigation with any alluring hopes of ſafety and proſperity. Cape Town, their principal ſettlement, is ſituated in a valley, and contains between 2 and 300 handſome ſtone houſes, regularly laid out into ſpacious ſtreets; but thatched, and ſeldom more than one ſtory high, to avoid any fatal accidents that might happen to the inhabitants in tempeſtuous weather, by unroofing their habitations; though, as it is, they uſually receive ſome damage, when the winds ſet in eaſterly. At a little diſtance from the town, in the ſame valley, the Dutch have a noble fort or citadel, built with ſtone in form of a pentagon, which defends the landing-place: the ſoldiers in garriſon are about 200 men; and here the governor, and the principal officers of the company, have their reſpective apartments, where there are very large and commodious ſtore-houſes belonging to the government. The Dutch Eaſt India company have between 5 and 600 officers and ſervants at the Cape, beſides ſlaves, which are about 600 more: they have a fine hoſpital there, where they ſend ſick mariners that arrive in their fleets going to and coming from India: this, and the ſupplying their ſhips with freſh proviſions, are the principal advantages the Dutch yet receive by the poſſeſſion of the Cape; there being no harbours of ſecurity, or ſcarce any thing meritorious of the name of merchandiſe, beſides proviſions.

At a little diſtance from Cape Town, the Dutch have ſeveral beautiful country-ſeats, vineyards, and farms, extending far into the country, where they have planted moſt of the common European vegetables; as alſo lemons, oranges, citrons, figs, Japan apples, and an infinite variety of other fruits, all excellent in their kind, where they flouriſh more than in the reſpective climates and countries from whence they were brought. There are alſo two other great colonies, or ſettlements, belonging to the Dutch; the one called the Stellenboſt colony, and the other the Drakenſtein and Waveren colony; taking up a tract of land of near 200 miles, to the northward and eaſtward of the Cape, but intermixed with the Hottentot nations, who continue to graze their cattle upon ſuch lands as are not encloſed and cultivated by the Dutch.

The government of the Cape is adminiſtered by eight courts or councils; of which the principal is the college of policy, conſiſting of the governor, and eight of the principal officers belonging to the company, who have the direction of trade and navigation, make peace or war with the Hottentots, and have the ſupreme management of every thing conducive to the ſecurity and intereſt of the ſettlement: they alſo hold a conſtant correſpondence with the directors of the Dutch Eaſt India company in Holland, and with the Dutch governments of Batavia and Ceylon.

The Dutch Eaſt India company are reputed to be at the expence of 40,000 l. annually, in maintaining this ſettlement at the Cape, and all they receive from thence can but barely defray their charges; though it is obſervable that they do not allow their governor above 4 or 500 l. a year, and the reſt of their officers proportionably. The revenues, which repay the expences of the company, ariſe either from the tenths they reſerve on all lands they grant, or from the duties laid on the produce of the Cape, and ſuch merchandiſe as is carried thither, particularly on wine, brandy, tobacco, beer, and mum; or by the merchandiſe they themſelves annually ſend to the Cape, which yields them a profit of 75 *per cent.* The company uſually fetch the ſlaves they employ at the Cape, from the iſland of Madagaſcar, which lies a little to the eaſtward of the African continent. The government generally contract with four ſubſtantial men to furniſh the garriſon and ſhipping with beef and mutton; who are obliged to keep great numbers of ſheep and oxen always fat, to anſwer any ſudden demand upon the arrival of a fleet: ſo that there are numerous herds, both of great and ſmall cattle, in all the Dutch ſettlements, beſides thoſe that belong to the Hottentots. The ſoil at the Cape is exceeding fruitful, and gives great encouragment to the huſbandman; who finds one buſhel of wheat to yield there an increaſe of 30 or 40 buſhels; a buſhel of barley 50 or 60, and ſometimes 70; a buſhel of peaſe from 30 to 60, and a buſhel of beans from 20 to 25: they alſo rear a conſiderable ſtock of wine, called Cape wine, which is in great eſteem in Europe; and they bring moſt of the European fruits to perfection, particularly three or four

four ſorts of almond-trees, which bear fruit once in three years, and, as they have large plantations of them, yield the Dutch a conſiderable profit.

Terra de natal in Caffraria, lies on the eaſtern ſide of Africa, between the Hottentot nations on the ſouth, and the Portugueſe ſettlements of Zanquebar on the north; the natives of this country being blacker than the Hottentots, and have been taught to cloath themſelves more decently. They have alſo ſome buildings that may deſerve the name of houſes; and traffic with the Portugueſe, and other Europeans that touch on their coaſt, bringing gold and elephants teeth from the inland countries, which they barter for cloathing, ſtrong liquors, utenſils, and toys.

Is to the Caffries on the weſtern coaſt, lying between the Hottentots on the ſouth, and the Portugueſe colonies in Congo on the north, including the country of Mataman or Matapan, and extending to the 16th degree of S. lat. this is all a deſart uninhabited coaſt, where no Europeans have yet found it worth their while to ſettle colonies, or even factories; producing no article fit for commerce, or even neceſſary proviſions; and conſequently little can be known of the inhabitants.

Monomotapa, and *Monomuegi*, lying between the eaſtern and weſtern coaſt, having the Hottentots on the ſouth, and the Upper Ethiopia on the north, are alſo but very imperfectly known, on account of their interior ſituation, comprehending the kingdoms of Moſambique, Sofala, Zanquebar, and ſeveral others. However, the natives are negroes, entirely addicted to Paganiſm; who ſometimes bring their gold, elephants teeth, and oſtriches feathers, to thoſe countries adjacent to the ſea, where they are purchaſed by the natives of the coaſt, who barter them again with the Europeans: but the Portugueſe have ſome ſettlements on the coaſt of Monomotapa, though more on account of religion than trade,

The gold of Monomotapa is of two ſorts, one extracted from mines, and the other found in the ſands of rivers. It is gathered yearly in ſuch great quantities, and the merchants of Sofala make ſo rich a trade thereof, in exchange for Aſiatic and European ſtuffs, brought by the Arabs and Portugueſe, that the latter commonly call the Prince of Monomotapa the *emperor of gold*.

The Portugueſe are the only Europeans who have eſtabliſhments in the kingdom of Moſambique, and who trade there: the Arabians, however, divide it with them; though the former do their utmoſt to trouble them, that they may have it entirely to themſelves.

The Portugueſe plantations along the coaſt are conſiderable, and all defended by good forts, or at leaſt by houſes of defence; which ſerve them both as ware-houſes for trade, and for a ſafeguard againſt the natives of the country, who are equally treacherous and barbarous.

But the center of their commerce is the iſland of Moſambique, ſituated in 15 deg. of S. lat. about half a league from the continent, having a commodious and well-fortified town, which is the uſual reſidence of the governor, and the richeſt merchants.

This iſland is a place of ſtaple, and refreſhment, to the Portugueſe ſhips trading to the Indies, ſuch as the iſland of Madagaſcar was formerly to the French, what the Cape of Good Hope is now to the Dutch, and the iſland of St. Helena to the Engliſh.

The Dutch attempted twice to poſſeſs themſelves of the commerce of Moſambique, firſt in 1604, and next in 1607. But the Portugueſe, then united with the Spaniards, made ſo handſome a defence, that the Dutch fleet was obliged to retire with great loſs; though with a rich booty found in ſome Portugueſe veſſels, whereof they made themſelves maſters; a misfortune which perhaps proved advantageous to theſe new navigators of the Indies; becauſe they ſince eſtabliſhed their ſtaple at the Cape of Good Hope, which yielding to Moſambique in trade, has notwithſtanding the ſuperiority of ſituation, eſpecially for the victualling of fleets either going to or coming from the Indies.

The commerce with the inhabitants of Moſambique conſiſts in gold, which they get in the ſand of their rivers, or in mines; in ſilver, which is dug out of the earth in ſome places; in ebony, which takes a very fine poliſh, and with which their foreſts are full; in ivory, which is found there more abundantly than in any other part of Africa; in ſlaves, either taken in war, or vaſſals of the King, and great Lords, who diſpoſe of, and ſell them, as they think proper; in matts, made by the negroes, and ſent to Goa, where they are much eſteemed; laſtly, in all ſorts of refreſhments, ſuch as large cattle, Indian fowl, ſome veniſon, beer, rice, palm-wine, fruits, and garden-ſtuff.

The merchandiſes given them in exchange are Spaniſh or Canary wines, and oil, ſilks, woollen cloths, linen, and ſtuffs; as alſo coral, rough or cut, with which the Portugueſe ware-houſes along the coaſt are always abundantly ſtocked.

When the European merchandiſes arrive in Portugueſe bottoms at Moſambique, they are taxed at a certain price by the King's factor, who afterwards ſends them to Chilimani, at the mouth of the river Senna: from whence they are ſent up the river, and are ten days in the paſſage, though but five coming down.

In a ſmall Portugueſe town, in the upper part of the Senna, the Caffrarians and negroes come from the interior kingdoms, and provinces of Africa, to purchaſe, or receive on credit, the Portugueſe merchandiſe for a certain quantity of gold agreed upon, with which they never fail to return faithfully.

This trade affords uſually *cent. per cent.* being properly the Peru and Chili of the Portugueſe; gold being ſo common there, that kitchen utenſils, nails, and ſuch like things, are uſually made thereof in the countries diſtant only from the coaſts about a month's journey.

It is alſo from the iſland of Moſambique that the ſmall veſſels depart, in which the Portugueſe trade to Sofala, where they have a good fort, and pretend that the natives of that kingdom are their ſubjects.

The commerce of the other coaſt of Zanquebar, is almoſt entirely in the hands of the Portugueſe, who have a great eſtabliſhment at Melinda, the capital city, and who had even the credit to build there 17 churches, though the King is a Mahometan.

However, the natives of the country carry on among themſelves a pretty good trade, and upon their own bottoms to the Red ſea, frequently viſiting the beſt ports of Arabia.

Some of their ſhips are alſo ſeen in the Indian ſeas, particularly at Cambaya, a maritime town of the Mogul's territories; but notwithſtanding this, and though the Arabs and Indians reſort to Melinda ſometimes with merchandiſe, it is thro' the hands of the Portugueſe that all the trade properly paſſes, which is ſcarce leſs conſiderable than that of Moſambique.

Gold, ivory, ſlaves, oſtrich feathers, wax, and drugs, are the principal commodities at Melinda; which the natives exchange for copper, quickſilver, ſilks, woollen and linen cloths, ſtuffs, and ſpice.

The inhabitants are greatly civiliſed by the Portugueſe, who have prevailed on them to dreſs after the European manner: they are very intelligent in trade; and ſome of them make great profits, particularly with the Portugueſe, with whom they not only trade, but to whom they alſo ſerve as brokers, and acquire very conſiderable brokerage fees.

EU. A port-town of France, in the province of Normandy, ſituated in 1 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 50 deg. 41 min. of N. lat. on the Britiſh channel. See *France*.

EUPATORIUM. A large plant growing in moiſt places along rivulets, and having leaves reſembling thoſe of hemp, being of ſome uſe in phyſic.

EUPHEMIA. A port-town of Naples, ſituated in 16 deg. 32 min. of E. lon and 39 deg. of N. lat. on

EUPHEMIA *bay*, which lies on the coaſt of Naples, in the province of the further Calabria, 50 miles north-eaſt of Reggio. See *Italy*.

EUPHORBIUM. A kind of gum, brought from Africa, in little roundiſh pieces, whitiſh when new, and yellowiſh when old, very pungent to the taſte, but void of ſmell; which is uſed in pharmacy for the cure of the farcy in horſes, and as an ingredient in ſternutory powders, and in

ſeveral reſolutive plaiſters. It is formed of the juice of a tree, or rather plant, of the ſame name, pretty common in Barbary: but the ſpecies of the tree, or plant, has been greatly controverted.

EUPHRASY. A ſmall plant, growing in uncultivated, ſandy places, and on the borders of roads expoſed to the ſun. The herb is uſed with the flower as an excellent opthalmic, and cephalic; being hot, and dry, aſtringent, diſcuſſive, and its taſte ſomewhat poignant. It is principally uſed in cataracts obſcurities of the eyes, and debility of the memory. From the whole plant gathered in June, a water is extracted by diſtillation, which has a wonderful efficacy in clearing the ſight, and curing ſeveral diſorders incident to the eyes: but the powder of this plant mixed with ordinary aliments, or with an egg, which is ſwallowed or ſmoaked in a pipe, has the ſame ſalutary effects.

EUPHRATES, the fineſt river of Turky in Aſia, has two ſources to the northward of the city of Erzerum in Turcomania, in 40 degrees odd minutes of N. lat; which ſtreams are united three days journey below that city, where the river will carry ſmall veſſels; but the rocky channel renders the navigation difficult. It runs at firſt from eaſt to weſt, through the province of Turcomania, or Armenia; but then meeting with Mount Taurus, turns to the ſouthward, dividing Armenia from Natolia; then continuing its courſe ſouth-eaſt, divides Syria from Diarbeck, or Aſſyria: it afterwards paſſes through the province of Eyraca Arabic, or Chaldea; and, having united its waters with the Tigris, runs on ſouth-eaſt to the city of Baſſora, 50 miles below which it falls, by ſeveral mouths, into the gulph of Perſia.

EURIPUS, in hydrography, properly ſignifies a certain ſtreight of the ſea, between Bæotia Eubæa, in European Turky; remarkable for the tides in this channel, which are ſometimes regular, and at others irregular, according to the different quarters of the moon; and when they are irregular, they flow 13 or 14 times, and ebb as often, in 24 hours: at theſe times, the water is half an hour riſing, and three quarters of an hour falling; but when the tides are regular, they obſerve the ſame rule, according to the moon, as the tides in the ocean.

EURIPUS has ſince become a general name for all ſtreights, where the water is in great motion and agitation.

EUROPE, one of the four grand diviſions of the world, is ſituated between 10 deg. of W. and 65 deg. of E. lon. and betwen 36 and 72 degrees of N. lat. bounded by the frozen ocean on the north; by Aſia on the eaſt; by the Mediterranean ſea, which divides it from Africa, on the ſouth; and by the Atlantic ocean on the weſt; being 3000 miles long from north to ſouth, and 2500 broad from eaſt to weſt.

The grand diviſions of Europe, beginning on the weſt, are Spain, Portugal, France, Italy, Switzerland, the Netherlands, the United Provinces, Germany, Hungary, Bohemia and the other Auſtrian hereditary countries, Poland, Ruſſia, Sweden, Denmark and Norway, and Turky in Europe; beſides the iſlands of Great Britain, Ireland, and other Britiſh iſlands, Iceland, the Baltic iſlands, Sicily, Sardinia, Corſica, Majorca, Minorca, Ivica, and other iſlands in the Mediterranean.

Suppoſing the whole habitable world to be divided into 300 parts, Europe will contain of theſe 27, Aſia 101, Africa 82, and America 90; by which it appears that Europe is greatly leſs than any of the other diviſions of the globe: but, in reſpect to inhabitants, this diviſion certainly excels Africa and America, though much inferior to Aſia: however, Europe is, beyond all compariſon, the moſt happy and valuable quarter of the globe, which may ſeem a paradox, when it is conſidered that, in reſpect to riches, the gold and ſilver mines of Europe are not comparable to thoſe in the other quarters of the world; few or no precious ſtones are found in any of the European countries, neither are there any ſpices or perfumes.

At firſt theſe remarks may ſeem to deſtroy the common opinion, but when more cloſely examined they will be found to confirm it; for when it is ſaid one country is greater, more powerful, or more conſiderable, than another, it is meant in reſpect to the condition of its inhabitants; in which ſenſe it may be very ſafely affirmed of Europe: for, with regard to territory, when it is conſidered what the Spaniards, the Engliſh, the Portugueſe, the French, and the Dutch, poſſeſs in other parts of the world, it may be aſſerted that Europe is equal, if not ſuperior, to Aſia; and if it does not contain ſo many people within its own bounds, yet it may be truly ſaid to command more. As to riches, it is notorious that the European nations enjoy, in conſequence of their trade, all that nature has beſtowed upon the other parts of the world. And it may be reaſonably admitted for truth, that Europe is the happieſt, the moſt powerful, and, in reſpect of arts, arms, and trade, by far the moſt conſiderable portion of the globe.

After ſettling this point, it is natural to deſcend to thoſe general heads, whence the grandeur, and, which is of no leſs conſequence, the ſtability of the European governments ariſe, whereon the power and ſecurity of its ſeveral parts depend; which may be confined to the three heads of religion, commerce, and the union of political intereſts; from whence the general ſtate of Europe may be perfectly underſtood, a right judgment formed of the views and force of the ſeveral parties therein; and the nature of thoſe controverſies underſtood, which, from time to time ariſe among them, and which may be eaſily referred to one or other of theſe ſubjects.

1. As to *religion*; though it is certain that there are ſome Pagans in the Swediſh and Muſcovite Lapland, a vaſt multitude of Jews ſcattered through ſeveral European countries, and that the Mahommeddan religion has the ſanction of public authority in the Turkiſh dominions; yet the prevailing religion is Chriſtianity, divided into a great number of ſects, but falling under the three capital diſtinctions of the Greek church, the church of Rome, and the Proteſtants. The Chriſtians of the Greek church have for their head, whoever wears the Imperial diadem of Ruſſia: the princes of Moldavia and Walachia are alſo of this religion, and ſo are the greateſt part of the Chriſtians ſubject to the Grand Signior, beſides multitudes that are ſcattered through Hungary, Poland, Tranſylvania, and ſome parts of Germany; ſo that the people of this perſuaſion are equal in number to thoſe of the church of Rome.

As to the ſtrength and power of the Romaniſts; this is certainly very great; and the common opinion is, that it continually increaſes: but if there be any truth in this, it muſt be principally owing to their having a viſible head, the Pope, inveſted with that ſort of authority which is moſt properly calculated to ſupport and extend the tenets of religion. In computing the ſtrength of the Papiſts, it is uſual, and indeed proper, to reckon the Emperor of Germany firſt, becauſe he precedes all the princes of that communion, and adds ſomewhat to the credit of this religion, by his Imperial authority. The next Popiſh power is France, then Spain, and next Portugal; though the dominions of his Poliſh Majeſty are more extenſive than Spain and Portugal taken together: after them follow the King of Sardinia, the Pope, the princes and ſtates of Italy, with ſuch of the Swiſs cantons as are of this religion; which bring the eye back again to Germany, where the dominions of the Queen of Hungary and Bohemia, together with the Electors of Bavaria and Palatine, beſides the ſpiritual Electors, and ſome other princes and ſtates, are of the ſame community.

Of the proteſtant powers, Great Britain is certainly the moſt conſiderable: next follow Sweden, Denmark, Pruſſia; the United Provinces, with ſome of the Swiſs cantons and their confederates: then the ſubjects of the Elector of Saxony, though their prince is a papiſt; the Elector of Hanover, the Dutchy of Courland, and ſome of the leſſer princes and ſtates of Germany of this communion. According to the neareſt computation that can be made, with reſpect to territory in Germany, the proportion between papiſts and proteſtants may be as ten to eight; but, in point of number of people, the proteſtants are held to be equal: throughout the reſt of Europe, the proportion, in point of territory, is conceived to be eight to ſeven; though, as to inhabitants, there is good reaſon to believe that the proteſtants are rather more

merous than the papiſts; becauſe the proteſtant countries are inconteſtably more populous. In the North, for example, though Poland is numerouſly inhabited, yet it is certain, that one half of the people are not papiſts; and at leaſt one third of them proteſtants; whereas in Denmark or Sweden there are few or no papiſts: in Germany again, moſt of the great trading cities, though crowded with inhabitants, are proteſtants: in Italy, indeed, the papiſts are in a manner without mixture; though this is balanced by the number of people in Great Britain. But the following table may ſerve to illuſtrate this matter, and to regulate the judgment not only with reſpect to this, but with regard to ſeveral other ſubjects of importance.

The proportion of the ſeveral powers of Europe to Great Britain.

Ruſſia - -	10,13	Portugal - -	0,36
Germany -	3,53	Netherlands -	9,18
Sweden -	3,63	United Provinces	0,11
Poland -	3,39	Switzerland -	0,17
France -	1,7	Denmark - -	1,49
Spain - -	1,81	Italy - -	1,19
Turky -	3,18		

That is; the proportion between Ruſſia and Great Britain is as 10-13 to 1; or, Ruſſia is ten times as large as Great Britain, and 13 parts of 100 more: this table, at the ſame time it points out the comparative ſtrength of Great Britain to other nations, alſo ſhewing the proportions of all theſe countries to each other.

3dly, As to the commerce of Europe, it has been a thing readily purſued in every country for upwards of fifty years paſt, to which the other kingdoms were incited by the formidable appearance of the maritime powers. The French laboured with indefatigable diligence, not only to raiſe a maritime force, but to extend their trade into all parts of the world; in which they have been extremely ſucceſsful: for though the war, productive of the treaty of Utrecht, in a great meaſure ruined their navy, yet their commerce is, even at this juncture, or was at leaſt before the breaking out of the laſt war, in a more flouriſhing condition than ever. The Swedes and Danes have erected Eaſt India companies; and the Ruſſians have opened a new and advantageous traffic, as well on the Caſpian as on the Black ſea. The houſe of Auſtria ſhewed a great deſire of reviving the commerce of the Netherlands; and, when that was found impracticable, made ſome excellent regulations at Trieſte and Fiume in Italy. The Genoeſe have, within theſe few years, erected a company of aſſurance, on purpoſe to encourage their ſubjects to venture upon long voyages, and, if poſſible, to recover their old reputation as a maritime power. The king of Pruſſia has lately erected a company at Embden for trading to the Eaſt Indies: and his Daniſh Majeſty has purchaſed the ports of St. Croix and Saffia on the caſt of Morocco. Nay, even the Spaniards themſelves, who, in this reſpect, have ſlept for ſuch a number of years, have at laſt opened their eyes, erected ſome, and have under conſideration the erecting ſeveral other companies, for the encouragement and extention of trade through their European and American dominions. Trade has not only a very great influence on the particular affairs of nations ſeparately conſidered, as it is almoſt the ſole cauſe of a comparative difference in the ſtrength and forces of moſt of the European powers; but it is alſo of infinite advantage to this quarter of the globe in general; keeps the Europeans free from all apprehenſions of being overrun by thoſe barbarous empires which the mahomedan religion has eſtabliſhed in the world; and likewiſe brings in every thing rich and coſtly, every thing curious and valuable, even from the remoteſt quarters of the earth: what to trade alone is, ſtrictly ſpeaking, due that ſuperiority which the inhabitants of Europe have over thoſe of Aſia, Africa, and America: it is to commerce that the people of Europe owe their freedom and independency, their learning and arts, their extenſive colonies abroad, their prodigious riches at home; and, above all, that naval power, which ſo much ſurpaſſes any thing of the ſame kind in other parts of the world, and whatever was attempted in that way in former ages.

The trade of Europe is very advantageous both with Africa and America: but the trade with Aſia is rather prejudicial to Europe.

3dly, As to the union of political intereſts: in the firſt place, it is certainly the intereſt of every European power to ſupport the independency of each other, and to prevent any thing that has the appearance of an univerſal monarchy, or the introducing the influence of one court over the greateſt part of the reſt; or, in other words, to ſupport the balance of power; becauſe this muſt be detrimental to the whole, and prejudicial to the freedom, learning, arts, manufactures, and commerce of Europe in general. This is perceptible not only from the principles of true policy, but alſo from the unerring lights of experience: ſince it is impoſſible to aſſign a time when the European powers, in general, made ſo contemptible a figure as when the Emperor Charles V. or his ſon Philip II. were neareſt the accompliſhment of their ambitious views, and had in a manner all the other potentates at their mercy, or at their devotion. See *Balance* of Power, and *Balance* of Trade.

EUROPEAN *ocean*, or *Southern ocean*, is that part reaching from the equinoctial to the unknown antarctic lands. See *Ocean*.

EUSTACE, or *Euſtatia*, one of the leaſt of the Caribbee iſlands, in America, ſituated in 63 deg. of W. lon. and 17 deg. 32 min. of N. lat. being ſubject to the Dutch. See Dutch America, under *United* Provinces.

EUXINE, or *Black ſea*. See *Black* ſea.

EXCHANGE, or *Permutation*, is an agreement whereby one thing is trucked, bartered, or exchanged for another. The firſt commerce carried on by men was by exchange; people furniſhing each other mutually with what things they wanted: but ſuch exchanges were clogged with two conſiderable impediments: the one was the unequal value of commodities; the other the uncertainty of mutual accommodation: therefore money was invented to remove theſe inconveniencies; and, inſtead of exchanging, buying and ſelling were introduced. See *Coin*, *Commerce*, *Bartering*, and *Money*.

EXCHANGE, properly denotes the buſineſs, or trade of money, carried on between one place and another by means of bills of exchange; or giving money in one city, and receiving a bill to intitle the giver to receive the value in another city: ſo that it has been ſhortly defined to be nothing but a compenſation of value from one country to another. The exchange for money is of ſuch great antiquity, that it is reported to have been practiſed upwards of 2000 years by the Romans: and as money was originally invented to avoid the tedious carriage of commodities from one country into another; upon like conſideration, when other nations imitated the Romans in coining, exchange by bills for money was deviſed, not only to avoid the danger and adventure thereof, but alſo its troubleſome carriage, and to prevent the exportation of money.

Thus kingdoms and ſtates having coined money by their ſovereign authorities, they appointed a certain exchange for the permutation of the various coins in different countries, without any temptation of the coin; but giving *par pro pari*, or value for value, with a certain allowance to be made the exchangers for accommodating the merchants: but the common exchangers in England were thoſe conſtituted by the regal authority, who having received money there, were to remit by exchange the like ſum to be paid in another kingdom: in order to which, King Edward III. by a law made in his reign, cauſed tables to be ſet up in moſt of the general marts or ports of the kingdom, declaring the values of all or moſt of the coins of thoſe places abroad where Engliſhmen had correſpondence or commerce, and what allowances ſhould be made for having money remitted to ſuch foreign countries. Four different kinds of exchanges have been frequently practiſed abroad: for, beſides the common exchange before particularly mentioned, there was *exchange real*, when monies were paid to the exchanger, and bills were drawn without mentioning the ſpecies, but according to the value of the different coins; to be repaid the ſame in money in ſome other country, according to the price agreed upon between the officer and deliverer, to

allow or pay for the exchange of the money and loſs of time. Then there was an exchange called *dry exchange*, being unlawful and uſurious, by extraordinary proteſts of bills, drawn to be paid by an imaginary perſon; whereupon the merchant was to pay exchange and re-exchange to the banker who furniſhed the money: and a *fictitious exchange* was made uſe of to the ſame perſon; but more pernicious to the honeſt trader; which two laſt exchanges were prohibited in England, by the ſtatute of the 3d of Henry VII.

Concerning exchange, money in general is divided into two ſorts, real and imaginary: by the former is meant any real ſpecies current in any government; defined to be a certain quantity of metal, coined by the authority of the ſtate, and paſſing at a certain price, by virtue of that authority, and of its own intrinſic value: and by the latter is underſtood all the denominations uſed to expreſs any ſum of money which is not the juſt value of the real ſpecies. See *Money*.

This real money conſiſted of gold and ſilver, which, being introduced for the facility of commerce, became the price and meaſure of whatever was tranſacted among traders and negotiators. To make negotiations and computations the more eaſy and certain, money of accompt or exchange was invented; as pounds, ſhillings, and pence, ſterling, in England; crowns, livres, and ſols, in France; and ſuch other denominations in other countries, as are particularly ſet forth under the article of *Money*.

Theſe two ſorts of money furniſh two ſorts of compariſons, equalities, or proportions; firſt, between the weight, ſtandard, and value of the real monies of one country, and thoſe of another: which equality is called the real par, being the moſt eſſential point, and yet the leaſt known in the commerce of exchange. The ſecond equality is between the monies of exchange of one country and thoſe of another; which admit of frequent variations as to the quantity of the one which muſt be given to equal the other: theſe variations proceeding from the arbitrary value which ſovereigns fix to the real money in their dominions, and from the plenty or ſcarcity of bills of exchange of one place upon another: which are more preciſely called exchanges.

Exchange, is the moſt myſterious part of merchandiſe, being chiefly grounded upon cuſtom and experience: the neceſſity and utility whereof has been long eſteemed, by the general conſent of mankind; becauſe, it prevents the danger, or hazard, of carrying, or tranſporting, of money, not only from one town or country to another, but to almoſt all parts of the known world: all which is done by a bill of exchange, whereto men of credit pay the ſtricteſt honour and regard, on account that it is ſo noble and excellent in its nature. And though a bill of exchange cannot properly be called a ſpecialty, becauſe it wants thoſe formalities required by the common law of England, as a ſeal, delivery, and witneſſes; yet it is equivalent thereto, and may be reckoned to exceed any ſpecialty, carrying a commanding power with it, although directed from a ſervant to his maſter; for if the maſter accepts it, the concern is as great in reſpect to his honour and credit, to pay it when due, as the ſervant can deſire, or the party to whom it is made payable can expect; becauſe, if it is not paid, it is an imputation on the credit of the acceptor. Such is the excellency of a bill of exchange, that, according to the cuſtom or law of merchants, no witneſs is required to be preſent to ſee the drawer ſubſcribe his name, or when any party underwrites an acceptance: for it is ſuppoſed, that perſons dealing by exchange are men of credit, whom it concerns to acknowledge their ſubſcriptions, and pay as punctually as the deliverer, or party to whom it is made payable can expect.

The true exchange for monies by bills of exchange, uſed at this day in England, is according to the par, which is value for value: ſo that Engliſh exchange is grounded on the weight and fineneſs of Engliſh money, and the weight and fineneſs of that of other countries, agreeable to their ſeveral ſtandards, and proportionable in their valuation; which being juſtly and truly made, reduces the price of exchange to a ſum certain, for exchanging of monies to any nation or country whatſoever: as for example, if a merchant receives 100 l. in London to pay 100 l. in Exeter, this is by the par; but if it be to pay the 100 l. at Paris, there the party is to examine and compare the Engliſh weight with that of France; as alſo the fineneſs of one ſtandard with the other; and if that at Paris and that at London differ not in proportion, then the exchange may run at one price, taking the denomination according to the valuation of the monies of each country. But here, if the weight and fineneſs of the money exchanged differ, the price of exchange accordingly riſes or falls; and the ſame may be eaſily diſcovered, by knowing and examining the real fineneſs of a French crown and an Engliſh one, and the difference which is to be allowed for the want of fineneſs or weight therein, which is the exchange; and ſo accordingly for any monies of any other country; which is called *par*, or giving value for value: for by the par of real money is underſtood the equality of the intrinſic value of the real ſpecies of any country with thoſe of another: however, this courſe of exchange is of late years abuſed, and monies are become a merchandiſe that over-rule commodities, riſing and falling in price according to the plenty and ſcarcity of coin: from whence ſome are of opinion, that there can be no certain rate ſet on the par in exchange, to anſwer juſtly the value of the coins of foreign parts, by reaſon of their great diverſity, and of their intrinſical values: and it is ſaid, there is not, at this time, any peculiar or proper money to be found in ſpecie, whereupon outland exchanges can be grounded; therefore all foreign coins are called imaginary.

As money is the common or public meaſure of things between man and man within any government; ſo is exchange for money between merchants in different countries for all commodities bought and ſold: though this meaſure of exchange between different nations, is very tender and delicate: and the difficulty of it proceeds from the payments of bills of exchange beyond the ſeas; which are made by coin upon the valuation of it, at the pleaſure of ſome arbitrary princes, whereby their money is not proportionably valued. But although the foreign coins beyond the ſeas are received at a higher rate than their values, yet they ſhould not be ſo taken in payment; becauſe the commodities of the realm are, or ought to be, ſold agreeable to the price of exchange, which countervails the ſame according to other princes or ſtates, enhancing their coins, or embaſing thereof by allay.

The eaſtern and northern nations keep the prices of their exchange high, and above the valuation of their money; ſo that they have no trade but only for goods and commodities: by which means, they have prevented the overballancing of foreign goods with theirs, as alſo the exporting of their monies; and this remedy is the only one effectual in theſe caſes. From whence it is worthy obſervation, that the monies in Europe, which have their ebbing and flowing, ſufficiently ſhew their operation upon commodities, in making the ſame dear or cheap, in proportion to their plenty or ſcarcity: but exchange has a contrary way of working; for when money is plenty it occaſions a low exchange, and when ſcarce it riſes the price, which is of great conſideration.

The Britiſh trade to Portugal has been of ſuch a magnitude, ſays the Britiſh Merchant, vol. III. p. 107, as beſides ſhewing the nature of an over-balance of exchange, that it is notorious to the world we have had a vaſt importation from thence. As our trade increaſed, ſo the exchange declined; and in ſome years when corn was cheap here, and dear in Portugal, our balance was ſo very great that, notwithſtanding we paid ſubſidies to the King of Portugal, and paid for troops, there were alſo vaſt ſums for ſupplies of our armies in Valencia and Catalonia: ſtill the over-balance lay ſo much againſt them, that the exchange has been at 5 s. 2 d. and 5 s. a millree: a millree in Portugueſe gold weighs, according to the Engliſh ſtandard, 5 s. 9 d. ſo that there was 10, 12, 15 *per cent.* difference between the exchange and the intrinſic value of the money. In ſome years, when we had a want of corn ourſelves, and therefore could

ſupply Portugal, the exchange immediately found the want of ſo great an overbalance, and roſe to 5 s. 4 d. 5 s. 5 d. and 5 s. 6 d at which laſt price, in time of war, gold would not turn to account; nor now, conſidering that there is 3 *per cent.* at leaſt charges, without inſurance, and that 5 *per cent.* will make 5 s. 6 d. coſt 5 s. 9 d. which is the ſtandard of the millree; ſo that there is but 2 *per cent.* for the time and hazard.

The ſame author, vol. III. p. 108, ſpeaking of an under-balance of exchange, ſays, our trade to Holland during the war, was on a contrary foot, notwithſtanding our vaſt over-balance againſt them in commodities; yet, by our paying ſuch a ſum to ſubſiſt the armies in Flanders, and ſubſidies to ſeveral princes, the balance lay during the whole war againſt us: ſo that as faſt almoſt as we brought gold from Portugal, it was carried over to pay the balance. The exchange immediately found the balance of trade, and went declining from 36 s. 8 d. and 37 s. as it was in the peace; and as our expence increaſed abroad, by augmenting the number of troops in our pay, ſo the exchange went declining as the balance againſt us was greater: and though in ſome exigencies it was 32 s. 6 d. and 33 s. yet that being but caſual, it came to a medium of 33 s 8 d. and 34 s. ſo that there was 9 *per cent.* difference betwixt the time of peace and time of war; and ſince the ceſſation, as our expence went decreaſing, ſo the exchange went advancing, and has come to 36 s. and 36 s. 4 d.

Thus far the Britiſh Merchant ſhews that exchange is the ſtandard by which we may know where the balance of trade lies: after which he proceeds to ſhew, in the following manner, that the exchange in Spain was above the ſtandard.

Though the exchange has been in Spain at 52 d. *per* piece of eight, yet it has alſo been at 50 d. ſo we will take the medium of 51 d. Though it could be proved that ſeveral quantities of pieces of eight which were brought into England, coſt the importer 52 d. and ſome by draughts made on Holland more. Now 1000 pieces, remitted by bills at 51 d. *per* piece of eight is 212 l. 10 s. ſterling: 1000 pieces of eight will weigh 870 ounces: and though ſome were ſold that came by men of war from Cadiz at 5 s. 2 d. *per* ounce; yet others were ſold at 5 s. 4¼ d. but the Eaſt India company, who were the greateſt purchaſers, fixed the price at 5 s. 3 d. for what they bought; and after they had bought the quantity they wanted, they gave liberty to the private traders to buy, who before they had made up their quantities advanced it to 5 s. 4 d. and 4 d. farthing.

		l. s. d.
870 ounces ſold here at 5 s. 3 d. *per* ounce is		228 7 6
Premio to purchaſe pieces of eight in Spain, 5 *per cent.*	50 pieces	
Carrying on ſhip-board and riſque 2 *per cent.*	20	
Commiſſion 1 *per cent.*	10	
Freight 1 *per cent.*	10	
Inſurance 1 *per cent.*	10	
Commiſſion where landed, and charges to London	10	
110 at 51 d. =		23 7 6
		205 0 0
Loſs by bringing 1000 pieces of eight from Spain in ſpecie, which has not produced ſo much as if remitted by bill of exchange		7 10 0
		212 10 0

So that if they bought their pieces of eight at above 1 ¼ d. *per cent. premio*, a bill of exchange was more profitable. Now he affirms, that the major part of the pieces of eight that we imported coſt from 3 to 5 ½ *per cent.* premio. Suppoſe then, they had carried it to the mint at 5 s. 2 d. the loſs would be 2 *per cent.* more than the above calculation. He appeals therefore to any reaſonable man, if the pieces of eight thus imported, could be the balance of our trade? Had it been, that would neceſſarily have ſhewed

itſelf in this trade, as well as in the facts laid down in that of Portugal and Holland: ſo that till the exchange in Spain is under the par of the ſilver, he aſſerts, the balance of that trade is againſt us. And notwithſtanding the entries in the cuſtom-houſe, yet if the goods cannot find expence at a market, it will be no proof. When they do, and Spain conſumes more of our imports than we export from them, the exchange will be in our favour, and we ſhall have an over-balance. See *Balance* of Trade.

The Britiſh Merchant, vol. II. p. 114, afterwards makes ſome obſervations on the courſe of exchange, and ſhews how the courſe of exchange between two countries proves which of them pays the balance upon trade; or whether we buy or ſell the over-balance of goods and merchandiſes, and are accordingly to pay or receive the balance in gold or ſilver; which the author propoſes to be done by the courſe of exchange between two countries; as this is a way of paying the debts due from each to the other, by exchanging the debtors of both countries as far as the debts of one are ſufficient to anſwer and diſcharge the debts of the other; which he ſhews by the following common inſtances.

Suppoſe, the tenant in Wiltſhire is to pay 100 l. for rent to his landlord in London; and the woollen-draper in London is to pay the like ſum to his clothier in Wiltſhire: both theſe debts may be paid, without tranſmitting one farthing from one place to the other by bills of exchange, or by exchanging one debtor for the other thus: that is, the tenant may receive his landlord's order to pay 100 l. to the clothier in the country; and the woollen-draper may receive his clothier's order to pay the like ſum to the landlord in town. Theſe two orders are properly called bills of exchange; the debts are exchanged by them; that is, the woollen-draper in town, inſtead of the tenant in the country, is become debtor to the landlord; and the tenant in the country, inſtead of the woollen-draper in town, is become debtor to the clothier; and when theſe orders are complied with, the two debts between London and the country are diſcharged without ſending one ſhilling in ſpecie from one to the other.

In like manner, the warehouſeman in London is indebted in 100 l. for ſtuffs, to the weaver in Norwich; and the linen-draper in Norwich is indebted in the like ſum to the Hamburgh merchant in London: both theſe debts may be paid by bills of exchange, or by the exchange of one debtor for the other, by placing one debtor in the other's ſtead; that is, the warehouſeman may receive the order of his weaver to pay 100 l. to the Hamburgh merchant; and the linen-draper may receive the order of the Hamburgh merchant to pay the like ſum to the weaver. Theſe orders are bills of exchange; the debtor in one place is changed for the debtor in the other: and thus both debts may be paid without ſending one ſingle ſhilling in ſpecie from the one city to the other.

If the debts reciprocally due between London and Norwich are equal, whether they are 100 l. or 100,000 l. they may be all diſcharged in this manner by bills of exchange, without ſending any money in ſpecie from the one to the other. But if the debts due from both places are not equal, then only the ſame quantity of debts on both ſides, can be paid by bills of exchange. The balance muſt be ſent in money from the city from whence the greateſt ſums are due. For example; if by the trade between London and Norwich, the former owes 10,000 l. to the latter, and the latter no more than 9,000 l. to the former, it is manifeſt, that only the debts of 9000 l. on each ſide can be diſcharged by bills of exchange: the balance of 1000 l. muſt be ſent either from London, or ſome other place indebted to London, to even the accompt between both cities.

Theſe examples are taken from two Engliſh cities where the money is of the ſame denomination, and the ſame quantities are equally a par in both: but the caſe is the very ſame between two cities where the denominations of the money are different, as long as any certain quantity of money in the one can be reduced to a par or equality with any certain quantity of money in the other: for example, the old French crown was juſt equal, or par, to 54 d. Engliſh; and 444 of thoſe crowns were juſt par or

equal to 100 l. ſterling; every farthing given more or leſs than 54 d. for a crown in a bill of exchange between London and Paris, amounts to 9 s. 3 d. upon 444 crowns, or upon ſo many times 54 d. Suppoſe then, the courſe of exchange ſtood thus formerly between London and Paris; if a merchant in Paris, indebted to London, paid a farthing leſs than the par for a bill of exchange upon London, to pay 54 d. there; the Pariſian paid his debt to London of 100 l. by a bill of exchange that coſt him in Paris 9 s. 3 d. leſs than that ſum; and if a merchant in London gave a farthing more than the par for a bill of exchange upon Paris, to pay a French crown, the Londoner gave 9 s. 3 d. more than 100 l. for a bill of exchange to pay that ſum in Paris. If ſuch was the courſe of exchange between London and Paris, if the one gave above the par, and the other leſs, for bills of exchange to pay their reſpective debts, there can be no doubt that bills of exchange were more eaſily to be had in Paris than at London; and conſequently, that greater ſums were due from the latter than the former, and that Great Britain paid a ballance upon its trade to France; and as the price roſe here to a penny or two-pence above the par, or fell there ſo much below it, ſo much the greater ſcarcity was ſhewn here, and the greater plenty there of bills of exchange; and that ſo much the greater ballance of bullion was going from Great Britain by means of its trade to France.

So that the exchange between London and Paris, as alſo between Paris and Amſterdam, or any two other cities, is, in effect, carried on juſt as it is between London and Wiltſhire, or London and Norwich; only with this difference, that the accompts are kept in another manner, or by other denominations; and that the charge and riſk of ſending money from London to Paris, or from Paris to Amſterdam, is greater than that of ſending it from London to Wiltſhire or Norwich: and when the ballance of trade with Amſterdam is againſt Paris, the exchange at Paris will be from 5 to 6 *per cent.* above the par by bills on Amſterdam; whereas it will ſeldom exceed one half *per cent.* above par between London and Norwich. When exchange is lower than the ſpecie, a profit may be made by ſending it abroad; for the ſame reaſon, when it is higher than the ſpecie, there is a profit in cauſing it to return: thus exchange is become a kind of traffic, the difference of the par to what is given making the courſe of exchange, which ſkilful merchants and negotiators may convert to a great national advantage, by taking opportunities of the riſe and fall of the par; as they may thereby govern the general courſe of exchange in favour of their own country, and promote its intereſt by preſerving the general ballance of trade.

The prices of the exchange at London, Amſterdam, and Hamburgh, have a great influence upon all the reſt of Europe, which occaſioned his late Majeſty's privy council to order Sir Iſaac Newton, then mint-maſter of the Tower of London, to make actual aſſays, weights, and values, of moſt foreign gold and ſilver coins, in order to judge how the courſe of exchange between Great Britain, and the other principal countries of Europe, correſponded from time to time with the intrinſic value of the foreign monies of thoſe ſtates; of which Sir Iſaac Newton drew up a report to the following effect.

GOLD COINS Perfect.

22 carats - 11 oz. & 2 dwt. } of fine { gold / ſilver } and { 1½ / 18 dwt. } of alloy to the { ounce. / pound.

Figure { 1 better / 2 worſe } in the report under the *

		Aſſay. Report. car.	gr.	*Weight.* Full. dwt.	gr.	Standard. dwt.	gr.	mi.	*Value.* Engliſh. s.	d.	pts.
Double doubloon, old Spaniſh	* 2		½	17	8	17	5	12	67	1	4
Ducat.											
Barbary, Bamberg, Beſançon, Genoa, Holland, Legem, Campen, Pruſſia, Sweden, Zurick, and Denmark - -	1	1	2	2	5½	2	9	3	9	3	2
Poland - - -	1	1	2	2	5	2	8	12	9	2	1
Tranſilvania - - -			1½		4¾		7	6	8	11	6
Hungary - - -			2		5⅔		9	3	9	3	6
Double ducat.											
Caſtile, Florence, Genoa, Hungary, Portugal, and Venice - -	1	1	2½	4	11	4	18	18	18	7	7
Genoa - - -					11		18	6		6	5
Germany, of various forms - -	1	1	2	4	11	4	17	1	18	4	6
Hanover, of which there is alſo the half					11		17	1		4	1
Guinea - - -		Standard		5	9½	5	9½		21		
Louis d'or old - - -	2	1	½	4	8	4	7	8	16	9	3
Ditto new - - -			1½	5	5⅖	5	3	18	20		6
There are alſo half and 1-4th louis-d'ors.											
Moeda Dopia, or moidore -	2		¼	6	22	6	21	12	26	10	4
Double piſtole.											
Genoa 1621 - - -					16						
Milan, of which there is a half ditto -					13½						
Old Spaniſh - - -	2		½	8	16	8	14	16	33	6	7
New Spaniſh - -					16⅓						
There are half and 1-4th ditto.											
Urban 1634 - - -					14½						
Placentia - - -					10						
Piſtole.											
Half Innocent II. 1685 - -				2	4						
Beſançon, Florence, Genoa, Milan, Orange, Savoy, and Trevoux - -	2		1¼		6¾	4	5	17	16	6	7
Savoy 1675 - - -				4	8½						
New Sevill - - -					8⅙						
Old Spaniſh - -					8	4	7	8	16	9	3
Old Italian - - -	2		¼	4	6¾	4	6	11	16	7	6
Sequin of Venice, &c. - -	1	1	3½	2	5¾	2	10	7	9	5	7

SILVER COINS Perfect.

	Assay. Report. *	Assay. Report. dwt.	Weight. Full. dwt.	Weight. Full. gr.	Weight. Standard. dwt.	Weight. Standard. gr.	Weight. Standard. mi.	Value. Engliſh. s.	Value. Engliſh. d.	Value. Engliſh. pts.
Croiſat, Genoa, 7½ lires	1	7	24	15	25	9	11	6	6	74
Crown, Engliſh	Standard		19	8½	19	8⅛		5		
Cruſado, or ducat 480 reas, Portugal	2	2	11	4	11	1	13	2	10	31
Cruſado, 140 ſols, Venice			20	6						
Dollar, Dantzic, old	2	10½	18	9	17	12	4	4	6	27
Dollar, Lyon dollar 2-3ds ducaton, Holland	2	44	17	14	14	2	7	3	7	7
Ducat.										
Leghorn, 7 lires, or 10½ jules	1	8	20	3	20	20	6	5	4	62
5 tarins, 10 carlins, 100 grains, Naples	2	3	14	¼	13	1		3	4	43
New numbered 124 ſols, Venice	2	23½	18	2	13	1	17	3	4	50
Old 6 livires 4 ſols, Venice			14	15						
Of the laſt two there are alſo half ducats.										
Ducaton.										
Cologn	1	3	20	18	21	15		5	5	2
Flanders, 60 ſols or patars	1	4½	20	22	21	8	2	5	6	15
Holland, 63 ſtivers	1	3	20	21	21	3	15	5	5	59
Ecu.										
New 100 ſols, Tournois	2	1½	17	14½	19	11	12	5		39
Old 60 France	2	1	17	12	17	10	2	4	6	
D'Argent, 7 lires 12 ſols, Genoa			17	21						
Piaſtre, Milan crown			20	14½						
Scudi, or crowns, 10 julio's, 100 baioc's, Rome										
Gout 28 ſtivers Holland	2	75	12	19	8	11	5	2	2	26
Gulden 28 ſtivers Holland	2	48	12		9	9	15	2	5	15
Gulden 28 ſtivers Holland	2	48	11		8	14	18	2	2	72
Guilder, or Gulden.										
⅔ of Florin Holland, 60 ſtivers	2	2	20	8	20	3	12	5	2	46
⅓ of Florin Holland, 20 ſtivers	2	2	6	18½	6	17	1	1	8	8
Double	2	7	18	18	18	3	16	4	8	29
⅔ Piece Hanover	1	17½	8	10	9	1	18	2	4	14
⅓ Piece Hanover	1	17½	4	5	4	12	19	1	2	7
26 groſh, Hildſheim	2	40½	12	22	9	17	17	2	6	21
Magdeburgh	2	44	11	14	9	6		2	4	67
26 Marien groſh Brandenburg	2		12	4	9	19	9	2	6	41
⅔ pieces, Pruſſia	2	43	11	3	8	23	6	2	3	81
⅓ pieces, Pruſſia	2		5	13	4	11	14	1	1	9
⅔ Saxony	2	41	11	3	9	1	14	2	4	12
16 gutz groſh, Zell	2	43	11	2	8	22	10	2	3	7
2 julio's, Venice	1	6	3	15	3	17	7		11	5
Livre, 20 ſols France			3	22						
Livre, 20 ſols Savoy, one half										
Marks.										
¼ Denmark, coarſe alloy	2	61	14	8	10	9	10	2	8	23
¼ Denmark, fine alloy	2	21	11	13½	10	11	5	2	8	45
⅛ Sweden	Standard		20		20			5	2	
¼ Sweden	2	58	13	12	9	23	7	2	6	29
½ Sweden	2		6	19						
Patagon, or Patach.										
Dollar 48 patars, Flanders	2	12	18	1	17	1	13	4	4	91
Leg. R. D. 50 ſtivers, Holland	2	14			16	20	17			28
Liege	2	12	17	22½	16	22	5	4	7	48
600 reas, Port										
Philip (7 livres) of Milan			20	20						
Piaſtre Ecu, Crown of Milan			17	21						
Piaſtre Ecu, Ferdinand II. Duke of	1	1	17	12	17	10	2	4	6	
Piaſtre Ecu, Coſmus III. Tuſcany	1	1	16	8	16	16	4	4	3	69
Piece of eight.										
Mexico	2	1	17	10⅝	17	8	14	4	9	83
Piaſtre New Seville	2	1		12	17	10	2	4	6	
Pillar	2	1½			13	21	15	3	7	11
Peru, coarſe	Standard			9	17	9		3	7	87
Rix-dollar.										
Brandenburg, old	2	9	18	13	17	19	1	4	7	17
Baſil	2	7½		18	18	3	6	4	8	24
Bavaria and Palatine	2			5						
Cologn, or Patagan	2	13			16	22	14	4	4	53

SILVER COINS Perfect.

Rix-dollar.	Assay. Report. *	Assay. Report. dwt.	Weight. Full. dwt.	Weight. Full. gr.	Weight. Standard. dwt.	Weight. Standard. gr.	Weight. Standard. mi.	Value. English. s.	Value. English. d.	Value. English. pts.
Dantzick, or Thorn, old		12		8½		8	15		5	85
Francfort		9		8		14	4		6	53
Germ. { Leopold and Ferdinand III:		10½		9		12	4		6	27
Germ. { Ferdinand Duke of Auſtria		10½		5		8	7		5	78
Hanover		8		12		20	2		7	3
Lunemberg,		10		11		15	2		6	65
Magdeburg	2	10	18	12	17	16	1	4	6	27
Mentz		6½		8		19	18		7	27
Nuremberg		6		10		22	1		7	55
Poland, Sigiſmund III. Uladiſlaus IV.				9		13	14		6	
Hamburg, old bank dollar		8		9		22	4		6	92
Lubec		8½		16		22	17		7	54
Zuric		13		1	16	23	13		2	65
Ruble, Catherine			18	9				4	9	
Rupee	1	16½	7	10	7	23	4	2		7
10 ſchelling, Zealand, 60 ſtivers	2	2	20	6	20	1	13	5	2	21
Teſton, Rome, 3 jules	2	1	5	21½	5	20	17	1	6	32

Almoſt all the foreign exchanges made for England, Scotland, or Ireland, are made at London; the courſe or price of exchange being fixed there for the moſt eminent places of trade in Europe.

The par of the monies of London with the following places.

Amſterdam, 9 l. ſterling is the par of 100 guilders or florins, or 1 l. ſterling is the par of 11 guilders, 2 ſtivers, $2\frac{2}{3}$ peningens.

Antwerp, 9 l. ſterling is worth 16 l. Flemiſh; ſo that 1 l. ſterling is the par of 1 l. 15 s. $6\frac{3}{4}$ d. Flemiſh.

Cadiz, 51 l. ſterling is worth 1900 rials; ſo that 1 l. ſterling is the par of 37 rials 8 marvedis.

Dantzic, 3 l. ſterling is worth 40 florins; ſo that 1 l. ſterling is the par of 13 florins, 10 groſs of Dantzic.

Francfort, 3 l. ſterling is the par of 20 florins or goulds; ſo that 1 l. ſterling is the par of 6 florins 40 cruitzers.

Hamburgh, 3 l. ſterling is worth 40 marcs; ſo that 1 l. ſterling is worth 13 marcs, 5 ſchillings, 4 pheningſlubs.

Leipſic, 9 l. ſterling is worth 40 rixdollars; ſo that 1 l. ſterling is the par with 4 rixdollars, 10 groſs, 8 phenings.

Paris, 3 l. ſterling is ſaid by Hayes to be worth 40 livres; ſo that 1 l. ſterling is the par of 13 livres, 6 ſols, and 8 deniers; ſuppoſing the crown in ſpecie to be valued at 3 livres, or 60 ſols tournois: but this is too little.

Venice, 3 l. ſterling is worth 100 livres of Venice; ſo that 1 l. ſterling is the par of $33\frac{1}{3}$ livres.

The current prices of the exchanges which London gives to the following places.

Holland, Antwerp, and Hamburgh, 1 l. ſterling for between 30 and 40 ſchillings Flemiſh.

France, between 30 and 40 d. ſterling for 1 ecu of 60 ſols tournois, and ſometimes 1 l. ſterling for between 20 and 30 livres of France.

Portugal, between 50 and 60 d. for 1 millrea, or 1000 reas.

Spain, between 30 and 40 d. for 1 dollar of $\frac{8}{8}$ new plate.

Venice, between 55 and 65 d. for 1 ducat of 24 groſs Banco.

Genoa, the ſame for a peſſo of 5 livres.

Leghorn, the ſame for a piaſter, or dollar of 6 livres.

Ireland, 100 l. for 101 to 112 l. in Ireland.

London exchanges with the other cities and towns of Great Britain, by receiving a ſmall matter in the pound, to repay the like ſum in other places; but if the ſum is large, it is commonly returned at ſo much *per cent.* See *Money* of accompt.

It is remarkable, that in London, although there is plenty of foreign monies, particularly in gold, daily paſſing from hand to hand in trade, at certain prices, according to their weights and fineneſs; yet no perſon is obliged, according to law, to take them in payment; ſo that it may truly be ſaid, that all payments in London are made in the current coin of Great Britain; nor will the bank of England receive any other but the native ſpecies of Britiſh gold or ſilver: ſo that although diverſity of coins are daily paſſing, they no way affect trade, or cauſe any difference between current money, and the money to be received or paid for foreign bills of exchange, as they do in other countries where banks are eſtabliſhed, for there the difference amounts to 4 and 5 *per cent.* and in ſome places to above 30 *per cent.* which is what foreigners call the agio. See *Coin*, and *Bank*.

It is neceſſary to obſerve, as rules for London to remit or draw by, that to Spain, France, Portugal, or any other place where they exchange by the piece, ſuppoſe at 3s. 5 d. *per* piece of eight, 34½ d. *per* crown, or 5 s. 3d. *per* millrea; the lower the price is, the better it is for London to remit; becauſe if a merchant delivers 100 l. ſterling for a bill upon Spain, France, or Portugal, he can have more pieces of eight at 3 s. 2 d. than at 3s. 5 d. a piece, or more crowns at 32 d. than at 34½ d. *per* crown, for this 100 l.; and the contrary is to be obſerved in drawing.

But to Holland, Flanders, and Hamburgh, where the exchange is at ſo much *per* pound ſterling, the higher the price is, the more advantageous it will be for London to remit to thoſe places; for it is better to get 35 s. 6 d. Dutch money for 20 s. ſterling, than 34 s. 6 d. for the ſame; and the contrary is alſo to be obſerved in drawing. So for Ireland and the Weſt Indies, where the exchange is by the 100 l. the higher the courſe is between London and theſe places, it is better for London to remit than to draw; becauſe it is better to pay 100 l. in London, and receive 112 l. in Ireland, than to pay the ſame ſum in London, and receive only 105 l. in Ireland; which may alſo be ſaid of the Weſt Indies.

Though, to the greater part of mankind, exchange may ſeem to be a metaphyſical word, and not proper to expreſs any thing that has true and real exiſtence; yet if they reflect with proper attention, they will be fully convinced that commerce is that which gives exchange its being, and that this exiſtence is not imaginary, but real and practical. To ſet this matter in a fuller light, it muſt firſt of all be laid down as a definition, that by the word *exchange* nothing elſe is meant but the price of foreign money.

Now, ſince this price derives its motion from commerce only, hence it is that it is in its own nature ſuited and adapted to the diſcovery of the true ſtate of one kingdom, in compariſon of another, with reſpect to trade. And, to ſay the truth, if money is nothing elſe but a meaſure invented, to determine the proportions of ſuch things within a kingdom, as come within the reach of commerce; exchange is that which intrinſically diſcovers whether the trade of that kingdom with foreigners ſtands on equal terms, or whether the ballance is againſt it, or on the favourable ſide.

That this may be the better underſtood, it is proper to keep cloſe to the maxim, that exchange had its riſe from

no other ſource but the invention of money. Now, ſince it is alſo unqueſtionably true, that the ſole intention of the introduction of money was, that it might be employed as a compenſation for thoſe commodities, that could not be compenſated by other ſpecies of commodities; it follows, that where-ever ſuch commodities cannot be produced in kind, to compenſate others that are wanted, money is, by the very nature of commerce, put in motion: and as this motion impels the money from the ſide on which commodities are wanting in kind, to be given in compenſation of others, to that ſide upon which ſuch commodities abound; ſo, from the want or ſcarcity of money, foreign money riſes in its price; and if, on either ſide, this price riſes above, or falls below par, it becomes a kind of ballance, by means whereof it may be immediately diſcovered, whether the impulſe is the effect of a beneficial, or loſing commerce.

Since then, when money is to be procured in foreign countries, the price of exchange riſes or falls reſpectively, according as the exportation of money is greater or leſſer; and as this exportation of money is greater or leſſer, according as the quantity of commodity given in compenſation is leſſer or greater, who ſees not that the paſſive commerce of a kingdom is greater than the active, when to procure foreign money in another kingdom, to pay for goods purchaſed there, it ſubmits to a very high exchange?

Moreover, that, by means of exchange alone, can be had a juſt view of kingdoms, in the light juſt now mentioned, may be illuſtrated by an obvious example, for the more thorough conviction of every underſtanding. Suppoſe then, a kingdom has contracted a debt to foreigners; but that it has, at the ſame time, ſuch a plentiful crop of corn, as is ſufficient for its own ſupport, and may afford a conſiderable ſupply to foreign countries; though as to manufactures, it is almoſt entirely unprovided; ſo that all the money it can acquire by the exportation of corn, will not be an equivalent to that which foreigners muſt draw out of it, on account of the above mentioned debts, and its want of manufactures. Suppoſe further, that this ſame kingdom, beſides its corn, has alſo ſome particular ſorts of commodities, which are exported ſometimes in greater, and ſometimes in ſmaller quantities; if then, in ſuch a ſtate of affairs, it ſhould be deſired to give a preciſe calculation of the exact value of the active commerce of this kingdom, when compared with its paſſive commerce, ſo as to have the balance in money, it would be impoſſible to ſolve the problem but by the courſe of exchange.

And indeed, if at any time the active commerce of a kingdom is greater than its paſſive, in that event it may well be concluded, from the extraordinary quantity of money obſerved in circulation, that trade is in a flouriſhing condition: as, on the other hand, when the paſſive commerce is greater than the active, the contrary may be concluded from the remarkable penury of money that will be viſible: but the preciſe ſtate of the affair cannot be had, as it may be by the courſe of exchange, when all the great and ſmall branches of commerce are reduced, as it were, to their proper centre, and valued at their reſpective rates, by the courſe of exchange, which weighs them internally as in a ballance, and thereby diſcovers the true ſtate of that kingdom, with reſpect to foreign trade. For when commerce ſtands even, or is in equilibrio, the exchange will be at par; or, which is the ſame thing, the price of exchange will be equal to the intrinſic value of the money: if the ballance of trade is againſt the ſuppoſed kingdom, the price of exchange will be above par, or riſe above the real value of the money: and, finally, if the ballance be on the favourable ſide, the price of exchange will then be below par, or fall ſhort of the real value. From all which it may, with the greateſt juſtice, be concluded, that in the firſt of thoſe events, that is, when trade is in equilibrio, the money continues in the kingdom; in the ſecond, when, inſtead of this equilibrium, the ballance is on the contrary ſide, the money goes into the poſſeſſion of foreigners; and if the third ſuppoſition takes place, and the ballance is on the favourable ſide, the money not only continues in the kingdom, but alſo increaſes greatly.

Leſt any one ſhould poſſibly ſuſpect, that this exchange, becauſe it has not an exiſtence of the ſame kind with other material things, cannot therefore be the means of conveying ſo much knowledge; that is, that it cannot diſcover the ſtate of one kingdom as to trade, in relation to that of another, nor ſhew when trade is in an equal poſition; or if the equilibrium is diſturbed, whether the ballance is on the favourable or contrary ſide, the matter may be illuſtrated by the example of a pilot; who finding himſelf in the midſt of the ſea, can by no means diſcover the place where he is, without the aſſiſtance of ſome mathematical inſtrument; and though the pole, and the equinoctial line, whereby he regulates his obſervation, have no ſort of exiſtence, but what they owe to imagination, they are nevertheleſs the means of leading him to a certain knowledge of the poſition of his ſhip, in reſpect of its real and poſitive diſtance from true and known ſhores: and, in like manner, tho' it is the eye that makes the obſervation, yet the truth of this obſervation cannot be aſcertained without the means of the inſtrument, nor even this effect it, if it is not directed and regulated by the imaginary equinoctial and pole. Now, what this imaginary circle and pole are to the inſtrument, that preciſely is exchange with reſpect to money. For though the former of theſe two has only an ideal, while the latter has a phyſical exiſtence, yet this latter of itſelf is not ſuch an accurate or expeditious means of communicating knowledge, as when applied to the touch-ſtone of exchange, which, by its activity, penetrates, as it were, into the nature and ſoul of commerce; effectually demonſtrating what it is. From which it may be concluded, with great ſecurity, that money and the rate of exchange are the two principal inſtruments of trade; the former being the meaſure of commerce; the other determining the value of money, and thereby diſcovering the ſtate of commerce; and both together ſhew, in a very clear light, a ſeries of effects that could not poſſibly be diſcovered by calculation, giving ſufficient evidence that the one of them derives its being and exiſtence from the other, and that both together depend entirely upon commerce.

Bills of exchange are either inland or foreign: inland bills being ſuch as are drawn and payable in the ſame country; which ought to be payable a certain time after date: and foreign bills are ſuch as are drawn in one country, to be paid in another; which are generally payable at ſingle, double, or treble uſance; and there is likewiſe a cuſtomary allowance of certain days after the uſance before a bill is payable. See *Uſance*.

With regard to foreign bills there are theſe things to be conſidered, 1ſt, what uſance is eſteemed, with reſpect to ſeveral countries; 2d, what places reckon their time by old, and what by new ſtile; and, 3d, what days of grace are allowed for payment of a bill in ſeveral countries over and above their uſance. As to the firſt, the uſance of London to and from France, the United Provinces, the Netherlands, and Hamburgh, is one kalender month; to and from Spain, or Portugal, two kalendar months; and to and from Italy three kalendar months. Concerning the ſecond; Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Antwerp, Harlem, Middleburg, Ghent, Bruſſels, Brabant, and moſt of the Netherlands, France, Portugal, Spain, Italy, Poland, all the Romiſh electorates in Germany, and lately Great Britain, and Sweden, reckon their time and date by new ſtile: and the places that reckon their time and date by old ſtile, are Ruſſia, Denmark, the proteſtant Electorates and Principalities in Germany, the proteſtant cantons of Switzerland, Geneva, Embden, Hamburg, Lubeck, and Strasburg. And as to the third; the European merchants cuſtomarily allow a certain time to the acceptor after a bill is due, which is called time of grace or favour; and differs according to the cuſtom of the place drawn upon: for Great Britain and Ireland allow three days; Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Middleburg, Antwerp, Cologne, Breſlaw, Nuremberg, and Venice, ſix days; France ten, Spain fourteen, Portugal ſix, Geneva thirty, Naples eight, Frankfort four, Leipſic five, Augsburg five, Dantzick ten, Koninsberg ten, Hamburg

Hamburg twelve, and Sweden twelve days; but at Leghorn, Milan, and other places in Italy, the bearer gives days of grace at diſcretion; or proteſts the firſt day, if he thinks proper.

A bill of exchange being drawn, there are commonly three bills made of one tenor, for every ſum of money taken up, that if one bill ſhould be loſt, or miſcarry, the other may take place; and, ordinarily, there are four perſons requiſite to be employed in remitting money on bills of exchange; as the party which delivers the money, or the banker; the taker, or he who receives the ſame by exchange, uſually called the drawer; the party is to repay the money, or on whom the bill is drawn; and the perſon to whom the money is made payable, or the bill is ſent to get it accepted, and receive the ſum: but there may be bills of exchange made where three perſons, or only two, are concerned; eſpecially inland bills, and ſuch as a man negotiates himſelf; though when four perſons are uſed, the drawer of the bill is bound to the deliverer, and the acceptor is bound to the party to whom the bill is payable.

The right way of judging upon bills of exchange, is purely by the laudable cuſtom of merchants, frequently reiterated over and over; by which means it has obtained the force and ſanction of a law; for bills of exchange are of extraordinary moment in commerce, and therefore ought to be judiciouſly governed, as they have been generally approved of and adjudged in former ages. But an inland bill of exchange has been ſaid to be only in the nature of a letter; and an outland bill is more regarded in the eye of the law, becauſe it is for the advantage of commerce with other countries, which makes it of a more public concern.

Every indorſement of a bill of exchange is a new bill; for ſo long as the bill is in agitation, and ſuch indorſements are made, all and every of the indorſers are liable as a new drawer; and, by the law, generally, every indorſer of a bill will be always anſwerable like the firſt drawer thereof, and cannot be diſcharged by the indorſee's acceptance of the bill, without an actual payment: but, by the cuſtom of merchants, the indorſee is to receive the money of the firſt drawer, if he can; and if he cannot, then it is underſtood that the indorſer ſhall anſwer the debt, and not before; as where the drawer is inſolvent at the time of the indorſement, or upon demand refuſes to pay it, or cannot be found; for the indorſer is only a warrantor for the payment of the drawer, on his default: though if the indorſee does not endeavour to receive it in time, and the firſt drawer becomes inſolvent, in ſuch caſe the indorſer may be diſcharged, if the money is unpaid: however, if the drawer of a bill fail, it is reaſonable that the creditor ſhould reſort to the firſt indorſer to make it good; and the party has liberty to bring his action againſt any of the indorſers of a bill of exchange, if it is not paid by the acceptor; but if he ſues the drawer, he waves his liberty of proſecuting the indorſer.

If a bill of exchange be drawn at ſight, in default of payment at preſentation, the bearer is immediately to cauſe it to be proteſted for non-payment: and the bill being proteſted, is to be returned with the proteſt with all convenient ſpeed, to the laſt indorſer, if there be any, who is obliged to make good the value, with the exchange, charges of proteſt, and other contingent expences; for all which he may have his remedy againſt the former indorſer, where there are ſeveral indorſers; and he againſt the drawer of the bill, who is anſwerable for the whole: but if the bearer neglects to make ſuch proteſt, he himſelf is to be anſwerable. For the general rule is, that though the drawer is bound to the deliverer till the bill is ſatisfied, yet it is with this proviſo, that proteſt be made in due time; as alſo a lawful and ingenious diligence uſed for obtaining payment of the money, and it would be unreaſonable that the drawer ſhould ſuffer through his neglect. See *Proteſt*.

Where bills are drawn payable at ſome days ſight, it is uſual to leave them in the hands of the merchant, if he be a reputable man, a convenient time to be accepted, not exceeding twenty-four hours, which time is allowed him to conſider whether he will accept the bills or not; though, among merchants who know one another, ſometimes bills are left two or three days for acceptance, if the poſt does not depart in the interim: but, to prevent forgeries and impoſitions, it is not cuſtomary for merchants to accept or pay bills of exchange, without particular advice from the drawers: however, in ſtrictneſs, a bill may be immediately preſented; and if not accepted, it may be proteſted the ſame day; and, on a poſt day, the preſenter may demand an anſwer, that if the bill ſhould not be accepted, he may have time to cauſe the ſame to be proteſted, and return the bill and proteſt by the poſt; wherein he is exactly to obſerve orders, otherwiſe he runs all the hazards. If a bill is not paid within three days after it becomes due, though it be forborn five or ſix days, or more, proteſt muſt be made for non-payment; but it is ſafeſt if made the third day after it is due, for fear of inſolvency of the party who accepted it: and if a merchant having accepted a bill, happen to be non-ſolvent, or abſents himſelf, demand muſt be made by a notary-public, for better ſecurity; in default of which, a proteſt is to be made and ſent away, that ſecurity may be given by the party who drew the bill.

To accept a bill of exchange, is for the acceptor to take upon himſelf the payment of the ſame; and he that accepts the bill muſt pay it. The acceptation of bills payable at a limited day, or at one or more uſances, after date, by the cuſtom of Holland, is commonly with the expreſſion of the word *accepted:* but bills of exchange that are at ſome time after ſight, are accepted with the addition of the time when they are ſeen, or preſented. And if a drawer is dubious, whether the perſon upon whom he draws will accept his bill, he may at the ſame time get it recommended to ſome other merchant, reſiding at the ſame place, that in caſe the other ſhould refuſe, he may do it.

Upon receipt of any bill of exchange, the party is to go to the perſon to whom directed, and preſent the ſame for his acceptance; who, on tender of the bill, ſubſcribes *accepted*; or, being on the exchange, ſays, "I accept "the bill, and will pay it according to the contents;" this is an acceptance: as alſo if one merchant, having a right underſtanding with another, ſays, "Leave your "bill with me, and I will accept it;" or, "call for it to-"morrow, and it ſhall be accepted;" it obliges him as effectually, by the cuſtom of merchants, as if the party had actually ſubſcribed or ſigned it, though that is uſually done. But if a man ſays, "Leave the bill with me; I "will look over my accompts between the drawer and I; "call to-morrow, and accordingly the bill ſhall be ac-"cepted;" this does not amount to a complete acceptance: for the mention of his accompts muſt be intended to ſee if there are effects in his hands to anſwer; without which, perhaps, he would not accept the bill. And if the ſame be refuſed, the party then muſt procure a proteſt, and remit the ſame to the deliverer of the money, who is to reſort to the drawer for ſatisfaction for the principal coſts and damage.

If a bill is drawn upon a merchant in London, payable to a perſon at double uſance, he is not bound, in ſtrictneſs of law, to procure an acceptance; but only tender the bill when the money is due: though merchants, who generally have honourable ſpirits, rather than ſurprize a man, will firſt procure an acceptance, or leave the bill for the party to conſider before he gives his anſwer, and then give advice of the ſame; but if the money is not paid, then it is cuſtomary to proteſt.

A bill may be accepted for part; becauſe the party upon whom the bill was drawn, had no more effects in his hands; and, in this caſe, after the payment of ſuch part there muſt be a proteſt for the remainder; yet ſome are of opinion, that it will go for want of acceptance to the whole. And in caſe a bill of exchange be made at thirty days ſight, and the perſon to whom directed will not accept it to be paid at the exact time, but at ſixty days; there the party to whom the bill is made payable, muſt proteſt for want of acceptation according to the tenor, and then he may take the acceptance offered: nor can the perſon after accepting, after he has ſubſcribed the bill for a longer time, or the other party alter the ſame, although it is not according to the tenor of the bill; for, by his acceptance

e makes himſelf debtor, and owns the draught made pon him by his friend, whoſe right another man cannot ive away. Beſides, this caſe will admit of two proteſts, r, perhaps three, as things may happen: firſt, one proeſt is to be made for non-acceptance, according to the ime: a ſecond, for that the money, being demanded at he time mentioned in the bill, was not paid: and a third roteſt, if the money is not paid according to the time hich the acceptor ſubſcribed or accepted.

No perſon, whether wife or ſervant, can accept of a bill f exchange to bind the maſter, without a lawful authority o do it; as a letter of attorney, or the like, under hand; nleſs it has been formerly and uſually done by them in uch caſe, when the maſter has been out of town, and he as approved of the ſame by anſwering payment: but if a erchant to whom a bill is payable be abſent, or ſick, his iend, or ſervant, may cauſe a proteſt to be made. And ne partner may accept for another; as if there are three oint-traders, for the common ſtock and benefit of all; nd their factor, or any other perſon, draws a bill upon hem, the acceptance of one will oblige the reſt of the ompany: in like manner, as in drawing bills, where here are partners in merchandiſe, the ſigning of one of hem for ſelf and company, obliges the other partner to lfil the contents of the inſtrument ſo ſigned; and he is qually bound with the other that ſigned it. But where bill is drawn on two others jointly, it muſt have a joint ceptance, otherwiſe it ſhould be proteſted; though if it on two, or either of them, then if it be accepted by e, it is purſuant to the tenor of the bill, and ought not be proteſted but in caſe of non-payment, when the acptor is liable to an action.

bill of exchange, when accepted, cannot be revoked him who accepted it; though immediately after the ceptance, and before the money becomes due, he has vice that the drawer is broke. It has been held, that ceptance of a bill of exchange, after the time of payent is paſt, amounts to a promiſe to pay the money: t if a bill of exchange, by contrary wind, or other acdent, is ſo long upon the way, that the time limited by e bill is expired, and being preſented to the party for yment, he will not accept or pay for the ſame; then e notary is to make a proteſt for non-acceptation, and e non-payment.

a bill is accepted, and the acceptor happens to die be- e the time of payment, there muſt be a demand on his ecutors or adminiſtrators; and, in default, or delay of yment, a proteſt is to be made, although it may fall t that the money become due before there can be adniſtration, or a probate of the will granted; becauſe s delay is ſufficient for proteſting in caſe of non-payent; however, on demanding the money, ſecurity ſhould offered to indemnify the repreſentative of the deceaſed. t, on the other hand, if the party be dead to whom the ney is made payable, and the money ready to be paid, a teſt ought not to go for non-payment, till there is a ſon that can give a legal diſcharge; ſo that if the notary kes it in this caſe, and the party receives any damage reby, he may have his remedy againſt the notary by on of the caſe.

here a bill being left with a merchant to accept, and loſes or miſlays the bill, the party may inſiſt upon a e from the merchant for payment, according to the e limited in the bill of exchange; and, if he refuſes, proteſts muſt be made thereupon, one for non-actance, and the other for non-payment; as alſo, if a e is given for payment of the money, and a failure pens, in that caſe there muſt be a proteſt for non-payt of the note.

poſſeſſor of any bill of exchange, by any accident s it, he is immediately to cauſe intimation to be made notary-public before witneſſes, that the bill is loſt, or aid; requiring that payment be not made of the ſame ny perſon, without his privity. Alſo, if any bill of ange drawn in, or dated at or from any place in at Britain, ſhould be loſt, or miſcarry, within the limited for payment thereof, the drawer muſt give her bill of the ſame tenor, upon ſecurity being given ndemniſation if the bill ſhould be recovered again.

ording to the laws and cuſtoms of France, if a bill of exchange is proteſted, no exchange ſhall be due by the drawer, but for the place where the remittance was made, and not for the other places; the bearer being always to have his recourſe to the indorſers for payment of the re-exchange to the places it has been negotiated by their order; unleſs the power of negotiating, given by the bill, be indefinite, and in general for every place.

A foreign bill of exchange, let it be drawn for what ſum ſoever, if not accepted and paid, muſt be proteſted, in order to recover the ſame from the drawer: and if the drawer, or acceptor, fail before the bill becomes due, the poſſeſſor may claim a dividend of both their eſtates; and if that ſhould not be ſufficient to pay him the whole ſum, he may come upon any one of the indorſers. But an inland bill of exchange, or promiſſory note, has no occaſion to be proteſted, unleſs the value amounts to 20 l. or upwards: and though for a foreign bill of exchange, the acceptor ſhould not be indulged above one poſt; yet, for an inland bill, the acceptor may be indulged fourteen days before proteſted.

According to the law of the Britiſh plantations, if a perſon draws a bill of exchange upon any merchant in England, without having any effects in his hands; and the bill is proteſted, and ſent back; the drawer of the ſame, if required, will be obliged to pay or allow 20 *per cent.* together with all coſts, charges, and intereſt.

Inland bills were never uſed to be proteſted until an act made for that purpoſe in the 10th year of King William III. whereby it was enacted, "That the value ſhould be mentioned to be received: the money to be payable at a limited time: the acceptance to be in the hand-writing of the acceptor: the proteſt not to be made until three days after the bill is payable; and to be returned to the drawer within fourteen days after proteſt is made. But this act was not extended to bills under 5 l. See *Proteſt*, *Notary*, and *Note*.

EXCHANGE is ſaid alſo of the profit of a banker, or trader, in a certain ſum, for which he draws a bill of exchange payable in ſome place, and by another perſon, both for the intereſt of his money, and the fees of his negotiation. This profit is never equal, being ſometimes 2, 3, 4, or 10 and 15 *per cent.* purſuant to the different alloy of the ſpecie, the plenty of money, or the greater, or leſs ſcarcity of bills of exchange upon certain places. It is this kind of change which is uſually called real exchange; and by ſome mercantile, or mixt: the price whereof is regulated according to the currency of the place where the bill is drawn.

EXCHANGE is likewiſe ſaid of what is given for the changing of one coin for another; and ſignifies ſometimes the ſmall money which is given for gold and ſilver.

EXCHANGE, is ſaid alſo of the profit of the money borrowed, or lent, among merchants, upon the footing of ſo much *per cent.* for a month; as half *per cent.* for a month.

EXCHANGE, is ſaid ſometimes of the agio, or profit for advance money in commerce for ſome perſon; and is often likewiſe taken for the agio of bank, which conſtitutes the difference between bank and current money.

EXCHANGE likewiſe denotes a public place, in moſt conſiderable cities, wherein the merchants, negotiants, agents, bankers, brokers, interpreters, and other perſons concerned in commerce meet, on certain days, and at certain hours, to confer, and treat together of matters relating to exchanges, remittances, payments, adventures, aſſurances, freightments, and other mercantile negotiations both by ſea and land: and, even in the time of the antient Romans, there were places for the merchants to meet in moſt of the conſiderable cities of the empire.

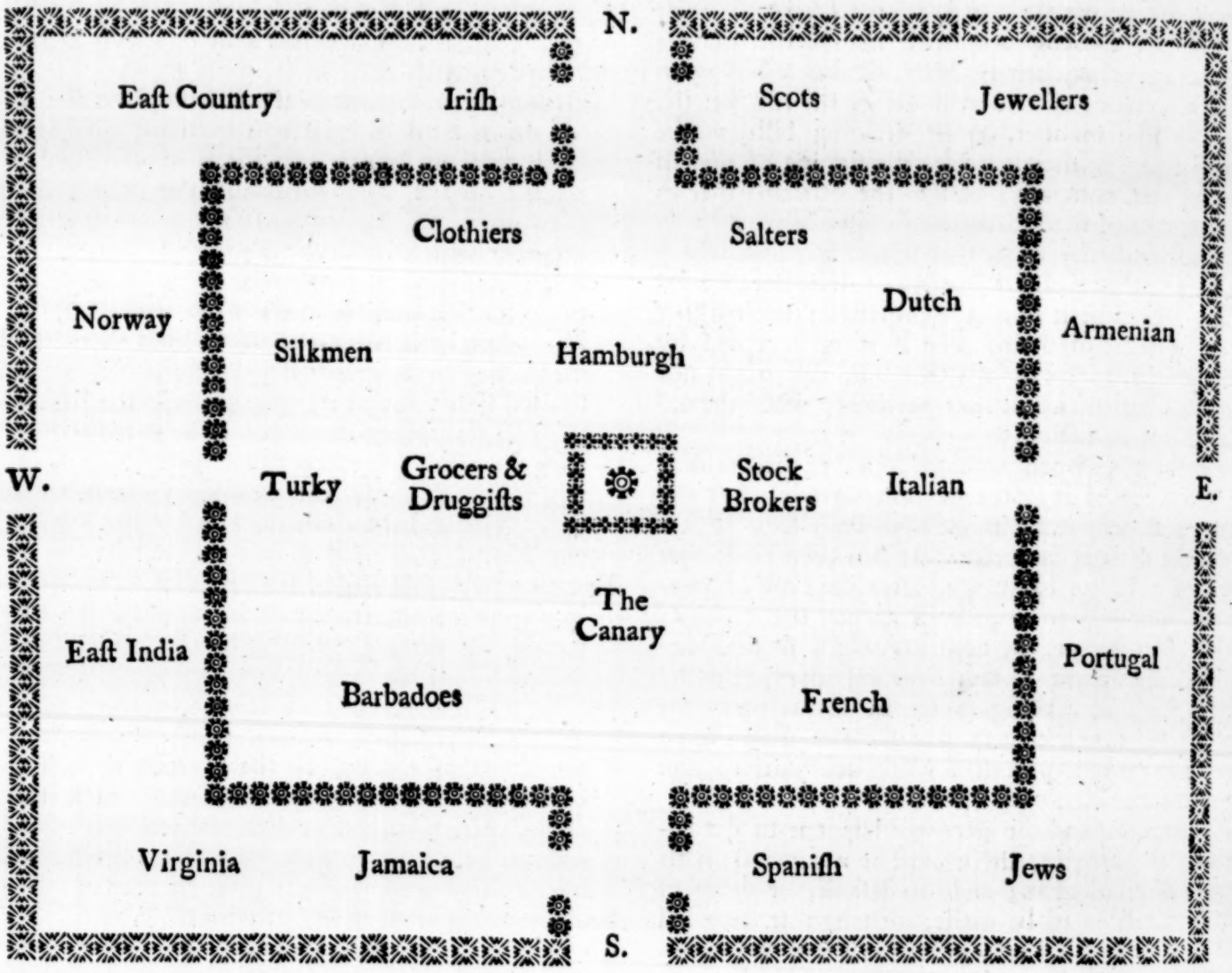
In Flanders, Holland, and ſeveral cities of France, theſe places are called *burſes*; at Paris and Lyons *places du change*; and in the hans towns, *colleges of merchants*. The moſt conſiderable exchanges in Europe, are thoſe of London and Amſterdam: but that of Antwerp was little inferior to either of them, till the port of this city was rendered impracticable by the Hollanders, to bring the commerce thereof to themſelves: and there has lately been erected a magnificent exchange at Briſtol.

The exchange of London was firſt built in the year 1566, at the charge of Sir Thomas Greſham; and in a ſolemn manner, by herald with ſound of trumpet, in preſence of Queen Elizabeth, proclaimed the *Royal Exchange*,

where the merchants, who before that time met in Lombard-ſtreet, afterwards aſſembled. It was built of brick, yet then eſteemed the moſt ſplendid burſe in Europe: it was burnt down in the great fire of London; but ſoon raiſed again in a ſtill more magnificent manner, the expence thereof amounting to 58,962 l. the charge of building; and 7,017 l. 11 s. for a piece of ground purchaſed for enlarging the ſame; one half of this ſum being diſburſed by the chamber of London, and the other by the company of mercers; who, to reimburſe themſelves, let to hire 190 ſhops above ſtairs, at 20 l. each; which, with other ſhops, and profits, on the ground, formerly yielded a yearly rent of above 4000 l. yet the ground it ſtands on does not exceed three quarters of an acre; whence it was obſerved, at that time, to be much the richeſt ſpot of ground in the world: but theſe ſhops, which were once ſtored with the moſt valuable and choiceſt ſorts of merchandize, and were remarkable for their great trade, are now forſaken.

This royal exchange is built quadrangular, with walks around, wherein the merchants of the reſpective countries aſſociate themſelves, by whoſe countries, or commerce, they are denominated. In the middle of the area, or court, is a fine marble ſtatue of King Charles II. in the habit of a Roman Cæſar, which was erected by the ſociety of merchant-adventurers; and, in niches round the ſide of the quadrangle, are ranged the ſtatues of the ſeveral kings and queens ſince the Norman conqueſt.

The following is a plan of the ſeveral walks frequented by the merchants on the Royal Exchange.



And this is the inſcription on the South-ſide of the pedeſtal on which the ſtatue of King Charles II. is erected.

Carolo II. Cæſari Britannico, patriæ patri, regum optimo, clementiſſimo, auguſtiſſimo, generis humani deliciis, utriuſque fortunæ victori, pacis Europæ arbitro, marium domino, et vindici. Societas mercatorum adventur. Angliæ (quæ per CCCC jam prope annos regia benignitate floret) fidei intemeratæ, et gratitudinis eternæ hoc teſtimonium poſuit, anno ſalutis humanæ, MDCLXXXIV.

To
CHARLES II.
The
Britannic Cæſar, the Father of his country,
The
Beſt, moſt Clement, moſt Auguſt of Kings,
The Delight of Mankind,
Superior to
Adverſe and proſperous Fortune,
The
Umpire of the peace of Europe,
The Lord and Maſter
Of the Seas, and Ocean,
The
Society of Engliſh Merchant-adventurers, which for almoſt
CCCC years has flouriſhed under
Royal Protection,
Has exhibited this Teſtimony
Of
Unviolated Faith, and eternal Gratitude,
In the year of our Lord MDCLXXXIV.

The exchange at Briſtol was erected by a ſubſcription among the merchants and citizens, and the firſt ſtone was laid for the foundation on the 10th of March 17[illegible] under which were put ſeveral pieces of gold and ſilver coin of King Geo. II. and on it were engraved the following words:

Regnante GEORGIO II.
PIO, FELICI, AUGUSTO,
LIBERTATIS
ET
REI MERCATORIÆ
Domi Foriſque
VINDICE,
Primarium Lapidem hujuſce Ædificii,
Suffragio Civium, & Ære publico extructi,
POSUIT
HENRICUS COMBE, Prætor,
A. C. MDCCXL.

During the Reign of George II.
Pious, Happy, Auguſt,
Both at Home and Abroad,
The Protector
Of
Liberty and Commerce,
The Foundation of this Edifice,
Erected at the Requeſt and Expence of the Citizens,
Was laid by
Henry Combe, Mayor,
In the year of Chriſt 1740.

Arbitration of EXCHANGE, is a combination, or aſſemblage, made of ſeveral exchanges, to know what place is moſt advantageous for draughts and remittances.

Mr. Ricard ſays, that arbitration is the negotiation of a ſum in exchange, one or ſeveral times reiterated; for which a banker does not determine himſelf, till he has examined, by ſeveral rules, after what manner it will turn beſt to his account.

M. de Mondoteguy defines arbitrage of exchange, a mutual permutation among bankers of their bills of exchange upon different towns, at the price and currency of the ſtipulated exchange. Theſe two definitions are in effect much the ſame; and the latter may be properly held as a text, to which the former ſerves as an explanation.

Bill of EXCHANGE, is a ſhort note, or writing, ordering the payment of a ſum of money in one place, to ſome perſon aſſigned by the drawer, or remitter, in conſideration of the like value paid to him in another place; and in theſe bills of exchange the whole eſtate and effects of merchants uſually conſiſt, of which the ſkilful negotiator makes a conſiderable profit.

Bills of exchange were unknown in the ancient Roman commerce, as well as juriſprudence; and, according to the common opinion, they are the invention of the Jews, who, being baniſhed France, for ſome enormous crimes charged on them, retired into Lombardy, about the twelfth century, and found means, by the aſſiſtance of merchants and travellers, to withdraw their effects, which they had lodged in the hands of friends, by ſecret letters and bills conceived in ſhort preciſe terms, like the modern bills of exchange. The faction of the Gibellins, being expelled Italy by the Guelphs, retired to Amſterdam, and uſed the ſame means, for the recovery of their effects in Italy, as the Jews had done: from whence the Dutch merchants took the hint of negotiating bills of exchange, and ſoon ſpread the practice throughout all Europe. The ſame Gibellins are ſaid to be the inventors of the re-change, on account of damages and intereſts, when bills of exchange, which they called *polizza di cambio*, are not paid, but returned on proteſt. See *Re-exchange*.

The King's EXCHANGE, is the place appointed by the King for exchange of plate, or bullion, for the King's coin; of which there were formerly ſeveral places in England, but now there is only that of the Tower of London, joined with the mint. See *Coinage*.

EXCHANGE-*brokers*, and *Agents of Exchange*, are perſons who make it their buſineſs to know the alteration of the courſe of exchange: their fees being 2 s. for 100 l. ſterling; though of late the humour of gaining, and dealing in ſtocks, has ſo prodigiouſly increaſed the number of perſons who act as brokers, that their buſineſs, and their pay is very uncertain. See *Broker*.

EXCHANGERS, are thoſe who return money beyond ſea, by bills of exchange, called antiently excombiators, and ſince remitters.

EXCHEQUER, is a term formerly much uſed in Normandy; whence it paſſed into England, where there are two exchequers eſtabliſhed in Weſtminſter; one called the court of exchequer, and the other the lower exchequer. The court of exchequer is properly a court of judicature, where cauſes regarding the treaſury and the King's revenues are demanded: and the lower exchequer, called alſo the receipt of the exchequer, is under the direction of the Lord High Treaſurer, or five commiſſioners, nominated by the King, and called Lords of the Treaſury, who have each of them a ſalary of 1600 l. a year.

The other officers of the exchequer receipt, are the chancellor and auditor; chief clerk, clerk of the debentures, clerk of the iſſues, and four meſſengers; two pay-maſters of the bill-office; two comptrollers, with their chief clerk, and two under-clerks; firſt clerk of the firſt annuity office, with five under-clerks; four clerks of the ſecond annuity-office, and two porters; four clerks of the third annuity-office; uſher of the exchequer, his deputy, and clerk, with four clerks of the new pells; chief clerk of the old pells, his deputy and ſix clerks; two chamberlains of the tally-court, their two deputies, ſix clerks, and two tall-joiners; the firſt teller, his deputy, and three clerks; the ſecond teller, his deputy, and three clerks; the third teller, his deputy, and three clerks; the fourth teller, his deputy, and three clerks; with three porters to the four tellers; ſix commiſſioners of the tax-office, their ſecretary, ſolicitor, aſſiſtant-ſecretary, four clerks, a meſſenger, houſe-keeper, comptroller of the ſurveyors, eight general ſurveyors for England, and two for Wales; and 162 ſurveyors of the counties; two auditors of the impreſt, each with his deputy and five clerks. See *Treaſury*.

When the funds of the treaſury are deficient, the commiſſioners are authorized to give ſuch bills as are negotiated in the following manner.

When there is a ſufficiency of funds in the treaſury to make payments, the lords of the treaſury publiſh the payment of the bills at a certain time, as from 10 l. ſterling to 50 l. ſterling, and ſo of the other funds, according to what money they have; when thoſe who have ſuch bills bring them to the treaſury, and receive the principal, with the intereſt.

But as it is not always known when there are funds in the exchequer, it is uſual with thoſe who have theſe bills to negotiate them at a greater or leſs loſs, according as they have an occaſion for their funds.

Theſe bills regard directly the credit of the King; and it is the buſineſs of the lords of the treaſury to circulate and animate them, when the exchequer ſeems to be ſo low as to give them little or no currency.

The immenſe ſubſidies which the Engliſh nation furniſhed King William and Queen Anne, during the long wars between France and England, were partly employed for circulating the exchequer bills, then fallen into much diſcredit; but they are now perfectly reſtored to their uſual credit.

By the ſtatute of the 8th and 9th of William III. it was enacted, That when any money ſhould be brought into the receipt of the exchequer, the teller, as ſoon as the officers belonging to the tally-court ſhould attend, ſhould receive the ſaid money; and after weighing the ſame, and making entry thereof, ſhould throw down bills, written upon parchment and ſigned, into the tally-court; whereby a tally might be duly levied according to the nature of the payment; and ſuch teller, his clerk or ſubſtitute, ſhould not for ſuch money give a note importing a depoſitum or other private note or ſecurity, to prevent the due charging thereof in the exchequer. That the chamberlains, or deputy chamberlains, and ſuch other officers, clerks, and deputies, as belong to the tally-court, ſhould daily, except Sundays and holydays, conſtantly attend, at leaſt from eight o'clock to one from Lady-day to Michaelmas, and from nine to one from Michaelmas to Lady-day, yearly, unleſs they are ſick, or have leave from the commiſſioners of the treaſury, or under-treaſurer of the exchequer; in which caſe the room ſhould be ſufficiently ſupplied as accuſtomed, upon pain to anſwer to the King, or party that ſhould ſuffer by reaſon of ſuch abſence, double damages and full coſts. And the auditors of the receipt, writer of tallies, clerk of the pells, the four tellers, and other officers of the receipt, ſhould by themſelves, or their deputies, give attendance in their places, under the like penalties of double damages and full coſts. That the firſt clerk in the office of the auditor of receipt, the clerk of the pells, and the four tellers, ſhould be ſworn for the due performance of all matters, to be by them performed in the ſaid offices; the oath to be adminiſtred by the commiſſioner of the treaſury, or under-treaſurer of the exchequer, or by the barons, or any of them. That none of the monies which ſhould be in the receipt of the exchequer, ſhould be then iſſued, but in purſuance of ſome grant under the great ſeal, or under the privy-ſeal, or purſuant to ſome act of parliament. That tables ſhould be ſet up, at the door of the auditor of receipt, ſhewing how far the officers there have proceeded in the re-payment of loans upon the credit of revenues; and how far the monies paid in by the receivers extend, to charge principal and intereſt upon the ſaid taxes. That all the money in the receipt ſhould be kept in cheſts, under three locks and keys; the tellers to keep one, the clerk of the pells one, and the other ſhould be kept by the eldeſt of the two deputy-chamberlains; and that no orders or drafts ſhould be paid the ſame day they were ſent up from the

auditor's office to the clerk of the pells, except for the navy, ordnance, forces, or for money regiſtred. And that the clerk of the pells, and deputy-chamberlains, ſhould every morning, except Sundays and holydays, cauſe the cheſts to be opened in their preſence, and ſo much money to be taken out and left with the tellers, as would ſatisfy the orders ready to be ſatisfied, and the reſt to be locked up again; and every day ſee all the money which was received that day, except what ſhould be paid away, weighed, in the bags, a ticket of the content put in each bag, and ſo ſecured in the cheſts. That the auditor of the receipt, or his chief clerk, ſhould, at leaſt once in 28 days, viſit every teller's caſh; and by numbering the bags, opening ſome of them, and, if he thinks fit, by weighing or telling the money, ſee that the tellers have the remains wherewith he charges them; and, at leaſt once in three months, he ſhould examine the tellers vouchers for the payments which he allows them in his weekly certificates.

By the ſtatute of the 12th of George I. it was enacted, That the commiſſioners of the treaſury ſhould cauſe to be prepared exchequer bills, not exceeding in the whole 500,000 l. ſterling. That the ſaid bills ſhould bear an intereſt of 2 d. *per cent. per diem*, payable to the bearers; but the intereſt ſhould be ſaved on ſuch of the bills as ſhould at any time be in the receipt of the exchequer, or the bonds of any receiver or collector of the taxes. That the bills ſhould be numbered arithmetically, and regiſtered accordingly; ſo that the principal ſums might be paid off in courſe, and the intereſt ſhould be payable every three months; and on every bill ſhould be indorſed the ſum, after which the principal to be contained therein ſhould be paid in courſe; and the bills ſhould be marked with ſuch cheques or counterfoils as the treaſury ſhould direct; and the perſon who was to have the paying of the bills ſhould have one part of the cheques, and the contractors for circulating the bills, the other; and all the parts of the cheques, or counterfoils, ſhould be delivered back into the exchequer, when the bill ſhould be cancelled. That theſe bills ſhould be placed as caſh in the tellers offices; and the tellers ſhould be chargeable with the proportion of the bills ſo placed. That all theſe bills ſhould be charged on the monies that ſhould ariſe by the duties charged on the retailers of beer and ale, and the ſame ſhould be iſſued towards taking in, circulating and diſcharging theſe bills, as the treaſury ſhould think fit.

By the ſtatute of the 7th of George II. it was enacted, That there ſhould be kept in the office of the auditor of the receipt, a regiſter, in which all the money payable upon the act for granting the duties upon ſalt ſhould be entered, and it ſhould be lawful for any perſons to lend to his Majeſty, upon the credit of the ſaid duties, ſums of money, not exceeding in the whole one million, which lenders ſhould have intereſt not exceeding 4 *per cent.* ſo as ſuch loans were allowed by three commiſſioners of the treaſury, the intereſt to be paid every three months, and the money lent ſhould not be aſſeſſed in any tax. And every ſuch lender ſhould have a tally of loan, and an order for repayment; and ſuch orders ſhould be regiſtred in courſe, and all perſons ſhould be paid in courſe. That all perſons to whom money ſhould be due for loans by this act, by aſſignment indorſed on their order, might aſſign ſuch order, or any part thereof; which being notified in the office of the auditor, and an entry made in the regiſtry, ſhould entitle ſuch aſſignee, and ſo *toties quoties*. That the commiſſioners of the treaſury might raiſe the ſaid ſum of one million, or any part thereof, by exchequer-bills.

By the ſtatute of the 8th of George II. it was enacted, That it ſhould be lawful for any perſons to lend to his Majeſty ſums not exceeding 500,000 l. upon credit of the duties upon ſalt, by this act continued; upon orders of loan to be made out, as in the 7th of George II.

By the ſtatute of the 11th of Geo. II. it was enacted, That it ſhould be lawful for any perſons to lend to his Majeſty at the receipt, upon credit of the duties upon malt, by this act granted, ſums not exceeding 750,000 l. at 3 *per cent.* to be ſecured by orders of loan or exchequer-bills. That the ſaid exchequer-bills ſhould be current to all receivers and collectors of the cuſtoms, exciſe, or any revenue, and at the receipt of the exchequer; and ſuch of the bills as ſhould be received at the exchequer, ſhould be locked up as caſh; and all receivers and collectors of the revenue, ſhould out of any money in their hands, pay ſuch of the ſaid bills as ſhould be brought to them; and in caſe any ſuch receiver or collector ſhould neglect to exchange ſuch bills for money, by the ſpace of 24 hours, the perſon demanding the ſame might bring an action of debt, or on the caſe, for the monies due upon ſuch bills, againſt ſuch receiver or collector, having money in his hands. That as any of the bills ſhould be paid or lent into the exchequer, the officers there ſhould cauſe tallies to be levied and delivered to the payers or lenders, as if they had made ſuch payments or loans in ſpecie. That the perſons who ſhould pay any ſuch bills to any receivers, or collectors, or into the exchequer, ſhould, at the time of making ſuch payment, on each bill put their names, and write thereupon in words at length, the day of the month and year, in which they ſo paid, lent, or exchanged ſuch bills; all which the ſaid receivers, or collectors, and alſo the tellers of the exchequer, ſhould take care to ſee done. That the bills might be re-iſſued; and the teller, from whoſe office ſuch bills ſhould be re-iſſued, ſhould indorſe on the ſame, in words at length, the day of the month and year in which the ſame were ſo re-iſſued; and alſo on what account the ſame were laſt received in the exchequer, and ſign the ſame, from which time the intereſt of the ſaid bills ſhould revive. That the ſame bills ſhould be ſo re-iſſued for the principal money contained therein, and for ſo much money as was due thereon, and allowed by the teller, when ſuch bills were laſt paid into the exchequer. That in caſe any of the exchequer-bills aforeſaid ſhould be filled up by indorſement, or ſhould by accident be defaced, it ſhould be lawful for the commiſſioners of the treaſury to cauſe new bills to be made forth at the receipt of exchequer, in lieu of ſuch bills filled up or defaced; and ſuch bills ſhould bear the ſame numbers, dates, and principal ſums, and carry the like intereſt, as the bills cancelled. That it ſhould be lawful for the commiſſioners of the treaſury to cauſe exchequer-bills for large ſums, not exceeding 5000 l. each to be made forth, and to be placed as caſh in the receipt, in lieu of the like value of the principal contained in bills made forth for leſſer ſums. That if any perſon ſhould forge any exchequer-bill made forth by virtue of this act, before the ſame ſhould be paid off and cancelled, or any indorſement thereupon, or tender in payment any ſuch forged bill, or any exchequer bill, with ſuch counterfeit indorſement, or ſhould demand to have ſuch counterfeit bill exchanged for money, knowing the bill or the indorſement thereon to be forged, and with intent to defraud his Majeſty, or any other perſon; ſuch perſon ſo offending, being thereof convicted, ſhould be adjudged a felon without benefit of clergy.

By another ſtatute of the 11th of Geo. II. it was enacted, That it ſhould be lawful for any perſon to lend his Majeſty ſums not exceeding one million, upon credit of the land-tax granted in the year 1738. And, that it ſhould be lawful for any perſons to advance into the receipt of his Majeſty's exchequer ſums not exceeding 500,000 l. for purchaſing annuities at 3 *per cent.* charged upon the ſinking fund till redemption by parliament; or the commiſſioners of the treaſury might raiſe the money, or any part of it, by iſſuing exchequer bills with the uſual directions.

In the year 1750, the ſum of 312,000 l. was due to the proprietors of certain annuities payable at the exchequer; and, as a part of the national debt, was at that time reduced to 3 *per cent.* but as 182,250 l. part of the above-mentioned ſum, remained unſubſcribed for accepting this reduction of intereſt, the ſame was paid off by the bank of England, and exchequer-bills iſſued to the company for the ſame, charged on the ſinking fund at 3 *per cent. per annum.*

By the ſtatute of the 23d of George II. it was enacted, That towards a further ſupply granted to his Majeſty, the treaſury might contract with any perſons, bodies politic or corporate, to advance into the exchequer any ſum not exceeding 176,893 l. 11 s. 7 d. for exchequer bills, to be made forth, as the treaſury ſhould think moſt con-

convenient, for the advantage of the public; and that the ſame ſhould be charged on the ſinking-fund, with intereſt not exceeding 3 l. *per cent. per annum*, to commence from the reſpective times the ſaid ſum ſhould be advanced, and the principal ſums contained in the ſaid bills ſhould be repaid out of ſuch monies of the ſaid fund, as ſhould be applied to the payment of the principal. See *Bank*, National *Debt*, *Annuity*, and *Lottery*.

The exchequer had its name from the party-coloured or chequered-cloth which covered the board. It is the great check upon all the others offices relating to the public revenue: all the receipts and payments which paſs through the various channels of the revenue ultimately terminate here; from whence the monies are iſſued, and applied to the ſeveral articles to which they are appropriated by the authority of parliament. See *Revenue* and *Treaſury*.

EXCISE. A duty, or impoſition, charged on beer, ale, cyder, and other malt-liquors made for ſale, within the kingdom of England, Wales, and town of Berwick upon Tweed; but all foreign wines are exempted from this duty, which was firſt ſettled in Great Britain by the parliament in 1643, for carrying on a war againſt the King, which was afterwards granted to King Charles II. by act of parliament in the year 1660, during the life of that prince; but it has been ſince continued and augmented by diverſe parliaments, under the ſeveral ſucceeding princes, and extended to Scotland.

The exciſe is one of the moſt conſiderable branches of the revenue belonging to his Britannic Majeſty; which was formerly farmed out, but is now managed for the King by nine commiſſioners, who ſit in the general exciſe-office in the Old Jury, within the city of London; receive the whole product of the exciſe of beer, ale, and other liquors; as alſo of malt, and other things collected all over England; and pay it into the exchequer. Their ſalary is 1000 l. *per annum* each; and they are obliged upon oath to take no fee or reward but from the King only: they determine every thing belonging to this branch of revenue; but from the whole number of commiſſioners there lies an appeal to five others, called commiſſioners of appeals, who have each a ſalary of 200 l. a year.

The number of officers employed in the exciſe is very great: for, beſides the commiſſioners, and their ſubordinate officers, as regiſters, meſſengers, and others, there are an auditor of the exciſe, with his clerks; a comptroller, with his clerks; a regiſter, ſecretary, ſollicitor, caſhier, teller, clerk of ſecurities, houſe-keeper, door-keeper; an accomptant for the impreſt money, general gauger, general accomptants, with their aſſiſtants; meſſengers; a clerk for ſtationary wares; examiners; clerks for ſupervisor's diaries, accomptants, examiners, and other officers for the London-diſtillery, vinegar, cyder, and other things; alſo examiners for malt, general and other ſurveyors of the London brewery, with aſſiſtants, and other officers, to the number of 100; general, and other ſurveyors of the London diſtillery, with other officers, to the number of 40; a collector and ſurveyor of imported liquors; with a land-ſurveyor at the cuſtom-houſe belonging to the ſeveral ports. Beſides which, there are in the country 50 collectors, and 150 ſupervisors, with a great number of inferior officers, called gaugers, or exciſe-men, which may make the number of officers employed in this revenue between 3 and 4000; whoſe reſpective annual ſalaries muſt be very conſiderable, ſince thoſe in the general exciſe office of London amount to 23,650 l. but the following duties are all thoſe which belong to the exciſe.

1. The temporary exciſe, firſt introduced during the uſurpation in the reign of King Charles I. and after the reſtoration firſt granted to King Charles II. during his life; from whoſe death it has been continued to his preſent Majeſty for life; and, as it makes a part of the civil liſt revenue, it will probably be continued during the life of every future King or Queen of Great Britain; being 15 d. *per* barrel, upon every barrel of beer or ale above 6 s. the barrel; and 3 d. *per* barrel for every barrel of 6 s. or under, brewed for retail; 15 d. for every hogſhead of cyder or perry ſold by retail; 1 d. for every gallon of ſtrong water, or aqua vitæ, &c.

2. The hereditary exciſe, granted to King Charles II. his heirs and ſucceſſors for ever, in recompence for the profits of the court of wards and purveyance, then aboliſhed by act of parliament; being the very ſame with the temporary exciſe; whereby the poor tradeſmen, manufacturers, and labourers, and in a great meaſure they alone, were loaded with a tax, in recompence for what never could have affected any but the rich and great. Theſe two exciſes, according to Dr. Davenant, produced 666,383 l. a year, clear of all expences.

3. A new exciſe granted in 1692, for 96 years; being for every barrel of beer or ale above 6 s the barrel 9 d and for every barrel of 6 s. or under, 3 d. for every hogſhead of cyder or perry, &c. 1 s. 3 d which duty was mortgaged, as a ſecurity for the payment of 10 *per cent. per ann.* until the year 1700, and 7 l. *per cent.* afterwards, with the benefit of ſurvivorſhip, for the lives of the nominees; or 14 *per cent. per annum* for a ſingle life, to the contributors towards advancing the ſum of one million to the government: and in 1704 it was continued for 15 years longer; ſo that it will not expire till the year 1803.

4. A ſecond new exciſe granted in 1693, until 1713; but, in 1705 continued to the year 1808; being for beer or ale the ſame with the firſt new exciſe; and 1 s. *per* hogſhead for cyder, perry, &c.

5. A third new exciſe, granted in 1693 for ever, being the very ſame with the ſecond new exciſe.

6. An exciſe upon ſalt, granted in 1693, and ſoon afterwards continued for ever; being 3 half pence *per* gallon upon all home-made ſalt, or rock-ſalt; out of which three laſt duties, the yearly ſum of 140,000 l. was eſtabliſhed as a fund for borrowing a million by way of lottery, at 10 l. a ticket; being the firſt time we fell into that Dutch cuſtom of raiſing money by lottery, which is the bane of induſtry, frugality, and virtue: another yearly ſum of 140,000 l. was alſo charged on theſe duties for borrowing 1,500,000 l. of which 100,000 l. was payable to the bank of England for a loan of 1,200,000 l. at 8 *per cent.* and the other 40,000 l. was applied to the payment of annuities to the contributors for advancing 300,000 l. for the purchaſe of annuities for lives, at the rate of 14 *per cent.* for one life, 12 *per cent.* for two lives, and 10 *per cent.* for three lives.

7. A ſecond exciſe upon ſalt, granted in 1697 for ever; being $3\frac{1}{2}$ d. *per* gallon for all home-made ſalt, or rock-ſalt; which was mortgaged to the Eaſt India company.

8. An exciſe upon malt, granted in 1697, being 6 d. the buſhel on all malt made for ſale, or not for ſale; and over and above former duties, 10 s. a barrel for mum, 12 s. for ſweets, and for cyder and perry 4 s. the hogſhead, all if made for ſale. This duty was afterwards continued to the year 1715; and has ſince been eſtabliſhed as an annual perpetual tax, called the malt tax, which brings in about 750,000 l. a year; and upon the credit of this fund 1,400,000 l. was raiſed by way of lottery, at a farthing a day intereſt for every 10 l. advanced, except the fortunate tickets, which were to bear no intereſt.

9. An exciſe on ſweets, granted in 1698 until 1701, and afterwards continued to the 25th of March 1808, being an additional duty of 36 s. the barrel upon all ſweets made for ſale.

10. An exciſe on low wines or ſpirits, granted by the ſecond parliament of William and Mary; and afterwards continued to 23d June 1807, being an additional exciſe of 6 d. a gallon, upon ſpirits drawn from foreign materials, and 1 d. on thoſe drawn from Engliſh materials.

11. A fourth new exciſe upon home-made liquors, at firſt granted in 1709, from Lady-day 1710 to Lady day 1742, being an additional exciſe of 3 d. upon every barrel of beer or ale brewed for ſale above 6 s. the barrel, and 1 d. for every barrel at 6 s. or under; 5 d. for every hogſhead of cyder and perry, and 1 d. for every gallon of ſtrong waters or aqua vitæ; which, with other duties, was eſtabliſhed for paying 81,000 l. yearly, in diſcharge of 900,000 l. raiſed by annuities at 9 *per cent.* but this duty was not laid upon any ſuch liquors imported.

12. An exciſe on candles, granted in 1709, and afterwards continued for ever, being a duty of 4 d. the pound on wax, and a halfpenny the pound on tallow candles, made in Great Britain for ſale or not for ſale; but makers

for their own uſe might compound at 1 s. a head for every perſon in their family. This tax ſubjected a new and very numerous body of people to the laws of exciſe, and laid a moſt heavy burden upon all the Britiſh manufactures: upon which, with the tax on all ſums received with clerks and apprentices, 500,000 l. was borrowed at 6 *per cent.*

13. An additional exciſe on candles, granted from 1711 to 1743, and afterwards made perpetual; being an additional duty, the ſame with the former in every reſpect: which, with other duties, was a fund for paying 135,000 l. a year, the intereſt of 1,500,000 l. raiſed by way of lottery at 10 l. a ticket: but it was afterwards made part of the South Sea fund for raiſing the yearly ſum of 568,279 l. 10 s.

14. An exciſe upon hides and ſkins tanned, &c. in Great Britain, granted from 1711 to 1743, being an exciſe of ſeventeen different kinds, upon ſo many different ſorts of hides and ſkins particularly named, and upon all others not named 15 *per cent.* of their value; which, with the duty upon paper, vellum, and parchment, was put under the management of commiſſioners and officers appointed for the purpoſe, with the ſame power as commiſſioners of exciſe; but by the 3d of George I. theſe duties were made perpetual, and part of the general fund.

15. An exciſe on home-made vellum and parchment, granted for the ſame time as N° 14, being 1 s. the dozen on vellum, and 6 d. the dozen on parchment.

16. An exciſe on hops of home growth, granted from 1711 to 1715, being 1 d. the pound; upon which 180,000 l. was borrowed at 6 *per cent.* but by 1ſt George I. was made perpetual, and part of the aggregate fund; whereby many country farmers, and all dealers in hops, were brought under the laws of exciſe.

17. An exciſe on paper, paſte-boards, mild-boards, and ſcale-boards, granted from 1712 to 1744, being a duty of eleven different kinds on ſo many different ſorts of paper particularly named, made in Great Britain; on paſte-boards, &c. 3 s. the hundred weight; and on all ſorts of paper not named, 12 l. *per cent.* of their value.

18. An exciſe on ſoap, granted for the ſame time as N° 17, being 1 d. the pound on all ſoap made in Great Britain.

19. An exciſe upon printed ſilks, calicoes, linens, and ſtuffs, made in Great Britain, and printed, painted, ſtained, or dyed here; granted for the ſame time as N° 17, being a duty of 3 d. on ſilks and calicoes, and 1 ½ d. on linens and ſtuffs the yard ſquare; excepting ſilk handkerchiefs and calicoes, linens and fuſtians, dyed of one colour, and ſtuffs made of woollen, or the greateſt part in value of woollen; which, with N° 17 and 18, and ſeveral other duties, was made perpetual by the 3d of George I. and made a part of the general fund for paying annuities: whereby all the ſoap-boilers, paper-makers, and calicoe-printers, were ſubjected to the laws of exciſe; while the crown was empowered to appoint no leſs than three new ſetts of commiſſioners, one for the exciſe on home-made ſoap, one for that on home-made paper, and one for that on home-made calicoes, with ſuch ſubordinate officers as they might think neceſſary for each board and each collection.

20. An additional exciſe on hides and ſkins, &c. of Great Britain, granted from 1712 to 1744, being an additional duty of ſixteen different kinds upon ſo many different ſorts of hides and ſkins, particularly named, and on all others not named 15 *per cent.* of their value; which, by the 3d of George I. was made perpetual, and made a part of the general fund for paying annuities.

21. An additional exciſe on home made vellum and parchment, granted for the ſame time, and perpetuated in the ſame manner as N° 20, being an additional duty of 2 s. the dozen on vellum, and 1 s. the dozen on parchment.

22. An exciſe on ſtarch made in Great Britain, granted and perpetuated as N° 21, being a duty of 1 d. the pound.

23. An exciſe on gilt and ſilver wire made in Great Britain, granted and perpetuated as N° 21, being 8 d. an ounce on gilt-wire, and 6 d. an ounce on ſilver-wire. Thus ſtarch-makers for ſale, or not for ſale; and wire-drawers, were ſubjected to the laws of exciſe, and to two new ſetts of commiſſioners and officers to be appointed by the crown; one for levying this exciſe upon ſtarch, and the other for that on wire.

24. An additional exciſe on paper, paſte-boards, &c. granted from 1714 to 1746, being an additional duty of eleven different kinds on ſo many different ſorts of home-made paper particularly named; on paſte-board, &c. 1 s. 6 d. the hundred weight; on all ſorts of paper not named 6 *per cent.* of their value; and on painted paper for hangings a halfpenny the yard ſquare.

25. An additional exciſe on home-made ſoap, granted for the ſame time as N° 24, being an additional duty of a half-penny the pound.

26. An additional exciſe on home-made ſtarch, granted for the ſame time as N° 24, being 1 d. the pound.

27. An additional exciſe on printed ſilks, calicoes, &c. granted for the ſame time as N° 24, being an additional duty of 6 d. *per* yard of half yard broad ſilks; 1 d. *per* yard ſquare of ſilk handkerchiefs; 3 d. *per* yard ſquare of calicoes; and 1 ½ d. *per* yard ſquare of linens and ſtuffs; except as before in N° 19. All which four laſt mentioned duties, with ſome others, were appropriated towards eſtabliſhing a yearly fund of 105,000 l. for paying off 1,875,000 l. with intereſt at 4 *per cent.* raiſed by lottery at 10 l. a ticket; which were made perpetual by the 6th of Geo. I. in order to be ſubſcribed into the South Sea ſtock; and, by the ſecond of George II. the ſurplus was charged with annuities payable to the bank.

28. An exciſe on home-made plate, granted in 1719 for ever, being 6 d. an ounce troy; on which 312,000 l. was borrowed at 4 *per cent.* with the ſinking fund as a collateral ſecurity; whereby the crown was empowered to appoint a new ſett of commiſſioners and officers, who were to have ſuch ſalaries as the treaſury ſhould think fit to allow, and were armed with all the powers of exciſe.

29. The exciſe on tea, granted in 1720 for ever, whereby ſome of the former duties payable on the importation of coffee, tea, cocoa-nuts, chocolate, and cocoa paſte, were aboliſhed; and in lieu of theſe, the inland duties, or exciſes following were impoſed; on all coffee to be ſold 2 s. the pound; on all tea to be ſold 4 s. the pound; and on all chocolate to be made and ſold 1 s. 6 d. the pound; but chocolate ready made, or cocoa-paſte, were prohibited to be imported: however, theſe goods were ſtill liable to the 1ſt, 10th, 16th, 23d, and 25th branches of the cuſtoms, beſides this exciſe, which might increaſe the revenue; but the merchants and retailers were thereby made liable to more and greater vexations than they were ever before.

30. The exciſe on ſpirituous liquors, granted in 1743 for ever, whereby the high prohibitory duties on ſpirituous liquors, and upon licences for retailing the ſame, were all aboliſhed, and ſuch moderate duties impoſed as might raiſe a conſiderable revenue, without leſſening the conſumption, or even the immoderate uſe of ſuch liquors.

31. The exciſe on home-made glaſs, granted in 1745 for ever, being a tax upon all ſorts of glaſs made within Great Britain; whereby the glaſs-makers were ſubjected to the laws of exciſe, and a great diſcouragement was laid upon the manufacturing of any glaſs for exportation.

32. The additional duty on ſpirituous liquors, granted in 1745 for ever, being a new tax on all ſpirituous liquors made, extracted, or manufactured in Great Britain.

All theſe duties of exciſe are to be levied and collected by the commiſſioners and the ſubordinate officers of exciſe; they are alſo regulated by particular laws which ſubject thoſe liable to them to many hardſhips, inconveniencies, and dangers: beſides, as the commiſſioners have a power to mitigate the penalties incurred, it gives them almoſt an arbitrary power over the dealers in exciſeable commodities, who are always in danger of incurring ſome of the penalties by the fault or fraud of their ſervants, and in ſuch caſes depend upon the arbitrary will of the commiſſioners for a pardon, under the name of a mitigation, which muſt make them more ſubmiſſive in their way of voting at elections, than any Briton ought to be. To theſe branches of exciſe, an attempt was lately made to add the traders in tobacco: but that ſcheme has not been yet carried into execution.

The exciſe of liquors imported being under the direction of the commiſſioners of exciſe, it is uſual for them, by

ir deputation, to empower the collector and surveyor the customs in each out-port, to levy, collect, and nage it on their behalf, in conjunction with their own rt-gauger: and therefore, at the time of the entry of y exciseable liquors for the customs, the collector of t revenue must likewise demand and receive the duty reon; for which purpose a bill must be drawn from the stom-entry, dated and numbered in course, beginning new number at each quarter-day. A bill of entry be- formed, and the excise-duty received, the collector the customs must, besides the customhouse-warrant, ant a distinct warrant to the proper officers, who are to amine, gauge, and deliver such imported liquors on behalf of the commissioners of excise, as a voucher to m for so doing. This warrant must be delivered to officers to whom directed, who are to be very care- in examining, gauging, and discharging the liquors erein specified; demeaning themselves in all respects re- ing thereto, as is practised by the officers of the cus- ms in discharge of the like goods; and the bill of try from whence the warrant was drawn must be pre- rved upon a file, that it may be daily entered in a pro- r book kept for that purpose.

nd in consideration of the trouble in levying, collect- g, and accounting for this duty, the commissioners of cise make the following allowances out of the duties ceived, to the several officers concerned; to the col- ctor, 6 d. in the pound, but not to exceed 40 l. a year: the surveyor, 6 d. in the pound, but not to exceed 0 l. a year; to the gauger, 6 d. in the pound, but not exceed 20 l. a year: which the collector must deduct, nd pay out of the duty by him collected.

n 1689, the whole duty of excise amounted to 694,476 l. s. $5\frac{3}{4}$ d. and the produce of each county was as fol- ws.

	l.	s.	d.
Bedfordshire -	5549	7	3
Berkshire - -	9105	12	$9\frac{1}{2}$
Buckinghamshire -	7261	16	$5\frac{1}{2}$
Cambridgeshire, and Isle of Ely	10442	7	1
Cheshire and Chester	9836	10	$4\frac{1}{2}$
Cornwal - -	10595	12	$3\frac{1}{2}$
Cumberland -	5746	10	4
Derbyshire - -	11960	12	$4\frac{1}{2}$
Devonshire and Exeter	34525	7	11
Dorsetshire and Pool	7561	11	$7\frac{1}{2}$
Durham, Northumberland, and Berwick -	21216	8	3
Essex - -	21676	4	5
Gloucestershire and Gloucester	14704	8	3
Hampshire -	11160	18	$7\frac{1}{2}$
Herefordshire - -	6256	5	$9\frac{1}{2}$
Hertfordshire -	13264	2	$11\frac{1}{2}$
Huntingdonshire -	4437	7	$4\frac{1}{2}$
Kent - -	24647	15	$10\frac{1}{2}$
Lancashire -	14501	4	$4\frac{1}{2}$
Leicestershire -	8258	18	$9\frac{1}{2}$
Lincolnshire and Lincoln	15949	4	$5\frac{1}{2}$
Northamptonshire -	9845	17	$8\frac{1}{2}$
Nottinghamshire -	5837	10	$4\frac{1}{4}$
Norfolk and Norwich -	26899	11	$6\frac{1}{4}$
Oxfordshire -	11804	9	6
Rutland - -	1435	8	8
Salop - -	9874	9	3
Staffordshire and Litchfield	10927	7	0
Somersetshire and Bristol	31133	9	2
Suffolk - -	19635	9	$8\frac{1}{2}$
Surry and Southwark	34234	1	$10\frac{1}{2}$
Sussex - -	7730	10	$1\frac{1}{2}$
Warwickshire and Coventry	11639	3	10
Westmoreland -	2322	16	1
Wiltshire - -	10679	8	$8\frac{1}{2}$
Worcestershire and Worcester	12793	10	$7\frac{1}{2}$
Yorkshire, York, and Hull	52226	19	8
Wales, North and South	26431	18	4
London, Middlesex, and Westminster	140358	13	2
Grand total -	694476	2	$5\frac{3}{4}$

	l.	s.	d.
Total of the eleven home counties, Surry and Southwark, Hertford, Bedford, Cambridge, Kent, Essex, Norfolk, Suffolk, Berks, Bucks, and Oxford -	184520	19	$5\frac{1}{4}$
Total of the rest of England, excluding London, Westminster, and Middlesex -	369596	9	$10\frac{1}{2}$

Thus it appears, that the north and west of England, or the counties that lie towards the north and west, are two thirds of England, excluding London, Westminster, and Middlesex; for, in the excise on beer and ale, the north and west, compared with the eleven home counties, are as 554,117 l. is to 184,520 l. which is full 2-3ds. And in the excise on ale and beer, London, Westminster, and Middlesex, compared with the rest of England, are as 140,358 l. is to 694,476 l. which is about 1-5th; though these two cities and county are not a fifth of the kingdom, but about a tenth: because in London almost all persons pay excise for their drink, which is otherwise in the country; though, in the consumption of malt, London, Westminster, and Middlesex, will be found about a tenth part of the whole.

The excise in the reign of King William III. was as follows.

The whole amount of the excise, from 5th November 1688 to Michaelmas 1691, was 2,429,750 l.; from Michaelmas 1691 to Michaelmas 1692, it was 1,213,510 l. to Michaelmas 1693 it was 904,860 l. to Michaelmas 1694 it was 866,289 l. to Michaelmas 1695 it was 930,752 l. to Michaelmas 1696 it was 917,541 l. to Michaelmas 1697 it was 1,049,979 l. to Michaelmas 1698 it was 1,350,732 l. to Michaelmas 1699 it was 1,411,516 l. to Michaelmas 1700 it was 1,030,220 l. to Michaelmas 1701 it was 986,004 l. and from thence to Ladyday 1702 it was 558,171 l.: so that the total, from the 5th of November 1688 to Ladyday 1702, amounted to 13,649,328 l. which was 352,495 l. more than the customs produced in the same time.

The duty of excise during the reign of Queen Anne was as follows.

From Ladyday to Michaelmas 1702,	854,621 l.
to Michaelmas 1703,	1,745,860
1704,	1,653,632
1705,	1,804,043
1706,	1,679,431
1707,	1,742,076
1708,	1,680,124
1709,	1,568,158
1710,	1,526,622
Total from Ladyday 1702 to Michaelmas 1710 -	14,254,568

Which was 3,570,749 l. more than the customs produced in the same time.

In the year 1726, the duty of excise amounted to 2,677,354 l. which was 1,146,993 l. more than the customs: but it should be observed, that though the malt-tax is given for 750,000 l. it seldom produces above 680,000 l.

Dr. Davenant, who was an advocate for a general excise, says, that the proper commodities to lay excises upon are those which serve merely to luxury, because that way the poor would be least affected: but things of that nature are of little bulk, easily hid, vended by a number of different traders, and require many officers to inspect the making, selling, and retailing of them.

In Holland, they easily gather the duty upon things of luxury, where the people are shut up within a narrow compass,

compaſs, and where the execution of the laws is ſtrict and ſteady: but the Doctor obſerves it would be otherwiſe in England, where the people are diſperſed about in a large country, and where they have been long uſed to a ſlack and unſteady execution of the laws: beſides, in Holland, the laws that ſecure ſuch exciſes to the government are more ſtrict and penal than our conſtitution will bear; and yet a duty upon all the vanities and luxuries of this kingdom may be collected by a far leſs number of officers, and with leſs difficulty, than is commonly imagined.

The commodities with us proper to charge exciſes upon, he ſays, are ſuch as are bulky, not eaſily hid or conveyed away, and where as few travellers as poſſible may be peſtered and vexed with the ſearch and inſpection of the officers, and where the revenue may be ſufficiently ſecured to the King by mild and gentle laws. Such a ſum as is wanted may be levied, and the things of luxury reached, for the yearly charge of about 100,000 l. and by about 1400 officers; caſting England into 800 diſtricts, as it is laid out for inſpecting the victuallers in the duty upon beer and ale, the remaining 600 are ſufficient to take an account of ſuch goods as are made, ſold, and retailed, in great towns and cities; on all which goods the Doctor would have exciſes laid.

But the Doctor alſo remarks, that all taxes whatſoever are in their laſt reſort a charge upon land; and though exciſes will affect land in no degree like taxes that charge it directly; yet exciſes will always lie ſo heavily upon the landed men, as to make them concerned in parliament, to continue ſuch duties no longer than the neceſſity of the war continues.

Doctor Davenant was a very judicious writer; but his zeal for the court, whoſe favourite view under King William was the introduction of a general exciſe, occcaſioned him to aſſert ſuch things as, was he now living, every thing before him would convince him of his miſtakes. Inſtead of exciſing articles of luxury, we have thrown exciſes upon our ſtaple manufactures, and heavily clogged every branch of our trade, which enables other nations to underſel us at foreign markets. Inſtead of 1400 officers, we have double the number; and, inſtead of ſuch exciſes as were laid in the Doctor's time, being taken off after the war, we have ſeen them continually encreaſing to their preſent enormous and dangerous bulk.

So that the commodities now ſubject to this revenue are, malt, beer, ale, mum, cyder, and perry; verjuice, vinegar, metheglin, or mead; and arrack, brandy, rum, ſherbet, and other ſpirituous liquors, imported from abroad; beſides coffee, tea, chocolate, cocoa-nuts, and cocoa-paſte, hides, ſkins, vellom, parchment, candles, ſoap, ſtarch, paper, paſte-board, mill-board, and ſcale-board, made in Great Britain; glaſs, ſilks, calicoes, linens, ſtuffs, ſalt, paper printed, painted, ſtained, or dyed in Great Britain; whereby the following different trades and occupations are affected by this tax: 1. Brewers, diſtillers, inn-keepers, victuallers, coffee-men, vintners; mum, cyder, and perry makers, maltſters, ſweet wine-makers, vinegar makers, and all other perſons making, importing, or dealing in exciſeable liquors. 2. Soap-boilers, druggiſts, grocers, tallow chandlers, ſtarch-makers, perfumers, peruke-makers, barbers, chandlers, and all other perſons concerned in tea, coffee, chocolate, ſtarch, and powder. 3. Hop-planters, tanners, owners of ſalt-pits, leather-ſellers, linen-drapers, paper-makers, paper-ſtainers, calico and linen printers; paſte-board, mill-board, and ſcale-board makers; goldſmiths, ſilver-ſmiths, workers of plate, wire-drawers, refiners of gilt and ſilver wire, card-makers, dice makers, glaſs-makers, and ſeveral other perſons concerned in making or vending theſe commodities.

The exciſe on beer, ale, ſpirituous and other exciſeable liquors, even during a time of war, is computed to amount to 1,100,000 l. *per annum*, and is collected from above 300,000 people. The duty on malt, with the additional duty on mum, cyder, and perry, is taken to amount annually to 750,000 l. which is collected from more hands than the former: and the duty on ſoap, candles, and ſkins, amounts to a conſiderable ſum annually. But the exciſe on ale and beer in Scotland is farmed at only 33,500 l. a year.

By the ſtatute of the 12th of Charles II. it was enacted, That all forfeitures and offences relating to the revenue of exciſe, and committed within the immediate limits of the chief officer in London, ſhould be heard and determined by the commiſſioners of exciſe, or by the commiſſioners for appeals, and regulating of this duty, in caſe of appeal. That all ſuch offences within other places, ſhould be heard and determined by any two juſtices of peace reſiding near the place: but, in caſe of neglect of ſuch juſtices by the ſpace of 14 days after complaint, and notice to the offender, the ſub-commiſſioners ſhould hear and determine; and the party aggrieved by the ſub-commiſſioners might appeal to the next quarter-ſeſſions, whoſe judgment ſhould be final. Which commiſſioners for appeals, commiſſioners for exciſe, juſtices of peace, and ſub commiſſioners, were, upon information, to ſummon the party accuſed; and, upon his appearance, or contempt, to proceed to the examination of the fact; and, upon proof thereof, either by confeſſion of the party, or by oath of one witneſs, to give judgment, and iſſue out warrants for the levying of forfeitures, upon the goods of the offender, and to cauſe ſale to be made, if they ſhould not be redeemed within 14 days; and, for want of diſtreſs, to impriſon the party till ſatisfaction: provided that it ſhould be lawful for the juſtices of peace, commiſſioners for exciſe, or their ſub commiſſioners, to mitigate ſuch forfeiture, ſo as the ſame ſhould not be made leſs than double the duty, beſides coſts of officers, to be allowed by the juſtices or commiſſioners; which forfeitures, after neceſſary charges deducted, ſhould be 3-4ths to the King, and 1-4th to the informer.

By the ſtatute of the 15th of Charles II. it was enacted, That the commiſſioners ſhould depute, under their hands and ſeals, ſuch perſons as they ſhould think neceſſary in each market-town, to be there every market-day, in ſome public place, for receiving the entries and duties of exciſe; which perſon ſhould attend ſuch office on every market-day, and keep the ſame open from nine in the morning until 12 at noon, and from two until five in the afternoon. But in caſe ſuch office ſhould not be ſo kept, the commiſſioners, or other perſons neglecting, ſhould for every market-day forfeit 10 l. the one half to the King, and the other to him that would ſue for the ſame: and ſuch perſon as ſhould come to ſuch market-town to make entry or payment of the duties, who ſhould tender the ſame, and be able to prove ſuch tender by the oath of one witneſs, ſhould not be liable to any penalty for ſuch weekly or monthly entries or payments. That no appeal in cauſe of exciſe ſhould be admitted, until the appellant ſhould have depoſited the ſingle duty in the hands of the commiſſioners, and given ſecurity to the commiſſioners of appeal, or juſtice of peace where ſuch cauſe was to be finally adjudged, for ſuch penalty as was adjudged againſt him: and if, upon the hearing ſuch appeal, the original judgment ſhould be reverſed, the commiſſioners ſhould reſtore as much as ſhould be adjudged to the appellant, and the party originally proſecuting ſhould pay double coſts; but in caſe the firſt judgment ſhould be affirmed, the party appealing ſhould pay the like coſts unto the commiſſioners complained of. That all complaints ariſing between party and party, in order to the payment of the exciſe, ſhould be heard and determined in the proper county, and the juſtices of peace, or any two of them, ſhould meet once in every month, or oftener, to determine ſuch offences. And that no appeal in any cauſe of exciſe within the limits of the chief office of London, ſhould be admitted, unleſs the ſame was brought within two months after the firſt judgment, and notice thereof given or left at the dwelling-houſe of the party; nor ſhould any appeal in any matter of exciſe in any other place be admitted, unleſs the ſame was brought within four months after the firſt judgment, and notice given.

By the ſtatute of the 7th of King William III. it was enacted, That the commiſſioners of exciſe and juſtices of peace, upon any information for any offence againſt the laws of exciſe, might ſummon any perſon, other than the party accuſed, to appear before them, and to give evi-

dence

dence, under forfeiture of 10l. for neglect of appearance, or refuſal to give evidence.

By the ſtatute of the 6th of King George I. it was enacted, That if any perſon ſhould obſtruct any officer of exciſe, in the due execution of the powers granted by any act relating to the duties of exciſe, ſuch perſon ſhould forfeit 10l.

By the ſtatute of the 11th of George I. it was enacted, That it ſhould be lawful for the officers of exciſe, to go on board any veſſel within the limits of any port, and to continue on board, and rummage, in like manner as the officers of the cuſtoms, for arrack, rum, brandy, or other exciſeable liquors; and for coffee, tea, cocoa-nuts, chocolate, and cocoa-paſte; and to ſeize for the uſe of his Majeſty, all ſuch of the ſaid commodities as ſhould be found there forfeitable by law, together with the package; as alſo to ſeize ſuch of the ſaid commodities as, before due entry, and without paying or ſecuring the duties on the importation, ſhould be found unſhipping or unſhipped. That if any officer of exciſe ſhould have cauſe to ſuſpect that any of ſuch commodities ſhould be fraudulently concealed, with intent to defraud his Majeſty of the duties; if the place be within London or Weſtminſter, or within the bills of mortality, on oath made by ſuch officer before the commiſſioners of exciſe, or two of them; or in caſe the place ſhould be in any other part, then, upon oath made by ſuch officer before a juſtice of peace, ſetting forth the ground of his ſuſpicion; it ſhould be lawful for the commiſſioners or juſtice, by ſpecial warrants, to authoriſe ſuch officers, by day or by night; but if in the night-time, in the preſence of a peace-officer, to enter into any ſuch place, and to ſeize and carry away all ſuch commodities, together with the caſks; and if any perſon ſhould hinder ſuch officer in the executing ſuch powers, ſuch perſon ſhould forfeit 100l. That if any perſon ſhould take out permits for removing brandy, arrack, rum, ſpirits, ſtrong waters, coffee, tea, cocoa-nuts, and chocolate, and ſhould not, within the times limited in ſuch permits, either ſend away the commodities, or return ſuch permits; ſuch perſon ſhould for every gallon of ſuch liquors, and for every pound of ſuch coffee, tea, cocoa-nuts, and chocolate, mentioned in ſuch permits, and not removed, forfeit treble the value, to be eſtimated according to the higheſt rates; and if ſuch permits were not returned, and there ſhould not appear a ſufficient decreaſe to anſwer the removal, the perſon out of whoſe ſtock the commodities ſhould be authoriſed to be removed, ſhould forfeit the like quantity, to be ſeized by the officers: provided that no perſon ſhould take any permit for removal of the ſaid commodities, without the direction in writing of the perſon, or the known ſervant of the perſon, from whoſe ſtock the ſaid commodities were to be removed, upon pain of forfeiting 50l. or, in default of payment, to ſuffer impriſonment for three months. That if, upon requeſt made by any officer of the duties of exciſe to any conſtable, or miniſterial officer of the peace to go along with him, or to be preſent where his preſence is neceſſary, ſuch officer of the peace ſhould neglect to go, he ſhould forfeit 20l. That if any perſon liable to any of the duties of exciſe, in order to corrupt any officer, ſhould offer to give, or ſecure, to any ſuch officer, any bribe or reward, the offender ſhould forfeit 500l. to be recovered and mitigated as any penalty by any laws of exciſe; one moiety to the crown, and the other to the poor of the pariſh where ſuch offence ſhould be committed.

By the ſtatute of the 1ſt of King George II. it was enacted, That the act of the 6th of George I. ſhould not extend to take away the right of appealing to the commiſſioners of appeals from judgments given by the commiſſioners of exciſe, in cauſes of offences relating to the exciſe, or the liberty of appealing to the quarter-ſeſſions, where judgments ſhould be given by juſtices in cauſes of offences, in relation to the duties on malt, or on hides and skins, and on vellom and parchment. That all complaints depending at the chief office of exciſe, might be heard and determined by any three of the commiſſioners, whoſe adjudication ſhould be valid: and that every ſuch adjudication ſhould be executed by warrant of any three commiſſioners.

And, by the ſtatute of the 23d of King George II. it was declared, That the reſtrictions of time for tranſacting the buſineſs of the office of exciſe had been found very inconvenient, and attended with extraordinary expences to perſons charged with the payment of the duties of exciſe: wherefore it was enacted, That the ſaid office ſhould be kept open from eight o'clock in the morning till two in the afternoon, and no longer.

The inhabitants of England have been frequently alarmed at the apprehenſions of a general exciſe. The noble Hambden preferred a land-tax, or even a revival of the chimney-money, to any kind of new exciſes: which may end, as he obſerved, in a general exciſe: therefore it may not be improper to give a little deduction of this kind of tax.

Thoſe loads upon induſtry, high cuſtoms, and what are called exciſes, were on foot in the Roman empire, and among the eaſtern Kings, but not thought of in theſe Gothic ſettlements. It is true, from the time Kings have deſired greater armies than their crown-revenues would maintain, ſuch impoſitions have been revived in this part of Europe.

Theſe kind of taxes, from which this ſide of the world had been exempt for ſeveral ages, were renewed by ambitious princes, who had great thoughts and a ſmall territory; of which kind were Ferdinand and Alphonſo of Arragon, kings of Naples, and Lodowic Sforza, Duke of Milan; who harraſſed their countries with theſe ſorts of duties to ſuch a degree, that at laſt it produced an univerſal defection of their people. By theſe ways and means of raiſing money, Lodowick Sforza had heaped up ſuch a maſs of wealth, that, not eight years before Milan was taken, he ſhewed ſeveral foreign miniſters, by way of oſtentation, beſides jewels, and other ſorts of riches, in no ſmall quantities, to the value of one million, five hundred thouſand ducats; a vaſt ſum for thoſe times. The Kings of Naples had likewiſe ſcraped up a great treaſure, by the like methods; but what did all this end in? Theſe exactions had ſo provoked the people, that neither the innocence and virtue of Ferdinand, Alphonſo's ſon, nor the dark wiſdom and ſubtleties of Lodowick could avail them in time of danger; inſomuch, that they both loſt their dominions to the French, without hardly ſtriking a blow. The neceſſities, introduced by the long wars in Italy, brought theſe ſorts of taxes more in vogue, and they were chiefly made uſe of by the little princes there, who erected to themſelves tyrannies in ſeveral cities. Not long after, this way of raiſing money got footing in Spain, and the tax was called the *alcavala*; by which the King was to have the tenth part of all that was ſold, or exchanged; which was firſt laid towards defraying the expences of the wars of Granada againſt the Moors, and continued for ſome time, though the war was ended; but, by the authority of that great miniſter, Cardinal Ximenes, it was aboliſhed. They had likewiſe taxes upon the conſumption, long ago, in France, as in the reign of Chilperic; which the people thought ſo burthenſome, that many deſerted their country upon that account, and they are not heard of again in their hiſtories till ſome ages after.

And as to exciſes, gabels, and high duties upon trade, they were unknown amongſt the founders of the Engliſh government, or of the kingdoms round about them.

France was once upon a right foot, in relation to its liberties; but they who peruſe their hiſtories with care, will find that arbitrary power did not ſo much bring in high taxes, as that high taxes introduced arbitrary power; for when that golden idol of an immenſe revenue was ſet up, all the nation bowed to it.

The tributes, aids, or ſubſidies, formerly granted to the King of England, for the current ſervice of the government, upon the alienation of crown-lands, conſiſted in certain duties on the importation or exportation of goods and merchandiſe; which, in length of time, obtained the denomination of cuſtoms, becauſe thoſe duties had been uſually or cuſtomarily paid. But exciſes are inventions

of ſo modern a date in England, that the very name is not to be found in the law-books till about the middle of the laſt century. The firſt attempt to introduce theſe taxes into England, was in the year 1626, by way of commiſſion under the great ſeal: but the parliament remonſtrated againſt it as illegal, becauſe without the conſent of the people; and the ſcheme was defeated by parliament, out of regard to trade, and a tenderneſs for the Britiſh merchants: however, the next effort had more ſucceſs, in the times of the civil wars, when the parliament, having tried all other methods of raiſing money to pay their army, were obliged to make uſe of an exciſe; though nothing but a large ſtanding army could have forced it down the people. Exciſes being thus introduced during the civil war, we cannot be ſurpriſed to find the ſame method of taxing continued and eſtabliſhed after the reſtoration; when an exciſe upon beer and ale was granted; one moiety whereof was ſettled in fee on the crown, as a recompence for aboliſhing the court of wards, and the other moiety on the King for life.

Thus was one grievance entailed on Britons in the room of another: whether they gained any thing by the bargain, let the public determine; but ſenſible men are of opinion, that if the exciſe upon beer and ale ſhould ever be made the foundation of a general exciſe, the contniuance of the court of wards, arbitrary as it was, would have been a more tolerable evil; for that chiefly affected the richer ſort of people: and a general exciſe will not only be a gnawing canker on our lands, but likewiſe ſuch a burthen on manufactures and navigation, as muſt in time deſtroy the trade, and with it the riches, power, and liberties, of the whole nation.

More than one attempt was made, in the reign of Will. III. to extend the tax upon beer and ale into a general exciſe; but this deſign was ſo vigorouſly oppoſed by many perſons, the moſt zealouſly affected to liberty and the revolution, that the projectors were obliged to lay it aſide; as they alſo were in the year 1733, and notwithſtanding the miniſter had a majority in the houſe of commons, who reſolved, that the cuſtoms paid upon tobacco ſhould be changed into an inland duty of 4 d. *per* pound, and three farthings old ſubſidy at the cuſtomhouſe, ſuch was the univerſal reſentment which prevailed every where againſt this pernicious meaſure, that he was obliged to drop it, to the general joy of the whole nation.

Perhaps ſome people may readily aſſert that exciſes contribute to the increaſe of the revenue. But every man who underſtands the conſtitution of his country, and would endeavour to preſerve it, muſt know that exciſes are incompatible with the freedom of trade; and, as our country is entirely dependent upon traffic, no true Engliſhman can ever bear the thought of a general exciſe. Exciſes differ ſo much from other taxes, that every man muſt be ſenſible how prejudicial they neceſſarily are to trade; which ought to be ſeriouſly conſidered, becauſe the trading part of Great Britain is not only a very large and opulent, but likewiſe the moſt valuable part of it. To their labour and induſtry it is owing that the Britiſh nation is raiſed from a wild, uncultivated deſart, to its preſent height of riches, grandeur, and ſtrength: therefore the wiſdom of the nation formerly was always employed in the encouragement of trade; and, whenever the neceſſities of the ſtate required the impoſition of any burthen on it, by way of ſubſidy, the legiſlature took care that the trader ſhould be protected, at the ſame time, in his perſon and property, againſt the oppreſſions of the officers employed in collecting thoſe ſubſidies; but, ſince the introduction of exciſes, both are become more precarious.

In all diſputes between the crown and the ſubject, in caſes relating to the cuſtoms, the merits of the cauſe are left to the deciſion of law, according to ancient uſage, in the ordinary courts of juſtice; but the converſion of ſubſidies into exciſes, puts the trader under a new ſet of laws, formerly unknown to the Britiſh conſtitution, and perhaps not altogether agreeable to it; for the powers given to the commiſſioners of exciſe, in ſome meaſure, diſfranchiſe every free-born Engliſhman, as far as he is a dealer in exciſeable commodities. One of the moſt eſſential parts of the Britiſh conſtitution, as well as the ſtrongeſt bulwark of it, is that of trials by juries; a privilege which the Engliſh nation hath aſſerted and preſerved for ſeveral ages, with an immenſe profuſion of blood and treaſure. It is this which ſcreens the ſmall from the oppreſſion of the great, the ſubject from the unjuſt reſentment of the prince, or the violence of his miniſters; and therefore all attempts to ſuppreſs this privilege affect the conſtitution in one of its tendereſt parts, and may be made uſe of by bad miniſters to the introduction of arbitrary government. This great and fundamental privilege is preſerved to the ſubject in all the laws relating to the cuſtoms, or duties on importation; but turning the cuſtoms into exciſes on home conſumption, is putting the trader under a ſett of officers, who have power to interpret and execute the laws in a ſummary manner; for here the ſubject is condemned without trial by juries, in the uſual manner, and left without any dernier reſort of juſtice, unleſs it be to the commiſſioners of appeal, which is a kind of ſine cure dependent commiſſion, under which the ſubject is tried by his adverſe party; the commiſſioners, and their inferior officers, being proſecutors, evidence, judges, and executioners.

In duties upon importation, a man hath full power over his goods, as ſoon as he clears them of the cuſtomhouſe, and gets them home. He may diſpoſe of them as he pleaſes, without any body's leave, and is not ſubject to the capricious humour of every little officer, who may take it into his head, or perhaps think it meritorious, to give him as much trouble as poſſible in the execution of his duty. The trader, in this caſe, is not liable to have his ſhop, or warehouſes, ranſacked, without information upon oath that ſome contraband goods are concealed in them; nay, even then, a warrant muſt be granted by a civil magiſtrate, and executed in preſence of a peace-officer in day-time only, according to the uſual forms of law. On the other hand, by the laws of exciſe, no man is at liberty to remove his goods, from the place where they were firſt depoſited, without leave from an officer for ſo doing, to the great interruption of his other buſineſs, and often to the prejudice of his particular dealings and contracts.

As the impriſonment of the body is next to the loſs of life, ſo the confinement of property is next to the taking it away; yet thus it is with exciſeable goods. They are ſhut up in ſhops and warehouſes, under ſevere keepers appointed by the crown, and cannot be moved from thence, or diſpoſed of in a fair way of trade, though the duties have been paid, without a permit, or habeas corpus being taken like felons, and condemned, if they are found without it; which is a great ſeverity and reſtraint upon trade.

Induſtry hath its foundation on liberty; and thoſe men who either are actual ſlaves, or have reaſon to believe their freedom precarious, will never ſucceed in trade, which thrives and flouriſhes moſt in climates of liberty and eaſe. Theſe keep the preſent inhabitants at home, and invite others to ſettle among them, more than the pleaſantneſs of ſituation, or the wholſome temperature of the air. There are many inſtances of fruitful and delightful countries, which have been impoveriſhed, and almoſt depopulated, in ſpight of nature, by ſeverities in government. To this it is owing that trade hath been loſt to one nation, and obtained by another. Britons have particularly experienced this in former ages, to their great infinite advantage; and it is to be hoped they will never act ſo weak a part as to adopt thoſe methods of government, which have deſtroyed trade in other countries, and to withdraw thoſe privileges and encouragements, which have carried it to ſo great a height in their own.

It ought likewiſe to be particularly conſidered at this time, that all nations in Europe are turning their thoughts to traffic; and even in thoſe countries where the government is abſolute in other reſpects, they make it their ſtudy to eaſe the merchants, and encourage both natives and foreigners to ſettle commerce with them.

Shall Britons, on the other hand, encourage their attempts, by laying all the burthens and reſtraints they can

ent on their trade? Is this a time to clog it with new difficulties, or to put the British merchants under any further uneasinesses, after all the embarrassments, interruptions, and depredations, which they suffered with so much patience, for several years before the last war? How prejudicial must this be to a trading nation? Will it not take off the ablest hands from the interest of trade, and oblige them to turn their money into other channels? Is it not eternally true, that the greater the stock, and the more people are employed in commerce, the more extensive and beneficial it will be in any country? This is certainly the only true method of increasing national stock; and this stock is the foundation of the national strength and grandeur.

People are not ignorant that excises have been introduced in the republics of Holland and Venice, but under very different circumstances to those in Great Britain; therefore it may be proper to draw a short comparison between the excises of those commonwealths and Great Britain.

The officers of excise in those countries are empowered only to collect the duties, and not allowed to harrass the people afterwards; whereas excisemen in England may put the trader to infinite trouble and vexation, after the crown is fully satisfied; which frequently proves of worse consequence to him than paying double duty.

The Dutch excisemen have no power of entering and searching houses as the English have. The officers in Holland are not appointed by the Stadtholder, nor in Venice by the Doge; but in England they are nominated by the King, or his subordinates, and removable at pleasure. In Holland and Venice, the duties collected by excise are entirely applied to the public service of the respective states; whereas, in England, great part of the fines and forfeitures comes into the pockets of the crown-officers, and for that reason tempts them to oppress the subject.

But to shew how absolutely disconsonant excises are to the freedom of trade, and how repugnant to the wishes of the mercantile part of the British nation, it is only necessary to have a retrospect to that zeal and unanimity wherewith the merchants and traders of the city of London opposed the scheme for a general excise in the year 1733; when the reasons for this their opposition were set forth, by the court of common council, in a representation, which was delivered to their representatives in parliament, as follows.

"That this court apprehended, from the experience of "the laws of excise then in being, that extending those "laws to any commodities not then excised, must ne"cessarily be very prejudicial to trade; both as it would "probably diminish the consumption of the commodity "to be excised, and subject the fair trader to the fre"quent and arbitrary visitation of officers, and judicial "determination of commissioners removable at pleasure, "and from whom there is no appeal. That the exten"sion of such laws must necessarily increase the number "and power of officers; which would be inconsistent "with those principles of liberty on which their happy "constitution was founded, and would farther deprive "the subjects of England of some of those valuable pri"vileges which had hitherto distinguished them from the "neighbouring nations. Wherefore the court earnestly "recommended it to their representatives, to use their "utmost diligence in opposing a scheme of this nature, "should any such be offered in parliament, in any shape, "or however limited in its first appearance; being fully "convinced, that an inland duty on goods then rated "at the customhouse, could not be effectually collected, "even with the extension of the powers, or the severest "exercise of all the rigours of the present laws of excise."

This representation was soon copied by several of the counties, cities, and boroughs of the kingdom: and the common council of London also presented a petition to the house of commons; wherein they represented, "That "the burthen of taxes already imposed on every branch "of trade, however chearfully borne, was severely felt; "but that they apprehended this burthen would grow too "heavy to be borne, if it was increased by such vexa"tious and oppressive methods of levying and collecting

"the duties, as they were assured by melancholy expe"rience, that the nature of all excises must necessarily "produce. That the merchants, tradesmen, and manu"facturers of the kingdom, had supported themselves "under the pressure of the excise-laws then in force, by "the comfortable and reasonable expectation, that laws, "which nothing but public necessity could be a motive "to enact, would be repealed in favour of the nation, "and of the liberty of the subject, whenever that mo"tive should be removed, as they presumed it effectually "was by an undisturbed tranquillity at home, and a ge"neral peace so firmly established abroad. That if this "expectation was entirely taken away, if the excise"laws, instead of being repealed, were extended to other "species of merchandise not yet excised, and a door "opened for extending them to all; the petitioners could "not, in justice to themselves, to the merchants, trades"men, and manufacturers of the whole kingdom, and "to the general interest of their country, conceal their "apprehensions that the most fatal blow which ever was "given, would be given on that occasion to the trade "and navigation of Great Britain; that great spring "from which the wealth and prosperity of the public "flowed, would be obstructed; the mercantile part of "the nation would become not only less able to trade "to advantage, but unwilling to trade at all; for no "person who could enjoy all the privileges of a Bri"tish subject out of trade, even with a small fortune, "would voluntarily renounce some of the most valuable "of those privileges, by subjecting himself to the laws of "excise; and that the petitioners were able to shew that "these their apprehensions were founded both in expe"rience and reason."

EXCISEABLE. Any thing that is subject to, or may be charged with the duties of excise.

EXPORTATION, in commerce, the act of sending commodities out of one country into another; of which those annually exported from Great Britain are immense: the principal articles being corn, cattle, woollen cloth, stuffs, iron, lead, tin, leather, coal, hops, flax, hemp, hats, malt-liquors, fish, watches, ribbands, and several other things: the whole being so very considerable, that what is yearly exported of the woollen manufacture alone is computed to amount to 2,000,000 l. sterling, and lead, tin, and coals, to 50,000 l. But for the duty on exportation, see *Customs*, and book of *Rates*.

The exports of a nation increase as encouragement is given to manufactures: thus, in the year 1662, the whole exports of England to all the world amounted only to 2,022,812 l. 4 s. and in 1668 to no more than 2,063,274 l. 19 s. but in 1699 they amounted to 6,788,166 l. 17 s. 6 d. and in 1703 to 6,644,103 l. though in 1699 the trade between France and England was charged with high duties against the latter, and in 1703 Great Britain had a war with Spain. This increase in the national exports was very advantageous for the inhabitants of Great Britain, as thrice the number of people thereby received employment and subsistence: therefore, by taking off those duties of excise which affect the manufactoral part of the people, abating such high duties in the customs as are a load to the merchant, improving our lands, extending our manufactures, preserving our wool to ourselves, rearing silk in our American colonies, and exerting ourselves in every branch of trade where our rivals are endeavouring to exert and supplant us, will be the best means for the preservation of the British trade, the extension of our commerce, the exportation of our commodities, and the maintenance of that naval power which shall give security and protection to the whole. See *Importation*.

An encouragement is given for the vending of some of the British commodities, when there is a greater quantity than can be consumed in the nation; which causes the price to be so inconsiderable, as to threaten the impoverishment of the owners, who cannot keep their commodities, if perishable; or if not, their circumstances may be such, that they may not be able to wait till there is a greater scarcity to occasion a rising market: in consideration of which, provision is made, by some of the

Engliſh ſtatutes, when the goods are under ſuch a limited price, to allow the exporter ſo much *per cent.* or *per* quantity, exported, particularly of corn. See *Importation*, and *Bounty*.

Amid the variety of ſentiments upon any propoſal to regulate the duties upon exports and imports, miniſters, and others, have been found, both in their converſation and writings, to maintain the erroneous maxim, that high duties ought to be laid upon commodities exported, becauſe they are paid by foreigners; and, on the contrary, very moderate ones on ſuch as are imported, becauſe they are at the charge of the natives. But the great diſadvantages of this maxim are ſo well underſtood in Great Britain, France, the United Provinces, and all other well conducted kingdoms and ſtates, that they fly from it, and purſue the contrary; giving leave to export their commodities duty free, or on payment of ſuch trifling duties, that ſome of them amount to leſs than 1 *per cent.* and ſometimes they grant bounties for exporting commodities. See *Balance* of trade, and *Commerce*.

Exporting goods by certificate, is to ſend abroad ſuch foreign goods as were formerly imported, and paid duty; for the greateſt part of which a denizen is allowed 12 months after importation, but a foreigner only 9; though for tobacco, ſugar, ginger, pepper, bugle, caſt and bar iron, dying woods, dying wares, and drugs, Britiſh merchants are allowed 18 months, and aliens 15. There is alſo a drawback allowed to ſuch importer of part of the duty paid, according to the nature of the goods, and direction of the ſtatutes: but this drawback is not allowed unleſs the exporter produces a certificate ſigned by the collector, or comptroller of the cuſtoms, that ſuch goods paid the duties inwards, within the limited time; upon which certificate a cocket is granted the exporter, which is called a certificate cocket. See *Drawback*.

EYDE. A town of Norway. See *Denmark*.

F.

FAC

F The ſixth letter of the alphabet, uſed by merchants, bankers, and book-keepers, for abridging references to different pages, or the folio of their books and regiſters: thus, F°. 2°. ſignifies *folio ſecundo*, or ſecond page; and florins are alſo marked by an F, in the two following manners, F L, or F s.

FABRICATE, to build, invent, or manufacture, a houſe or art, or commodity.

FABRICK. A building of any kind; and metaphorically applied, ſignifies any invention, art, or manufacture.

FACTITIOUS, ſignifies any thing made by art, in oppoſition to what is the produce of nature; thus, diſtilled waters are factitious liquors; falſe gems, are factitious ones; and cinnabar is divided into natural and factitious: it alſo ſignifies any made or compound bodies; ſuch as glaſs, paper, braſs, ſteel, and pewter.

FACTOR, in commerce, an agent, or perſon who acts and negotiates for a merchant by commiſſion; called alſo commiſſioner, on ſome occaſions broker, or agent, and throughout the Levant coagis.

Factors are generally charged either with the buying or the ſelling of goods, or both. Thoſe of the firſt kind are uſually eſtabliſhed in places of conſiderable manufactories, or cities of great trade; their office being to buy up commodities for merchants reſiding elſewhere, to ſee them packed, and ſend them to the perſons for whom they were bought. Factors of ſale are alſo uſually fixed in places where there is a conſiderable vent; to whom merchants and manufacturers ſend their goods to be ſold for them, according to the price, and other conditions, expreſſed in the orders delivered them: but the wages, or allowances for ſelling, are generally clear of all expences of carriage, exchange, remittances, and other charges, excepting poſtage of letters, which are never put to account.

The duty of a factor is, to be very exact in obſerving the orders of commiſſion ſent him by his employer; to give frequent advice to his employer of the riſe and fall of the commodity he deals in; what ſpecies of that commodity fetches the beſt price; and of the courſe of exchange: to obſerve a great punctuality in anſwering letters from his correſpondents; as alſo immediately to adviſe his employer of the receipt of his goods; and to give notice when he buys, ſells, or ſhips off goods, on account of his employer.

A commiſſion to a factor is the order, or conditions, given him by his employer, for buying or ſelling any merchandiſe, whereby he is to act; and which is either abſolute or limited. If a commiſſion is abſolute, then the employer gives his factor free power to buy, ſell, or barter, any commodity as he ſhall think proper: but if the commiſſion is limited, then the factor muſt take care to act punctually in conformity to it: becauſe, the commiſſion is what empowers the factor to act; and he muſt abide by the conſequence of it, if he is guilty of breach of orders.

If a factor has orders to ſell the goods of his employer for ready money, he has no authority to ſell them on truſt, although he may ſell them at an advanced price, in conſideration of the credit to be given; for if the buyer ſhould prove inſolvent, the factor muſt make good the loſs to his employer. Alſo, when the factor has authority to ſell goods on credit, if he ſuffers the day of payment to elapſe, and diſpoſes of his own goods to the ſame perſon for ready money, before the goods of his employer are paid for, the factor is obliged to make the payment good to his employer, if the buyer ſhould prove inſolvent.

No factor acting on account of another in merchandiſe, can juſtify receding in any manner from the orders of his principal, though there may be a probability of advantage by another management; unleſs the principal give him a general commiſſion to act for the beſt. Therefore, if four or five merchants remit to one factor four or five diſtinct parcels of merchandiſe, and the factor diſpoſes of them jointly to one perſon, who pays one moiety of the money down, and contracts to pay the remainder at the expiration of a certain time, ſhould the vendee break before the payment of the other moiety, every one of the principals muſt bear an equal ſhare of the loſs ſuſtained.

If a factor, by order or commiſſion of his principal, buys any goods above the price limited to him; or they are not of that goodneſs and quality, as by the authority they ought to be; the factor is to keep the ſame for his own account, and the merchant may diſclaim the buying of them: he may alſo do the ſame, if the factor, having bought a commodity according to his commiſſion, ſhould ſhip the ſame for another place than where he was commiſſioned to do; beſides, in ſuch caſe, if the price of the goods is advanced, and the factor thereupon fraudulently lades them for ſome other port, to take the advantage thereof, the principal merchant may recover damages of the factor.

As fidelity, diligence, and honeſty, are expected from the factor; ſo the law requires the like from the principal, judging the act of the one to be the act of the other: therefore, if a merchant remits counterfeit jewels to his factor, who diſpoſes of them for the ſame valuable conſideration as if they were genuine; if the factor receives any loſs or prejudice thereby, by impriſonment or other puniſhment, the principal is not only to make good the damage to the factor, but alſo to render ſatisfaction to the party to whom the jewels were ſold: for the principal muſt anſwer for his factor in all caſes where he is privy to the act or wrong. And ſo it is in contracts, as if a factor buys goods on account of the principal, eſpecially where he is accuſtomed ſo to do, the contract of the factor will oblige the principal to a performance of the bargain; and he is the proper perſon to be proſecuted for non-performance: but if a factor buys things generally, without declaring upon the contract that he bought only as a factor, he is chargeable in his own right in ſuch a contract.

As the actions of factors depend on buying and ſelling, and in general relate to entering goods, freighting ſhips, inſurances, with all other maritime and commercial matters; and as their truſt and authority is very conſiderable, they ought to be provident in their actions, for the benefit of their principals: therefore, if goods and merchandiſe are ſent to a factor, and upon arrival he ſhould, through negligence or otherwiſe, be guilty of making a falſe entry at the cuſtom-houſe, or ſhould land the commodities without an officer of the cuſtoms, whereby they ſhould incur a ſeizure or forfeiture; in this caſe the factor muſt make good the damage to the principal: but it is otherwiſe if the factor make his entry according to the invoice or advice received by letter, and there ſhould happen to be a miſtake.

If a principal gives orders to his factor to make an inſurance on the ſhip and goods as ſoon as laden, and the factor, having money in his hands, neglects to make ſuch inſurance, if the ſhip happens to miſcarry the factor muſt anſwer it: ſo if the factor after he has inſured the goods, makes any compoſition with the inſurers, without order or commiſſion from his principal, he is anſwerable for the whole aſſurance to the merchant.

A factor is accountable for all lawful goods that come ſafe to his hands; and if he has orders not to ſell any commodities particularly ſpecified, which he diſobeys by ſelling them, he muſt be anſwerable for any damage received.

In caſe goods are bought or exchanged without orders, it is at the courteſy of the merchant whether he will receive them, or return them on the hands of his factor: ſo that where a factor has bought or ſold merchandiſe, purſuant to orders, he ſhould immediately give advice of it to his principal, leſt the former orders ſhould be contradicted before the time of his giving notice: and the goods bought he is to ſhip and ſend away by the firſt opportunity, giving the ſpeedieſt advice, and ſending a bill of lading.

If a factor, by any error, in his accompts, wrongs either himſelf or his employer, ſatisfaction muſt be made from the one to the other, not only for the principal, but alſo for the intereſt of the ſum erroneouſly charged or omitted; becauſe a factor uſually concludes his invoice by writing *errors excepted*.

Such factors as have no conſtant reſidence in foreign countries, but to go and return from place to place, generally enter into a bond for a proper diſcharge of their truſt, to their principal: but ſuch factors are more properly called ſupercargoes.

Among European merchants it is the general cuſtom to act as factors for each other; which is more properly called commiſſion buſineſs, and is carried on entirely by the intercourſe of letters and invoices; the invoice containing an accompt of the prime coſt and charges of the merchandiſes to be ſold, whereby the factor is the better able to diſpoſe of the ſame to advantage.

By the ſtatute of the 9th and 10th of King William III. it was enacted, That no governor, or deputy-governor, of any of the Britiſh plantations in America, or the judges there, or any other for their uſe, ſhould be factor or agent for the African company, or others, for the ſale or diſpoſal of negroes; and any perſon offending therein ſhould forfeit 500 l. And by the ſtatute of the 5th of Geo. II. factors and brokers are declared liable to the ſtatutes concerning bankrupts. See *Broker*, and *Agent*.

FACTOR *in France*, is of a ſimilar nature to the factor in England for buying and ſelling: but the French have alſo theſe three other kinds of factors; factors of bank, factors of ſtaple, and factors of carriages.

Factors are thought ſo neceſſary for carrying on trade in Spain, that Don Geronymo de Uztariz, in the 107th chapter of his theory and practice of commerce, recommends it to the King of Spain to ſettle public factors at Liſbon, Bourdeaux, Bayonne, Nantz, Roan, London, Oſtend, Amſterdam, Hamburgh, Copenhagen, Dantzic, Stockholm, Peterſburgh, Marſeilles, Genoa, Leghorn, Naples, and Meſſina, to be maintained at the public expence, and each of them to be allowed 800 dollars, or about 143 l. ſterling yearly, for himſelf, deputy, houſe, and ware-houſes.

FACTORAGE. The wages of a factor, called alſo commiſſion, which is variable at ſeparate places, and for different voyages: but at a medium it may be fixed at 3 *per cent.* of the value of the goods bought or ſold, excluſive of the charge of package, which is paid over and above. At Virginia, Barbadoes, and Jamaica, the factorage is from 3 to 5 *per cent.* and the like throughout the greateſt part of the Weſt Indies: at Smyrna, Aleppo, and other places in Turky, it is 3 *per cent.* at Leghorn, and other places of Italy, 2 and a half: Spain, Portugal, or France, 2 *per cent.* Hamburgh, and other parts of the Eaſtland countries, 2 *per cent.* Rotterdam, and other parts of the United Provinces, 1 and a half: and inland factors have uſually 1 and a quarter *per cent.*

FACTOR-*book*. See *Book-keeping*.

FACTOR-*ſhip*. The office, duty, or employment, of a factor.

FACTORY, is a place where a conſiderable number of factors reſide, to negotiate, or officiate, for their maſters, or principals, which is a term generally uſed in ſpeaking of the Eaſt Indies, and other parts of Aſia, whither the Europeans annually ſend their ſhips, and keep factors to buy the commodities of the country, and ſell thoſe brought from Europe.

The greateſt and nobleſt factory in the world, is that of the Engliſh at Smyrna, which is a ſort of ſeminary of merchants, conſiſting of 80 or 100 perſons, moſt of them young gentlemen of the beſt families, and frequently younger ſons of the nobility. As there is a neceſſity [illegible] ſerving an apprenticeſhip of ſeven years to be intitled [illegible] trade to the Levant, the cuſtom is, for perſons of fortune [illegible] to bind their younger ſons to ſome merchant, who, [illegible] conſideration of 3 or 400 l. ſterling, agrees, after [illegible] three firſt years of their apprenticeſhip are expired, to ſend them to Smyrna; where they have not only the management of their maſters affairs with very plentiful a lowance, but are likewiſe permitted to trade for themſelves; whereby they are enabled to live ſplendidly during the remainder of their apprenticeſhip, and at length come out the beſt qualified for buſineſs of any young perſons in the world.

The Engliſh factories at Liſbon and Hamburgh are [illegible] very conſidetable: but the Portugal trade is now ſo greatly altered from what it was formerly, that inſtead of factors the Engliſh gentlemen at Liſbon are become the greatest merchants trading there, and ſend more commiſſions to England than they receive from thence.

FACTOTUM. The chief, or head manager, of a trade or buſineſs.

FAG. The waſte, or worſt part of a piece of cloth, from whence the fag-end is that which has the entring of the loom parted by a ſtripe to be cut off.

FAGGOT. A ſmall bundle of ſticks bound up together, ſuch as bakers buy to heat their ovens. See *Fuel*.

FAGGOT *of ſteel*, expreſſes the quantity of 120 lb. weight. See *Weight*.

FAILURE, or *Failing*, a ſpecies of bankruptcy, popularly called breaking, or ſtopping payment. See *Bankrupt*.

FAIR. A public place where merchants, traders, and other perſons aſſemble from ſeveral parts on ſome fixed day of the year, to buy and ſell commodities, and to partake of the diverſions uſually accompanying ſuch aſſemblies: which fairs are either free, or charged with tolls and impoſitions: and it is the ſovereign alone that has a right, by his letters patent, to eſtabliſh fairs, whether free or ſubject to duties, and the other ordinary laws and penalties. See *Market*.

The privileges of free fairs principally conſiſt in three articles: 1ſt, in that all merchants and traders, whether natives or foreigners, are allowed to enter the kingdom, and are under the royal ſafeguard and protection in coming and returning; as alſo are their agents, their merchandiſes, and their effects. 2d, In that the ſaid perſons, and their effects, are exempt from all duties, impoſitions, tolls, and ſervitudes. And, 3d, that merchants in going to, or returning from the fair, cannot be arreſted, or their goods ſtopt.

Several fairs are held in the open fields, or on heaths and commons, under tents, booths, and barracks, erected for the purpoſe; as Sturbridge fair, which is annually held in a field near Cambridge, on the 7th of September, and continues a fortnight; where all ſorts of tradeſmen reſort, from different parts of England, either to buy or ſell commodities. Some are held in places walled in for the purpoſe, and formed into regular ſtreets and lanes for the occaſion; as the fair of St. Lawrence in Paris. And others are held in the open places and ſtreets of cities; as Bartholomew fair in London, Briſtol fair, and the fair of St. Germains in the ſuburbs of Paris.

Fairs, particularly ſuch as are free, make a very conſiderable article in the commerce of Europe; eſpecially thoſe of the inland parts, as Germany, and the North, where the continual paſſage and repaſſage of veſſels are impracticable. But the moſt celebrated fairs in Europe are the following: 1ſt, That of Francfort in Germany, held twice a year, in ſpring and autumn; the firſt commencing the Sunday before palm-ſunday, and the other on the Sunday after the 8th of September; each of which continues two weeks, the firſt being called the week of acceptance, and the ſecond the week of payment: they are remarkable for the ſale of all kinds of commodities, but particularly the immenſe quantities of curious books no where elſe to be found, and whence the bookſellers throughout all Europe uſed to furniſh themſelves: and before each fair, there is a catalogue of all the books to be ſold thereat, printed and diſperſed, to call purchaſers together; though the learned complain of ſeveral unfair practices therein; as fictitious titles, names of books pure-

purely imaginary, beſide great faults in the names of the authors, and the titles of the real books. 2. The fairs of Leipſic in Saxony, which are held three times a year; one beginning on the 1ſt of January, another three weeks after Eaſter, and a third after Michaelmas, which hold twelve days a piece, and are at leaſt as conſiderable as thoſe of Francfort. 3. The fairs of Novi, a little city on the confines of the Milaneſe, under the dominion of the republic of Genoa; of which there are four in the year, commencing on the 2d of February, the 2d of May, the 1ſt of Auguſt, and 2d of September: but what chiefly contributes to render them ſo famous, is the vaſt concourſe of the moſt reſpectable merchants and negotiants of the neighbouring countries for the tranſacting of affairs, and ſettling accompts; though the commodities bought and ſold here are very conſiderable. 4. The fairs of Riga on the north-weſt coaſt of Ruſſia, whereof there are two in the year, one in May, and the other in September: they are much frequented by the Engliſh, Dutch, and French ſhips, as alſo from all parts of the Baltic; becauſe the beſt time for the ſale of goods at Riga, is during the fairs; but ſince Peterſburgh has flouriſhed in ſo ſplendid a condition, theſe fairs have been greatly diminiſhed. 5. The fair of Archangel, on the northern coaſt of Ruſſia, during which all the trade foreigners have with that city is managed, it continuing a month, or 6 weeks at moſt, commencing from the middle of Auguſt; when the Muſcovite merchants attend here from all parts of that extenſive empire; and the Engliſh, Dutch, French, Swediſh, Daniſh, and other ſhips in the port of that city, on this occaſion, ordinarily amount to 300; but this fair is not free, as the reſt are, the duties of importation and exportation being ſtrictly paid, and on a very high footing. 6. The fair of St. Germain, one of the ſuburbs of Paris, commencing on the 3d of February, and holding till Eaſter; though it is only free for the firſt 15 days. 7. The fairs of Lyons in France, which Monſieur de Cheme, in his antiquity of cities, would inſinuate, from a paſſage in Strabo, were eſtabliſhed by the Romans; though it is certain the fairs, as they now ſtand, are of a much later date: there are three of theſe fairs at Lyons in the year, each continuing 20 days, commencing on Eaſter Monday, the 26th of July, and the 1ſt of December, all three being free for ever. 8. The fair of Guibray, a ſuburb of the city of Falaiſe, in the Lower Normandy, which is reported to have been eſtabliſhed by William the Conqueror and King of England, in conſideration of his being born at Falaiſe: it commences on the 22d of July, and holds fifteen days, being free by charter, and longer by cuſtom. 9. The fair of Beaucaire, held partly in a city of that name, in Languedoc, a province of France, and partly in the open country, under tents and booths; which commences on the 22d of July, and only holds for three days; yet it is the greateſt and moſt celebrated of all the fairs in that part of Europe, both for the concourſe of ſtrangers from all parts, and for the traffic of all kinds of goods, the money returned in theſe three days amounting ſometimes to above 6 millions of livres, or about 250,000 l. ſterling.

The Spaniſh fairs of Porto-Bello, Vera Cruz, and the Havanna, are the moſt conſiderable of all thoſe in America; the two firſt continue as long as the flota and galleons remain in thoſe parts; and the laſt is opened as ſoon as the flota or galleons arrive there upon their return for Spain, this being the place where the two fleets join. See *Flota*, and *Galleon*.

The following is an exact alphabetical LIST *of the fixed and moveable* FAIRS *in England and Wales.*

N. B. The fixed fairs, with the dates of the days on which they fall, are in Roman letters; and the moveable fairs, with their perpetual directions, in Italic characters.

A

Abbey-Milton, Dorſ. Tueſday after St. James's day.
Abbotſbury, Dorſ. June 29.
Aberforth, Yorkſh. April 11.
Aberconway, Monm. Oct. 10.
Aberconway, Carnarv. Nov. 8.
Aberforth, Yorkſh. Wedneſday after Trinity Sunday.
Abergavenny, Monm. May 3, Sept. 25. *Trinity-Tueſday.*
Abergwilly, Monm. Oct. 1.
Aberſtow, Derbyſh. Oct 24.
Aberwin-green cliffe, Hamp. Nov. 21.
Abingdon, Berks, April 25, June 9, July 25, Sept. 2, Dec. 11. *Firſt Monday in Lent, and Monday before old Michae'mas day.*
Acton, Glouc. April 14, Sept. 2.
Acton, Midd. Auguſt 24. *Good Friday.*
Affrington, Dev. every Wedneſday in quarter-ſeſſion week.
Agmondeſham, Bucks, Whitſun-Monday.
Aileſbury, Bucks, March 20, June 3. *Palm-Sunday.*
Ailsford, Dorſ. June 29.
Albrighton, Shropſh. May 12, July 7, Nov. 9.
Aldborough, Suff. April 26, Auguſt 24.
Aldergain, Derb. July 25.
Aleſham, Norf. March 12.
Alfreton, Derb. July 20.
Allchurch, Heref. Auguſt 11.
Allchurch, Worc. Auguſt 10.
Allington, Dorſ. July 22.
Alresford, Hampſh. June 24.
Alsford, Hampſh. Holy Thurſday.
Alton, Hampſh. Auguſt 10.
Amerſham, Suff. Whitſun-Monday.
Ameſbury, Wilts, May 6, June 11. Dec. 24.
Ampthill, Bedf. April 23, Dec. 11. *Good Friday.*
Amſworth, Hampſh. July 7.
Andover, Hampſh. May 1, Nov. 17. *Friday before Midlent Sunday.*
Appleby, Bucks, Whitſun-Monday.
Appledore, Kent, June 11.
Appleſhaw, Hampſh. May 11, Nov. 4.
Arden, Norf. April 23.
Arden, Yorkſh. Oct. 29.
Arles-Colne, Eſſex, March 25, June 24.
Armington, Devon. Feb. 2, June 23.
Arundel, Suſſ. May 3, Dec. 17.
Aſhamſtead, Berks, Dec. 4.
Aſhborn, Derb. May 3, 10, Sept. 10, Oct. 19, Dec. 8. *Firſt Thurſday in March, and firſt Thurſday in June.*
Aſhbrittle, Som. Feb. 14.
Aſhburton, Devon. Auguſt 10, Nov. 22.
Aſhby, Leic. Aug. 24, Nov. 8. *Whitſun-Tueſday.*
Aſhford, Kent, May 5, Auguſt 24. *Firſt Sunday after St. Bartholomew's day.*
Aſh-hill, Som. Wedneſday after the 19th of Sept. and Eaſter-Wedneſday.
Aſhton, Lanc. July 2.
Aſhwater, Devon. Monday after old Lammas-day.
Aſhwell, Hertf. March 25, June 29, July 25, Oct. 29.
Aſſington, Dev. Oct. 27.
Atherſton, Warw. March 27. Dec. 15.
Auburn, Wilts, July 22.
Audley, Eſſex, July 25.
Awkingborough, Linc. June 24.
Axbridge, Eſſex, Eaſter-Monday.
Axbridge, Som. Feb. 3, March 25, June 11.
Axminſter, Dev. April 25, June 24.
Axmouth, Dev. April 25. *Wedneſday after old Michaelmas-day.*

B.

Baberry, Kent, Sept. 25.
Backington, Dev. May 3, Oct. 2.
Bagborough, Som. May 12.
Bakewell, Derb. March 27, Aug. 15, Oct. 2.
Bala, Merion. May 3, 13, 28, June 28.
Baldock, Hertf. Feb. 24. July 25, Oct. 2, Dec. 11.
Balmſtock, Dorſ. Oct. 10.
Bampton, Dev. Aug. 10, Oct. 29. *Whit-Tueſday.*
Bampton, Oxf. Aug. 15.
Banbury, Oxf. Aug. 1, Oct. 29. *Thurſday after Twelfth day, firſt Thurſday in Lent, Holy Thurſday, Trinity-Thurſday, Thurſday after old Michaelmas-day, Thurſday before the 11th of Dec.*
Bangor, Caernar. Dec. 4.
Bangor, Cornwall, June 14.

Bardney,

Bardney, Hampſh. Aug. 6.
Barkley, Glouc. May 3.
Barkway, Hertf. July 20.
Barnard-caſtle, Northumb. July 22.
Barnet, Hertf. June 24, Oct. 29.
Barnſtable, Dev. Sept. 19.
Barnwell, Camb. June 24.
Barſley, Kent, Sept. 25.
Barſton, Yorkſh. Jan. 24.
Bartholomew fair, London, Auguſt 24.
Bartlow, Eſſex, June 1.
Barton, Linc. July 20.
Bartonſtacy, Hampſh. July 20.
Baſingdowns, Hampſh. Sept. 21. *Eaſter-Tueſday.*
Baſingſtoke, Hampſh. Oct. 10. *Whit-Wedneſday.*
Baſſelton, Hampſh. Monday after the 7th of July.
Bath, Som. Feb. 2, 24, May 7, June 29, Aug. 1.
Battlefield, Shropſh. July 22.
Beaconfield, Bucks, Feb. 2.
Beaumaris, Angleſea, Sept. 19, Dec. 19. *Aſcenſion-day.*
Bedal, Yorkſh. June 24.
Bedford, March 4, June 24, Aug. 1, 10, Oct. 2. Dec. 11. *The firſt Tueſday in Lent.*
Bedford, Yorkſh. Nov. 14.
Bedington, Surry, Eaſter-Monday.
Beeſley, Glouc. April 23, Nov. 12.
Beggars buſh, Midd. Aug. 24. *Holy Thurſday.*
Belcham, Eſſex, Dec. 11.
Belt, Breckn. July 17.
Bemiſter, Dorſ. Sept. 19.
Benly, Dev. Auguſt 24.
Benington, Hertf. June 29.
Berkamſtead, Hertf. June 29, July 25. *Shrove-Monday.*
Berrington, Som. Trinity-Monday.
Betley, Staff. July 20.
Beverley, Yorkſh. April 30, May 4, 11, June 24, Nov. 5. *Eaſter-Wedneſday, and all Rogation-week.*
Bewdley, Worc. April 29, July 26, Dec. 11.
Bewley, Hampſh. April 4, Auguſt 24.
Bibalance, Dev. June 29.
Biceſter, Oxf. July 25. *Friday before old Michaelmas-day, and the next Friday.*
Bigleſwade, Bucks, Feb. 2, July 21, Nov. 3, 12. *Monday after Low-Sunday.*
Bidderden, Dorſ. Nov. 8.
Bilborough, Notting. April 23.
Billericay, Eſſex, July 21.
Billingſworth, Hampſh. April 9. *Palm-Sunday.*
Bilſington, Kent, June 24.
Bilſon, Staff. July 25.
Bilſon, Worc. April 23.
Bilſtover, Dev. July 25.
Birmingham, Warwick. Oct. 10. *Aſcenſion-day, and Corpus-Chriſti-day.*
Biſhop's-caſtle, Shropſh. June 24, Nov. 12,
Biſhop's-Lidiard, Som. March 25, Sept. 19.
Biſhop-Stratford, Hertf. Oct. 10, 19. *Corpus Chriſti-day.*
Biſhop's-Waltham, Hampſh. Auguſt 1.
Biſtow, Oxf. Friday before old Michaelmas-day.
Blackborn, Lanc. May 1. Sept. 19.
Blackheath, Kent, May 1, Oct. 10.
Blackmore, Eſſex, Auguſt 10.
Blacknell, Dorſ. Monday before St. Bartholomew's day.
Blackney, Glouc. May 1, Nov. 12.
Blaiſe, Cornw. Feb. 3.
Blandford, Dorſ. Feb. 24, June 29. Nov. 8.
Bleagon, Som. Auguſt 13.
Blechingley, Hampſh. Nov. 12.
Blith, Nottingh. Oct. 20.
Blockley, Oxf. Oct. 10.
Bloxſom, Oxf. Oct. 10.
Bodmin, Cornw. Jan. 25, March 12, Auguſt 10. Dec. 17. *Saturday afer Midlent Sunday, and Wedneſday after Whitſunday.*
Bodwin, Wilts, March 13.
Bolton, Lanc. June 29, July 20, Auguſt 15.
Bolton, Nottingh. Oct. 23.
Bookfordſlee, Dev. June 29, Auguſt 24.
Bookham, Surry, Oct. 10.
Bookland, Dev. Nov. 13. *Whit-Tueſday.*
Borna, Linc. Feb. 24, April 3, 25.
Borough, Som. Oct. 10.
Borough-moor, Weſtm. Sept. 30.
Bos-caſtle, Cornw. July 25, Nov. 22.
Boſton, Linc. July 25, Dec. 10.
Boſworth, Leic. April 27, June 24, Oct. 16.
Botley, Hampſh. Aug. 25, Nov. 12. *Tueſday before Whitſunday, Tueſday before Shrove-Tueſday, and Tueſday before St. Bartholomew's day.*
Bottingham, Yorkſh. Nov. 22.
Boughton-green, North. June 24.
Bow, Dev. Nov. 22. *Holy Thurſday.*
Bow, Midd. Whit-Thurſday.
Bowling, Hertf. July 20.
Boxgrove, Shropſh. Feb. 3.
Bracknell, Berks, April 25.
Bradfield, Eſſex, June 11, 24.
Bradford, Wilts, Dec. 11. *Trinity-Monday.*
Bradnidge, Dev. April 25, Oct. 2.
Bradſtead, Kent, Aſcenſion-day.
Brailers, Kent, Eaſter-Tueſday.
Braintree, Eſſex, April 27, Oct. 2.
Brecknock, June 24, Aug. 25, Nov. 17.
Bremel, Norf. June 11.
Brent, Dev. May 3, Oct. 10.
Brentford, Midd. Aug. 10.
Brewood, Suffolk, Sept. 19.
Brickhill, Bucks, May 1, Oct. 29.
Brickwell, Som. May 13.
Bridgend, Glam. Nov. 17. *Aſcenſion-day.*
Bridge-north, Shropſh. Feb. 2, June 19, July 21, Oct. 23.
Bridgeſtock, Dev. Aug. 24.
Bridge-town, Dev. July 25.
Bridgewater, Som. June 24, Oct. 2. *Firſt Thurſday in Lent.*
Bridlington, Yorkſh. Nov. 18.
Bridport, Dorſ. March 25, Oct. 10. *Holy Thurſday.*
Bridſtock, Worc. April 23.
Brimwelbracks, Norf. March 3.
Briſtol, Som. Jan 25, July 25.
Broadcliffs, Dev. May 3, Oct. 23.
Broad-Henbury, Dev. Dec. 11. *Whit-Tueſday.*
Broadock, Cornw. July 25.
Broad-ſtreet, Kent, Holy Thurſday.
Broad-Windſor, Dorſetſh. Trinity-Monday.
Brombel, Som. Nov. 12.
Bromley, Dev. June 29.
Bromley, Kent, Feb. 2. July 25.
Bromley, Lanc. Feb. 1.
Bromley, Staff. Feb. 2. July 25.
Bromley-pagets, Midd. Aug. 24.
Bromſgrove, Worc. May 3, June 24, July 25, Aug. 24.
Bromyard, Heref. May 2. *Thurſday before the 5th of March, and Whitſun-Monday.*
Broughton, Eſſex, July 21.
Broughton, Hampſh. Monday after St. Peter's day.
Broughton, North. July 22. *Monday before St. Peter's day.*
Bruton, Som. April 23, Sept. 19. *Good Friday.*
Buckingham, April 25, June 26. *Monday after 12th day.*
Buckland, Kent, All Souls day, and Tueſday after Whitſunday.
Buckland, Som. Sept. 19.
Budley, Dev. Good Friday.
Bugworth, Cheſh. Feb. 2.
Built, Breckn. June 16, Dec. 4.
Bungey, Suff. June 25.
Buntingford, Hertf. June 29, July 25.
Burford, Oxf. June 24, Sept. 25. *Saturday before old Michaelmas-day, and the Saturday following.*
Burford, Wilts, Aug. 1.
Burlington, Yorkſh. Sunday after Aſcenſion-day.
Burnel, Kent, Good Friday.
Burntwood, Eſſex, July 7.
Burton, Lanc. March 25. *Whit-Monday.*
Burton upon Trent, Linc. Aſcenſion-day.
Burton, Staff. June 27, July 5, Oct. 29.
Burwell, Warw. Oct. 10.
Burwill, Berks, Whit-Thurſday.
Bury, Lanc. April 23, Sept, 19. *Good Friday.*
Button-moor, Shropſh. Oct. 14.

C.

Caerfilly, Glam. March 25, July 19, Aug. 14, Oct. 19. *Trinity-Monday.*
Caerling, Cornw. Dec. 4.
Caerleon, Monm. May 1, July 20, Oct. 2. *Wedneſday before Eaſter.*
Caermarthen, Aug 1, Oct 9, Nov. 14.
Caerne-Abbey, Dorſ. Midlent Sunday, and Holy Thurſday.
Carnarvon, July 23.
Caerwilly, Carmarth. Aug. 1.
Cakefield, Suff. Whitſun-Thurſday.
Calne, Wilts, April 25, July 21.
Calſton, Cheſh. Sept. 19.
Camb, Som. Dec. 17.
Camberwell, Surry Aug. 4.
Camborn, Cornw. June 29, Nov. 22.
Cambridge, Aug. 15.
Camelford, Cornw. May 15, July 7, Aug. 26. *Friday after the 10th of March.*
Campden, Glouc. July 25.
Candene, Glouc. Aſh-Wedneſday.
Canend, Oxf. Whit-Tueſday.
Canterbury, Kent, July 7, Oct. 10. *Whit-Tueſday.*
Cardiff, Glam. June 29, Sept. 19. Dec. 11.
Cardigan, March 26, Aug. 15, Sept. 19, Dec. 19.
Carington, Oxf. July 7.
Carliſle, Cumb. Aug. 15. *Wedneſday before Eaſter, and firſt Wedneſday in June.*
Carwigs, Corpus Chriſti day.
Caſden, Glouc. July 25.
Caſhalton, Surry, July 1.
Caſtle-carey, Som. May 1, Sept. 29. *Tueſday before Palm-Sunday.*
Caſtlecomb, Wilts, April 23.
Caſtle-Ebichen, Glouc. June 23.
Caſtle-heath, Wilts, Monday after St. James's day.
Caſtlemain, Glouc. July 7. Nov. 12.
Caſtle-town, Dorſ. Saturday after Holy Thurſday.
Caſtle-town, Heref. July 7, 25.
Caſtor, Linc Oct. 12.
Cateſby, Berks, July 20.
Catharine-hill, Surry, Oct. 2.
Catſbotham, Monm. July 25.
Caxton, Camb. Oct. 12.
Chaffin, Camb: Aug. 24.
Chagford, Dev. March 25, April 23, Oct. 29.
Chalbury, Oxf. *Second Friday in Lent, and ſecond Friday in May.*
Challock, Kent, Oct. 8.
Chapel-heath, Glam May 2. *Trinity-Monday.*
Chapel in-Frith, Derbyſh. May 4, June 1, July 7, Oct. 16 *Aſcenſion day.*
Chapel-row, Berks, Good Friday.
Chapel-Silvas, Kent, Sept. 1.
Chard, Som. May 3, Nov. 12.
Charing, Kent, April 23, Oct. 25.
Charlton, Kent, Oct. 29.
Charmouth, Dorſ. June 29.
Charney, Dev. Oct. 29.
Chatham, Kent, May 4, Sept. 19.
Chayford, Dev. Oct. 10.
Chedder, Som. April 23, Oct. 29.
Chelmsford, Eſſex, May 1, Nov. 12.
Cheltenham, Glouc. July 25. *Holy Thurſday.*
Chepſtow, Monm. Aug. 1. *Friday before the 29th of Oct.*
Cherington, Dev. Monday after the 19th of September.
Chertſey, Surry, May 3. *Firſt Monday in Lent.*
Cheſter, June 24, Oct. 10.
Chefterfield, Derb. Feb. 28, May 4, July 4. Sept. 25.
Cheſtock, Dorſ. Oct. 10.
Chewinton, Som. Holy Thurſday.
Chicheſter, Suſſ. April 23, Oct. 10, 19. *Aſh-Wedneſday, and Whit-Tueſday.*
Chidley, Dev. Eaſter-Tueſday.
Chilhom, Glouc. July 25.
Chillam, Kent, Nov. 8.
Chilwark, Wilts, July 20.
Chimleigh, Dev. July 22.
Chimmock, Monm. July 20.
Chingar, Dev. Eaſter-Tueſday.
Chippingham, Wilts, May 6, June 11, Oct. 29. Dec. 10.
Chipping, Som. Whit-Tueſday.
Chippingnorton, Oxf. Feb. 22. April 25, July 7, Aug. 24, Nov. 8. *Laſt Friday in May, Wedneſday before Midſummer-day, and Wedneſday after Midſummer-day.*
Chiſlebury, Som. Oct. 29.
Chiſwick, Midd. July 15.
Chorleigh, Lanc. Aug. 10.
Chorly, Dev. Dec. 10.
Chriſh, Dev. Oct. 10.
Chriſt-Church, Hampſh. Oct. 18. *Trinity-Thurſday.*
Chruſtum, Suſſ. Oct. 24.
Chudleigh, Dev. April 25, June 11, Aug. 10, Oct. 2.
Chulbury, Oxf. Oct. 10.
Churchingford, Dev. Jan. 25, April 27.
Church ſtretton, Shropſh. May 3, Sept. 19.
Cilcutton, Cornw. Holy Thurſday.
Cirenceſter, Glouc. July 7, Nov. 8. *Eaſter Tueſday, and Holy Thurſday.*
Clack, Wilts, March 25, Sept. 19.
Clapon, Dev. Oct. 2.
Clare, Suſſ. April 7, July 20.
Clethero, Lanc. July 21, Dec. 19.
Cliffe, Northam. April 23, Oct. 29.
Cliffe, Suſſ. April 25, Sept. 26, Oct. 21.
Clifton, Bed. May 3.
Cobham, Surry, March 17, April 9, Dec. 11.
Cockermouth, Cumb. Oct. 19.
Cogſhall, Eſſex, Friday in Whitſun week.
Colcheſter, Eſſex, June 24, July 22, Oct. 24, Nov. 8.
Colebrook, Bucks, April 25. *3d Wedneſday in April.*
Colebrook, Wilts, Nov. 17.
Colgeth, Som. Dec 16.
Colledge, Monm. July 20.
Collingborough, Wilts, Dec. 11.
Colmſbury, Som. Sept. 25.
Columpton, Dev. May 1, Nov. 8.
Comb-Martin, Oxf. Monday before Maudlin-day.
Comb-Marton, Dev. Whitſun-Monday.
Combſtock, Dev. May 10.
Congleton, Cheſh. May 1, July 1, Oct. 2.
Cooledge, Suff. July 20, Oct. 19.
Corby, Cumb. Aug. 15.
Corfe-caſtle, Dorſ. May 1, Oct. 29.
Cormſtock, Dev. Oct. 1.
Corſham, Wilts, Feb. 24, Aug. 24.
Coventry, Warw. Nov. 1. *Eaſter-Tueſday, and Corpus Chriſti day.*
Cowbridge, Glamorg. April 23, Aug. 3, Sept. 25.
Cowyard, Glouc. June 19, 24. Dec. 5.
Cramborn, Dorſ. Aug. 24, Dec. 17.
Cramborn, Oxf. Aug. 24.
Cranbrook, Kent, May 29, June 24, Sept. 1.
Cray, Kent, Feb. 2.
Crekelade, Wilts, Oct. 2. *3d Wedneſday in April, and 3d Tueſday in Auguſt.*
Creſwell, Eſſex, Trinity Monday.
Cribby, Monm. Whit-Monday.
Crickhowel, Breckn. May 1.
Cromas, Oxf. July 22.
Cromwell, Glouc. Dec. 11.
Crookhorn, Som. Aug. 24.
Croſcomb, Som. March 25.
Crouch, Eſſex, May 3.
Crowland, Linc. Aug. 24.
Crowleigh, Lanc. Aug. 10.
Crowley, Glouc. Aug. 24.
Croydon, Surry, June 24, Oct. 2.
Croyley, Lanc. Aug. 24.
Cubley, Derb. Dec. 11.
Culiford, Dev. March 1, July 15.
Culliton, Dev. Nov. 12. Dec. 11.
Cullum, Cornw. Thurſday after Midlent Sunday, and Thurſday after the 12th of November.
Curry-evil, Som. Monday after Lammas-day.
Cutcomb, Som. Holy Thurſday.

D.

Dagenham, Eſſex, May 14.

Dalton, Lanc. Wedneſday before Lady-day.
Danbury, Dev. Sept. 19.
Darking, Surry, Aſcenſion-day.
Darland, Dorſ. Wedneſday before St. Bartholomew day.
Darlington, Durham, Eaſter-Monday, and every fortnight after, till Chriſtmas.
Dartford, Kent, July 22.
Dartingdon, Dev. Monday after Lammas-day.
Daventry, Northampt. July 23, Auguſt 4, Oct. 2. *Eaſter-Tueſday, and Whit-Tueſday.*
Deddington, Oxf. Auguſt 10, Nov. 22.
Deeping, Wilts, Sept. 19.
Denbigh, May 3, July 7. *Monday after Lady-day.*
Derby, Derbyſh. Jan. 13, March 27, April 7, 25, May 9, July 25, Oct. 3. *Friday in Eaſter-week, and Friday in Whitſun-week.*
Dereham, Norf. June 22.
Derrington, Whit-Monday.
Derriſs, Glouc. May 3, Sept. 25.
Devizes, Wilts, Feb. 2, June 24, Aug. 29, Oct. 2, 20. *Holy Thurſday, and Trinity-Thurſday.*
Dicker, Suſſ. Holy Thurſday.
Different, Glam. Auguſt 10.
Differing-Oliwick, Glam. Auguſt 10.
Dilton's marſh, Wilts, Sept. 24.
Dilverton, Som. June 29.
Dinton, Oxf. Auguſt 12.
Dis, Norf. Nov. 8.
Dodbrook, Dev. Wedneſday before Palm Sunday.
Dolgeth, Derb. Nov. 9.
Dolidge, Dev. Good Friday.
Dolton, Dev. Wedneſday before Ladyday.
Doncaſter, Yorkſh. July 25, Auguſt 10.
Dorcheſter, Feb. 2, May 22, June 24, July 22, 25. *Trinity-Monday.*
Dorcheſter, Oxf. Eaſter-Tueſday.
Dover, Kent, July 25, Auguſt 24, Oct. 2, Nov. 22.
Downderry-hill, Som. Sept. 1.
Downes, Cornw. Oct. 21.
Downes, Dev. March 10.
Downham, Norf. June 22.
Downton, Wilts, April 12.
Drayton, Shropſh. Sept. 19, Oct. 24. *Wedneſday before Palm Sunday.*
Dryfield, Yorkſh. Aug. 15. *Eaſter-Monday, and Whit-Monday.*
Dudley, Worc. July 25.
Dulton, Dev. Dec. 1.
Dulverton, Som. Nov. 8. *The feaſt is the Sunday after the 7th of July, and the fair begins the Monday after that.*
Dunckton, Wilts, Oct. 2.
Dundogil, Cornw. Oct. 19.
Dunmow, Eſſex, April 25, Auguſt 15, Nov. 8.
Dunſtable, Bedf. May 1, Auguſt 1. *Aſh-Wedneſday.*
Dunſter, Som. Whit-Monday.
Durham, March 20.
Durſly, Glouc. April 25, Dec. 4.

E.

Ealing, Hampſh. June 24.
Earlton, Heref. April 13, Aug. 1.
Eaſt-Brint, Som. Aug. 15.
Eaſt-Grinſtead, Suſſ. April 16, July 15.
Eaſt-Ilſley, Berks, Feb. 24, Auguſt 15. *Eaſter-Wedneſday, and Whit-Wedneſday.*
Eaſt-Lowe, Cornw. Feb. 2, Oct. 10.
Eaſt-Read, Midd. Oct. 2.
Eaton by Windſor, Bucks, Aſh-Wedneſday.
Eccleſhall, Staff. Aſcenſion-day.
Edgemead, Som. Sept. 19.
Edmonſtow, Notting. Oct. 24.
Eggleſhow, Midd. Aſcenſion-day.
Eglewiſbate, Shropſh. Auguſt 15.
Elliſmere, Shropſh. Auguſt 15, Nov. 22. *Whit-Tueſday.*
Elmoregreen, Dorſ. Holy Thurſday.
Elſtow, Bedf. May 3.
Eltham, Kent, Oct. 20. *Palm Monday, and Whit-Monday.*
Ely, Camb. July 22, Oct. 29.
Emlin, Worc. July 7.

Enfield, Midd. May 1, Sept. 23, Dec. 11. *Good Friday.*
Englesfield, Suſſ. April 13. *All Rogation-week.*
Epping, Eſſex, April 2, Sept. 2, Nov. 13. *Whit-Tueſday.*
Epſom, Surry, July 25.
Erith, Kent, July 25. *Holy Thurſday.*
Eveſham, Worc. Feb, 2, Sept. 21. *Monday after Eaſter, and Whit-Monday.*
Everly-Green, Berks, Oct. 23.
Everſhot, Dorſ. May 1, July 16.
Ewell, Surry, May 1, Oct. 29.
Exeter, Dev. July 22, Aug. 1, Dec. 17. *Aſh-Wedneſday, and Whit-Monday.*
Exmouth, Dev. Nov. 8.

F.

Fairford, Glouc. June 19, Nov. 12.
Fairſa, Cornw. July 28.
Falmouth, Cornw. July 27, Nov. 10.
Falſley, Warw. Monday after old Michaelmas day.
Faringdon, Berks, Feb. 2, Aug. 24, Oct. 29. *Whit-Tueſday.*
Faringhay, Kent, July 13.
Farnborough, Kent, Sept. 1.
Farnham, Dorſ. Aug. 10.
Farnham, Surry, June 24. *Holy Thurſday.*
Fenchamſtead, Berks, Whit-Tueſday.
Feningham, Suff. Aug. 24.
Fenny-Stratford, Bucks, April 8.
Feverſham, Kent, Feb. 14, Aug. 1.
Flint, Aug. 1.
Flower, Cheſh. Nov. 8.
Folkeſton, Kent, June 27.
Folkingham, Linc. May 1. *Aſh-Wedneſday.*
Folkingham, Northamp. Nov. 22.
Fordham, Eſſex, May 4.
Foreham, Hampſh. June 29.
Foreſham, Cheſh. Aug. 10.
Foulneſs, Kent, July 10.
Fowey, Cornw. May 1, Sept. 21. *Shrove-Tueſday.*
Frampton, Berks, Feb. 3.
Frampton, Dorſ. April 23, Aug. 24.
Frideſwin, Oxf. Oct. 30.
Fringe, Norf. May 10.
Frodeham, Cheſh. Aug. 10.
Frodinghay, Sunday fortnight after Midſummer-day.
Frome, Som. Feb. 24. Nov. 22.
Fulſea, Cheſh. Aug. 10.
Furfut, Cornw. July 28.

G.

Gainſborough, Linc. Oct. 17. *Eaſter-Monday.*
Garret, Surry, July 25.
Garſtang, Lanc. Nov. 21.
Gillingham, Dorſ. Sept. 1. *Trinity-Monday.*
Giſborough, Yorkſh. Aug. 15, Sept. 19.
Glaſtenbury, Som. Sept. 19.
Glouceſter, March 25, June 24, Sept. 28, Nov. 28.
Godalmin, Surry, Feb. 2.
Goldzinny, Kent, July 22.
Gorgan, Lanc. June 29.
Goudhurſt, Kent, July 22, Aug. 15.
Graies, Eſſex, May 2. *Whit-Tueſday.*
Grampound, Cornw. Jan. 18, June 11.
Grantham, Linc. Dec. 17. *Fifth Sunday in Lent.*
Graveſend, Kent, Jan. 25, April 23, Oct. 24.
Great Chart, Glouc. March 25.
Great Torrington, Dev. April 23.
Great Warley, Eſſex, Whit-Monday.
Green-ſtreet, Eſſex, May 11. *Thurſday before Aſcenſion-day.*
Grimſby, Linc. Aug. 24.
Grimſon, Monm. March 24.
Grinſtead. See *Eaſt Grinſtead*, and *Weſt Grinſtead.*
Griſman, Monm. Aug. 1.
Guilford, Surry, April 23, Nov. 22. *Good Friday.*
Gunworth, Norf. Oct. 17.

H.

Hadderfield, Suſſ. May 29, June 29.
Hadderſton, Huntingdonſh. July 3.
Haddon. See *Low Haddon.*

dley, Suff. Oct. 10.
d.ow, Kent, Whit-Tuesday.
dstock, Dev. June 17.
leſworth, Suff. Oct. 29.
lifax, Yorkſh. June 24.
llaton, Leic. Nov. 8. *Aſcenſion-day.*
lſtead, Eſſex, April 23, Oct. 29.
lſton, Suff. Aug. 29.
ly, Berks, April 23, Nov. 12.
mmock, Devon. Auguſt 1. *Eaſter-Tueſday.*
mbleton, Hampſh. Feb. 2, Oct. 2.
mpſtead, Midd. Auguſt 1.
mpton Road, Glouc. Oct. 29. *Trinity-monday.*
nnye, Eſſex, May 1.
nſlop, Bucks, May 7.
rbin, Norf. April 23.
rborough, Leic. Oct. 20.
riff, Huntingd. March 6.
rleigh, Merion. Dec. 11.
rleigh, Wilts, Auguſt 10.
rlow, Eſſex, Auguſt 29, Nov. 28.
rlow, Hertf. April 23.
a ſley Green, Lancaſh. Whit-Monday.
rdland, Devon. Sept. 25. *Eaſter-wedneſday.*
rtlerow, Berks, June 29.
rtſtone, Norf. June 24.
rwich, Eſſex, May 1, Oct. 29.
teſbury, Bucks, May 7.
tfield, Eſſex, July 25.
tfield, Hertf. July 25, Oct. 29. *Good Friday.*
therley, Dev. May 10, June 11, Aug. 24, Nov. 8.
avant, Oct. 17.
verford, Pembr. July 7.
verhill, Eſſex, May 1, July 6, Auguſt 15. *Thurſday after the 3d of July.*
ulton, Cheſh. Sept. 19.
wkhurſt, Wilts, Auguſt 10.
y, Breckn. May 4, Aug. 1, Oct. 10.
adon, Yorkſh. July 16, Dec. 6.
ath, Suſſ. Dec. 1.
athing, Eſſex, Dec. 17.
dingham, Eſſex, July 25.
ldzary, Dev. April 16, June 29.
lminſley, Yorkſh. Oct. 2.
lmſtone, Suſſex, 5th Sunday in Lent.
ſtone, Cornw. July 9. Aug. 29, Nov. 8. *Two fairs, the two Saturdays before the 1ſt of January, Saturday before Midlent Sunday, Saturday before Palm-Sunday, and Whit-Monday.*
mingham, Eſſex, April 23, May 3, July 25, Dec. 17.
mſtead, Hertf. Thurſday after Trinity Monday, and ſecond Monday in September.
nfield, Suſſex, April 23.
nley, Oxfordſh. Feb. 24. *Holy Thurſday, Trinity-Thurſday, and Thurſday before Midſummer day.*
nley. Warw. Oct. 29.
reford, May 19, June 20, Oct. 20. *Eaſter Wedneſday, and Tueſday after Candlemas day.*
rmitage, Dorſetſh. Aug. 15.
rtford, May 1, June 24, Sept. 19, Nov. 8. *Saturday before the 5th Sunday in Lent.*
ytſbury, Wilts, May 3, Sept. 25.
ckfield, Hampſh. Good Friday.
ckford, Lanc. Jan. 5.
de, Eſſex, Nov. 28.
gham, Kent, Oct. 10.
gham-ferrers, Bucks, Oct. 10.
gham-ferrers, Northampt. Feb. 24, Oct. 10, Dec. 6.
gh-Beach, Eſſex, June 10. *Whit-Monday, laſt Saturday in December.*
gh-Beckington, Dev. May 3.
ghdown, Suff. Sept. 25.
ghworth, Wilts, Auguſt 1, Oct. 10.
gh-Wickham, Bucks, Sept. 25.
lborough, Eſſex, April 23.
lmorton, Wilts, Auguſt 10. *Eaſter-Monday.*
nckley, Leic. Aug. 15. *Third Monday after Twelfth day.*
ndon, Wilts, Feb. 2. Oct. 29. *Monday before Whit-Sunday.*

Hitching, Hertf. April 2, Oct. 24. *Eaſter Tueſday.*
Hithe, Kent, June 20.
Hodnet, Shropſh. Oct. 24.
Holding, Yorkſh. Oct. 2.
Holdworth, Eſſex, June 29.
Holt, Norf. June 11, Oct. 29.
Holt-hill, Dorſ. July 22.
Holway, Som. May 3.
Honiton, Dev. July 22.
Hookſnorton, Oxf. June 29, Nov. 28.
Horewood, Dev. Aug. 24.
Horncaſtle, Linc. Aug. 10.
Horndon, Eſſex, June 29.
Hornſea, Yorkſh. Aug. 1, Dec. 17.
Horril, Hampſh. Sept. 24.
Horſham, Suſſ. May 3, June 24, July 27, Nov. 30.
Hotſdon, Hertf. June 29.
Houlſworthy, Dev. Oct. 2.
Hounſlow, Middl. Trinity Monday.
Hoxham, Yorkſh. Dec. 17.
Hull, Yorkſh. Oct. 10.
Hungerford, Berks, Aug. 10.
Huntingdon, March 25, July 2, Auguſt 15, Sept. 19. *Good Friday.*
Huntsfield, Som. June 29.
Hurſt, Suſſex, May 3, June 24.
Huthersfield, Yorkſh. May 3.

I

Janbarwick, Wilts, July 25.
Jekleton, Camb. July 2.
Ightham, Kent, Wedneſday in Whitſun-week, called Coxcomb fair.
Ilcheſter, Som. July 22. Aug. 29. *Monday before Palm-ſunday.*
Ilminſter, Som. Aug. 15.
Ilſley. *See* Eaſt Ilſley.
Ingatſton, Eſſex, July 9, Oct. 1.
Ingham, Norf. Trinity Monday.
Ingleſfield, Lanc. Monday before Holy Thurſday.
Ingleſwait, Som. Monday before Holy Thurſday.
Ipſwich, Suffolk, April 23, July 25. *Good-friday.*
Iver, Bucks, June 29. Aug. 1.
Ivingo, Bucks, April 25.

K

Kaſbuckon, Glamorg. Oct. 10.
Kates-croſs, Eſſex, Dec. 4.
Katharine hill. See Catharine.
Kederminſter, Worc. Aug. 24. *Holy Thurſday and Whit-thurſday.*
Keilow, Dev. Aug. 10.
Kellington, Cornwal, April 23, Sept. 1, Nov. 12. *Trinity Thurſday and Holy Thurſday.*
Kellom, Cornw. Nov. 12.
Kemſing, Cheſh. Eaſter-tueſday.
Kendal, Weſtmor. Monday before Lady day, and Trinity Monday.
Kenwilgal, Pemb. Aug. 10.
Kerby Stephen, Weſtm. Whit-monday.
Kerton, Dev. April 30, Sept. 1.
Keſwick, Cumb. July 22.
Ketten, Suff. June 29.
Kettering, Northampt. Thurſday before Eaſter, Thurſday before old Michaelmas day, and Thurſday before the 1ſt of January.
Keynton, Wilts, Oct. 10.
Kidwelly, Caerm. July 22.
Kidwilly, Monm. Oct. 29.
Kilgarren, Pemb. Aug. 10.
Killingworth, Northum. Oct. 10.
Kilmanton, Dev. Sept. 1.
Kilnotton, Cornw. Aug. 25.
Kimbolton, Hunt. July 22, Dec. 10.
King's bridge, Dev. July 20.
Kingſland, Heref. Dec. 9.
Kingſton, Berks, July 25.
Kingſton, Cambr. July 25.
Kingſton, Surry, July 22. Nov. 13. *Palm-ſunday, and Whit-thurſday.*
Kington, Heref. July 22, Sept. 24. *Wedneſday before Eaſter, and Whit-monday.*

Kinnow,

Kinnow, Heref. Aſcenſion-day.
Kenwilgat, Caerm. June 11.
Kirham, Lanc. June 24.
Kirmar, Heref. May 1.
Kirton, Dev. Aug. 10.
Kirton, Linc. April 23.
Knelms, Suff. July 17.
Kneveſtock, Eſſex, Whit-tueſday.
Knighton, Radn. May 6.
Knotsford, Cheſh. June 24, and 29, Oct. 29, Nov. 8. *Whit tueſday.*
Kyneton, Warw. June 24, Oct. 2.

L

Lambard's caſtle, Dorſ. Wedneſday before Midſummer-day.
Lamberhurſt, Kent, March 25.
Lamborn, Berks, Oct. 2, Dec. 4. *Whit-monday.*
Lamorgan, Angleſea, June 29.
Lamport, Som. June 29, Oct. 5, Nov. 21.
Lancaſter, June 24, Oct. 10. *Palm-ſunday.*
Landaron, Lanc. Palm-ſunday.
Landervigan, Som. July 25.
Landibender, Angleſea, June 29.
Landrogran, Angleſea, June 27.
Lanedy, Heref. Nov. 8.
Langadock, Caerm. Feb. 2, March 2.
Langborn, Berks, May 1.
Langoveth, Montg. Oct. 23.
Langridge, Som. July 22.
Langworth, Cheſh. Oct. 23.
Lanibeth, Nottingh. Nov. 21.
Lanilangle, Shropſh. Oct. 10.
Lanport, Som. ſecond Tueſday in Lent.
Langſdown, Som. Aug. 10.
Lanſon, Cornw. Whit-monday.
Lantham, Caerm. Nov. 8.
Lantriſſent, Glam. May 1, Aug. 1, Oct. 29.
Larick, Cornw. June 29, Aug. 24.
Larwin, Glamorg. Aug. 1.
Lavenham, Suſſ. Oct. 10.
Launceſton, Berks, Dec. 6.
Launceſton, Cornw. June 24, Nov. 17.
Laurence-lidiard, Som. Aug. 10.
Laycock, Wilts, July 7.
Layton-buzzard, Bedf. Jan. 25, Oct. 24. *Whit-tueſday.*
Layton-buzzard, Huntingd. May 1.
Lechlade, Glouc. Aug. 10.
Ledwyn, Glamorg. Sept. 24.
Leek, Staff. April 3, July 17, Nov. 13. *Whit-monday.*
Leiceſter, May 1, June 24, Oct. 10, Dec. 19. *Palm-ſunday.*
Leighton, Bedf. May 1.
Lelant, Cornw. Aug. 15.
Lemington, Hampſh. May 1, Oct. 2.
Lenham, Kent, May 26. *Whit-monday.*
Lenton, Notingh. Nov. 21.
Leominſter, Heref. Feb. 2, May 2, June 29, Aug. 24. Nov 8. *Tueſday before Midlent-ſunday.*
Lesford, Lanc. Nov. 17.
Leſkard, Cornw. Aug. 15, Oct. 2. *Shrove-monday, Holy Thurſday, Monday before Palm-ſunday, and Monday before the 17th of December.*
Leſtwithiel, Cornw. June 29, Aug. 24, Nov. 13.
Liverpool, Lanc. July 22.
Lewes, Suſſ. Whit monday.
Lexfield, Suff. May 1.
Leynord Stanley, Glouc. Saturday after St. Swithin's day.
Lid, Kent, July 11.
Lidbury, Heref. May 1, June 11, Oct. 2. *Monday before Eaſter, Monday before the 29th of October, and laſt Monday in December.*
Lidford, Som. Aug. 1. *Holy Thurſday.*
Lifton, Dev. Nov. 8. *Holy Thurſday.*
Lime, Dorſetſh. Feb. 2, May 2, Oct. 2.
Lincoln, June 24, Nov. 28.
Lindedon, Camb. Whit-tueſday.
Linton, Camb. July 19. *Whit-monday.*
Linton, Northampt. Aug. 4.
Litchfield, Stafford May 1. *Every Thurſday after 12th day, for three weeks, Aſh-wedneſday, and Friday before the 5th of November.*
Llancarvan, Glam. Good-friday.
Llanibithew, Caerm. Nov. 1.
Llanibithew, Denb. June 11, July 6.
Llanibithew, Card. Jan. 3, July 6.
Llandaff, Glam. Feb. 9. *Whit-monday.*
Llandyſſel, Glam. Sept. 19.
Llandyſſel, Monm. Jan. 31.
Llanerchemith, Caerm. March 24.
Llangevellegh, Glam. March 1.
Llanginny, Monm. Jan. 7.
Llangaranny, Card. May 15.
Llandilovawr, Caerm. June 11.
Llanvilling, Monm. June 17, July 17, Sept. 29, Oct. 5. *Wedneſday before Eaſter.*
Llanwiſt, Denb. June 11. *Corpus Chriſti.*
Llanydlos, Montg. July 6, Sept. 28.
Locbyr, Shropſh. Oct. 10.
Loddon, Norf. Nov. 21.
Logner, Bedf. April 29.
Longford, Dev. July 22.
Longner, Shropſh. Good friday.
Longuir, Staff. Whit-tueſday.
Loughborough, Leic. Aug. 1, Nov. 13.
Low-Haddon, Bedf. Oct 29.
Lower Knotsford. *See* Knotsford.
Lowth, Linc. May 1, July 22. *Third Sunday after Eaſter.*
Ludgerſhall, Wilts, July 22.
Ludlow, Shropſh. June 24, Oct. 10, Dec. 3. *Monday before Eaſter.*
Luton, Bedf. April 23, Aug. 15.
Lutterworth, Leic. March 22. *Aſcenſion-day, Thurſday after 12th day.*
Lymſham, Som. July 22.
Lynfield, Suffolk, May 1.
Lynn, Norf. Feb. 2.
Lyſton, Dev. Feb. 2.

M

Macclesfield, Cheſhire, June 11, Nov. 2.
Machynleth, Montg. June 27, July 25, Oct. 6 and 12, Nov. 24.
Madbury, Dev. Aug. 10.
Madrim, Kent, March 1.
Magron, Monm. every Monday in Lent.
Maiden-Bradley, Dev. Dec. 11.
Maiden-Bradley, Wilts, April 25, Oct. 2.
Maidenhead, Berks, July 22, Dec. 11. *Whit-wedneſday.*
Maidſtone, Kent, Feb. 2, May 1, June 9, Oct. 17.
Malden, Eſſex, March 25, July 20, Oct. 2. *Whit-Tueſday.*
Malling, Kent, Aug. 1. *Good Friday.*
Malpas, Cheſh. March 25, July 25, Dec. 19.
Malton, Yorkſh. Feb. 2, Oct. 6.
Malton, Wilts, Monday after Eaſter.
Malmsbury, Wilts, March 17 and 31, April 17, May 25, July 25, Oct. 28.
Mancheſter, Lanc. Sept. 20. *Whit-Monday.*
Manhemot, Cornw. April 23, June 12, July 28.
Mansfield, Nottinghamſhire, May 29, June 29.
Marchfield, Glouc. Oct. 24.
Margum, Glamorg. Good Friday.
Market-Jew, Cornw. June 11, Oct. 27, Dec. 11. *Palm-monday, Good Friday.*
Markham-Church, Cornw. Aug. 1.
Marlborough, Wilts, June 29, July 20, Aug. 15, Oct. 2, Nov. 22.
Marlow, Bucks, Oct. 27.
Marras, Cornw. Aug. 10.
Marſgate, Lanc. Eaſter-wedneſday.
Martin's town, Dorſ. Nov. 22.
Martock, Som. Aug. 10.
Marywick, Cornw. Sept. 19, Dec. 21.
Matenſley-green, Hampſh. Dec. 3.
Maudlin-hill, Hampſh. July 22.
Maudlin-hill, Yorkſh. July 22.
Mayfield, Suffolk, May 10 and 13, Nov. 13.

ayling, Kent, Nov. 17.
eethyr, Glam. May 3.
edway, Bucks, Oct. 29.
elton-Mowbray, Leic. Aug. 10. *Monday after 12th day, Whit-tueſday.*
ere, Wilts, May 6, Auguſt 24, Oct. 10.
erin, Suffolk, May 13.
ether, Cornw. Oct. 10.
ichael Dean, Glouc. October 10. *Eaſter-monday.*
iddleham, *Yorkſh. Whit-monday.*
iddlewich, Cheſh. Oct. 29. *Aſcenſion-day.*
idhurſt, Suſſex, March 25, July 20. *Whit-tueſday.*
idlome, *Suſſex, Whit-monday.*
idnal, Eſſex, Oct. 2.
idſummer-Norton, *Somerſ. Good-friday.*
ilborn-Port, Som. June 5, Nov. 8.
ilbrook, Cornw. May 1, Oct. 10.
illiner, Cornw. Oct 10.
i ling, Dorſ. Good-friday, and Palm-ſunday.
ilſon, Wilts, July 16.
inſter, Kent, Palm-ſunday.
ilton, Kent, June 6.
ilverton, Som. July 25, Oct. 10. *Eaſter-tueſday.*
itcham, Surry, Auguſt 1.
odbury, Dev. April 23.
onkton, Cornwal, Sept. 25.
onmouth, Aug. 24, November 22. *Whit-tueſday.*
ontgomery, March 25, May 27, Aug. 24.
ontforel, Leic. June 29.
orelidge, Som. Aug. 15.
oreton, Dev July 20, Dec. 11.
orton, Yorkſh. Nov. 17.
Motſon, Hamp. Trinity-thurſday.
ount-Bowin, Cornw. March 13. *Monday after Midlent-ſunday.*
ount's Bay, Cornw. Oct. 10.
ountecut, Som. April 25.
ounton, Glamorg. May 3.

N

amptwich, Cheſh. Aug. 24.
ayland, Suffolk, Oct. 2.
eath, Glamorg. July 2, Sept 1. *Trinity-thurſday.*
eedham, Suffolk, Nov. 8.
ethſtow, Som. Sept. 18.
Newark upon Trent, Whit-wedneſday.
ewark, Nottingh July 22, Octob. 29. *Tueſday ſeven-night before Palm-ſunday.*
ewborough, Angleſea, June 11.
ewborough, Lanc. Sept. 25.
ewborough, Som Aug. 10.
ewbridge, Oxf. March 20. Sept. 28.
ewbury, Berks, Auguſt 24, Nov. 8, Dec. 11. *Holy-thurſday.*
ewbury, Bucks, June 24.
ewcaſtle, Northumb. March 25, Oct. 29.
ewcaſtle in Emlin. June 11, Sept. 25.
ewcaſtle, Staff. Aug. 1, Nov. 22. *Friday after Twelfth-day, and Monday after Low-ſunday.*
ewent, Glouc. Aug. 1. *Monday before Eaſter, Wedneſday before Whitſunday, and Friday after the 19th of Sept.*
ewin, Monm. Aug. 15.
New-Inn, Kent, Whitſun-Eve.
ewland, Cornw. Nov. 8.
ewmarket, Suff. Nov. 8.
ewnham, Glouc. June 11, Oct. 29.
ewport, Glouc. Oct. 2.
Newport, Hamp. Whit-monday and Palm-ſunday.
ewport, Lanc. Sept. 25.
ewport, Monm. Aug. 15, Nov. 17. *Corpus Chriſti day.*
ewport, Shropſhire, July 7.
ewport-Keams, Montg. June 16, Oct. 24, Dec. 22.
ewport-Pagnel, Bucks, April 21, June 11, Nov. 1, and 17.
ewport-Pond, Eſſex, Nov. 17.
ewton, Lanc. May 7, Aug. 1, Sept. 29, Dec. 16.
ewton-Buſhel, Dev. June 24, Nov. 17. *Firſt Wedneſday in September.*
ewton-Peopleford, Dev. Oct. 29.
ew-town, Montgom. June 13.

New-ware, Montgom. Oct. 29.
Norſe, Dev. Good-friday.
Northall, Middleſex, Sept. 27.
Northallerton, Yorkſhire, Jan. 25, Aug. 24, *every Wedneſday after Chriſtmas, till June.*
Northam-Church, Lanc. Aug. 1.
Northampton, March 25, April 3, and 23, Aug. 13, and 15, Sept. 19, Nov. 28, Dec. 19, *every Friday from Chriſtmas till June.*
North Church, Hertf. Saturday before old Michaelmas-day.
North-Curry, Som. Aug. 1.
North-fleet, Kent, March 24, April 2. *Eaſter-tueſday, and Whit-tueſday.*
Northill, Berks, March 25.
Northill, Kent, March 25.
Northleech, Glouc. June 29,
North-Moor, Wilts, Aug. 20.
Northmore, Suſſex, March 20.
North-Moulton, Dev. Nov. 12.
North-Moulton, Dorſ. firſt Tueſday in May.
Northop, Dev. June 26.
Northop-Petherton, Som. May 1.
Northſtreet, Kent, Eaſter-tueſday.
North Taunton, Dev. Oct. 2. Dec. 17.
Norton Wilts, July 20.
Northwich, Cheſh. July 22, Aug. 24, Dec. 17.
Norwich, Norfolk, Aug. 24.
Nottingham, Feb. 24, October 2.
Nun-Eaton, Warw. May 3.
Nunny, Som Nov. 22
Nutley, Suſſex, April 23. *Good-friday.*

O

Oakham, Rutland. April 27. September 15.
Oakhampton, Dev. July 7. *Second Thurſday in March, and firſt Tueſday in September.*
Oakingham, Berks, June 11, Aug. 29, Nov. 12.
Ockingdon, Berks, Thurſday before Shrove-tueſday.
Ockington, Dev. May 3. *Second Tueſday in March, and firſt Tueſday in September; firſt Wedneſday after the 11th of October, and Wedneſday after Midſummer-day.*
Odehill, Oxf. May 19.
Odiham, Hampſh. July 7. *Saturday before Midlent Sunday.*
Oreton, Rutl. Sept. 25.
Orford, Suff. June 24.
Orleton, Weſtmorl. April 13.
Ormſkirk, Lanc. Aug. 29. *Whit-Monday.*
Oſweſtry, Shropſh. May 1, Dec. 11.
Otterford, Som. Nov. 17
Overton, Hampſh. April 23, July 7.
Oulney, Bucks, Feb. 14, March 25, June 29, Aug. 10, *Eaſter-Monday.*
Oundle, Northamptonſh Feb. 14. *Whit-monday.*
Ower, Dorſetſh. Oct. 10.
Oxford, May 1, Aug. 24, Nov. 8. *Eaſter-tueſday.*

P

Paddington, Middl. July 26.
Padom-Haſſon, Norf. Nov. 13.
Pamphile, Dorſ. Oct. 29.
Panſwick, Glouc. Sept. 19. *Whit-tueſday.*
Partney, Cornw. Sept 19.
Patrington, Yorkſh. March 17.
Peckham, Surry, Aug. 10.
Pedleton, Dorſ. Eaſter-tueſday.
Peddy, Som. Aug. 10.
Pellily, Glouc. Sept. 19.
Pembridge, Som. May 1.
Pemſey, Lanc. June 24.
Penhall, Cornw. Sept. 25. *Holy Thurſday.*
Penkridge, Staff. Oct. 4.
Pennyfont, Som. Dec. 3.
Penrith, Cumberl. Whit-tueſday.
Penryn, Cornw. May 1, July 7.
Penſance, Cornw. March 5. *Trinity Thurſday, and Thurſday before Advent-ſunday.*
Pensford Som. Nov. 8.
Perlock, Som. Nov. 22.
Perſhore, Worc. May 31, June 15.
Peterborough, Northampt. June 24, Aug. 1, Oct. 2.
Petersfield, Hampſh. June 29, Dec. 11.

Peverell, Dev. Aug. 29.
Philip's-Norton, Somerſ. April 27, May 1.
Piddle-town, Dorſ. Oct. 29.
Pinchback, Cornw. July 15.
Plimpton, Dev. Feb. 14, March 25, June 24, Aug. 1. *Holy Thurſday.*
Plint, Cornw. June 24.
Pluckley, Cornw. Dec. 16.
Plymouth, Dev. Oct. 29. *Thurſday after the 29th of October.*
Pontefract, Yorkſh. Palm-ſunday, and Trinity-eve.
Ponterley, Hampſh. July 22.
Pont Stephen, Hampſh. June 29, Oct. 19. *Whit-wedneſday.*
Pont Stephen, Oxf. Nov. 8.
Pontypole, Monm. March 11, May 24, June 24, July 29, Oct. 10.
Pool, Derb. Nov. 12.
Pool, Dorſ. Nov. 12.
Porkdown, Hamp. July 15.
Porlock, Som. June 11.
Portſmouth, Hampſh. July 1.
Potton, Bedf. third Tueſday in January, third Tueſday in July, and Good-friday.
Preſcot, Lanc. Corpus Chriſti day.
Preſton, Lanc. June 24, Aug. 15, Dec. 11.
Preſton, Yorkſh. Nov. 8.
Prickwell, Eſſex, St. Swithin's day.
Probus, Cornw. June 24, Sept. 17.
Prue-Preſton, Hampſh. Dec. 11.
Pulhely, Caern. May 3.

Q

Queen's-Camel, Som. Oct. 25. *Trinity Thurſday.*

R

Radnage, Bucks, June 29. *Trinity-Monday.*
Radnor, Oct. 29.
Ragland, Monm. Nov. 8.
Ramſbury, Wilts, May 3, Sept. 25.
Randal, Lanc. Whit-tueſday.
Raſon, Som. May 13.
Ravenglas, Cumb. July 25.
Ray, Eſſex, Trinity Monday.
Rayleigh, Eſſex, Trinity Monday.
Reading, Berks, Feb. 2, May 1, June 24, July 25, Oct. 2.
Reculver, Kent, Sept. 19.
Redruth, Cornw. April 21, July 23, Oct. 12.
Rhaiadergwy, Radnorſh, Aug. 15, Sept. 25.
Rich, Camb. all Rogation week.
Richdrel, Lanc. Nov. 8.
Richmond, Surry, July 7, Sept. 25.
Rickmanſworth, Hertf. July 2.
Ridbury, Kent, Jan. 25.
Ridbury, Monm. Jan. 25.
Ringwood, Hampſh. June 29, Dec. 11.
Rippon, Yorkſh. May 1, Sept. 25. *Aſcenſion-day.*
Riſborough, Bucks, Good Friday.
Rochdale, Lanc. May 3, Nov. 3.
Rocheſter, Kent, May 19, Nov. 10, Dec. 11.
Rochford, Eſſex, April 2, Oct. 17. *Whit-tueſday.*
Rocking, Kent, July 22.
Rockingham, Northampt. Sept. 19.
Roſs, Heref. July 20, Auguſt 15, Sept. 25, Nov. 10, Dec. 11. *Aſcenſion-day, and Corpus Chriſti day.*
Rowel, Northampt. Trinity Monday.
Rowland-caſtle, Berks, May 1.
Royſton, Hertf. July 7, Oct. 24. *Aſh-wedneſday, and Wedneſday in Whitſun week.*
Rugby, Warw. Aug. 10, Nov. 21.
Ruilly, Eſſex, Trinity-monday.
Rumford, Eſſex, June 24.
Rumney, Kent, Aug. 1.
Rumſey, Hampſh. Aug. 15, Nov. 8. *Eaſter-Monday.*
Ruthwyn, Denbighſh. Oct. 1, Nov. 11.
Rye-hill, Hamp. Whit-Monday.
Rygate, Surry, Whit-monday, and Wedneſday in Eaſter-week.
Ryſton, Som. June 4.

S

Sabridgeworth, Hertf. April 23, Oct. 20.
Sadbury, Trinity Monday.
Saffron-Walden, Eſſex, Oct. 23. *Midlent-ſunday.*
Sale, Kent, Whit-thurſday.
Salford, Derbyſh. Nov. 17. *Whit-monday.*
Saliſbury, Wilts, Jan. 6, March 25, Oct. 13. *Firſt ſunday in Lent, Tueſday after Twelfth day, Monday before Lady day, Whit-tueſday, and Thurſday after old Michaelmas day.*
Saltaſh, Cornw. Feb. 2, July 25.
Saltwich, Worc. Good Friday.
Sandbach, Cheſh. Eaſter-tueſday, Wedneſday in Whitſun week, and Monday after St. Bartholomew day.
Sandbury, Yorkſh. Trinity-monday, and Corpus Chriſti day.
Sandford, Dev. April 21, Aug. 29.
Sandhurſt, Linc. Dec. 18.
Sandy-chapel, Glamorganſh. Aug. 24.
Sandwich, Kent, Dec. 4.
Sapſhead, Hertf. April 23.
Sawley, Derb. Nov. 12.
Scarborough, Yorkſh. Holy Thurſday.
Sea-Saltre, Kent, March 25.
Seal, Glouc. July 25.
Sedelow, Yorkſh. Aug. 10.
Selby, Yorkſh. June 11, Aug. 1, Oct. 10. *Tueſday after Eaſter.*
Sevenoke, Kent, March 3, June 29, Oct. 12, Dec. 11.
Shaftſbury, Dorſ. June 24. *Saturday before Palm-ſunday.*
Sheepwaſh, Dev. April 10, Aug. 10, Oct. 21.
Shefnal, Shropſh. July 25, Nov. 21.
Shefford, Bedf. Jan. 12, Sept. 30.
Shelford, Bedf. July 7.
Shepham, Som. Nov. 17.
Sherborn, Dorſ. July 7, Auguſt 10. *Firſt Monday after the 11th of October.*
Sherſton, Wilts, May 1, Oct. 2.
Shipton, Worc. June 11.
Shirking, Midd. July 25.
Shrewſbury, June 22, Aug. 1, Oct. 2. *Wedneſday after Aſcenſion day.*
Shroughton, Dorſ. Sept. 25.
Sidland, Dorſ. Dec. 17.
Silverton, Dev. June 24, Aug. 24.
Sithick, Hamp. March 25.
Sittingborn, Kent, Oct. 10. *Whit-monday.*
Sittingham, Shropſh. Oct. 2.
Skipton, Cheſh. July 25.
Skipton, Yorkſh. Nov. 22. *Whit-monday, Saturday in Eaſter week, and Trinity monday.*
Sleaford, Linc. Whit-monday.
Smeath, Kent, July 2.
Smeath, Warw. Sept. 19.
Snide, Warw. Sept. 19.
Sodbury, Glouceſt. June 24. *Holy Thurſday, and the fifth Sunday in Lent.*
Soham, Camb. April 28. *Monday before St. John the Baptiſt's day.*
Somerton, Som. Sept. 30, Nov. 8. *Third Tueſday after Eaſter, Tueſday before Holy Thurſday, and Tueſday after Palm-ſunday.*
Soſing, Yorkſhire, Monday before Eaſter.
Southam, Warw. June 29.
Southampton, Hampſh. April 25. *Trinity monday.*
Southaven, Yorkſh. Trinity monday.
Southbovoy, Dev. July 7, Nov. 8. *Holy Thurſday.*
Southbrent, Som. Oct. 10.
Southel, Midd. Wedneſday in Eaſter week, and ſecond Wedneſday after the 11th of October.
South Moulton, Dev. Saturday before the 11th of June, and firſt Tueſday in September.
South Petherton, Som. June 24.
Southey, Kent, Dec. 3.
Southwark, Sept. 19.
Spalding, Linc. Sept. 19, Nov. 28, Dec. 17.
Spaſſer, Heref. April 23.
Spilſby, Linc. Trinity Monday.
St. Aberkennen, Dev. Nov. 22.
St. Alban's Hertf. March 25, June 22, Aug. 15, Oct. 10, St. Andrew's

St. Andrew's, Dorſ. Dec. 11.
St. Ann's Som. June 24.
St. Auſtel, Cornw. Dec. 11.
St Deacons, Som. Aug. 4.
St. Eades, Heref. Aug. 13.
St. Edes, Huntingd. Dec. 17.
St. Edmond's Bury, Suff. Oct. 2, Nov. 22. *Good Friday.*
St. Faith's, Suff Oct. 17.
St. Germains, Cornw. May 28, Aug. 1.
St. Giles's, Hampſh. Sept. 1.
St. James's, Suff. July 25.
St. John's Worc. March 25. *Friday after Palm-Sunday.*
St. John's bridge, Glouc. Aug. 29.
St. *Ives, Cornw. Good Friday, and Saturday before Advent Sunday.*
St. Ives, Hunt. Oct. 2. *Whit-Monday.*
St. Lawrence, Cornw. Aug. 10. Oct. 29.
St. Margaret's, Kent, July 20.
St. Mary, Somerſ. Sept. 19.
St. Mary-Ottery, Dev. Aug. 15. *Tueſday before Palm-ſunday, and Trinity-tueſday.*
St. Mary's Pariſh, Glamor. Aug. 15.
St. Michael's, Cornw. Nov. 8. *Monday after old Michaelmas day.*
St Nicholas, Glam. Dec. 17.
St. Pombs, Cornw. April 23, June 28. *Good Friday.*
St. Stephen, Cornw. May 1, July 20, Sept. 25.
St. Tiddy, Cornw May 10, Sept 14.
St. *Toſſel's, Corn. Good Friday, and Whit-tueſday.*
St. *Winard, Monmouthſh. Whit-wedneſday.*
Stabridge, Dorſ. April 25, Aug. 24.
Stackpool, Cheſh. July 25.
Stafford, Feb. 26, April 22, May 3, June 29, July 30, Oct. 2. *St. Peter's day.*
Stamford, Linc. Feb. 6, March 26, July 25. *Sunday after Corpus Chriſti day, and Midlent Sunday.*
Stanaway, Eſſex, April 23.
Standſtead, Hertf. May 1.
Stanes, Midd. April 30.
Stanley, Derb. Nov. 17.
Stanton, Glouc. Oct. 24.
Starſtrange, Suff. June 29.
Staverdale, Dev. July 25.
Stavord, Som. June 11, Sept. 28.
Stebbing, Eſſex, June 29.
Steeple-Aſhton, Wilts, Sept. 19.
Stevenedge, Hertf. July 17.
Stockbridge, Hampſh. June 29. *Holy Thurſday.*
Stock-clear, Yorkſh. Whit-monday.
Stockley, Yorkſh. Saturday after the twenty-third of April.
Stocknail, Cornw. May 1.
Stockport, Cheſh. March 2. *Aſcenſion-day, and Corpus Chriſti day.*
Stocksbury, Cornwall, July 22.
Stockton, Durham, July 7.
Stock-Underham, Som. April 25.
Stockworth, Linc. June 29.
Stoke, Suff. May 1.
Stoken Church, Oxf. June 29.
Stokenham, Dev. Good Friday.
Stokeſley, Yorkſh. Trinity-monday.
Stone, Staff. July 25.
Stonehouſe, Glouc. April 20, Oct. 10.
Stoney Stratford, Bucks, July 22.
Stopford, Cheſh. March 12.
Stopford, Eſſex, October 24.
Stortford, Hertf. Nov. 17.
Stow, Glouc. October 24.
Stow, Linc. Auguſt 15, October 10.
Stow, Monm. Whit-Tueſday.
Stow, Suffolk, June 29.
Stow Green, Dorſ. June 17.
Stow-Gummer, Som. April 25, Aug. 1.
Stow-Guſſy, Som. May 3, Sept. 23.
Stow-in-Guillam, Suff. Friday in Whitſun-week.
Stow-in-the-Wold, Glouc. May 1.
Stowrbridge, Worc. March 18, Aug. 29.
Straitſtock, Dorſ. June 24.
Stratford, Hertf. May 1.

Stratford, Warw. Sept. 19. *Aſcenſion-day.*
Stratton, Cornw. May 8, Nov. 8, Dec. 11.
Stretton-Church, Shropſh. Sept. 19.
Stroud-Water, Glouc. May 1, Aug. 10.
Sturbridge, Camb. Sept. 19.
Sturmiſter, Dorſ. May 1, Oct. 24.
Sudbury, Suff. March 12, June 29, Aug. 24. *The laſt Tueſday in April.*
Sudminſter, Eſſex, Thurſday before Eaſter, and Aſcenſion day.
Sutton, Hampſh. Nov. 17.
Sutton, Kent, December 1.
Swaley, Dorſ. April 25.
Swanſey, Glam. June 11, July 2, Aug. 15, Oct. 19. *Second Saturday in May.*
Sweaton, Durham, July 7.
Swindon, Wilts, Sept. 19. *Second Monday in May, and ſecond Monday after the 11th of December.*

T

Tallowdown, Dorſetſh. May 18, Aug. 31.
Talſarn-Green, Dev. Nov. 8.
Tamworth, Staff. April 23, Oct. 24. *Aſh-wedneſday.*
Tangley, Hampſh. April 25, June 24.
Tanill, Wilts, July 26.
Taveſtock, Dev. Jan. 6, April 25, Aug. 29, Oct. 10, Dec. 11.
Taunton, Som. June 17, July 7.
Tedbury, Glouc. July 22. *Aſh-wedneſday.*
Tenbury, Worc. April 25, July 7.
Tenby, Pemb. July 20, Sept. 19.
Tenderden, Kent, April 26.
Teptery, Eſſex, July 26.
Tewkſkury, Glouc. Feb. 24, May 3, June 11, Aug. 24, Oct. 10.
Thame, Oxf. Oct. 10. *Tueſday after old Michaelmas day.*
Thaxted, Eſſex, Aug. 1. *Sunday after Aſcenſion-day.*
Themble-Green, Glouc. July 25.
Therſton, Warw. Sept. 19.
Thetford, Norf. May 1.
Thickham, Som. July 25.
Thorn, Yorkſh. firſt Monday in June.
Thornbury, Glouc. Aug. 15. *Eaſter-Monday, and Monday before the 1ſt of January.*
Thorn-comb, Dev. Eaſter-Tueſday.
Thorock-graies, Eſſex, May 12, June 29, Oct. 20.
Thrampſton, Northumb. July 25.
Thunderly, Eſſex, May 7, Aug. 4.
Thurlor, Camb. Oct. 10.
Thurſk, Yorkſh. Oct. 29.
Tiddeſwell, Derb. May 3, Oct. 29.
Tigmouth, Dev. Oct. 10.
Tilbury, Eſſex, July 25.
Tilverton, Dev. Oct. 10.
Tinmouth, Dev. Oct. 10.
Titchfield, Hampſh. May 3.
Tiverton, Dev. Oct. 10. *Tueſday after Trinity-Thurſday.*
Toceſter, Northampt. March 22, Auguſt 4, Oct. 29.
Tockington, Glouc. May 9, Nov. 17, Dec. 17.
Toriſt, Yorkſh. Oct. 29.
Torrington, Dev. June 24, Oct. 10.
Totnes, Dev. May 1, Nov. 8.
Tottenham court, Midd. Auguſt 1.
Tream, Glouc. Nov. 22.
Treewen, Corn. Eaſter-Tueſday.
Tregahethaw, Corn. April 25, Auguſt 1.
Tregaron, Card. Feb. 8, March 8.
Tregony, Cornw. April 25, May 3, July 25, Sept. 1, Nov. 17. *Shrove-Tueſday.*
Treſhevimick, Worc. July 7.
Trewin, Cornw. Oct. 10.
Trigney, Lanc. Nov. 17.
Trinbury, Worc. Auguſt 15.
Tring, Hertf. June 29.
Troubridge, Wilts, July 25.
Truro, Cornw. Nov. 30. *Wedneſday after Midlent Sunday, and Whit-Wedneſday.*
Tuddington, Bedf. Aug. 24, Oct. 10, Dec. 4.
Tunbridge, Kent, June 24, Oct. 13. *Aſh-Wedneſday, and Trinity-Monday.*
Turbury, Cumb. Auguſt 15.

Tuxbury, Northampt. Auguſt 13.
Tuxford, Nottingh. May 1, Sept. 19.
Twiford, Berks, July 15.

V.

Vahley, Staff. Sept. 24.
Uphaven, Wilts, Oct. 29.
Upper-Ottery, Dev. Firſt Wedneſday after the 11th of October.
Uppingham, Rutl. Feb. 24, July 7.
Upton, Worc. June 29. *Whit-Thurſday.*
Uſk, Monm. May 1, Oct. 29. *Trinity-Monday.*
Uſkom, Dev. June 29, Auguſt 30. *Good Friday.*
Uttoxeter, Staff. April 25, Sept. 19.
Uxbridge, Midd. July 20, Oct. 10.

W.

Wadley, Berks, March 25.
Wakefield, Yorkſh. June 24, Aug. 10, Sept. 19. Dec. 11. *Third Thurſday in Auguſt.*
Walden, Eſſex, Feb. 24, March 25, July 25. *Firſt Wedneſday in February, and firſt Wedneſday in May.*
Walgrove, Berks, Oct. 10. *Whit-Monday.*
Wallingford, Berks, April 5, 25, June 24, Sept. 29, Nov. 12, Dec. 17. *Thurſday before Eaſter, and Whit-Monday.*
Waltham, Berks, Auguſt 10.
Waltham, Eſſex, May 3. Sept. 25.
Waltham, Surry, Wedneſday in Eaſter-week.
Waltham, Worc. Sept. 19.
Wandſworth, Surry, Sept. 19. *Whit-Monday.*
Wantage, Berks, July 7, Oct. 17.
Warbridge, Cornw. May 1, June 11, Aug. 1. Oct. 10.
Ware, Hertf. Sept. 18.
Ware, Som. July 7.
Wareham, Dorſ. April 6, June 24, Auguſt 31.
Warminſter, Wilts, April 11, June 24, Aug. 10, Nov. 8.
Warrington, Lanc. July 25, Dec. 10.
Warwick, May 1, June 24, Nov. 8.
Watford, Hertf. Auguſt 24. *Trinity-Monday.*
Watlington, Oxf. March 25, Auguſt 24.
Wead, Eſſex, Oct. 15.
Weald, Som. July 7.
Webley, Heref. Holy Thurſday, and Trinity-Thurſday.
Wedmore, Som. July 22.
Wefnor, Eſſex, Aug. 24.
Wellington, Shropſh. June 11.
Wellingborough, Northampt. Oct. 29. *Wedneſday in Eaſter-week.*
Wells, Som. May 3, 9, June 24, Oct. 22.
Welſh Pool, Montg. Aug. 29.
Wem, Shropſh. June 29, July 2, Nov. 21.
Wemerly, Cornw. May 8.
Wendover, Bucks, May 1, Oct. 2.
Wenlock, Shropſh. June 24.
Weſtbury, Wilts, firſt Friday in Lent, and Whit-Monday.
Weſterly, Glouc. Sept. 19.
Weſt-Grinſtead, Suſſ. Dec. 11.
Weſt-Lows, Cornw. April 25.
Weſtmear, Staff. Sept. 19.
Weſton-Zealand, Som. Aug. 29.
Weſtram, Kent, April 22.
Wethersfield, Eſſex, July 22.
Wetſhap, Wilts, Nov. 17.
Wettington, Wilts, Nov. 17.
Wey-hill, Hampſh. Oct. 10.
Weymer, Hampſh. Oct. 10.
Whatley, Som. July 7.
Whemerly, Kent, Nov. 6.
Whilby, Dorſ. Sept. 25.
Whitchurch, Hampſh. Oct. 25. *Whit-Monday.*
Whitehaven, Cumb. Sept. 1.
Whitland, Glouc. Feb. 24, March 29.
Whitland, Worc. Aug. 15, Sept. 19.
Whitlegridge, Shropſh. Nov. 22.
Wickham, Hampſh. May 9.
Wickware, Glouc. March 25, July 2.
Wigburn, Berks, March 25.
Wiggan, Lanc. Oct. 29. *Aſcenſion-day.*
Wigmore, Monm. March 25, July 25.
Wikon, Monm. July 25.
Wilſcomb, Som. May 1, Sept. 25.
Wilton, Wilts, April 23, Sept. 1, Nov. 12.
Wimbleton, Surry, Monday after Lady-day.
Winborn, Dorſ. June 29, Sept. 14. *Good Friday.*
Winchcomb, Glouc. April 25, July 17.
Wincheſter, Hampſh. July 22, Oct. 24. *Firſt Monday in Lent.*
Windſor, Berks, June 24, Oct. 24. *Eaſter-Tueſday.*
Winny, Hampſh. Oct. 10.
Winſlow, Bucks, Aug. 10.
Winterborn, Glouc. June 29. *Second Thurſday in February, and ſecond Thurſday in May.*
Wiſbich, Camb. Aug. 1. *Whitſun-eve.*
Witham, Eſſex, Nov. 12. *Trinity-Monday.*
Witham, Hampſh. Oct. 10.
Witherall, Yorkſh. July 22, Oct. 2.
Witheridge, Dev. May 3, June 29. *Wedneſday after the 15th of April.*
Witney fair, Oxf. June 29, Dec. 4. *Holy Thurſday.*
Witney ſtatute, Oxf. Thurſday after old Michaelmas day, and the next Thurſday.
Wodley, Som. April 23.
Wolpit, Suffolk, Sept. 19.
Wolverhampton, Staff. June 24.
Wooburn, Bedf. July 2.
Woodbridge, Suff. May 3.
Woodbury-hill, Dorſ. Sept. 18.
Woodcut, Oxf. Monday after the 16th day of November.
Woodham-ferris, Eſſex, Oct. 10.
Woodhurſt, Hunt. June 24.
Woodland, Dorſ. July 5.
Woodſtock, Oxf. March 25, July 2, Oct. 2, Nov. 12, Dec. 17. *Whit Tueſday, and Thurſday after the 12th of November.*
Woodſtock ſtatute, the 1ſt day of October, and the next Thurſday.
Woolbridge, Dorſ. May 3.
Woold, Worc. Sept. 19.
Worceſter, Aug. 15, Sept. 19. *Saturday before Palm-ſunday, and Saturday after Eaſter.*
Workſen, Dev. June 7.
Workſop, Nottinghamſh. March 7, Oct. 18.
Workſworth, Derb. May 2.
Wortham, Glouc. April 23.
Wotton, Glouc. Sept. 25.
Wotton, Som. April 23, Sept. 19.
Wotton, Wilts, Nov. 2, Dec. 19.
Wrexham, Denb. March 12.
Wrinkley, Glouc. Oct. 29.
Wrinton, Som. Sept. 20.

Y.

Yadeland, Monm. July 22.
Yarmouth, Hampſh. July 22.
Yarmouth, Norf. Thurſday before Lady day.
Yarmouth caſtle, Wilts, Oct. 3.
Yarum, Yorkſh. July 22, Oct. 19. *Third Thurſday in April, Holy Thurſday, and Thurſday after Lady-day.*
Yelland, Yorkſh. Aug. 1.
Yminith, Yorkſh. Aug. 1.
Yoevil, Som. Nov. 17.
York, June 24, Aug. 1, Oct. 19, Nov. 13.
Yſtradmerick, Som. June 21, July 21, Oct. 29.

But the greateſt of theſe fairs are, Sturbridge, in Cambridgeſhire, for almoſt all kinds of goods; Briſtol, Exeter, and Cheſter, for cloths, and many other commodities; Wey-hill for hops, and Burford for ſheep; Bartholomew-fair, London, for lean and Welch black cattle; St. Faith's for Scots runts; Yarmouth, for herrings; Ipſwich, for butter; and Shrewſbury and Bridgnorth, for Welch butter and cattle.

According to the Engliſh laws, a fair muſt be kept no longer than the grant, or uſe by cuſtom, will warrant; and if goods are ſold after the expiration of the time, the ſeller is to forfeit to the King double the value of what is ſold, of which the proſecutor is to have the fourth part. The fair muſt be duly proclaimed by the ſheriff

or lord of the fair, when the time of its continuance muſt be mentioned; the place or ground appointed muſt be ſet out; and care is to be taken that there ſhall be no riots or diſturbance, but an orderly keeping of it during the time it continues. Where there is a beaſt-fair, for horſes, mares, geldings, and other cattle, they muſt have their appointed places, that ſuch people as reſort thither may have a certainty where to find them. One ſufficient perſon, or more, muſt be appointed to take toll, and keep the ſame place from ten in the forenoon every day till ſun-ſet, during the time of the fair; and in tolling, the perſon appointed for that purpoſe muſt have before him the parties bargaining, upon his tolling any horſe, or other beaſt, and muſt write in his book the chriſtian and ſirnames of all the parties; alſo their dwelling-places, with the colours, and ſome particular marks of the horſe, mare, or gelding, ſo ſold or bargained for, on penalty of forfeiting 40 s. for every default. The toll keeper is to have one credible perſon, known to him, to vouch the horſe or mare, and teſtify his knowledge of the ſeller; and his name, and place of abode, muſt be entered with that of the other in the book; together with the colour, mark, or price, of the horſe or mare ſold or exchanged; of which the buyer may have a note in writing out of the book, reciting the contract, with the hand of the toll-man thereto, for which he may take 2 d.

If any toll-keeper ſuffer a ſale to paſs without a voucher, unleſs he well knows the party, he is to forfeit 5 l.; as alſo is every party making a falſe teſtimony, or avouchment; or every ſeller unknown, not bringing a voucher, and cauſing the ſame to be entered; and the ſale of the horſe, or other cattle, to be void. But, notwithſtanding ſuch vouching, if a horſe is ſtolen, and ſold in this manner, the owner, upon claiming him within ſix months after ſtealing, may redeem him at the price he was ſold for, making proof, by two ſufficient witneſſes, of his property, and that it was ſtolen; ſuch proof to be made before a juſtice of peace, or the head-officer or magiſtrate of a corporation; and the price to be ſuch as the buyer upon oath ſhould teſtify before the juſtice he paid for him: though, if the ſtolen horſe is not ſold in open fair or market, and lawfully tolled, the right is in the owner from whom he was ſtole, who may ſeize or replevy him in any place where he finds him

For the rendering of juſtice between buyers and ſellers, and the redreſs of grievances ariſing therein, a court of pie-pouder was eſtabliſhed, by the antient laws of England, to be held in fairs. See *Pie*-pouder court.

By the ſtatute of the 1ſt and 2d of Philip and Mary, it was enacted, That perſons dwelling in the country, out of cities, boroughs, towns corporate, or market towns, ſhould not ſell by retail any woollen-cloth, linen cloth, haberdaſh-wares, grocery-wares, or mercery-wares, at any cities, boroughs, towns corporate, or market-towns, except in open fairs, upon pain of forfeiting 6 s. 8 d. and the wares to be ſold: provided that this act ſhould not be hurtful to any that brought thoſe commodities to thoſe places, to be ſold by wholeſale. See *Market*.

FAISANS, or *Pheaſants*. An iſland made by the river Bidoſſa, which ſeparates France from Spain, ſituated in 1 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 43 deg. 25 min. of N. lat. which iſland has been the ſcene of ſeveral treaties between France and Spain, particularly in 1659.

FALKENBURG, or *Fauconberg*. A port-town of Sweden, in the province of Gothland, ſituated in 13 deg. of E. lon. and 57 deg of N. lat. See *Sweden*.

FALL, or *Foll*. A ſmall copper coin current in Egypt, worth about 3-20ths of a penny ſterling; but the Turks call it *mangur*.

FALMOUTH. A port-town of Cornwall, ſituated in 5 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 50 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. on a fine bay of the Engliſh channel, the entrance whereof is well defended by forts, and the town has very lately, from an obſcure place, become one of the moſt flouriſhing ſea-ports in the weſt of England.

FALSTER. A little iſland of Denmark, ſituated in 12 deg. of E lon. and 55 deg. of N. lat. near the entrance of the Baltic, and ſouth of Zealand, from which it is ſeparated by a narrow ſtreight. See *Denmark*.

FAMAGUSTA. A city of Aſiatic Turky, ſituated in 36 deg. of E. lon. and 35 deg. of N. lat. at the end of the iſland of Cyprus, anciently a ſtrong ſea-port town of great trade; but the harbour is now choaked up in ſuch a manner as to admit of no ſhips of burden. See *Turkiſh* iſlands.

FAMINE *Port*. A fortreſs ſituated in 80 deg. of W. lon. and 54 deg. of N. lat. on the N. E coaſt of the ſtreights of Magellan, where the Spaniſh garriſon periſhed by famine, and therefore it has been ever ſince deſerted.

FAMIS, is a term uſed at Smyrna, where what they call the famis gold cloths, is one of the ſorts of ſtuff mixed with gold ſent from Europe.

FAN. A machine uſed to raiſe wind, and cool the air by agitating it; though, among Europeans, and particularly in England, it is more properly a toy, being more conducive to ornament than utility. The cuſtom now prevalent among the ladies of wearing fans, was borrowed from the inhabitants of the eaſtern countries; where the intemperate heat of the climate renders the uſe of fans, and umbrellas, almoſt indiſpenſible: but at preſent, what is called a fan among Europeans, is a thin ſkin, or piece of paper, taffety, or other light ſtuff, cut ſemi-circularly, and mounted on ſeveral little ſticks of wood, ivory, tortoiſe-ſhell, or the like; the ſticks being uſually provided by the cabinet makers or toymen, and the fan-painters plait the papers, paint, and mount them. The common painting is gold leaf, applied on a ſilvered ground, both prepared by the gold-beaters; though ſometimes they paint on a gold ground, but it is rarely, moſt true gold being too dear, and falſe too paltry. The Italian mounts are moſt in requeſt; but a great part of the fan mounts are engraved, and afterwards coloured, which is a great diſcouragement to any improvement in that branch of trade in England.

FAN-*maker*, is a perſon whoſe trade conſiſts in making of womens fans.

FAN-*makers company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 8th of Queen Anne, dated the 19th of April 1709, by the appellation of The maſter, wardens, aſſiſtants, and ſociety of the art or myſtery of fan makers in the cities of London and Weſtminſter, and twenty miles round the ſame; which is a company conſiſting of a maſter, 2 wardens, and 20 aſſiſtants; but they have neither livery or hall.

FAN-*painter*, is a perſon who paints fans; which is a buſineſs that requires no great fancy, nor much ſkill in drawing or painting, to make a workman; a glare of colours being more neceſſary than a polite invention.

FANAM. A ſilver coin current in different parts of the Eaſt Indies, particularly along the coaſt of Coromandel, from the Cape of Comorin to Bengal; as alſo in the iſland of Ceylon, though not ſtruck there; being worth about 3 d. ſterling.

FANEGOS. A corn-meaſure uſed in Portugal, 15 of which make the muid, or about three Engliſh quarters.

FANEQUO, or *Fannaque*. A corn-meaſure uſed in ſome towns of Spain, particularly Cadiz, St. Sebaſtians, and Bilboa; being the ſame as the fanegos of Portugal, weighing by heap 144 lb. and by ſtroke 99 lb. Engliſh.

FANGOT. A pack, or parcel of goods from the Levant; from one to three hundred weight.

FANO. A ſmall weight uſed at Goa, and in ſome other parts of the Eaſt Indies, for the weighing of rubies, being about two caracts.

FANO is alſo a port-town of Italy, ſituated in 14 deg. of E. lon. and 44 of N. lat. on the gulph of Venice, and ſubject to the pope. See *Italy*.

FANTI, is a term at Venice for the clerks, or factors, of the college of commerce, by whoſe intervention merchants make proteſts of bills of exchange.

FARATELLE. A weight uſed in ſome places of the Eaſt Indies, being about 1 lb. 16 oz. avoirdupoiſe.

FARDEL. A bundle, or packet, ſuppoſed commonly leſs than a regular pack or bale.

FARDOS. A ſilver coin current at Bantam, in the iſland of Java, worth about 10 d. ſterling; and the fardos is alſo a money of accompt.

FARE. A voyage, or paſſage, or the money paid for paſſing by water, or carriage by land. See *Waterman*, *Coach*, *Carmen*, and *Carriage*.

FARE *of Meſſina*. The ſtreight between Italy and Sicily, being about 7 miles broad.

FAREWEL *Cape*, or *Cape Farewel*. The moſt ſoutherly promontory of Greenland, at the entrance of Davis's ſtreights, being ſituated in 50 degrees of W. lon. and 60 deg. of N. lat. See *Denmark*.

FARM. A certain portion of land occupied in tillage, either of a perſon's own, or rented, or leaſed, from ſome lord, or proprietor, at a certain rate, by the year; to which there is a houſe or habitation belonging; alſo the equivalent paid to a prince for the income or amount of ſome duty or exciſe upon commodities imported or exported: thus the duties in France are lett to farm, and the duty of exciſe in Scotland is farmed for 33,500 l. a year.

FARMER. One who rents or occupies himſelf in tilling and improving land, in order to its producing corn; as alſo in breeding cattle; likewiſe one who rents the cuſtoms, duties, or exciſe, of a place or kingdom. See *Agriculture*.

FARO. A cape on the north-eaſt point of Sicily, ſituated at the entrance of the ſtreight between the continent of Italy and Sicily. See *Pharos*.

FARO. A ſea-port town of Portugal, in the province of Algarva, ſituated in 9 deg. of W. lon. and 36 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. See *Portugal*.

FARO. See *Ferro*.

FARRAGO. A jumble or mixture of ſeveral ſorts of grain together.

FARRIER. A perſon whoſe office is to ſhoe horſes, and cure them when diſeaſed or lame.

FARRIERS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 25th of Charles II. dated the 17th of January 1673, by the ſtyle of The maſter, wardens, aſſiſtants, and commonalty of the company of farriers, London; which is a fraternity conſiſting of a maſter, 3 wardens, and 24 aſſiſtants, with 76 liverymen, who pay a fine of 5 l. at their admiſſion; but they have no hall, where they may treat of their affairs.

FARTHING. A ſmall Engliſh copper coin, amounting to one fourth of a penny, which was antiently called fourthing, as being a fourth of the integer or penny. See *Coin*, and *Money*.

FASHION, or *Mode*, is a term uſed among artificers, for the trouble, time, and labour employed in a piece of work; particularly any ſilver or gold utenſil, inſtrument, toy, or the like; for it is by the faſhion that the wages or ſalary of the workmen is regulated.

The term *faſhion* is alſo applicable to new ſtuffs, which pleaſing by their colour, their deſign, or their manufacture, are firſt eagerly ſought for, but give way in their turn to other ſtuffs that have the charms of novelty.

The word *faſhion* is therefore uſed with regard to every particular that enters the commerce of wool, and ſilk, either for cloathing, ornament, or furniture, or even things in no reſpect relative to commerce. Thus, it is ſaid, the colour of this cloth is the faſhion; this damaſk is a new faſhion; this deſign is new, but the faſhion will not continue long; theſe points, theſe laces are now the faſhion.

A ſtuff is ſaid not to be in faſhion when there is no call for it.

It is certainly advantageous for a tradeſman to invent new faſhions of ſtuffs, or ſilks, if he can have a prompt ſale for them; but it is dangerous for him to encumber himſelf with an abundance of novelties, which may eaſily become ſhopkeepers, or which he is obliged to ſell very often at a conſiderable loſs, either by a ſudden change of faſhion, or by public mournings, which ſometimes happen when leaſt expected.

FASHION-*pieces*, in the ſea-language, are two pieces of timber, which form the breadth of a ſhip, at the ſtern, being the outmoſt timbers of the ſtern on each ſide, except aloft, where the counters are. See *Stern*.

FAT. A white and unctuous matter, found in ſeveral parts of the bodies of animals.

Tho' it may ſeem that the different ſorts of fat are of no great utility in trade; yet there are ſome, which rendered and clarified, make a part of the druggiſt's trade; ſome being uſed in medicine, and others in the manufacture of candles, or in the preparation of certain ſorts of leather, under the name of tallow. See *Tallow*.

FAT. A ſea-term, denoting the ſame with broad: thus, if the truſſing in, or tuck of a ſhip's quarter, under water is deep, they ſay, ſhe hath a fat quarter.

FAT, or *Vat*, alſo expreſſes a large wooden veſſel, which, among brewers and malſters, is uſed to meaſure malt for expedition, containing a quarter, or eight buſhels.

FAT, is likewiſe a veſſel, or pan of lead, uſed in making ſalt.

FATHOM. A long meaſure, containing ſix feet, taken from the utmoſt extent of both arms, when ſtretched into a right line.

The fathom is principally uſed at ſea, in eſtimating the lengths of cables, and other ſhip-ropes, with the depths and ſoundings of the ſea: though it is alſo uſed in mines, quarries, wells, and works of fortification. But there are three kinds of fathoms, accommodated to the different ranks of veſſels: the firſt, which is that of men of war, contains ſix feet; the middling, or that of merchant-ſhips, five feet and a half; and the ſmall fathom uſed in fluyts, flyboats, and other fiſhing veſſels, only five feet.

FATHOM, is alſo uſed in ſeveral countries, particularly Italy, for the common yard, or ell, whereby things are ordinarily meaſured in commerce; in which ſenſe it is more commonly called *brace*, from *braccio*, an arm.

FAUCON, or *Falcon*. A ſmall piece of cannon, whoſe diameter is 2 ¾ inches; weight 750 pounds, length 7 feet, load 2 ¼ pound, ſhot 2 ½ inches diameter, and 2 ½ pound weight. See *Cannon*.

FAUCONET, or *Faulconet*. A very ſmall piece of ordnance, whoſe diameter at the bore is 2 ¼ inches, weight 400 pounds, length 6 feet, load 1 ¼ pound, ſhot ſomething more than 2 inches diameter, and 1 ⅛ pound weight. See *Cannon*, and *Ordnance*.

FAVOUR, in commerce, ſee the article *Grace*.

FAYAL. One of the Azores, or weſtern iſles, ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, in 31 deg. of W. lon. and 30 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. See *Azores*.

FAYALLE. A money of accompt uſed in Japan, about the value of 8 s. ſterling.

Since the year 1685, the Dutch were allowed to bring to Japan, to the amount only of 300,000 fayalles of merchandiſe; which is, however, common to them with the Chineſe, Siameſe, and other Indian nations who trade there, whoſe cargoes have likewiſe been fixt at a certain number of fayalles. See *Japan*.

FAYANCE, or *Fayence*. A kind of fine pottery made of varniſhed earth, or rather enamelled; ſo called from Fayance, a town of Italy, where it was firſt invented. In the cabinets of the curious, fayances are met with painted by the moſt celebrated painters, particularly by Raphael, and Julius Romanus, which renders them of an extraordinary price and rarity. See *Porcelain*.

FEATHER. That part of birds which covers them, and enables them to fly. The feathers of birds make a conſiderable article in commerce, particularly thoſe of the oſtrich, heron, ſwan, peacock, gooſe, and other poultry, for plumes, ornaments of the head, filling of beds, and writing-pens. See *Plumes*, and *Down*.

FEATHER-*edged boards*, and *Planks*, are thoſe which are thicker on one ſide than the other.

FEE, ſignifies a reward, or ordinary due, given a perſon for the execution of his office, or the performance of his part, in his reſpective art or ſervice: thus the lawyer and phyſician are ſaid to have their fees, or conſiderations for the pains taken with the client or patient.

FEES, alſo denote ſettled perquiſites or allowances paid to public officers, by perſons who have buſineſs with them; particularly among the officers of the cuſtoms, for whoſe fees on importation and exportation, entry and landing, See *Cuſtoms*.

No fee is to be paid in Great Britain for foreign coin and bullion inwards and outwards: nor for diamonds, precious ſtones, jewels and pearls, inwards and outwards; nor for fiſh by Britiſh ſubjects, in Britiſh ſhipping inwards, outwards, or coaſtwiſe. There is alſo none to be paid for goods under the value of 5 l. in the book of rates, paying for ſubſidy 5 s. or leſs: nor for corn exported; nor for debentures, for corn, fiſh, fleſh, gunpowder, and ſalt: nor for the premium on naval ſtores: nor for any entry, warrant, debenture, certificate, or cocket in relation to the ⅓ or ⅔ ſubſidies only, upon forfeiture of

0 l. for each duty; $\frac{1}{3}$ to his Majeſty, and $\frac{2}{3}$, beſides oſts of ſuit to the party grieved: nor for paſſing of de-entures for goods chargeable with any additional duties, nore than was before payable for debentures for repayment f the half ſubſidy; nor any fee for any oath adminiſtred pon the act of the 4th and 5th of Will. and Mary: nor or debentures, certificates, or payments, for the bounty n Iriſh linen.

n the cuſtoms of London there are the following rules.

Goods not paying 20 s. cuſtom, whether inwards or out-wards, to pay but half fees.

For butter, corn, grain, meal, and other goods, which nay be exported free, carried to or from any place within he port of London, to be only 3 s. 5 d. and ſuch goods o paſs by tranſire, without cocket or bond.

For corn not exceeding 50 quarters, or hops not exceed-ing 50 bags, to be only 1 s. 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.

For a cocket or certificate outwards, to be paid in one ſum to the officer granting the ſame.

n other ports than London, to be ſuch as were taken in he 4th year of the reign of Jac. I. till otherwiſe ſettled y parliament.

In any port, payable by 12 Car. II. or by any law ſince, to the officers of the cuſtoms in Great Britain, confirmed nd continued till altered by parliament.

Payable to the officers of the cuſtoms in any port. For a poſt-entry, when the cuſtom is under 5 s. nothing; ex-ceeding 5 s. and under 40 s. ſix pence; above 40 s. the ſame fees as for the prime entry. But one fee to be paid by Britiſh, for all the goods entered at one time in one ſhip, tho' the duty is diſtributed into ſeveral offices.

The merchants are to pay for weighing all goods ſhort-entered above 20 s. cuſtom; and for opening all goods ſhort-entered above 10 s. cuſtom; but if duly entered, not to be at any charge.

ET. See *Foot*.

LIN A ſmall weight, uſed by French goldſmiths, and coiners, weighing 7$\frac{1}{5}$ grains: the pound mark being com-poſed of 640 felins.

LL-MONGER, or *Felt-monger*. A perſon whoſe buſi-neſs conſiſts in buying ſkins of all ſorts, with the wool on, from the country people; and in ſelling the ſkins dreſſed to glovers and others, and the wool to the wool-ſtaplers.

LLOWSHIP, *Company*, or *Partnerſhip*, in arithmetic, is a rule of great uſe in ballancing accompts among mer-chants, and owners of ſhips, where a number of perſons putting together a general ſtock, it is required to give every one his proportional ſhare of his loſs or gain. The baſis of fellowſhip is only a repetition of the golden rule, which fully anſwers all queſtions of that kind: for, as the whole ſtock is to the total thereby gained or loſt, ſo is the particular ſhare of every man to his proper ſhare of loſs or gain: wherefore, the ſeveral ſums of money of every partner are to be gathered into one ſum, for the firſt term; the common gain or loſs for the ſecond; and the ſhare of every particular man for the third; when the golden rule is to be wrought ſo many times as there are partners.

But there are two caſes of this rule, the one without, and the other with time: the former being where the quantity of ſtock contributed by each perſon is alone conſidered, without any particular regard to the length of time, that any of their monies were employed: and the latter is, where the time wherein the money was employed enters into the accompt.

LLOWSHIP-*porters*. See *Porter*.

LOURS. A copper coin ſtruck at Morocco, 8 of which make a blanquil, or about 2 d. ſterling.

LT. A kind of ſtuff, either of wool alone, or of wool and hair, neither ſpun, croſſed, nor wove; but deriving all its conſiſtence from its being wrought, filled with lees and ſize, and afterwards faſhioned on a block or mould by help of fire and water: caſtors, camels, and coneys hair, with ſheeps wool, being the moſt uſual ingredients of felts; and hats of all kinds are the works they are prin-cipally employed in. See *Hat*.

LT-*maker*, or *Hatter*, is a perſon whoſe trade conſiſts in the manufacture of hats. See *Hat*.

FELT-*makers*, or hat-makers company of London, was an-tiently a branch of the company of haberdaſhers; but they applied in the year 1576 for an excluſive charter, in which, oppoſed by the haberdaſhers, their endeavours proved abortive; however all diſputes were at laſt happily adjuſted, and the felt-makers, by letters-patent of the 2d of James I. dated the 2d of Auguſt 1604, were incor-porated by the name of The maſter, wardens, and com-monalty of the art or myſtery of felt-makers of London: which is a fraternity governed by a maſter, four wardens, and 25 aſſiſtants, with a livery of 60 members, who at their admiſſion pay a fine of 5 l. each; but have no hall to manage their affairs in.

FELT-*monger*. See *Fell-monger*.

FELUCCA, or *Felucco*. A little veſſel with ſix oars, not covered, and much uſed in the Mediterranean; which has this peculiarity, that the rudder may be applied either in the head or ſtern, there being diſpoſitions in both to receive it; and for ſize it may be compared to a ſloop or ſhaloop.

FEMERIN. A little iſland in the Baltic ſea, ſituated in 11 deg. of E. lon. and 54 of N. lat. being near the coaſt of Holſtein, and ſubject to the ſovereign of that dutchy. See *Germany*, and *Denmark*.

FEN, in geography, a kind of lake, or rather moraſs; of which there are two ſorts: the one of a boggy con-ſiſtence, compoſed of water and earth intermixed, ſcarce firm enough to ſuſtain the tread of a man; and the other are pools, or collections of water, with pieces of dry land raiſed here and there, above the ſurface thereof: the former kind neither receiving or emitting any river; but the latter are frequently the heads or ſprings of rivers.

Several of theſe fens in England have of late years been undertaken to be drained: but the moſt remarkable is that called *the great level of the fens*, lying in the counties of Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridge, Northampton, and Hun-tingdon, conſiſting of 95,000 acres: for the undertak-ing whereof, William Earl of Bedford, and his adven-turers and participants, their heirs and aſſigns, were in-corporated by an act of parliament paſſed in the 15th year of King Charles II. by the name of The governor, bailiffs, and commonalty of the company of conſervators of the great level of the fens; which corporation was to conſiſt of one governor, ſix bailiffs, twenty conſervators, and commonalty, who were to appoint a regiſter, receiver, ſerjeants at mace, and other officers. By this act, the company was enabled, without licence of mortmain, to purchaſe hereditaments, not exceeding 200 l. *per annum*; and the governor, bailiffs, and conſervators, or any five of them, whereof the governor or bailiffs to be two, might lay taxes upon the whole number of acres, and levy the ſame, with penalties for non-payment, not exceeding a third part of the tax, in order to the preſervation of the whole. The act alſo declared, that all conveyances by indenture of any part of the ſaid 95,000 acres, entered with the regiſter, ſhould be of equal force as if the ſame were for conſideration of money, enrolled within 6 months in the courts of record at Weſtminſter; and no convey-ance of, or charge upon the ſaid 95,000 acres, except leaſes for ſeven years or under in poſſeſſion, ſhould be of force but from the time it ſhould be entered with the re-giſter; the entry whereof being endorſed by the regiſter upon ſuch conveyance or charge, ſhould be as good in law as if the book of entries was produced. It was alſo enacted, that the company ſhould annually elect a new governor, bailiffs, and conſervators; provided that none ſhould be capable to be governor or bailiffs that had not 400 acres, nor to be a conſervator without 200 acres; nor ſhould any of the commonalty have a voice in elections that had not 100 acres.

FEND, in the ſea-language, imports the ſame as defend: whence the phraſe of fending the boat, that is, ſaving it from being daſhed againſt the rocks, the ſhore, or the ſide of the ſhip: hence alſo

FENDERS, any pieces of old cable-ropes, or billets of wood, hung over the ſide of the ſhip to fend, or keep other ſhips from rubbing againſt her.

FENIN. A ſmall coin, or money of accompt. See *Phening*.

FENNEL, or *Fennel-ſeed*, a longiſh ſtriated ſeed, flat on one

one ſide, and roundiſh on the other; of a ſweetiſh taſte, not unlike that of anniſe ſeed, and makes part of the commerce of the druggiſts and apothecaries.

FENNEL-*water*, is a ſtrong water, or brandy, made of the ſeeds of fennel, incorporated with liquorice, brandy, and white-wine, which are diſtilled together; to the eſſence whereof are added ſpirit of wine, ſugar, and ſweet almonds.

FENUGREEK, *Fœnum Græcum*, or *Fenigreek*, a medicinal plant, thus called becauſe anciently brought from Greece; though now cultivated in ſeveral parts of Europe. Its ſtem is about a foot high, its leaves ſmall, and diſpoſed ſomewhat like thoſe of trefoil, yielding a little white flower, from whence ariſes a long pointed pod, not unlike the horn of a bullock in ſhape; the grain, or ſeed, is incloſed in this pod, which bears the name of the plant, is leſs than muſtard-ſeed, very hard and ſolid, of a triangular form, and a ſtrong diſagreeable ſmell, being of a yellow gold colour when new; but when kept it is ruddy or brown.

The French, beſides the uſe they make of this ſeed themſelves, ſend conſiderable quantities of it to Holland, and other countries.

French dyers uſe it for the ſcarlet dye; and phyſicians order it in decoctions and cataplaſms; given to cattle, particularly horſes, it creates an appetite, and fattens them. The good choice of it conſiſts in being new, plump, and of a high gold colour.

FEODER, or *Fuder*, a liquid meaſure uſed in Germany, and reckoned to be a cart load drawn by two horſes; two feoders and a half make the roder; ſix awms the feoder; twenty fertels the awm; and the awm the $\frac{1}{7}$ of an Engliſh ton. But, tho' the feoder is the common meaſure of Germany, its diviſions, or diminutions, are not the ſame every where; and it may be ſaid that the likeneſs is wholly in the denomination.

FERABATH. A port-town of Perſia, ſituated on the S. coaſt of the Caſpian ſea, in 50 deg. of E. lon. and 38 deg. of N. lat. See *Perſia*.

FERANDINE. A light ſtuff, whoſe intire warp is of ſilk; but the woof of wool, hair, thread, or cotton: the uſual length of a piece being from 60 to 70 ells.

FERMO. A port-town of Italy, ſituated in 15 deg. of E. lon. and 43 deg. of N. lat. on the gulph of Venice, and ſubject to the Pope. See *Italy*.

FERNAMBUC, or *Fernambucca*, a port-town in Brazil, from whence the Portugueſe receive conſiderable cargoes of Brazil wood, and other commodities. See *Portugueſe* America.

FERNANDO, or *Juan Fernando*, a little uninhabited iſland in the Pacific ocean, ſituated in 83 deg. of W. lon. and in 33 of S. lat. being 300 miles W. of St. Jago, in the province of Chili, in South America. This iſland is viſited by all European ſhipping frequenting the South Sea, on account of its harbour, and the fruits, herbs, and other freſh proviſions, they meet with there; which were of ſingular ſervice to Lord Anſon in the year 1741, when he put in there to repair his ſhattered ſhips, and recover his ſick men, after effecting the tempeſtuous paſſage of Cape Horn.

FERNANDO-PO, is an iſland ſituated in 10 deg. of E. lon. and 3 deg. of N. lat. near the mouth of the river Cameron, on the coaſt of Africa, and ſubject to the Portugueſe. See St. *Matthew*.

FERRET. A ſort of ſilk ribband, uſed by women to bind the bottom of their garments, and for ſtrings to tye them.

FERRO, the moſt weſterly of the Canary iſlands, ſituated in 19 deg. of W. lon. and 28 deg. of N. lat. where the firſt meridian was lately fixt in moſt maps; but now every kingdom almoſt makes its own capital the firſt meridian, as the Engliſh do London. See *Canary* Iſlands.

FERRO, or *Faro*, is alſo a name given to ſome little iſlands ſituated in the Northern ocean, in 7 deg. of W. lon. and 64 deg. of N. lat. 200 miles N. W. of the Orcades, and as many S. E. of Iceland, ſubject to Denmark. See *Daniſh* Iſlands, under *Denmark*.

FERROL. A ſea-port town of Spain, in the province of Galicia, ſituated in 8 deg. 40 min. of W. lon. and 43 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on a bay of the Atlantic oce... See *Spain*.

FERRY. A place in a navigable river, where a large ... bottomed boat plies to carry over any perſon or ... whether waggons, coaches, or horſes.

FERTEL, or *Schreve*. A German liquid meaſure, cont... ing 4 maſſes, 24 fertels making the awm, or $\frac{1}{7}$ of ... Engliſh ton. It is alſo a corn meaſure, containing ... fourth part of a buſhel; but uſed ſcarce any where ex... in Brabant.

FESCHAMP. A port town of France, in the province ... Normandy, ſituated in 25 min. of E. lon. and 49 ... 46 min. of N. lat. on the Engliſh channel. See *Fra...*

FETCH. A term in the ſea-language, for ſailors, in ... chaſing or purſuing of a ſhip, called fetching her up; ... in trade over-reaching, or charging more than one ou... is called fetching.

FETMENT. A ſmall copper coin, current in ſome p... of Germany, worth about a farthing.

FEVERSHAM. A port-town in Kent, oppoſite to ... Iſle of Sheppey, and 7 miles W. of Canterbury, be... a member of the cinque ports.

FEWEL. See *Fuel*.

FEZ. The capital of the empire of Fez, and Morocc... in Africa, ſituated on the river Cebu, in 6 deg. of W. ... lon. and 33 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. See *Morocco*.

FIASCO. A liquid meaſure uſed in ſome towns of Ita... making about the Engliſh pint, or flaſk.

FICTITIOUS *Exchange*. See *Exchange*.

FID, in ſhip carpentry, is an iron or wooden pin, ma... conical or tapering, to open the ſtrands of ropes that ... ſpliced or faſtened together; alſo the top-maſt that ... in upon the cheſs-trees.

FIDA, or *Whidah*. The capital of a territory of the ſa... name, on the ſlave coaſt of Guinea, in Africa. See Gui...

FIDDLE. The moſt muſical common inſtrument now ... uſe; called alſo a violin.

FIG. A ſoft, ſweet, delicious fruit, the produce of a t... of the ſame name, being of uſe in medicine: but the... are ſeveral kinds of figs, chiefly denominated from th... colours, which are white, black, purple, green, ... ruddy; the white being eſteemed the beſt, and the bl... and white coloured the worſt.

The beſt figs are the produce of Italy, Spain, and ... ſouthern provinces of France; though the iſlands of t... Archipelago yield figs in great abundance; but they ... much inferior in quality to thoſe of Europe. See Gu... inwards.

FIGIE-CAQUE. A Chineſe fruit, making a part of the ... trade to Siam.

FIGURE, in the manufactures, is applied to the vario... deſigns repreſented, or wrought on velvets, damaſks, ta... faties, ſattins, and other ſtuffs, and cloths. The m... uſual figures of ſuch deſigns are flowers, imitated fro... the life, or groteſques, and compartments, of a pa... fancy: but the repreſentations of men, beaſts, birds, ... landſkips, have only been introduced ſince the taſte ... the Chineſe ſtuffs, particularly thoſe called furees, ... been prevalent in Europe; and figured ribbands firſt ca... into faſhion about the year 1680, when one Chandel... a ribband-maker of Paris, invented a ready way of p... forming that kind of work.

FILE. An inſtrument of ſteel, ... full of lines or furro... whereby it is made rough, uſed chiefly by workers ... metal, to take away ſuperfluities in, and to ſmooth ... poliſh, their works; alſo a thread, or wire, whereon l... ters and papers are put for preſervation.

FILIGRANE, or *Filligree-work*. A kind of enrichment ... gold or ſilver, wrought delicately in manner of li... threads, or grains, or both intermixed.

FIMBLE. The female kind of hemp. See *Hemp*.

FIN. That part of a fiſh, made in faſhion of a feather... *Whale*-FINS, are commonly taken for that part of ... whale, which the populace call whale-bone; but whe... the miſtake ſhould ariſe, is not eaſy to determine; for ... is certain, that fibrous and flexible matter is not the ... of the whale, but rather its teeth, that ſpecies of wh... wherein theſe fins are found having no other teeth: t... are taken out of the throat, being uſually about a f... br...

broad, and 14 or 15 long, making the moſt valuable part of the animal. See *Whale*, *Whale*-bone, and Whale-*Fiſhery*.

NAL. A port-town of Italy, in the territory of Genoa, ſituated in 9 deg. of E. lon. and 44 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. See *Italy*.

NANCES, in the French policy, denote the revenues of the King and ſtate; being much the ſame with the treaſury, or exchequer, of the Engliſh, and the fiſcus of the Romans: they have alſo a council of the finances, and a comptroller-general, correſponding to the lords commiſſioners of the treaſury, and lord high treaſurer, in England.

NDERS, were formerly officers in the cuſtoms, now called ſearchers.

NE. That which is pure, and without mixture; but the term is particularly uſed in ſpeaking of gold and ſilver. Fine gold ſhould be of 24 carats, and fine ſilver of 12 penny-weights; but there is little, if any, eſpecially of the former, riſes to ſuch a degree of fineneſs. See *Gold*, and *Silver*.

NE, is alſo uſed to denote an amends, pecuniary puniſhment, or recompence, for an offence committed againſt the King, and his laws.

NE-*drawer*. A perſon whoſe buſineſs conſiſts in fine-drawing, which is a curious, neat, and uſeful way of mending rents in cloth, being a particular part of the taylors art, and commonly a diſtinct employment. See *Rentering*.

NE-*drawing*, or *Rentering*. A dextrous ſewing up, or rejoining the parts of any cloth, ſtuff, or the like, torn, or rent in the dreſſing or wearing; but it is now prohibited to fine-draw pieces of foreign manufacture upon thoſe made in Great Britain, as was formerly practiſed.

NISTERRA *Cape*, or *Cape Finiſterre*, is ſituated in 10 deg. 15 min. of W. lon. and in 43 deg. of N. lat. being the moſt weſterly promontory of the province of Galicia in Spain, and of the continent of Europe.

R, or *Firr*. The name of a tree, whoſe wood is much uſed in building, both of young and old trees; the young are uſed whole, and are then called baulks; the old are uſed as timber for the large beams of dwelling-houſes and warehouſes, or in boards or planks, called deals, for flooring, and weather-boarding; which baulks, timbers, or planks, are principally brought from Norway and Sweden; and this tree is alſo productive of turpentine. See *Turpentine*.

RE-*office*, is an office for inſurance from fire; of which there are ſeveral in London. See *Inſurance*.

RKIN. An Engliſh meaſure of capacity, for liquids, containing the fourth part of a barrel. The firkin of beer is 9 gallons, and that of ale only 8: two firkins of beer make the kilderkin, 2 kilderkins the barrel, and 2 barrels the hogſhead: and the firkins of ſoap and butter are on the footing of the firkin of ale; that is, a gallon *per* firkin leſs than that of beer.

RKIN-*man*. A perſon who takes up large quantities of beer from the public brewers, to retale it to particular cuſtomers, in ſmall quantities.

RMAN, in the Eaſt Indies, and particularly in the territories of the Great Mogul, is the paſſport, or permit, granted to foreign veſſels, to have trade within their juriſdiction.

RTH. See *Fryth*.

SC, *Fiſcus*, in the civil law, the treaſury of a prince, or ſtate, or that to which every thing falls that is due to the public: however, among the Romans, the treaſury, in effect, belonged to the people, and the fiſcus to the Emperor.

SCAL. Something belonging to the pecuniary intereſt of the King, the public, or a private perſon: but in Spain it is an officer who ſuperintends the treaſury, and mercantile affairs.

SH. An animal, living in water, as its proper place of abode; of which there are commonly reckoned three kinds; the ſea-fiſh, as the whale, cod, herring, and others; freſh-water fiſh, as the pike, the carp, and others; and fiſh, which equally reſort ſalt and freſh water, as ſalmon, ſhad, and others; to which may be added a fourth kind, as pond or lake-fiſh, as the carp, tench, and others; and there are alſo a fifth kind, which live indifferently on land or water, called amphibious fiſh, as the caſtor, otter, and others; but it is here only neceſſary to confine the ſubject to ſea-fiſh, upon account of the great commerce thereof, and the ſeveral merchandiſes and drugs accruing therefrom.

Of *ſalt fiſh* there are ſix principal kinds; as ſalmon, cod, herring, pilchards, anchovies, and mackarel.

Green fiſh is that which is juſt ſalted, and yet moiſt; thus they ſay, *green cod*.

Dry fiſh, are fiſh ſalted and dried, either before the ſun or by fire; ſuch are cod, ſtock-fiſh, herring, and pilchards.

Pickled fiſh, is that boiled, and ſteeped in a pickle made of ſalt, or vinegar, as ſalmon, cod, herring, mackarel, pilchard, anchovy, and oyſters.

Marinated, or *red fiſh*, is freſh ſea-fiſh, roaſted on a grid-iron, afterwards fried in oil of olives, and put into barrels, with a ſauce compoſed of new oil of olives, and a little vinegar, ſeaſoned with ſalt, pepper, cloves, laurel-leaves, or fine herbs: but the beſt red fiſh, whereof there is ſome traffic, are the tunny and ſturgeon.

Thoſe called *royal fiſh*, are dolphins and ſturgeons; as alſo, in France, are ſalmon and trout; ſo called, becauſe they belong to the King, when caſt upon the ſea-ſhore.

Blubber-fiſh, are whales, porpoiſes, tunnies, ſea-calves, and other fat fiſh.

Glue of fiſh, or *mouth-glue*, is made out of the nervous and mucilaginous parts of a kind of large-fiſh, uſually met with in the ſeas of Muſcovy.

Blubber is nothing elſe than the fat of fiſh melted, or drained from fiſh by preſſing; of which the greateſt quantities are extracted from the whale.

Fiſh exported from any part of Great Britain to foreign parts, enjoy the following bounty.

	l.	s.	d.
Pilchards, or ſcads, the caſk, containing 50 gallons - - -	0	7	0
Cod-fiſh, ling, or hake, if 14 inches, or upwards, in length, from the bone in the fin to the 3d joint in the tail, the hundred	0	5	0
Wet, the barrel, containing 32 gallons	0	2	0
Dried, called haberdines, the hundred weight	0	3	0
Salmon, the barrel, containing 32 gallons	0	4	6
White herrings, the barrel, containing 32 gallons - - -	0	2	8
Full red herrings, the barrel, containing 32 gallons - - -	0	1	9
Clean ſhotten red herrings, the barrel, containing 32 gallons - -	0	1	0
Dried red ſprats, the laſt - -	0	1	0

To be paid by the collector of the ſalt duty, at the port of exportation, within 30 days after demand, upon a debenture prepared by the collector of the cuſtoms, and verified by the ſearcher, with the oath of the exporter, that they were Britiſh taken, and really exported. But for the bounty granted to the ſociety of the free Britiſh fiſhery, ſee Britiſh *Fiſhery* companies.

And for the regulations of the different branches of the fiſhing-trade, reference muſt be had to the ſeveral acts of parliament relating thereto, which are inſerted, either particularly under the reſpective articles of each fiſhery, or together under the general head of *Fiſhery*.

FISHERMAN. A practiſer of catching fiſh, particularly ſpoken of thoſe who make a trade of it.

FISHERMENS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 3d of James II. in 1687, by the name of The free fiſhermen of London; but they have neither hall, arms, or livery.

FISHERY. A commodious place for fiſhing, or a place wherein great quantities of fiſh are caught. The principal fiſheries of Europe are for ſalmon, herring, cod, mackarel, and pilchards, which are more abundant along the coaſts of England, Scotland, and Ireland, than any other European country; the fiſhery for whales is about Greenland; for pearls in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies; and for coral on the coaſt of Africa.

FISHERY alſo denotes the commerce of fiſh, more eſpecially the catching them for ſale, which makes a principal

branch of the Britiſh commerce, and is alſo very advantageous to the trade of other countries. Great Britain employs a great quantity of veſſels and mariners in this trade, which is ſo conſiderable, that, excluſive of domeſtic conſumption, above 200,000 l. ſterling is annually returned merely for herring and cod exported to Spain, Italy, ſeveral parts of the Mediterranean, and to the iſlands of the Archipelago. Yet the inhabitants of Great Britain are reproached, and with a great deal of juſtice, for their remiſſneſs in this branch of trade; becauſe the advantageous ſituation of their coaſts might be of immenſe benefit to them, if their neighbours were not permitted to over-reach them in the fiſhery; for the Dutch, French, and Hamburghers, annually come, in great ſhoals, and not only take the fiſh from the very doors of the Britiſh inhabitants, but ſell their cargoes to them for money when they have done.

Scotland ſuffers incredibly on this account; for no country in Europe can pretend to rival it in the abundance of the fineſt fiſh, wherewith its numerous harbours, loughs, and rivers, are ſtored: it is alſo reported, that in the river Dee 170 head of ſalmon is not very extraordinary for the ſingle draught of a net; and the pickled ſalmon ſent from thence, is allowed to be the beſt in Europe: beſides, the Scottiſh iſlands, eſpecially thoſe on the weſtern ſide, certainly lie moſt commodious for carrying on the fiſhing-trade to perfection, eſpecially the herring fiſhery. See *Britiſh* iſlands, under Great *Britain*.

It is apparent, that the acquiſition of riches, and the increaſe of naval ſtrength, by means of the fiſhery, frequently drew the attention of the antient Engliſh monarchs, and was ſo very important an object in the eye of King Edward III. that it engroſſed the moſt ſerious thoughts of that ſagacious prince; ſeveral of his royal ſucceſſors entertained the moſt advantageous idea of this fiſhery; and the general opinion of the benefits that might accrue from the improvement of this maritime trade, prevailed among conſidering people in former times to attempt it.

About the beginning of the laſt century, the French, the Dutch, as alſo the citizens of Hamburgh, Embden, and Bremen, employed themſelves ſo very conſiderably in this trade, as to occaſion Sir Walter Raleigh to inform King James I. that the fiſh annually taken by ſtrangers upon the Britiſh coaſts, amounted to above ten millions ſterling. Since that time, the Dutch have principally engroſſed all the profits of the Britiſh fiſhery, and have long been without a rival, almoſt monopolizing all the immenſe wealth ariſing by this advantageous commerce: for, in 1688, when its glory was in its meridian, the ſubjects of the States General amounted to 2,450,000 people; of which 40,000 were employed, with 3000 buſſes, or fiſhing veſſels, in the Britiſh fiſhery, and 400,000 on the traffic depending upon this commerce; which gavé riſe to ſo many extenſive and valuable employments, that there was ſcarce any ſort or condition of people, but participated the benefits of this fiſhery, and the community moſt of all. It was this fiſhery that aggrandiſed the Dutch: their penſionary De Witte has aſſerted, that the inhabitants of the United Provinces formerly gained from two to five millions ſterling every year by the Britiſh fiſhery; and he affirms, that it was the poſſeſſion of this branch of commerce which enabled his countrymen to contend ſo gloriouſly with their inveterate, rich, and potent enemies, the Spaniards. This fiſhery has been publicly and ſolemnly called by the Dutch, in their placarts, "The golden mines of the United Pro-"vinces; the principal mine, and the chief ſupport, of Hol-"land." It really has been ſuch; for the whole product of the United States is ſcarce ſufficient to ſerve 1-8th part of its inhabitants; and well might the Dutch boaſt, that their proud city of Amſterdam is founded upon herring-bones. The Britiſh nation, ſurely, has the moſt unconteſted right to the free exerciſe of this valuable commerce; becauſe the ſovereignty of the Britiſh ſeas was always inſiſted upon as a right inherent to the Britiſh monarchs. The famous Edgar, with a navy of 400 ſail, vindicated his dominion on the adjacent ſeas; and records mention his ſucceſſor Canutus to have laid that antient tribute, called Danegelt, upon all, whether ſtrangers or denizens, trad[ing] on the Britiſh coaſts or ſeas. Egbert, Alfred, and Ethel-fred, all ſtyled themſelves *Supreme Lords and Governors of the ocean ſurrounding the Britiſh ſhore*. K. John challenged the honour, or rather duty, of the flag, which was univerſally paid him, not barely as a civility, but as a right, acknowledging his title and dominion. The remarkable record, intitled, *Pro hominibus Hollandiæ*, ſhews how obſequious the anceſtors of the Dutch were, not only in acknowledging the dominion of Edward I. on the ſea, but craving his protection and permiſſion to fiſh on the coaſts of England: and had not the ſovereignty of the Britiſh ſeas, in fact, been in the crown of England, why did the Earls of Holland petition Edward III. and the French alſo Henry VI. for leave to fiſh there? Why did the Dutch ſkippers uſe to purchaſe a licence from the governor of Scarborough-caſtle, before they preſumed to caſt a net upon the north-coaſts of England? Wherefore did Philip II. of Spain obtain a licence of Queen Mary, for his ſubjects to fiſh on the north-coaſts of Ireland, for the term of ſeven years, for which 1000 l. was annually paid into the exchequer of Ireland?

Upon theſe conſiderations, King James I. in the 7th year of his reign, publiſhed a proclamation concerning his general right and dominion of fiſhing, which imported, That although he ſufficiently knew, by his experience in the office of regal dignity, as alſo by obſervation which he had made of the exemplary actions of other Chriſtian princes, how far the abſoluteneſs of his ſovereign power extended itſelf; and that, in regard thereof, he needed not to yield account to any perſon under God, for any action of his which was lawfully grounded upon that ſole prerogative: yet ſuch had ever been, and ſhould be, his care and deſire to give ſatisfaction to his neighbour princes and friends, in any action which might have the leaſt relation to their ſubjects and eſtates, that he had thought good, by way of friendly premonition, to declare unto them all, and to whomſoever it might concern, as follows: That whereas he had been contented, ſince his coming to the crown, to tolerate an indifferent and promiſcuous kind of liberty to all his friends whatſoever, to fiſh upon his ſtreams, and on any of his coaſts of Great Britain, Ireland, and other adjacent iſlands, ſo far forth as the permiſſion or uſe thereof might not redound to the impeachment of his prerogative-royal, nor to the hurt and damage of his ſubjects, whoſe preſervation and flouriſhing eſtate he held himſelf bound to advance before all worldly reſpects; ſo finding, that his connivance thereat had not only given occaſion of over great incroachments upon his regalities, or rather queſtioning his right, but had been a means of much wrong to his own people exerciſing the trade of fiſhing; by reaſon whereof, as a multitude of ſtrangers preoccupied thoſe places, from whoſe hands they commonly received injuries, his ſubjects were conſtrained to abandon their fiſhing, or at leaſt become ſo diſcouraged in the ſame, as they held it better for them to betake themſelves to ſome other courſe of living; whereby divers of his coaſt-towns were much decayed, and the number of mariners daily diminiſhed, which was a matter of great conſequence to his eſtate, conſidering how much the ſtrength thereof conſiſted in the power of ſhipping, and the uſe of navigation. That he had then thought it both juſt and neceſſary to bethink himſelf of good and lawful means to prevent thoſe inconveniencies, and many others depending upon the ſame. In the conſideration whereof, as he was deſirous that the world might take notice that he had no intention to deny his neighbours and allies thoſe fruits and benefits of peace and friendſhip which might be juſtly expected at his hands in honour and reaſon, or were afforded by other princes mutually, in the point of commerce, and exchange of thoſe things which might not prove prejudicial to them; ſo, becauſe ſuch convenient order might be taken in the matter, as might ſufficiently provide for all theſe important conſiderations which depended thereon; he had come to the reſolution, firſt, to give notice to all the world, that his expreſs order was, that no perſon, of what nation or quality ſoever, not being his natural-born ſubject, ſhould be permitted to fiſh upon any of his coaſts

nd ſeas of Great Britain, Ireland, and the reſt of the djacent iſles, where moſt uſually heretofore fiſhing had been, until they had orderly demanded, and obtained licences, from him, or ſuch of his commiſſioners as he had uthoriſed in that behalf, at London for his realms of England and Ireland, and at Edinburgh for his realm of Scotland; which licences his intention was ſhould be yearly demanded for ſo many veſſels and ſhips, and the tonnage thereof, as ſhould intend to fiſh for that whole year, or any part thereof, upon any of his coaſts and ſeas aforeſaid, upon pain of ſuch chaſtiſement as ſhould be thought fit to be inflicted on ſuch wilful offenders.

Notwithſtanding this proclamation, the foreigners, and particularly the Dutch, continued to exerciſe an unauthoriſed right in the participation of the Britiſh fiſhery, while the Britiſh inhabitants neglected to reap the advantage which providence, in a bountiful maner, had wafted round all their ſhores; nor was any experiment tried, to obtain the valuable acquiſition of this fiſhery, till the reign of King Charles I. who, in conjunction with a company of merchants, began to put it into execution; but the civil wars ſoon ſet it aſide. King Charles II. renewed the attempt; but having preſſing occaſion for money, he was perſuaded to withdraw what he had employed in the fiſhery; at which the merchants joined with him, being diſpleaſed, did the like. Since the union ſeveral efforts were made to retrieve it; but though there was a corporation ſettled on that footing, called *The Royal Britiſh fiſhery*, it was always in a very languiſhing condition; and all hopes of a reſtoration of this kind were ſuſpended, all ſchemes relinquiſhed, till the year 1746, when they were induſtriouſly promoted by three worthy members of the houſe of commons, who knew the advantages reſulting from ſo beneficial a proceeding, and accordingly begun to put them into execution.

Animated by ſuch beneficent motives, theſe Gentlemen formed the noble reſolution of attempting the eſtabliſhment of the Britiſh fiſhery; which, as they had the happineſs to accompliſh, will give them unfading honours; becauſe they then opened the fountain which promiſed an inexhauſtible ſtream of opulence to an impoveriſhed nation; they formed a perpetual nurſery of bold, expert, induſtrious mariners, to ſupport the naval ſtrength, the pride, and moſt noble characteriſtic of the Britiſh nation; and they found the only method of giving a laudable employment to the highlanders, an employment that muſt convince them that liberty is the firſt of bleſſings, and loyalty to the eſtabliſhed government their chief intereſt. Admiral Vernon, Lieutenant-General Oglethorpe, and Stephen Theodore Janſſen, Eſq; alderman of, and at that time repreſentative for the city of London, were the honourable projectors, and indefatigable promoters, of this grand, this extenſive benefit to the whole nation in general, but more particularly advantageous to the northern inhabitants. Such ſingular emoluments, ſuch a noble acquiſition of riches, engroſſed their whole attention: through their zeal and aſſiduity the parliament was at length convinced what national profit and utility muſt be neceſſarily attendant on a due eſtabliſhment, and proper regulation, of the herring-fiſhery: the public applauded the deſign, as highly meritorious; many worthy and able men ardently wiſhed that ſo glorious an undertaking might be put in execution; and the parliament, at laſt, indulged their wiſhes; for, on the 12th of April 1750, an act was paſſed "for the encouragement of the Britiſh "white *herring fiſhery*;" and ſoon after a company was incorporated for that purpoſe; but, by ſome unaccountable fatality, almoſt inceſſantly attendant on every ſcheme for the promotion of the Britiſh commerce, this ſcheme, ſo ſalutarily begun, and ſo evidently calculated for the benefit of every Briton, has not been carried into execution agreeable to the intention of the original promoters, the expectations of the public, and the wiſh of every honeſt Engliſhman; though entirely agreeable to the wiſhes and expectations of the Dutch, and all the other interlopers in ſuch a profitable trade. But there is no neceſſity of inſiſting upon the perpetuity of this piſcatorial commerce, in excluſion to the exerciſe of it by other nations; the Britiſh ſeas, from the iſles of Shetland to Yarmouth, or Holyhead, have a ſufficient ſupply for all. The demand for herrings is not leſs conſiderable than formerly, and every good cargo may be profitably vended: but the Britiſh inhabitants, from the proximity to the fiſhery, have extraord nary advantages over all other nations, and, if the trade was properly conducted, the Dutch would ſee a very formidable rival in the ſeat of their opulence. But, that the worthy endeavours of thoſe honourable gentlemen, who originally concerted ſo gloriou , ſo important a project, may be properly and vigorouſly ſupported; that this valuable commerce may be eſtabliſhed on a wealthy and durable foundation, and that the Britiſh fiſhery may flouriſh, to the exoneration of a moſt grievous national debt, and the encouragement of mariners, ought to be the fervent prayer of every one who profeſſes himſelf a Chriſtian, a Briton, and a man.

Her ing FISHERY. Herrings are chiefly found in the north-ſea; though it is true, that there are fiſheries elſewhere, but none ſo copious. They uſually make two fiſhing ſeaſons; the firſt in June; the ſecond in autumn; the latter of which is the more conſiderable. See *Herring*.

The herring is a fiſh of paſſage; ſo that it is allowed to catch them on holidays and ſundays; they go chiefly in ſhoals, and are fond of following fire or lig t; though, in their paſſage, they reſemble a kind of lightening themſelves.

About the beginning of June every year, the Shetlanders diſcover, by ſeveral ſigns in the air, and on the ſea, a vaſt and incredible amazing ſhoal of herrings, advancing from the north. The place where they breed, their numberleſs multitude, their manner of coming, and eſpecially their regular, annual progreſs; all theſe are quite wonderful. With regard to the place they come from, and in which they may be ſaid to inhabit, breed, and increaſe; all we know is, that it is far north: that they are almoſt infinite in number, may be ſuppoſed from what is ſeen of them; and yet theſe, it may be concluded, are but as the ſwarm to the hive; a certain number of ſupernumeraries, detached from the ſtill far greater multitude of inhabitants who remain behind, and ſent abroad, as it were, every year, to ſeek their food in other places; as though there was not room for them in the countries inhabited by their anceſtors. Theſe fiſh never return, ſo far as can be perceived, to their native place, there to breed a farther ſupply for next ſeaſon; but, on the contrary, come from home big with their prolific ſpawn, when every fiſh produces many thouſand others. This ſpawn they caſt in thoſe ſeas; the herrings coming full to the Britiſh coaſt, and being ſhotten and empty long before they depart, their number may be reckoned among the infinites of finite nature, if this expreſſion may be allowed, that is, almoſt beyond the reach of figures. They come up, as it may be ſaid, on the breadth of the ocean; and it is thought that the bulk of the ſhoal may be more in extent than the iſland of Great Britain.

It is ſaid, that they are greatly ſtraitened in their progreſs ſouthward, by their being obliged to paſs between the ſhores of Greenland and the North Cape; which to them may be a ſtreight, though 200 leagues broad.

Advancing forward, and their amazing body meeting with an interruption, from the ſituation of Great Britain, it neceſſarily divides them into two parts, whether equal or unequal, cannot be known.

One part of them ſteer weſt or ſouth-weſt; and bearing the Orkneys and Shetland to the left, paſs on towards Ireland; where meeting with a ſecond interruption, they divide again, when part of them keeping to the coaſt of Great Britain, paſs away ſouth, down St George's, or the Iriſh channel; and thus advancing, between Great Britain and Ireland, they enter the Severn ſea, where they meet with part of their former companions. The other part, edging off, for want of room, to the weſt and ſouth-weſt, as before, rove along the Iriſh or weſtern ocean; and, ſtill keeping upon the coaſt, proceed to the ſouth ſhore of Irel nd; and then ſteering ſouth-eaſt, meet with their companions, who came down the Iriſh channel.

The other part of the firſt grand diviſion made in the north, parting a little to the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt, come down

into the German ocean; they then paſs by Shetland, and make the point of Buchanneſs in Scotland, and the coaſt of Aberdeen, filling, in their progreſs, all the bays, firths, creeks, and rivers, with their incredible multitudes; as though purpoſely directed, by heaven, to offer themſelves for the relief and employment of the poor, and the benefit of commerce. Hence coming away ſouth, they paſs by Dunbar; and, rounding the high ſhores of Berwick, are ſeen again off Scarborough, and not before. They are not diſcovered in bulk, till they come to Yarmouth roads, and thence to the mouth of the Thames; from whence, proceeding along the Britiſh channel, they are ſeen no more.

The ingenious author of the Spectacle de la Nature, expatiated thus, in his figurative manner, on the ſubject in queſtion: "Many kinds of fiſh come in ſhoals to our coaſts. Some are always with us, and others ſwim yearly to us in vaſt multitudes. The ſeaſon of their paſſage, as well as the track they take, are well known; and the greateſt advantages are reaped from that knowledge. To inſtance only in herrings. The capital of their nation ſeems to be between the points of Scotland, Norway, and Denmark. From that ſituation the Daniſh colonies take their progreſs annually, traverſing at different times the channel, and paſſing by Holland and Flanders. But theſe are not a troop of banditti, who coaſt about at random; their tour being preſcribed, and their annual march regulated, with the utmoſt exactneſs. The whole body begin their march at the ſame time; when none of them ſtraggle out of their proper track, none deſert to commit depredations; but they continue their progreſs, from coaſt to coaſt, till the appointed period.

They are a numberleſs people; they perform a long voyage; and, when the body of the army is paſſed by, they are all gone; and none of the ſame ſpecies make their appearance till next year. Attempts have been made to diſcover what it is that induces the herrings to undertake ſuch long voyages, and inſpires them with the policy they obſerve. The Engliſh, French, and Dutch fiſhermen declare, that the Channel teems every year with an incredible number of worms, and little fiſh, on which the herrings feed. The Britiſh coaſt is very rich, the ſoil of it breeding a ſullidge or ſurf that ſwims near it, and on which all floating fiſh, ſuch as mackarel, pilchards, and herrings, feed. This food draws the fiſh, and keeps them about this iſland, and no other country. This ſuſtenance may be conſidered as a kind of manna, which theſe fiſh come, at ſtated periods, to gather up. And, after having cleared the ſeas in the northern parts of Europe, during the ſummer and autumn, they proceed towards the ſouth, whither they are invited by a new ſtock of proviſions; but, if thoſe fail, they advance forward with greater ſwiftneſs, in order to accomodate themſelves elſewhere."

The Dutch were the firſt who began the herring-fiſhery, and obſerved the ſeveral ſeaſons of their paſſage, their firſt regular fiſhing being fixed to the year 1163; but the method of ſalting and barrelling of them was not diſcovered till the year 1416, though others date it from the year 1397. This fiſhery is only to be found on the coaſt of Great Britain, from St. John's to St. James's about Shetland, Pharil, and Bockneſs; from St. James's to the elevation of the croſs about Bockneſs, or Sevenoit; and from the elevation of the croſs to St. Katharine's in the deep water eaſtward of Yarmouth.

The Dutch begin their herring-fiſhery on the 24th of June, generally employing no leſs than 2000 buſſes therein, from 45 to 60 tons, and two or three ſmall cannon. None of them are allowed to ſtir out of port, unleſs there be enough of them together, to make 18 or 20 pieces of cannon; in which caſe they are allowed to go in conſerve, or company; but, before they ſet out, they make a verbal convention, which has the ſame force as if it was in writing.

Theſe regulations of the admiralty of Holland are partly followed by the French, and other nations, and partly improved and augmented with new ones; as, that no fiſher ſhall caſt his net within a hundred fathoms of another boat: that while the nets are caſt, a light ſhall be kept on the hind part of the veſſel: that when a boat is by any accident, obliged to leave off fiſhing, the light ſhall be caſt into the ſea; and that when the greater part of a fleet leaves off fiſhing, and caſts anchor, the reſt ſhall do the ſame.

The manner of fiſhing has nothing particular in it; but the nets wherein the fiſh are drawn, ſhould regularly have their maſhes an inch ſquare, that none of the leſſer fry may be taken. The Dutch reſort to the iſlands of Shetland about the 22d of June, and on the 24th of the ſame month they put to ſea, being prohibited, under a ſevere penalty to take any herrings ſooner, becauſe they are not in their full prime till then. Every one of their buſſes, on that day, directs her courſe to find out the ſhoal of herrings; and having laden their buſſes, they return to Holland, leaving them on ſhore, to be ſent immediately to the countries where they are vended; and, being furniſhed again with victuals, caſk, and ſalt, they return to ſea, in queſt of the ſhoal they left, and load again, returning to Holland as before; and this they repeat a third time each ſeaſon; every veſſel, the whole generally amounting to 2000, being computed to take 100 laſts of herrings at leaſt. And ſometimes this fleet is attended by other veſſels, called *yawgers*, or *jagers*, which carry ſalt, caſk, and victuals, to truck with the buſſes for their herrings, and carry them directly to the Baltic, without returning to Holland; for thoſe which come firſt to market bear the greateſt price: but the ſtates have ſometimes made an order that no herrings ſhall be carried to a foreign market till they are firſt landed in Holland.

However, for the better underſtanding the regulations of the Dutch fiſhery, which cannot be too thoroughly known, it is extremely neceſſary to conſider the placarts of the States General for this purpoſe; the principal of which are as follows.

The placart and ordinance concerning the catching, ſalting, landing, curing, packing, heightening, and laying of the herrings, &c.

The States of Holland and Weſt Friſeland, to all whom theſe preſents ſhall come, greeting.

Since by the obſoleteneſs of the laws, the orders formerly given for taking and loading of herrings are not duly maintained, as ſome people for their particular profit catch them before the due ſeaſon, and ſalt, ſend them to market, and ſell them, before they are of a proper growth, and fit for the market: and foraſmuch as ſome people, the better to cover their miſdemeanors, ſend them directly to the eaſtern markets, from ſea, and tranſport them inland, without their being firſt reported at the cuſtomary places, where daily attendance is for that purpoſe given, which not only cauſes in theſe, but in other countries, great diſguſt to the commodity, and diſhonour to the dealers therein, *the fiſh not being then in their full riſh and perfection, which occaſions thoſe which are good to be ſuſpected and unſold.*

And whereas thoſe ſo caught are neither well ſalted, ſorted, or properly laid in the barrels, to the great loſs, damage and prejudice of the merchant, the ruin of the herring trade, and of the general conſumption.

And whereas this great fiſhery is the principal mine, and chief ſupport of theſe countries, and of the inhabitants therein; therefore, and in order to remedy the growing evil, we, with the deputies of the cities, &c. concerned in the herring commerce, do make and eſtabliſh the following orders.

In the firſt place, no perſon ſhall wet their nets in the ſea, or begin fiſhing before the feaſt of St. John the Baptiſt, being Midſummer-day, N. S. or continue fiſhing from thence, longer than until the 31ſt of December following incluſive, under the penalty of 200 guilders, and loſs of the herrings taken, or value of the ſame; and the ſeveral veſſels ſo fiſhing, in conformity to this ordinance, is to be certified to us on the oath of the maſter and of two of their reſpective crews.

2. Excepting always from this prohibition, ſuch veſſels as go upon the Dogger-bank to fiſh for cod; thoſe may fail before Midſummer-day, and may catch herring, provided they take no more than may ſerve for the crew's preſent ſpending; but they ſhall not, before the ſaid 24

f June, ſalt them, in pots, jars, or barrels, or bring on hore any uncured, or unſalted, nor ſell any at ſea or on and, make preſents of, or otherwiſe diſtribute or diſpoſe f them. And the maſters of ſuch fiſhing veſſels, ſo degning for the Dogger-bank, are, before they ſail, to apear before the magiſtrate of the city or place from whence hey ſail, and on their ſolemn oath declare, that they will ot cure, ſalt, pot, or barrel, or otherwiſe preſerve the erring, or connive at any of their crews ſo doing, until fter the 25th day of June, the day next after the feaſt f St. John, or Midſummer-day, nor will bring them nto port, ſell, diſtribute, diſpoſe, or make preſents of hem, in any manner whatſoever.

And ſuch maſter, on his return, ſhall declare to the maiſtrate by ſolemn affidavit, that he has not broke, but ept holy and conſcientiouſly the oath taken by him on is outſet, under the penalty of 52 l. 10 s. ſterl. to be made ood by the ſhip and cargo, any time within one year nd a day, and the owners may have their redreſs over gainſt the maſter, who ſhall likewiſe ſuffer corporal puiſhment, according to the greatneſs of his crime. The ne to be divided; one third to the proper officer, one hird to the poor, and the other third to the informer; nd the herring to be forfeited, unleſs taken aboard the eſſels by the captain of the great fiſhery, who ſhall cauſe hem to be thrown into the ſea.

No ſhip or boat ſhall ſail out to catch herrings from olland or Weſt Frizeland to the north, nor go into eep water, without the maſter's having firſt taken out an *act of conſent*, who, on the procuring ſuch an act, ſhall ake oath, that they will not ſell or make preſents of ch herring at ſea, nor ſalt nor cure them on ſhore, or board, under penalty of confiſcation of the fiſh, and of e ſum of 2 l. 3 s. 9 d. ſterl. each barrel. And that the herng caught of the one night, ſhall be ſeparated from thoſe ught of another, and ſhall declare which are of each ght diſtinctly, on forfeiture of the veſſel and cargo, and egradation of the maſter.

f the ſecond outſet, the veſſels ſhall not put to ſea bere the 14th of September, nor fiſh before the 20th of e ſame month, at which time the maſters may put their erring aboard other ſhips, and aſſiſt one another in the auling in of their nets.

caſe any ſhall ſurreptitiouſly procure an ordinary act conſent, ſuch ſhall be liable to all the penalties above cited.

None ſhall ſell or truck for herring, but to thoſe who e authoriſed by the proper magiſtrate, nor but where e herring-trade is eſtabliſhed; and the maſter and two three of the mariners ſhall inſpect the printed ticket, reafter ſpecified, in order on their return to make their port, purſuant to the contents of the ſixth article. And caſe any body ſhall, when at ſea, put herring on board her ſhips than as above directed, the maſter ſhall forit the ſaid herrings, or their value, and beſides pay a fine 52 l. 10 s. ſterl. to be levied upon the ſhip or goods, and e owners to have their remedy over againſt the maſter, o ſhall likewiſe loſe his office, and be declared incable of future ſervice.

All ſuch as are inclined to follow the buſſes in Vent ggers to take off their fiſh, ſhall firſt procure of the rt-magiſtrate, where they ſail from, an act of conſent follow that traffic, until the 15th of July, of the firſt ry, and no longer: provided likewiſe that they take t from the proper office a ticket, with herring-buſs inted at the top, with the date of the year, ſealed with e ſeal of the great fiſhery, and ſigned by the city-ſecrey. Provided they promiſe at the ſame time upon oath, to take on board any pickled herring, but from the ſſes of Holland and Weſt Frizeland, and ſhall bring h them into port, certificates from the reſpective maſs from whom they purchaſe fiſh, ſigned likewiſe by o or three mariners of each veſſel, with the name of port they ſailed from, the ſhip's name, the quantity dered, that they were caught after Midſummer-day, and ed, cured, and laid in barrels in his ſhip, on forfeiture the herring, or the value of them.

any ſhould, without being ſupplied with an act of ſent, take aboard herrings, which they may do, if caught after Midſummer-day; they ſhall declare the ſame on their oath, and on the oaths of two or three of the mariners, that ſuch herring were caught after Midſummer-day, under the penalty aboveſaid.

And all maſters are hereby interdicted from putting any herring on board the vent jaggers, after the 15th day of July, under the penalty above, and alſo of the money received for ſuch herrings, at the riſk of the purchaſer, and the owners to be totally acquitted,

6. Neither the vent jaggers, nor buſſes, ſhall carry the fiſh they purchaſe or take, any where but to Holland or Weſt Frizeland, where the barrels, after viſitation, are to be marked or ſtamped with a hot iron, on forfeiture of the herring, or their value, and under the penalty of 17 l. 10 s. ſterling.

Before the maſter, at the compleating of his voyage, ſhall break bulk, he ſhall, with two or more of his crew, declare upon oath, in the form hereafter ſpecified, what herrings they have ſold at ſea, and to whom delivered; whether they had an act of conſent to purſue the trade; how much fiſh landed at each adventure, that they were caught after Midſummer-day, and cured, ſalted, and barrelled within their ſhips, only carried into Holland or Weſt Frizeland; alſo duly reported there, and that before Midſummer-day they neither wetted their nets, nor put any fiſhing-tackle into the ſea. Thoſe who refuſe the reporting, not only the laſt, but former voyages, ſhall forfeit the unreported herrings, or the value thereof. Every ſuch oath ſhall be regiſtered in due form, and the officers and committee of the great fiſhery may, on application, have authentic copies delivered to them.

7. No inhabitant of Holland or Weſt Frizeland ſhall engage in any ſhare or part of veſſels, ſet out as fiſhing buſſes, or vent-jaggers, the property of perſons inhabiting out of the ſaid provinces, under the penalty of 52 l. 10 s. ſterl. and the confiſcation of ſhip and cargo; the information to be deemed good, though made twenty years after the fact committed.

8. The captains of the men of war attending this fiſhery, are hereby authoriſed, That in caſe any maſter of a buſs ſhould, without an act of conſent, ſell any hearing to the Zealanders, or to any inhabitants of the United Provinces, not of Holland or Frizeland, or to any foreigners; or who ſhall ſail from the fiſhing-grounds directly eaſtwards. As ſuch facts ſhall come to their knowledge, they are hereby impowered to arreſt ſuch offenders, and ſend them in priſoners.

9. The firſt caught herrings ſhall not be ſold until they have lain ten days in pickle; and to aſcertain the ſame, the keur-maſters and overſeers ſhall mark the caſk with a circle round it, between the neck-hoop and belly-hoop, or in default thereof forfeit 26 l. 5 s. ſterl. for each barrel, one half to the informer, the other to the proper officer. And ſuch who cannot pay the fine, ſhall be confined to bread and water for a month; and all herrings which come into the provinces, without ſuch circular mark, for conſumption, ſhall be thrown into the ſea.

10. Each buſs-maſter ſhall have his particular mark on ſuch barrels as he intends to land, or that he puts on board other veſſels; which mark ſhall be put on the bung-ſtave, or the next to it; and he omitting ſuch mark, ſhall forfeit $6\frac{3}{10}$ d. ſterling each barrel.

11. Every buſs-maſter is to declare, at the ſecretary's town-clerk office of the port wherefrom he ſails, where they intend to fiſh, what port return to, and what mark they uſe, in order that the ſame may be duly regiſtered, under the penalty of 5 s. 3 d. ſterling.

12. Each buſs-maſter ſhall take care, that in packing the herring be laid cloſe and even; and that whoever is guilty of any fraud, by preſſing them with baſkets or trays, ſhall be fined 2 l. 3 s. 9 d. ſterl. ſuffer arbitrary correction, and be obliged to make good the damage to the merchant who may ſuffer by them. And that the buſs-maſter may not be injured by the roguery of the layer, the ſaid layer ſhall put his mark a hand breadth within the barrel, as alſo on the outſide on the uppermoſt part; and on neglect thereof ſhall ſuffer arbitrary correction, provided the ſame is not purpoſely neglected by the direction of the buſs-maſter.

13. No one ſhall lay the herring croſs-ways, or falſify, or change them, put the old under new, lay thoſe bit by ſharks, or that are ſickly, by the good, nor thoſe which are caught of the one night, by thoſe of another taking; nor ſhall any which are not ſalted the ſame evening they are caught, be afterwards cured, under the penalty of 2 l. 3 s. 9 d. ſterl. each barrel, and naval diſcipline.

14. Each buſs-maſter ſhall diligently attend to the ſorting of the fiſh by ſeparating the full from the poor ones, and not mixing the ſound with the night-*ſchaamel*, *gret-ſick*, *melch ſieck*, *ſtinck*, or *ſqueamiſh* herrings; nor to put either of thoſe with the other, in the ſame barrel, but to lay all the diſtinct ſorts in ſeparate caſks, and mark them accordingly.

15. Each fiſher ſhall be obliged to declare for what price he will ſell his different aſſortments, diſtinctly; and if they ſhould happen to fall ſhort of the contract, the keur maſter is to take an exact regiſter of them, and to decide the difference.

The buſs-maſter is not only to mark and diſtinguiſh the full ſound from the weak, but the great from the ſmall, and alſo thoſe of the like kind caught in different ſeaſons, from each other; and is, with two or three of his crew, to declare in the regiſter's office on oath, that all his cargo is properly and diſtinctly marked, and was ſo before the caſks were ſeverally ſtowed in the ſhip's hold.

16. The buſs-maſter, according as he finds the ſeaſons, may ſalt the herring at his own diſcretion, and cauſe the net to be laid as he finds the ſhoals to run.

Of curing, packing, repacking, &c. of the herring.

17. That from henceforth, the curing of the herring ſhall be perfected within three weeks after coming into port; or after they are ſold to the merchant, and ſhall be repacked once or more, according to the cuſtom of the place, and nature of the herring. But if the curing is not perfected within three weeks, the buyer ſhall not pretend to any abatement.

18. The buſs-maſter and book-keeper are expreſly interdicted from concerning themſelves in the ſale of the herring by taſte at the bung-hole, they are only to diſpoſe of them by pack and keur, that is, by wholeſale as they arrive, on penalty of paying 4 l. 7 s. 6d. ſterl. *per* laſt, and confiſcation of the fiſh; one third to the informer, one third for the officer who executes the proceſs, and one third to the poor.

19. No herring ſhall be *datumen*. If ſo found, they ſhall be confiſcated, one third to the informer, one third to the officer in execution, and one third to the poor. And the perſon who ſo cured them ſhall loſe his office.

20. No herring ſhall be heightned with freſh pickle, nor repacked but in the public ſtreet, on the keys, or in ſuch places as are cuſtomary, with open doors, where any body may go in or out. And whoever packs, &c. with the door ſhut, or hinders, any body coming in, ſhall forfeit 240 grote to the proper officer, as often as found guilty.

21. The keur maſters are to take ſpecial care, that no naſty, wrack, gutſick, milkſick, or other indiſpoſed herrings, ſhall be uſed to fill up or heighten the barrel; but each in their different order, to be filled with herrings of the like kind, in the penalty of 10 s. 6d. ſterl. each barrel, whereto the merchant, packer, opheightner, and every one in particular concerned in packing are alike liable. And that this may be more commodiouſly effected, it is ordered for the future, that no herring ſhall be packed or heightened to be ſent beyond ſea, before that the keur maſters inſpect and aſcertain, that the herring are packed in due order as aboveſaid. And further, to prevent fraud, the place-maſter where the herrings are packed, &c. ſhall ſet his mark on the caſk, between the third hoop and the neck-hoop.

It is likewiſe expreſly forbid to pack ſmall ſweet-wrack herrings with the great, but each ſhall be heightened by thoſe of the like nature, and ſeaſon of taking; and according to the different ſorts and takings, the caſk is to be branded with ſuch different marks upon the belly, as is by this ordinance ſpecially directed, as alſo the city mark.

22. The coopers are in packing to diſpatch the bad and unfitting barrels firſt, for preſent expending; but for the keeping herrings, they are to take good barrels, to the liking of the merchant, or of the keur-maſters who are to ſee it done, and in default the herring are to be taken out and repacked without any expence to the merchant, and the offender to pay four grote *Flemiſh* each barrel.

23. The coopers ſhall not hoop branded or other repacked caſks with half barrel or green hoops, but with good whole barrel hoops, made the March preceding.

24. No barrels which are to be ſent abroad ſhall have leſs than fourteen hoops.

And whereas it has been diſcovered to have been heretofore a practice, to pack the ſeveral ſorts of herrings in unlawful barrels, to the great detriment of this profitable commerce, it is therefore forbid that any body hereafter do pack herrings in ſalmon casks, or other unfit veſſels, but ſolely and ſimply in barrels, made and burnt, conformable to the ordinance publiſhed, concerning the making, curing, and burning of the barrels, on penalty of confiſcation of the herrings, and for each ſtave, ſmall or large, 1 l. 15 s. ſterl. for the informer, officer, and poor.

25. Alſo, that any ſervants of the packers, coopers, or other officer, who may pack in ſalmon or other unlawful caſk, ſhall immediately be diſcharged their places.

26. We alſo forbid to pack in any barrel, ſalt, ſpice, or other commodity, under cover of brand, wrack, or other kind of herrings to be ſent weſtwards, under pain of loſing the ſaid barrels, and all which is therein contained, beſides to pay 8 l. 15 s. ſterl. and to ſuffer corporal correction; as alſo to make good the damage which the merchant or ſkipper may ſuffer thereby. And the porters or ſervants employed therein, ſhall ſuffer as in the foregoing article.

27. The herrings caught after St. James's day, and ſalted with fine ſalt, may be exported for wrack weſtward, as has been formerly accuſtomed; the barrel to be bound with ſixteen hoops, the date of the year upon the belly thereof, without letters or cyphers, and the mark of the purchaſer thereon.

Of SALT.

28. No Spaniſh or Portugal ſalt ſhall be ſtowed into chefts or barrels before the keur-maſter has examined and found it good, under the penalty of 2 l. 3 s. 9 d. ſterl. for every hundred weight.

29. No buſs-maſter ſhall carry to ſea, for the uſe of the herring-fiſhery, any other but Spaniſh or Portugal ſalt, twice examined by the keur-maſter, who ſhall open every barrel before it goes on board, ſee them filled up, and ſtamp his mark thereon. And the buſs-maſter being proved to have cured herrings with ſalt not twice inſpected, to forfeit 3 l. 3 s. ſterl. And the ſaid buſs-maſter is in his certificate to declare, that the herrings are cured with approved Spaniſh or Portugal ſalt, before they are ſet to ſale, or the barrels filled up.

30. The buſs-maſter is, at the requeſt of the keur-maſters to open his barrels, and cloſe them again, in his view who may have two inſpections, and at each time the ſum of half a farthing each barrel; the firſt time to be paid by the ſeller, the laſt by the buyer.

31. If any fraud ſhall be diſcovered in the barrelling of the ſalt, the ſeller ſhall forfeit 17 l. 10 s. ſterl. one third part to the officer, one third to the fiſhery, and one third to the poor.

32. Any perſon found curing of herrings with French ſalt, whether from Senters, Olderdome, Borcus, St. Martins, Brouwart, South France, Weſt Indies, or the Isle of May, ſhall forfeit the herrings.

33. Fiſh caught after St. James's and Bartholemew-tide ſhall be ſalted with fine ſalt, made from boiled ſea-water, according to the contract made with the city of Cologn.

34. No white, ſmall ſalt ſhall be received, but with certificate from the maker, and taking an oath before the uſe it, that the ſalt is not changed after receiving it board, on forfeiture of the ſalt, or value thereof; and found guilty of perjury, to be puniſhed according to direction of the ordinance heretofore agreed upon with the deputies of Cologn.

35. There ſhall not be ſent abroad, to France, Flanders, Brabant,

Brabant, and ſo on weſtward, any barrels of herrings otherwiſe marked than with the grand Rouen brand, and fiſhed and packed after Bartholomew-tide.

Nor ſhall any herrings be exported to Bremen, Hamburgh, Cologn or other places that way, cured with courſe ſalt, whether full or ſlender fiſh, wrack or refuſal, under penalty of forfeiting the herrings, or value of the ſame, and a fine of 10 s. 6 d. ſterl. each barrel, and naval correction.

36. Packers, coopers, and place ſervants, for the ſame crime, to be diſcharged, and declared infamous; nor ſhall they afterwards be admitted into any ſervices in theſe provinces.

37. All herring ſent to Hamburgh, and in that courſe, muſt be branded with the ſeller's mark, and the cypher of the year. All others with the ſingle brand only, as is before directed.

38. Herrings once exported abroad, ſhall not be received back, to be filled or cured anew, on pain of confiſcation.

39. For the preſervation of this moſt important and advantageous branch of commerce, no one ſhall, in theſe provinces, land, pack, or otherwiſe cure or prepare any Maeſterlandiſh or other foreign herrings, but only coopered up in caſks, and ſent away, in the ſame condition as imported, under pain of confiſcation.

40. All penalties, the diviſion whereof is not previouſly ſpecified, are to be one third to the informer, one third to the officer executing the proceſs, and one third to the poor.

41. And that no buſs-maſter may plead ignorance of theſe our ordinances, they ſhall be obliged to take authentic copies with them to ſea.

42. No officer or fiſcal ſhall compound with delinquents, without the expreſs approbation of the burgo-maſter or treaſurer of the city, or place where the crime was committed; and if ſuch compoſition be made without their conſent, the ſame is hereby declared illegal and void; and the burgo-maſters, &c. may purſue the offender, and recover the penalty notwithſtanding; and apply the one third part, uſually appropriated to the officer who executes the proceſs, to the uſe of the city.

43. The deputies of the cities trading in the great fiſhery, may, in the future, make ſuch bye laws, as they find conducive to the welfare of this lucrative branch of commerce.

And as we are clearly appriſed, that all the foregoing articles are for the preſervation and bettering this beneficial branch of trade, therefore we do command all and every one, whom it may concern, punctually to obſerve theſe our regulations, under the pains and penalties affixt to each article, in caſe of contravention. And as we well underſtand theſe our ordinances, ſo will they be duly executed againſt the contraveeners. And that no one may plead ignorance of the ſame, we do hereby command and authoriſe our head door-keeper, or beadle of our court of juſtice in Holland, to publiſh the ſubſtance of theſe in all the cities and places of Holland, and Weſt Frizeland, wherever it ſhall be neceſſary.

Done at the Hague in the form of a placart gereſumeert, and atteſted under the common ſeal of the States of Holland, the 10th of May 1651, and again renewed, and the ſecond article amplified the 30th of May, 1656.

By order of the ſtates,
Herbt. Van Beaumont.

The form of the oath to be taken by the buſs-maſter, trafficking in the herring-fiſhery, in order to his obtaining the act of conſent.

I A. B. maſter of a herring-ſhip, and two or three of my ſeamen, do promiſe and ſwear, that we will not, before the 24th of June, nor after the 31ſt of December next enſuing, any herring nets throw into the ſea, nor before wet them to catch herrings.

Secondly, That I will not perſonally, or by connivance, do, or permit any herrings to be delivered at ſea, to any perſon or perſons whatſoever, out of my veſſel, directly or indirectly, but only to ſuch ſhips from Holland and Weſt Frizeland, which have and produce the due act of conſent. At the top printed a buſs, and underneath the ſeal of the great fiſhery, and ſigned by one of the ſecretaries of the under-mentioned cities; Delft, Rotterdam, Schiedam, Briel, and Enchuyſen, to whoſe ſhips I ſhall, to the 15th of July, and no longer, deliver herrings. Nor put on board each Vent Jagger more than one ſmall barrel of fiſh for the book keeper.

Thirdly, The barrels ſhall not be more than once packed and heightned; and ſpecial care taken to preſerve the bloody pickle, nor waſte the ſame as little as poſſible.

Fourthly, I will take due care t at the herrings are laid even in their rows, not thrown in with baſkets or trays confuſedly, nor the kinds mixed, bloom laid, or falſified.

Fifthly, That I will not, new herrings caugl t in the one night, mix with thoſe taken of another; but will ſpecially declare what herrings are taken each night diſtinctly.

Sixthly, That I will not ſell or barter in Shetland, or at ſea, to or with any foreigner, ſalt, pickle, barrels, hoops, ſtaves, fiſhing tackle, yarn, lines, or any other fiſhing appurtenants, for any kind of merchandiſe whatſoever; nor make preſents, or connive at any being made by the ſhip's crew, directly or indirectly. And farther, that my ſhip's crew ſhall have no more for a preſent, than each a ſmall kinelkin, or one eighth of a barrel for each voyage. And that I will in all things govern me according to the directions of the placarts and ordinances regarding the herring trade, which have been delivered me.

So verily help me God Almighty.

The form of the buſs-maſter's oath, after his return from fiſhing.

Appearing this day before the lords N. N. N. N. in the city of I A B, and C D, E F, G H, my own mariners, reſpectively on our ſolemn oaths declare, that we did, in conformity to the act of conſent, duly equip a ſhip for the herring trade; and no fiſhing tackle, before the 24th of June, did throw into the ſea, or ſhot out, or wetted: nor have delivered out of the veſſel, herrings to any perſon or perſons whatſoever; nor have cauſed or connived at any ſuch thing being done, directly or indirectly, in any manner or form whatſoever; except only to ſuch ſhips or vent jaggers of Holland and Weſt Frizeland, who have produced a qualified act of conſent, which we peruſed: nor to them after the 15th of July laſt: nor have fiſhed for, or caught, any other herrings but what are ſpecified in our report, delivered into the treaſurer.

Laſtly, I A. B. do declare, that no more has been given to each mariner of my crew, than one kinelkin, or eigthth part of a barrel of herrings each voyage.

So verily as God Almighty muſt help us.

The oath taken by the buſs-maſter and his crew, on their outſet to the Dogger-bank.

I A. B. ſailing with fiſhing-tackle upon the dogger trade, and all my mariners, promiſe and ſwear, That we will not carry with us this voyage any more than twenty nets: that we will not catch any herrings before St. John's day; nor before that time will gut, ſalt, nor put any in pots or barrels; nor deliver any at ſea, gutted or not; nor bring any home to ſell, make preſents of, or otherwiſe diſtribute.

So verily help us God Almighty.

The oath of the ſame, on their return from fiſhing on the Dogger-bank.

We do hereby declare on our ſolemn oath, in conſequence of that previouſly taken, that we have not, during this voyage, had on board any more than twenty nets; nor before St. John's day did gut, ſalt, pot, barrel, lay up in any veſſel, give away or bring home; nor have nor ſhall bring aſhore any herrings for to ſell, make preſents of, or diſtribute in any wiſe howſoever.

So help us, &c.

Oath of the Vent-jaggers.

We promiſe and ſwear not to take on board, from any ſhips or buſſes, but thoſe of Holland and Weſt Frizeland, any

herrings

herrings, nor purchaſe from them, but ſuch wherewith a due atteſtation is given, ſigned by the maſters and two or three of their mariners reſpectively; and wherein is contained the quantity, and an aſſurance of their being gutted, ſalted, and laid, according to the direction of the placart: nor ſuch herrings taken on board will we carry any where, but to ſuch cities or places in the ſaid provinces, where brands and certificates are given: nor will we our act of conſent deliver or lend to any perſon, to make uſe of at ſea; nor after the 15th of July will take any herrings on board, directly or indirectly, except one eighth of a barrel from each buſs for the book-keeper, under the penalties in the placarts and ordinances, concerning vent-jaggers, contained.

And we do further promiſe and ſwear that we will not ſell, make preſents, barter, truck, or otherwiſe howſoever diſpoſe of any ſalt, pickle, barrels, hoops, ſtaves, fiſhing-tackle, nets, yarn, fiſhing-line, or any other materials in the fiſhery, nor merchandiſes of any kind or denomination, to the people of Shetland, or other foreign nation whatſoever, nor connive at the ſame being done, directly or indirectly.

And finally, we promiſe, immediately after our return home, to take the oath of purgation.

So verily, &c.

The oath of Purgation.

I A. B. and two of my mariners ſwear, that the oath taken by me on receiving the act of conſent, has been duly obſerved in every point, without neglecting the leaſt part thereof.

So verily, &c.

The act of Conſent. 1755.

We the burger-maſters and regency of the city of conſent, that may ſail with his herring-buſs to the North ſea, there to follow the herring-trade, and has ſworn before us, that he is duly equipped with fiſhing-takle, ſalt, barrels, mariners, and all other requiſites belonging to that commerce, according to the burthen of his veſſel; and that he will not, before the 24th of June, nor after the 31ſt of December next enſuing, put into the ſea any fiſhing-tackle, nor wet them to catch herrings; nor will himſelf, nor connive at others putting fiſh on board any veſſels, other than of the provinces of Holland and Weſt Frizeland, having an authentic act of conſent, with an herring buſs printed on the top, and at the bottom the printed ſeal of the great fiſhery, and ſigned by the ſecretary of the city from whence he ſailed; in which veſſel he may, to the 15th of July incluſive, put on board the herrings he has taken. And that he will exactly ſet down upon the ſchedule the mark of the barrels, and the night of fiſh being taken, which he ſo diſpoſes of; and that he will not pack or heighten the barrels with crooked herrings more than once, and take care that as little pickle be ſpilt as poſſible, that he will land his fiſh only in the provinces of Holland or Weſt Frizeland, and with three of his mariners report his cargo within three days after his return. That his herrings are laid in even rows from end to end, not flung in with baskets or trays, nor mixed, laid croſsways, or falſified: that he, no ſalt, pickle, barrels, hoops, ſtaves, herring-tackle, yarn, lines, other fiſhing-furniture, or merchandiſes of any denomination, will ſell or otherwiſe diſpoſe of in Shetland, Scotland, at ſea nor on ſhore, to any foreign nation whatſoever, or connive at the ſo doing, directly or indirectly, under the penalties in the ordination mentioned; and that he will always govern himſelf according to the placart and ordinances made in behalf of the herring-trade, the which are given him for his better direction herein.

So verily muſt God Almighty help him.

In witneſs whereof the ſeal of the great fiſhery is hereunto affixed and ſigned by our city ſecretary, the 1ſt day of June, 1755.

N. N.

1755. (*A printed herring-buſs.*)

We the burgo-maſters of the city of conſent and admit with his ſhip to ſail amongſt the buſſes, and herring ſhips, and take aboard herrings from them, until the 15th of July, and no longer, conform to the ordinances made in the behalf of the vent-jaggers. And that all the herrings which he ſhall take on board at ſea, ſhall be only from the buſſes and ſhips of Holland and Weſt Frizeland, and that he will of each maſter take an atteſtation ſigned by him and two or three mariners, mentioning the quantity of herrings put on board, and that they were caught, gutted, ſalted, and laid in the barrels, according to the direction of the placart. As alſo that he will not receive on board any herring to make preſents of, except a ſmall kinnelken for the book-keeper, nor carry his herrings any where, but where there is brand and certificate, nor will lend to any one his act of conſent, nor will ſell or make preſents of, barter or exchange any ſalt, pickle, barrels, ſtaves, hoops, fiſhing-tackle, nets, yarn, line, or any other thing belonging to the fiſhery, nor any kind of merchandiſe, either at Shetland, Scotland, nor any where elſe, at ſea or on ſhore, nor to any foreigner directly or indirectly, and that he will take the oath of purgation immediately after his return. So verily God muſt help him. In witneſs whereof, at the top is printed a buſs or ſhip, with the date of the year, and at the bottom is printed the ſeal of the great fiſhery, and ſigned by our ſecretary, the 1ſt day of June, 1755.

Inſtructions for the mates, againſt not rightly managing, ſorting, ſalting, and laying the herrings.

The deputies of the great fiſhery and herring navigation of Holland and Weſt Frizeland, being credibly, and with great indignation, informed, that ſome mates, neglecting their duty, do not rightly manage, ſort, ſalt, or lay the herrings, notwithſtanding the good orders inſtituted by the general placart, relating to the catching, ſalting, and managing of herrings, by their noble great mightineſſes, dated May 10, 1651, renewed and explained May 30, 1659, eſpecially by the 12, 13, 14 and 15 articles; a copy of which, agreeably to the 41ſt article of the ſaid order, is yearly delivered to the ſaid mates, and which they ſolemnly ſwear to, as a warning, in order to prevent all abuſes and miſdemeanours, as it is ordered by the ſaid deputies, by virtue of the ſaid placart; by which it is to be feared, that the vending and good reputation of Dutch herrings in foreign markets, already decreaſing, may entirely come to ceaſe, and on the contrary be deſpiſed, to the great loſs and damage of the trade, and of conſequence to the ruin of the common herring and great fiſhery, it being ſo eſſential a branch of the commerce and welfare of theſe countries, and inhabitants thereof, if it is not ſpeedily and ſtrictly prevented; the ſaid deputies, with the advice and concurrence of ſome of the owners, ſtewards, and merchants in the herring-trade, have agreed and ordained, in order to prevent thoſe groſs abuſes and neglect of duty, for the preſervation and reeſtabliſhing the herring and great fiſheries, as they do by theſe preſents ordain, by way of renewing and explaining the before mentioned good orders, that the mates of the herring veſſels ſhall not mix ſeveral ſorts of herrings together, but ſhall ſort them properly, as full with full, meaſure with meaſure, and ſmall with ſmall. The mates ſhall, upon account of extraordinary large quantities catched, and want of time to ſort the herrings properly, upon their arrival, enter them as unſorted herrings. Further, they ſhall ſalt the herrings properly, and the large ones not leſs than four barrels of ſalt to a laſt, excepting only the ſmall barrels; as likewiſe clean them, and afterwards lay them croſſways in the barrels. Commanding every mate to govern himſelf exactly, upon the penalty, over and above the action upon the caſe of perjury, of 25 l. 5 s. ſterl. for every mate whoſe herrings ſhall be found not ſorted in the manner above mentioned; and he ſhall not have any certificate to go on the herring-fiſhery afterwards. But with regard to the not laying the herrings croſſways in the barrels, a penalty of 10 s. 6d. ſterl. each barrel. The ſaid penalties to be applied agreeably to the 40th article of the above placart, one third to the informer or informers, whether mariners or other perſons, one third to the officer who ſhall take the information, and

and laſtly, one third to the poor. Moreover, the bad ſorted herrings, that is, the full mixt with meaſure, as alſo meaſure mixt with full, ſhall be marked as unſorted, and with regard to the full and meaſure mixt with ſmall, they are to be ſold as ſmall, and ſhall be accounted and paid for as ſuch by the buyer. The above orders and penalties to remain in full force, and at the riſque and charge of the mates. And to the end that no body ſhall plead ignorance, the deputies have ordered theſe to be publiſhed and affixed at the proper places. Done at Delft, the 23d of May, 1749. By order of the ſaid deputies.

1749. The burgomaſters and rulers of the city of Scheidam, do give conſent to Marten Panlaſte Brook, that he with his herring-veſſel may ſail to the northern ſea, to exerciſe his herring-fiſhery there; and he has ſwore by ſolemn oath, that he is equipt with proper tackle, ſalt, barrels, men, and other utenſils proper for the herring-fiſhery, according to the bigneſs of his veſſel; as alſo, that he will not throw out any herring-tackle, or make any before the 24th of June, nor after the 31ſt of December next; alſo that he will not deliver to any body whatſoever any herrings at ſea, nor ſuffer any to be delivered out of his ſhip by any other perſon directly or indirectly, in any ſhape, but to ſuch veſſels only coming from Holland and Weſt Frieſland, as ſhew a proper certificate, with a herring-buſs at the top and at bottom, the ſeal of the great fiſhery, and ſigned by the ſecretary of the town where he comes from, to which veſſels he may deliver his herrings until the 15th of July, 1749, and no longer. That he ſhall expreſs in the liſt exactly the marked barrels, and what night the herrings he delivers were catched: further, that he ſhall not fill up his barrels more than once with other herrings, and take care that as little of the blood-pickle as poſſible ſhall be let off: and further, that he ſhall bring all the herrings he catches into the province of Holland, and Weſt Frieſland, as likewiſe together with three of his ſeamen, faithfully to enter the ſaid herrings, three days after his arrival at the longeſt; alſo that he ſhall take as much care as poſſible that the herrings are laid even from one bottom to another, and that they are not thrown into the barrels with baſkets or ſhovels, nor mixt or falſified. That he ſhall not carry on ſhore in Shetland, Scotland, or other places, nor to ſell to any foreign nation at ſea, nor exchange or make preſents of any ſalt, pickle, barrels, hoops, tackle, thread, hook-tackle, or any other fiſhing-tackle, nor any merchandiſe under what denomination it may be, nor take any goods upon freight out or homeward bound, nor ſuffer it to be done directly or indirectly, on pain as mentioned in the inſtructions; and ſhall farther regulate himſelf according to the placarts made relating to the herring-fiſhery, which are delivered to him for that purpoſe.

So truly might God Almighty help him.

In witneſs whereof, the ſeal of the great fiſhery is put thereto, and ſigned by the ſecretary of the town, the 10th of June 1749.

This fiſhery is ſo valuable to the Dutch, that, according to Sir William Monſon, who lived in the reign of King James I. they vended annually at Koningsburgh, Stetin, Dantzick, and another town within the Sound, between 30 and 40,000 laſts of herrings, amounting in value to above 620,000 l. In Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Livonia, 10,000 laſts of herrings, worth 160,000 l. In Ruſſia, 1500, amounting to 27,000 l. At Stade, Hamburgh, Bremen, and Embden, 6000 laſts, amounting to 100,000 l. In Germany, 22,000 laſts, amounting to 340,000 l. In the Spaniſh Netherlands 9000 laſts, amounting to 160,000 l. At Rouen, 500 laſts, worth 10,000 l. So that here he has reckoned up above a million and a half ſterling made of herrings by the Dutch upwards of 100 years ago; beſides a vaſt quantity conſumed in their own country, to the amount of ſeveral hundred thouſand pounds more. And theſe herrings are the more valuable to the Dutch, becauſe whatever any country yields they take in lieu of them, having ſeldom occaſion to export any other treaſure: for in Holland there is a ſtaple of all commodities, their ſhips continually going out and coming in, to and from every country on the face of the globe, which bring them in an ineſtimable profit.

Upon the late eſtabliſhment of the Britiſh fiſhery, the Dutch were threatened with a diminution in this part of their commerce: for it was intended that the new company ſhould fit out 200 buſſes; the charge whereof, new from the ſtocks, and furniſhed at all points for the fiſhery, together with victuals and wages for one whole year, would come to about 90,000 l. or at ſecond-hand perhaps 30,000 l. cheaper; which expence, according to Sir Roger L'Eſtrange, would be cleared the firſt year, if attended with ordinary ſucceſs, and money towards a ſtock over and above. He ſtates the proportion of ſailors and fiſhers for 200 buſſes to be 2000 men, which might be ſupplied from the Britiſh coaſts without any difficulty; beſides, theſe 200 buſſes might train up annually 1200 landmen for ſea ſervice.

It is to be obſerved, that the Engliſh can build and rig out a veſſel cheaper than the Hollanders; becauſe their country affords none of the materials: for the Dutch fetch their timber, planks, iron, hemp, cordage, pipe-ſtaves, bread, and malt, from foreign countries; whereas England produces moſt of theſe. The hazards alſo, and the difficulties of the Dutch, in this fiſhing voyage, muſt be much greater than thoſe of the Engliſh; becauſe the former are at a great diſtance from their ports: whereas the latter have harbours all along the coaſts where the ſhoals of herrings lie, and can ſend them ſooner to market into the Baltic, where moſt of them are vended, than the Dutch poſſibly can. But, notwithſtanding theſe advantages, the Britiſh company at firſt ſent out only 10 buſſes; though theſe had very conſiderable ſucceſs, and they were intended to be augmented to 67.

It is greatly to be lamented that this fiſhery ſhould be impeded by any artifices to be thrown in the way of the ſociety: for if the Britiſh navigation ſhould fall, every thing valuable to Engliſhmen muſt be loſt; and how to ſupport and ſupply it without the fiſhery, a very eminent gentleman formerly declared he could not comprehend. The man of war and merchantman conſume ſeamen but breed none; the collier brings up now and then an apprentice, but ſtill ſpends more than he makes: the only and the common nurſery of ſeamen is the fiſhery; ſo that this fiſhery is juſt as neceſſary to the Britiſh navigation, as navigation is to the ſafety and proſperity of Britain; and it is well enough obſerved, that all princes and ſtates are ſtronger and weaker at ſea according to the meaſures of their fiſhery.

The fiſhery would abundantly ſupply the Britiſh mariners with pilots, whoſe ſervices would more than countervail the charge; for their buſineſs lies where moſt danger is to be found: they know all the rocks and ſhelves, and there is no coaſting without them. Beſides, a farther advantage would enſue, by enlarging and improving ſeveral of the Britiſh manufactures, and conſtantly employing a great number of hands, which would tend to exonerate the country of vagrants and idle people: ſix trades particularly would be concerned in this undertaking, which are at preſent but little uſed, as hempſters, ſpinſters, carders, rope-makers, weavers of ſail-cloth, and net-makers; and there would alſo be a fuller employment for coopers, ſmiths, ſhipwrights, caulkers, ſawyers, ſeamen, fiſhermen, baſket-makers, and other trades: to all which may be added, that when the herring-buſſes are not employed in fiſhing for herrings, they may fiſh for cod on the north of Scotland and Ireland; which is an advantage the Dutch cannot ſo conveniently take.

The commerce of herrings, both white or pickled, and red, is very conſiderable; but there are ſo many ſorts prepared in ſuch different ways, and different places, that it is difficult to ſay any thing preciſely upon this ſubject. See *Herring*.

The white herrings cured by the Dutch, were, till lately, in the greateſt repute; being diſtinguiſhed into four kinds, according to their ſizes: the goodneſs of this commodity conſiſting in its being fat, fleſhy, firm, white, ſalted the ſame time it is taken, with good ſalt, and well barrelled. But the herrings cured by the buſſes belonging to the Britiſh ſociety are in greater reputation than thoſe taken

by the Dutch. The Iriſh herrings are the next in value, and principally thoſe of Dublin, which are ſcarce inferior to the beſt herrings of Rotterdam, or Enchuyſen. The Scotch herring is not ſo well prepared, gutted, ſalted, nor barrelled as the Dutch, and yet its taſte is excellent: nor is it doubted, but that, if the Scots were as careful in theſe circumſtances as their neighbours, their herring would be the beſt in the world. A conſiderable number of herrings are alſo fiſhed on the coaſts of England and Wales, particularly off Yarmouth, and the coaſt of Cardigan; but they are not altogether ſo proper as the others for exportation; the fiſh being too dry and freſh for the market.

For curing the white, or pickled herring, one of the crew, appointed for this office, as ſoon as the fiſh are taken out of the ſea, cuts them open, taking out the guts, and every thing but the milts and roes, which are always to be left in the body of the fiſh: then, waſhing them in freſh water, they are left, the ſpace of 12 or 15 hours, in a tub full of ſtrong brine, made of freſh water and ſea-ſalt. When they are taken out they drain them, and when well drained put them in barrels, taking care to diſpoſe and range them evenly in rows or layers, preſſing them well down, and ſtrewing a layer of ſalt both at top and bottom. When the barrel is full they ſtop it up very cloſe, that no air may get in, nor any brine flow out; either of which is very prejudicial to the fiſh.

The curing and preparing of red herrings is done in this manner: the fiſh being caught, they proceed to waſh, gut, and lay them in brine, as for pickled herring; only they let them lie double the time in brine, that is, 24 hours, becauſe they are to take all their ſalt here; whereas the other kind takes half its ſalt in the barrel. When the herrings are taken out of the brine they ſpit them, that is, ſtring them by the head on little wooden ſpits, and thus hang them in a kind of chimney, made for the purpoſe; and when the chimney is as full as it will hold, which leſs than 10 or 12,000 ſeldom effects, they make a little fire underneath of bruſh-wood, that yields a deal of ſmoke, but no flame, where the herrings remain till they are ſufficiently ſmoked and dried, which ordinarily is in 24 hours; when they are taken down and barrelled up for keeping. Their goodneſs conſiſts in being large, freſh, fat, oily, ſoft, and pliable, their outſide of a yellow golden colour, their roes or milts within them, and well ſalted and barrelled.

By an authentic liſt of white, or pickled herrings, imported into Hamburgh from 1731 to 1750, it appears, that in the year 1737 there were 2800 laſts of Dutch

1738	2040	herrings imported there.
1739	1680	
1740	1520	
1741	1730	
1742	1500	
1743	1930	
1744	1660	
1745	2340	
1746	3010	
1747	1610	
1748	1516	
1749	1798	
1750	1364	
Average	1892	laſts annually.

This average of 1892 laſts yearly, gave employment to 54 buſſes, computing 35 laſts, at 12 barrels the laſt, containing 12000 herrings, to a buſs; which is as little as can be given to each, during the two fiſheries off Shetland and Yarmouth: but Hamburgh could make a greater conſumption; and when it is conſidered what numbers of laſts are annually vended in Denmark, Peterſburgh, Stockholm, Riga, Gottenburgh, Dantzick, Stetin, Bremen, Embden, Berlin, and other parts of Germany; as likewiſe in Flanders, and the Weſt Indies; all of them open markets for Britiſh herrings; what an idea may be formed of the utility of this fiſhery, if properly conducted by the ſociety eſtabliſhed for ſo ſalutary an undertaking? For, from thence it will appear, that if due care is taken in working this more than golden mine, it muſt neceſſarily be productive of immenſe riches, as well as of great ſtrength, to the Britiſh dominions.

The towns of France, from whence the herring-fiſhery is carried on, are Calais, Boulogne, St. Vallery, Treport, Dieppe, Fecamp, Havre, and Honfleur; and the fiſhers of theſe towns generally fit out yearly 120 veſſels, with 15 hands one with another, aboard.

Britiſh FISHERY *companies.* The company of *the royal fiſhery of England* was eſtabliſhed by commiſſion under the great ſeal of England, in the reign of King Charles II. who conſtituted his Royal Highneſs James Duke of York, Edward Earl of Clarendon, Thomas Earl of Danby, and ſeveral other perſons of diſtinction, to be a council for this royal fiſhery; his Majeſty authoriſing them with ſeveral powers, declaring himſelf their protector, and granting them ſuch extraordinary privileges, that, in the 29th year of his reign, he incorporated them, and others who were traders and adventurers, into a company, calling them The company of the royal fiſhery of England: but it was never properly carried into execution. However, by the ſtatute of the 9th of Queen Anne it was enacted, That the crown might, by letters-patent, direct a ſtock, to conſiſt of 20 s. on every hundred pounds of the capital ſtock of the South Sea company, and to be raiſed by the members thereof in proportion to their adventures, to be employed in the improving, enlarging, and carrying on, the fiſhery of England; and this likewiſe dropt into nothing.

Among the great number of ſchemes for eſtabliſhing companies at London in 1720, that for the Britiſh fiſhery was not the leaſt conſiderable.

The great funds deſigned for its execution, the quality of the ſubſcribers, the importance of the deſign, which tended to nothing leſs than to ruin the commerce of all other nations, made the world believe at firſt, that it was to be eſtabliſhed upon more ſolid foundations than ſeveral others, whoſe very names ſeemed to ſhew their impending ruin; yet it ſeems that it came not ſhort of its project, and if it is here mentioned, it is only to ſhew the vaſt ſtretch of the ideas of commerce wherewith all nations flattered themſelves upon obſerving how far the French India company had advanced the credit of its actions.

The funds of this company were fixed at three millions of pounds ſterling. More than 150 members of the houſe of commons were the firſt ſubſcribers; and, to perfect the form, a charter of eſtabliſhment was requeſted from his Majeſty, whoſe expediting ſeemed ſo much the more eaſy, as this enterpriſe had already been acceded to by a committee of the houſe of commons.

The requeſt preſented to the King was digeſted into thirteen principal articles, the moſt eſſential of which were as follows. By the firſt, a truth not to be conteſted was eſtabliſhed, that the power and opulence of the Britiſh iſlands are founded upon commerce and navigation.

2d, That there was a great proſpect of ſeeing both encreaſed by the peace already eſtabliſhed in Europe.

3d, That the Engliſh obſerving their neighbours buſied about reaping an advantage from ſo favourable a juncture to augment their trade already ſo conſiderable, it would not be prudence in the nation to remain idle ſpectators of their new efforts, and not to imitate their ardour for extending their commerce and navigation.

4th, That the ſureſt means to ſucceed therein, is the encouragement of the fiſhery; which ſuits better the Britiſh nation than all other people of Europe.

5th, That if the woollen trade is the baſis, and principal reſource of the Britiſh commerce, fiſhing is chiefly that of the Dutch; and it is thereby more than by any other way, that their maritime power almoſt equals that of England.

6th, That it was for theſe conſiderations a fund had been eſtabliſhed by ſubſcription, large enough to give the Britiſh fiſhery all the extent it was capable of having.

7th, That, by this eſtabliſhment, all the maritime towns of the three kingdoms may bear a part in the fiſhery, and that an infinite number of poor, who ſtarve for want of employment, ſhall find thereby wherewithal to keep them in action, and live handſomely.

8th, T

That this fiſhery ſhall be carried on with all poſſible
re and diligence, no fiſhing-buſs being authoriſed to put
o any Engliſh port, unleſs a member of the company
eſtabliſhed there to take care thereof.

That this fiſhery employing a great number of ſea-
en, there will be always ſome ready for the ſervice of
e King's ſhips, or thoſe of merchants, who often want
em, without having recourſe, as uſual, to the boatmen
the Thames, who turn out the worſt of ſeamen; and
at a competent judgment of the vaſt number of theſe
w ſailors trained aboard the buſſes of this univerſal
hery might be formed from thoſe the Dutch employ
the herring and whale fiſhery, who amount to up-
ards of 3000.

. That the new company hoped to make its commerce
perior to that of its neighbours, ſo much the more as
could ſupply with fiſh ſeveral great cities of Germany,
the means of the ports which his Britannic Majeſty
s at preſent upon the Elbe in quality of Elector of Ha-
over; and that it could underſel the Dutch, becauſe this
mmerce is contiguous to them.

. That the company being obliged to have ſeveral
nds of artiſans in its ſervice, undertook to keep them
their duty, and to put a ſtop to thoſe murmurings ſo
ual to them when out of work, and which in certain
rcumſtances may prejudice the ſtate.

2. That, laſtly, beſides the fiſhery the company pro-
oſed to eſtabliſh towards the weſt-coaſt of Great Britain,
would alſo undertake the whale-fiſhery in Greenland,
nd thereby ſave the nation more than two hundred
ouſand pounds ſterling *per annum* paid to the Hollan-
ers for oil and whale-bone imported to England.

Society of the free Britiſh fiſhery. The above propoſals,
pon the declenſion of the South Sea company, were neg-
ected till the year 1723, when they were ineffectually re-
ewed; nor was there any appearance of the fiſhery be-
g promoted, till it was undertaken by Admiral Vernon,
eneral Oglethorpe, and Alderman Janſſen, who ſup-
orted it ſo vigorouſly, that, in the 23d year of King
George II. an act of parliament was paſſed, "for the en-
couragement of the Britiſh white herring fiſhery;"
hereby it was enacted, That his Majeſty might incor-
orate the ſeveral perſons therein particularly mentioned,
or raiſing the capital ſum of 500,000l. to be eſtabliſhed
s a fund for this company, by the name of The ſociety
f the free Britiſh fiſhery; with ſeveral privileges therein
entioned, and afterwards more amply expreſſed in the
harter. That his Majeſty might empower the ſociety to
ake by-laws; and that the ſociety might direct what
eals or marks ſhould be put on the barrels or caſks of
heir fiſh; and if any perſon ſhould counterfeit the ſame,
r ſhould knowingly affix ſuch counterfeited ſeal to any
aſk of fiſh not belonging to the ſaid ſociety, he ſhould
orfeit 500l. for each offence. That the ſum of 3l. *per*
nnum for every 100l. actually employed in the ſaid
ſhery, and proportionably for any greater or leſſer ſum,
hould be paid to the proprietors of the ſaid ſtock for 14
ears from the date of the charter, out of the cuſtoms by
he Receiver-General, by equal half yearly payments; and
n account of the ſums which ſhould be expended by the
ociety in the fiſhery, ſhould be delivered to the commiſ-
oners of the cuſtoms, who, upon proof of ſuch expen-
iture, ſhould order ſuch payment to be made, for the
ums which ſhould appear to be employed in the fiſhery.
That the ſociety ſhould employ 100,000l. at leaſt in
he ſaid fiſhery, within 18 months after the date of the
ubſcription; and accounts of the monies ſo employed
hould be annually laid before parliament; and if loſs
hould ariſe by adventure in any year, and there ſhould
e gain in the ſucceeding year, the gain ſhould be ap-
plied to make good the veſſels and fiſhing-ſtock to the
ull value of the ſum of 100,000l. before any dividend
hould be made. That a bounty of 30s. a ton ſhould
e paid annually out of the cuſtoms, to the owners of all
decked veſſels, from 20 to 80 tons burthen, which ſhould
e built after the commencement of this act, for the uſe
of, and fitted out and employed in the ſaid fiſheries, whe-
ther by the ſociety, or any other perſons. That every
ſuch veſſel, which ſhould be intitled to the ſaid bounty of
30s. a ton, ſhould be a decked buſs veſſel, built in Great Britain, after the commencement of this act, and ſhould proceed on the ſaid fiſhery from ſome port in Great Britain, manned and navigated according to law; and before ſhe proceeded on ſuch voyage, or was intitled to the benefit of this act, ſhe ſhould be viſited by ſuch officer of the cuſtoms belonging to the port as ſhould be appointed by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, who ſhould take an account of her tonnage by admeaſurement, and ſhould certify the ſame, and his viſitation, to the ſaid commiſſioners, and that ſhe had on board ſuch a quantity of fiſhing-nets, and other ſtores, as were directed by the act, and otherwiſe was a proper veſſel to be employed in the ſaid fiſhery; and upon its further appearing, by the oath of one or more owners, or their agent, or of a proper officer of the ſociety appointed for that purpoſe, and of the maſter or chief officer of ſuch veſſel, written at the foot of the certificate, and made before the collector and comptroller of the port, that it was their firm purpoſe and reſolution that ſuch veſſel ſhould proceed reſpectively ſo manned, furniſhed, and accoutred, either to Braſſey's ſound in Shetland, and be at the rendezvous of the fiſhery there, on or before the 11th of June, and ſhould not ſhoot or wet their nets before the 13th of the ſame month, and ſhould continue fiſhing amongſt the ſhoals of herrings as they moved ſouthward to the 1ſt of October; or ſhould proceed to Campbell-town in Argyleſhire, and be at the rendezvous of the fiſheries there on or before the 1ſt of September, and ſhould continue fiſhing among the ſhoals of herrings as they moved to the 31ſt of December, unleſs they ſhould ſooner have completed their loading of fiſh; and ſhould fiſh in an orderly manner, without obſtructing other veſſels employed in the ſaid fiſhery, and keep a journal of their proceedings, and an account of the quantities of fiſh they ſhould diſpatch away to foreign markets in their tenders before they come into port, beſides the particular quantity they ſhould bring into port with them; and if, after ſuch certificate and oath, ſuch owner, or officer, or agent of the ſociety, and maſter or chief officer of ſuch veſſel, alſo became bound, with two ſufficient ſecurities, unto his Majeſty, in the penalty of a ſum equal to treble the bounty on the tonnage of his veſſel, which bond the collector was to take, with the approbation of the comptroller, and the ſame ſhould be in force for three years againſt the maſter and his ſureties, for the faithful dealing of the ſaid maſter, and the company of his ſhip, in regard to the ſaid veſſel and voyage; then the collector and comptroller of the port ſhould give to the maſter and owners of ſuch veſſel, full licence to proceed on ſuch voyage. That veſſels which ſhould be deemed properly qualified, and fitted out, for the herring-fiſhery, according to the intent of this act, ſhould be decked and built in Great Britain after the commencement of this act, and ſhould have on board 12 Wincheſter buſhels of ſalt for every laſt of fiſh which ſhe was capable of holding, barrelled up in new barrels, and as many more new barrels as ſhe was capable of carrying; and ſhould have two fleets of tanned nets proper for the herring-fiſhery; that is, every veſſel of 70 tons ſhould, on her proceeding to ſea, have on board one fleet of 50 nets, each net to be 30 yards full upon the rope, and 7 fathoms deep, and ſo in proportion for veſſels of a greater or leſſer tonnage; and be provided with another fleet of like nets, on board a jagger or tender, to attend the ſaid fiſhery, or left on ſhore in a proper place for the uſe of the ſaid veſſel. That every veſſel of 20 tons ſhould have on board, at the place of rendezvous, not leſs than 6 men; and every veſſel of greater burthen ſhould, over and above the 6 men aforeſaid, have one for every 5 tons which ſhe exceeded 20 tons. That, on the return of ſuch veſſel into any port of Great Britain, for her diſcharge, the chief officer of the cuſtoms, or ſuch officer as he ſhould appoint at ſuch port, ſhould immediately repair on board, and view the condition of the veſſel and her lading, and certify the ſame, together with his obſervations thereon; as alſo her real tonnage, with the name of the maſter, and other perſons on board; and the maſter ſhould make oath before the collector and comptroller of the port, that ſuch veſſel was

at

at one of the places before mentioned at the time appointed by this act, and had not ſince been on any other voyage, or purſued any other deſign, or view of profit; and that they remained fiſhing according to the direction of this act, and had, at the time of their rendezvous, the limited quantity of nets and other ſtores, and number of men; which, together with the account of the fiſh taken by the ſaid veſſel, ſhould be tranſmitted by the collector and comptroller of the port, to the commiſſioners for that part of Great Britain from whence the veſſel departed with her licence; who, being ſatisfied of the faithful dealing of the maſter, and other perſons employed in ſuch veſſel, with reſpect to the voyage and fiſhing, ſhould on demand cauſe payment to be made to the owners, or their agent, of 30 s. *per* ton, according to the admeaſurement certified as aforeſaid. That the ſaid bounty of 30 s. *per* ton ſhould be paid annually for 14 years from the commencement of this act, and no longer, upon conforming to the aforeſaid regulations. That this act ſhould not exclude any ſubjects of Great Britain, who were not members of the ſaid ſociety, or employed by them, from fiſhing, or carrying on white herring and cod fiſheries, and any other whatſoever, as they might have done before this act. That any number of perſons, who ſhould ſubſcribe 10,000 l. or upwards, into the ſtock, and ſhould carry on the fiſhery under their own management, and on their own account of profit and loſs, conformably to the directions of this act, and of the charter, except as to their being obliged to uſe the marks of the ſociety, and from the port named by them, if they ſubſcribed under the name of the *fiſhing-chamber* of ſuch city, town, or port reſpectively, and ſhould ſend their account of monies expended in the ſaid fiſheries, atteſted by three of the commitee, who ſhould be appointed for managing the matters of the ſaid chamber; and be alſo ſigned by their accomptant, who ſhould make oath before ſome juſtice, that he believed the ſame was a true account, the vouchers whereof he ſhould produce, if required; which account ſhould be tranſmitted to the governor and council of the ſociety at London, where the accomptant of the ſociety ſhould enter the ſame as a ſum expended in the ſaid fiſheries by the ſociety, in the accompt which he ſhould deliver in to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms as, aforeſaid, and the chamber ſhould receive 3 l. for every 100 l. as the ſociety did for other monies employed by them in the ſaid fiſhery, after deducting the neceſſary charges ariſing from the receipt of the ſame. That ſuch chambers as ſhould trade or fiſh on their own account, ſhould not have any profit or loſs ariſing from the trade of the ſociety; and that the receiver-general of the cuſtoms ſhould annually pay the ſaid ſum of 3 l. for every 100 l. to the ſociety in London, or to ſuch perſon as they ſhould empower to receive the ſame; and the ſociety ſhould pay over the ſame, deducting charges, to the reſpective fiſhing-chambers intitled thereto, or to ſuch perſons as they ſhould impower to receive the ſame.

In purſuance of this act, a charter of incorporation paſſed the great ſeal in 1750, reciting, That whereas the carrying on, and improvement of the Britiſh white herring fiſheries were of great importance to Great Britain and Ireland, as they might be of great advantage to the trade and navigation thereof, and might be a means of employing and providing for great numbers of induſtrious poor, provided the ſame could be carried on with a ſufficient ſtock, under proper regulations, and that reaſonable encouragement be given to ſuch perſons as were willing to carry on the ſaid fiſheries. Therefore, for the encouragement of ſuch perſons as were willing to carry on the ſaid fiſheries, and for the better regulation of the ſaid trade, and for preventinig frauds and impoſitions in the management thereof; his Majeſty declared, That, by virtue of his royal prerogative, and in purſuance of an act of parliament paſſed in the 23d year of his reign, intitled, "An act for the encouragement of the Britiſh white herring fiſhery," for himſelf, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, he had granted, conſtituted, declared, and appointed, Sir James Lowther, Sir Nathaniel Curzon, Sir Bourchier Wrey, Sir Walter Blacket, and Sir Cyril Wich, baronets; Sir Richard Lloyd, knight; Edward Vernon, Eſq; William Whitaker, Stephen Theodore Janſſen, and

Slingſby Bethel, Eſqs; aldermen of the city of London; Lieutenant-General Roger Handaſyd, Lieutenant General Richard Onſlow, and Lieutenant-General James Oglethorpe; Thomas Fonnereau, Velters Cornewal, William Willy, George Dodington, William Northey, Charles Gray, William Davis, Edward Stevenſon, Paul Humfrey, John Edwards, and Francis Craieſteyn, Eſqs; Meſſ. Neufville, and Schuman; Andrew Drummond, Eſq; Capt. George Stevens, Robert Drummond, and Jeffery Freinch, Eſqs; Mr. Michael Miller of Briſtol, Mr. Robert Macky, Mr. Jonathan Perrie, Mr. Richard Baker, and Mr. William Bowden; John Bance, Eſq; Mr. Peter Simond; Theodore Cock, George Dunbar, and Taylor White, Eſqs; Mr. John Patoun, and Mr. Samuel Clarke, of the Old Jury; Michael Wilkins Conway, John Spooner, and Arthur Beardſly, Eſqs; Mr. Roger Hogg of Baſinghall-ſtreet, Mr. William Crammond, Mr. Hutchinſon Muir, Mr. Robert Scott, Mr. George Spence, and Mr. Robert Cady; Richard Taunton, William Belchier, William Thornton, Francis Gwynn, Peter Delme, Jonathan Watſon, Thomas Salisbury, Richard Gildart, John Hardman, Lawrence Dundas, Thomas Curtis, Michael Beecher, and Joſeph Percival, Eſqs; Edward Ironſide, Eſq; alderman of the city of London, and George Walker, Eſq; and all and every perſon or perſons, bodies politic and corporate, who in their own right, or as executors, adminiſtrators, ſucceſſors, or aſſigns, derived, or to be derived from, by, or under the original proprietors, at any time or times thereafter, ſhould have and be intitled to any part, ſhare, or intereſt of, or in the capital ſum of 500,000 l. therein after mentioned, ſo long as they reſpectively ſhould have any ſuch part, ſhare, or intereſt therein, to be one body politic and corporate, in deed, and in name, by the name of "The ſociety of the free Britiſh fiſhery;" and by that name to have a ſucceſſion for the term of 21 years, to commence from the date of theſe his letters-patent. That he had granted them a common ſeal, with leave to alter it, and alſo liberty to ſue for any thing belonging to the company during the 21 years. That he had granted them the liberty to make by-laws, for the regulation and government of the ſaid ſociety; as alſo for the regulation and management of the ſaid trade and commerce, which ſhould be carried on by them; and for the curing, ſalting, and packing their white herrings, in ſuch manner as might effectually ſecure the credit of the ſaid commodities in foreign markets; and for the government of ſervants, and others employed by the ſociety in the ſaid fiſhery. That he had alſo granted them the liberty for the ſaid 21 years, to elect a governor, preſident, and vice-preſident; as alſo a council, conſiſting of 30 perſons, to be elected as after mentioned, for the managing and carrying on the buſineſs and affairs of the ſociety. That his Majeſty had thereby nominated and ordained his moſt dearly beloved ſon Frederick, Prince of Wales, to be the firſt governor of the ſociety; Slingſby Bethel, Eſq; to be the firſt preſident; and Stephen Theodore Janſſen, Eſq; to be the firſt vice-preſident; Roger Handaſyd, Eſq; Lieutenant-General of his forces, John Edwards, Francis Craieſteyn, Edward Vernon, Robert Bootle, George Dunbar, Velters Cornewal, George Dodington, Robert Crammond, Samuel Clarke, William Northey, George Stevens, Richard Baker, and Claude Johnſon, Eſqs; Sir Nathaniel Curzon, Baronet, William Davis, Andrew Drummond, Michael Wilkins Conway, and Jonathan Watſon, Eſqs; James Oglethorpe, Eſq; Lieutenant General of his forces, Roger Hogg and William Bowden, Eſqs; Sir Bourchier Wrey, Baronet; John Lidderdale, John Turner, Simon Rogers, Charles Raymond, John Vaughan, Francis Gwynn, and George Bowes, Eſqs; to be the the firſt council of the ſociety, and to continue in their reſpective offices for the ſpace of three years from the date of theſe letters-patent, and until ſome others ſhould be elected into their ſaid offices of governor, preſident, and vice preſident, and council, reſpectively, in ſuch manner as after mentioned; with power, during the ſaid term, to hold a general court, in ſome convenient place, within or near the cities of London and Weſtminſter; and there to aſſemble and meet together as often as the governor, preſident, vice-preſident, and council

r the time being, or any ſeven or more of them, hereof the governor, preſident, or vice-preſident, al-ays to be one; or as nine other perſons qualified to ote as after directed, each having 1000 l. in the capi-l ſtock after mentioned, in writing under their hands, ould demand of the governor, preſident, vice-preſi-ent, or any ſeven or more of the council, ſuch council be held to treat and conſult, or make and eſtabliſh aſonable laws, orders, and rules, concerning the af-irs of the ſociety, or for the good government thereof; e time and place of holding and keeping all which ouncils ſhould be eight days at leaſt before the ſame ere held and kept, publiſhed in the London Ga-ette, or in ſuch other manner as the ſociety, and eir ſucceſſors, ſhould direct. That the governor, reſident, vice-preſident, or any ſeven or more of the ouncil, whereof the governor, preſident, and vice-pre-dent, to be one, ſhould make and be called "The court of the council of the ſaid ſociety;" and that it ſhould lawful for the ſaid court of the council, or the major rt of them then preſent, to appoint proper officers and rvants for the ſervice of the ſaid ſociety; and to ap-oint and allow their reſpective fees or ſalaries, and to in-reaſe or diminiſh, or otherwiſe alter the ſame; and to move and diſplace them, and every of them, when and often as they, or the major part of them then pre-nt, ſhould think fit; and to order, direct, manage, nd tranſact, all and every the affairs and things of or elonging to the ſociety, except what ought to be or-ered and done only in and by a general court of the id ſociety; and ſhould and might appoint committees r the better management of their affairs, and make -laws for the regulation and government of the ſociety, nd for the regulation and management of the trade and ommerce which ſhould be carried on by them; and for e curing, ſorting, and packing their white herrings as ffectually to ſecure the credit of the ſaid commodities foreign markets; and for the government of the ſer-ants and others employed by the ſociety in the ſaid ſhery; and the ſaid by-laws, or any of them, to alter and nnul, as the ſaid court of council, or the major part of em preſent, ſhould ſee requiſite; and, by ſuch by-laws, ſet and inflict reaſonable pains and penalties upon any ffender or offenders, who ſhould tranſgreſs, break, or iolate the by-laws, and to mitigate the ſame as they hould find cauſe; which ſaid pains and penalties ſhould nd might be levied, ſued for, taken, retained, and re-overed by the ſaid ſociety, during the ſaid 21 years, or y their officers and ſervants, by action of debt, or other awful ways and means, to the uſe of the ſaid ſociety, and eir ſucceſſors; all which by-laws his Majeſty willed hould be duly obſerved and kept, under the pains and enalties therein to be contained; ſo always as the ſaid -laws, pains, and penalties, were reaſonable, and not ontrary to the laws or ſtatutes of the realm, and if ſuch -laws, pains, and penalties, and any repeal or alter-ion thereof, ſhould be confirmed by the general court ext after the ſame ſhould be made. That, during the id term of 21 years, the ſociety ſhould elect yearly, on e 5th of November next after the expiration of three ears from the date of the patent, or within 30 days af-r, a governor, preſident, vice-preſident, and a coun-l of 30 perſons, out of the members of the ſociety; 8 f which council ſhould be out of the members of the ociety, not being of the council within the preceding ear, and the reſidue among the laſt preceding council of e ſociety; to be elected by plurality of votes of all ch members qualified to vote as after directed, 15 days otice at leaſt being given in public manner, by the go-ernor, preſident, or vice-preſident, of the time and place election; which governor, preſident, vice-preſident, nd council, ſo elected, ſhould continue in their offices ll the 5th of November next following, his or their ection or elections, and from that time till others were hoſen in their ſtead. That the governor, preſident, or ice-preſident, ſhould yearly call and hold a general ouncil, on the ſaid 5th of November, or within 30 days fter, for ſuch elections, and give 15 days notice of the me and place of election; or, in default of ſuch notice, hat ten or more of the ſociety, qualified to vote, might aſſemble, upon the 14th day after the ſaid 5th of November, unleſs the ſame ſhall be Sunday, and in ſuch caſe the next day, when they, or the major part of them, ſuch major part not being fewer than ſeven, might order a general court to be held within 15 days after ſuch meeting, 14 days notice being given; and then, and there, by the majority of voices, ſhould make ſuch election or elections as aforeſaid. That every ſuch member, who had, or ſhould have, in his or her own right, the ſum of 300 l. in the joint ſtock of the ſociety, ſhould have, in every general court of the ſociety, one vote; and every perſon who ſhould, in his or her own right, be poſſeſſed of 1000 l. in the ſaid joint ſtock, ſhould have two votes; and that every perſon who ſhould be poſſeſſed of 2000 l. in the joint ſtock, ſhould have three votes; and that every perſon who ſhould be poſſeſſed of 3000 l. in the joint ſtock, ſhould have four votes in every general court of the ſociety; and that the ſociety ſhould have power to hold general courts in like manner during the ſaid term, on the death, reſignation, removal, or any other vacancy of the governor, preſident, vice-preſident, or any of the council, for electing others, who ſhould continue till the next general election. That the firſt general court ſhould be held within 30 days after the date of the patent; and whenſoever there ſhould be an equality of votes, the governor, or in his abſence the preſident, and in his abſence the vice-preſident, ſhould have the caſting vote. Provided that no perſon ſhould be capable of being elected a preſident, who ſhould not, at the time of ſuch election, have in his own name, and in his own right, for his own uſe, and not in truſt for any others, 3000 l. or more, in the joint ſtock to be raiſed in purſuance of this charter: that no perſon ſhould be vice-preſident, unleſs he had 2000 l. or more in the ſtock; and that no perſon ſhould be a member of the council, without having 1000 l. or more in the joint ſtock.

That his Majeſty granted to the ſociety a full power and authority, by a voluntary ſubſcription of their members and others, to raiſe a joint ſtock, not exceeding 500,000 l. without licence from the crown, to be applied for the carrying on and effecting the purpoſes of this charter; and the ſame joint ſtock to order, manage, and conduct, for the purpoſes aforeſaid, and to receive the benefit and advantage of the ſame, to the uſe of the ſociety, according to ſuch ſhares as they ſhould have therein. Provided that no dividend of the profit of the ſociety ſhould be made but by order of a general court, and all and every perſon or perſons ſo ſubſcribing and contributing any ſum or ſums of money to the joint ſtock of 500,000 l. except ſuch who ſhould ſubſcribe under the name of the fiſhing-chamber of any city, town, or port, ſhould, by virtue of ſuch ſubſcription, become a member or members of the ſociety, and ſhould be intitled to a ſhare or ſhares in ſuch joint ſtock, in proportion to their reſpective ſubſcriptions; ſuch perſons paying ſuch parts of their ſubſcriptions, in ſuch manner, and at ſuch times, as ſhould be directed by the council, in purſuance of the powers veſted in them by the act of parliament.

That all perſons intitled to ſuch ſhare, ſhould be enabled to ſell, aſſign, and transfer the ſame, or any part thereof, by transfer in the books of the ſociety, as after directed; and the perſons to whom ſuch aſſignment, or transfer, ſhould be made, ſhould, by virtue thereof, become members of the ſociety. Provided that no transfer ſhould be made within five years from the date of the charter; and all transfers made in that time ſhould be void; excepting only, that it ſhould be lawful for the executors and adminiſtrators of any perſons, who ſhould die poſſeſſed of, or intereſted in any ſuch ſtock or ſhare, and alſo for the aſſignees under any commiſſion of bankrupts, to transfer ſuch ſtock or ſhare, and diſpoſe of the produce thereof, within the ſpace of five years, in ſuch manner as they might after the expiration thereof, or if the ſaid years were expired.

Provided alſo, and for the aſcertaining and limiting how and in what manner the joint ſtock ſhould be transferred and alienated, by ſuch perſon and perſons as ſhould have any intereſt or ſhare in the ſame, it was appointed that there ſhould be forthwith provided, and conſtantly kept

in the public office or offices of the ſociety, a book or books, wherein all transfers ſhould be entered; and the method and manner of making all transfers ſhould be by an entry, in ſuch book or books to be kept as aforeſaid, ſigned by the parties ſo transferring, in the words, or to the effect following. "I *A. B.* this day of "in the year do transfer "being my intereſt or ſhare, or, as the caſe "may be, part of my intereſt or ſhare in the joint ſtock "of the ſociety of the free Britiſh fiſhery, and all bene- "fit ariſing thereby, unto *C. D.* his executors, admini- "ſtrators, and aſſigns. Witneſs my hand *A. B.*" Or in caſe the party transferring ſhould not be perſonally preſent, then by an entry in the ſaid book or books, ſigned by ſome perſon thereunto lawfully authoriſed, by letter of attorney, or writing under hand and ſeal, atteſted by two or more witneſſes, in the words following. "I *A. B.* "this day of in the year "do, in the name, and on the behalf of "transfer being the in- "tereſt or ſhare, or, as the caſe may be, part of the in- "tereſt or ſhare of the ſaid in the joint "ſtock of the free Brtiſh fiſhery, and all benefits ariſing "thereby, unto his executors, adminiſtra- "tors, and aſſigns. Witneſs my hand ." Under which transfer the perſon or perſons, bodies politic or corporate, to whom ſuch transfers ſhould be made, or ſome other perſon by him or them lawfully authoriſed thereunto, ſhould ſign his or their name or names, atteſting that he or they did freely and voluntarily accept of the ſame; and which entry, ſigned as aforeſaid, and no other way or method, ſhould be uſed in transferring the intereſt or ſhare in the joint ſtock; and every ſuch transfer ſhould be valid, and convey the eſtate and intereſt of the party aſſigning, of and in the ſtock ſo transferred, to the aſſignee or aſſignees thereof.

Provided that no executor or adminiſtrator ſhould tranſfer the ſhare or intereſt of the teſtator or inteſtate, or be intitled to receive any dividend, until an entry, or memorandum of the probate of ſuch will, or the letters of adminiſtration, ſhould be made in the book or books of the ſociety for that purpoſe.

That the ſociety, or the major part of them, as ſhould be aſſembled, being no leſs than ſeven, whereof the governor, preſident, or vice-preſident, to be one, ſhould have power to make calls, and direct the payments of any part of the ſaid 500,000 l. which any perſon ſhould ſubſcribe towards carrying on the ſaid undertaking, at ſuch times as the ſociety, or the major part aſſembled together, ſhould direct; ſo as the firſt payment directed to be made ſhould be made within 30 days after the time of ſuch ſubſcription, and ſhould be after the rate of 10 l. by the hundred of the whole ſum ſubſcribed; and ſo as the ſecond payment ſhould be after the rate of 10 l. by the hundred; and that the other payment ſhould be purſuant to the direction of a general court, which ſhould be for that purpoſe aſſembled, or a majority of them; and in caſe any perſon ſhould refuſe or neglect to pay any money which ſhould be ſo called for by the ſociety, at the times when the ſame ſhall be appointed to be paid, notice of ſuch call being publicly given 30 days before, it ſhould be lawful for the ſociety to ſell, diſpoſe of, and transfer, ſo much of the ſhare or ſtock, of the perſon ſo neglecting or refuſing as ſhould produce the ſum, which ſuch perſon or perſons ought to have paid on ſuch call.

Provided that all ſuch money ſo ſubſcribed and directed to be paid, ſhould be paid into the bank of England on account of the ſociety.

And further reciting, that whereas it had been, by the ſaid act of parliament, provided, That the fiſhing-chambers therein mentioned, which ſhould ſo trade or fiſh on their own account, ſhould not have any profit or loſs ariſing in the trade of the ſociety: therefore his Majeſty further declared, That his will was, that no perſon or perſons, who was, were, or ſhould be adventurers, or ſubſcribers, in ſuch chambers, or in any foreign fiſheries, ſhould be capable of being elected preſident, vice-preſident, or member of the council, of the ſociety.

Provided, and for the effectually preventing the ſociety from intermeddling or interfering with the buſineſs, or affairs, of the corporation, of the governor and company of the bank of England, or of the corporation of the governor and company of the bank of Scotland, or of the corporation of the Royal Bank of Scotland, and from dealing in any trade or merchandiſe; his Majeſty directed, that the ſociety thereby eſtabliſhed ſhould not diſcount or deal in bills of exchange, or inland bills or notes; nor receive monies, or keep the accompts or cash of any perſon or perſons, other than their own proper money accompts and caſh, being the real produce of their joint ſtock or fund, or ſuch monies as ſhould be paid to them for the purpoſes therein mentioned; nor ſhould deal in banking, or any ways uſe the banking trade or buſineſs; nor ſhould upon their common ſeal, nor by their caſhiers, officers, or ſervants, or any other perſon on their behalf, give, or iſſue out, any bills or notes payable upon demand for the loan of money, with or without intereſt; nor ſhould advance, or lend any money at intereſt, upon any account or pretence whatſoever; nor ſhould, by way of trade or merchandiſe, directly or indirectly, buy or ſell, or deal in any goods, wares, or merchandiſes, or any bullion, gold, ſilver, mineral, metal, or ore, other than and except ſuch as ſhould be the produce of the fiſhery, which ſhould belong to the ſociety; and that, in caſe the ſociety ſhould act contrary thereto, that then, and in any of the ſaid caſes, his Majeſty, for himſelf and his ſucceſſors, reſerved full power, by his or their order, in his or their privy council, at any time after three months notice to the ſociety, to determine this his preſent charter, and the corporation thereby made, and from three months after ſuch order of council made in any of the ſaid caſes, this charter, and the corporation thereby made, ſhould ceaſe, and be void; and in caſe the corporation ſhould, contrary to the reſtrictions before mentioned, offend in any matter aforeſaid, or in any particular or particulars exceeding the ſum or value of 500,000 l. within the compaſs of any one year, to be reckoned from Ladyday yearly, that then the Attorney-General, and the Advocate in Scotland, ſhould, and were hereby authoriſed, without any further warrant or order, at the requeſt of the governor and company of the bank of England, or of the governor and company of the bank of Scotland, or of the Royal bank of Scotland, by information or otherwiſe, as the law ſhould allow of, to proſecute the corporation thereby eſtabliſhed for ſuch offence and breach of any of the reſtrictions aforeſaid, and for the Attorney-General to proceed againſt the ſociety, by *Scire facias* or otherwiſe, in order to procure theſe letters-patent, and the corporation thereby created, by judgment thereon, to be determined and made void.

His Royal Highneſs the Prince of Wales died ſoon after this incorporation; when his eldeſt ſon George, the preſent Prince of Wales, ſucceeded his father in the government of the ſociety, who have an apartment in the Royal Exchange for their office; and the herring is become ſo much in vogue, ſince the eſtabliſhment of the new fiſhery, that it is allowed a place at the politeſt tables, in imitation of the ſignal honour done it at the table of his Majeſty. See *Ladog*.

Cod-FISHERY. The cod is a fiſh of paſſage, pretty large, with a frightful head, and teeth in the bottom of the throat; its fleſh white, its ſkin browniſh on the back, white under the belly, and covered with thin tranſparent ſcales: it eats excellently when freſh; and, if well prepared and ſalted, will keep a long time, which is commonly eaten in England in time of Lent, under the denomination of ſalt-fiſh, or ſtock-fiſh. But there are two kinds of ſalt cod; the one called green, or white; and the other dried, or cured; though it is all the ſame fiſh, only differently prepared.

Green cod. The fiſheries for green cod are in the bay of Canada, on the great and little banks near the iſland of Newfoundland, the iſland of St. Peter, and the iſle of Sable; where veſſels are annually ſent from ſeveral parts both of America and Europe; being from 100 to 150 tons, which will bring 30 or 35,000 fiſh a piece.

The moſt eſſential articles in this fiſhery, are three per

ſons who know how to open the fiſh, to cut off the heads, and to ſalt them; upon the ability of which laſt the ſucceſs of the voyage principally depends.

Several authors will have it, that the Biſcayans, in purſuing their whales, made the firſt diſcovery of the great and little bank of cods, Newfoundland, Canada, and Nova Scotia, 100 years before the time of Columbus; and that it was a Biſcayan Newfoundlander that gave the firſt intimation thereof to Columbus. Others ſay, that the great bank was diſcovered by a native of St. Malo's, named Cartier. But be the diſcoverer of what name or nation he will, the invention is certainly highly valuable; for every trading nation in Europe allows the commerce of cod-fiſh to be one of the moſt ſecure and gainful that is known.

The beſt, largeſt, and fatteſt cod, are thoſe taken on the ſouth-ſide of the great bank, which is a kind of ſubmarine mountain, 150 leagues long, and 50 broad, being 25 leagues diſtant from Newfoundland; but the fiſh taken on the north-ſide are much ſmaller.

The beſt ſeaſon is from the beginning of February to the end of April; when cod, which during the winter had retired to the deepeſt parts of the ſea, return to the bank, and grow very fat. Thoſe caught from March to June keep well enough; but thoſe in July, Auguſt, and September, ſoon ſpoil.

The fiſhing is ſometimes done in a month, or ſix weeks; ſometimes it holds ſix months. As Lent draws on, if the fiſhermen have but half their cargo, they ſtrive to make homeward the firſt, the market being then the beſt; but ſome will make a ſecond voyage, before others have got loading for the firſt.

Each fiſher only takes one cod at a time; and yet the more experienced will take from 350 to 400 a day. But this is the moſt; for it is very fatiguing work, both on account of the weightineſs of the fiſh, and of the extreme cold which reigns on the bank. They ſalt the cod on board; the head being cut off, the belly opened, and the guts out, the ſalter ranges them in the bottom of the veſſel, head to tail; and having thus made a layer thereof, a fathom or two ſquare, covers it with ſalt; over this he lays another, which he covers as before; and thus he diſpoſes all the fiſh of that day, taking care never to mix the fiſh of different days together. By that time the cod has lain thus to drain three or four days, they are moved into another part of the veſſel, and ſalted afreſh: after this, they are no more to be touched, till the veſſel has its burden; though ſometimes they put them in barrels for the conveniency of carriage.

In the fiſhing of *dry cod*, veſſels of all ſizes are uſed; though ſuch are generally choſe as have large holds, becauſe this ſort of fiſh incumbers more than it burdens.

As cod is only to be dried by the ſun, the European veſſels are obliged to put out in March or April, to have the benefit of the ſummer for drying: however, the Engliſh ſend veſſels for cod in June and July; but thoſe only buy what had been fiſhed and prepared by the inhabitants of the Engliſh colonies of Newfoundland, and the neighbouring parts; in exchange for which the Engliſh carry them meal, brandies, biſcuits, pulſe, molaſſes, woollen, linen, and other things.

The principal fiſhery for dry cod is along the coaſt of Placentia, from Cape Roſe to the Bay des Experts; in which compaſs there are ſeveral commodious ports for the fiſh to be dried in. The fiſh intended for this uſe, though of the ſame kind with the green cod, is much ſmaller; whence it is the fitter to keep, as the ſalt takes more hold. The method of fiſhing is much the ſame in both; only this latter is the more expenſive, as it takes up more time, and employs more hands, though ſcarce half ſo much ſalt is ſpent in this as the other.

As faſt as the captains arrive, they unrig all their veſſels, leaving nothing but the ſhrouds to ſuſtain the maſts; and, in the mean time, the mates provide a tent on ſhore, covered with branches of fir, and ſails over them, with a ſcaffold 50 or 60 feet long, and one third as much broad. While the ſcaffold is making ready, the crew are a fiſhing; and, as faſt as they catch, they bring their fiſh, open them, and ſalt them on moveable benches; but the main ſalting is performed on the ſcaffold. When the fiſh have taken ſalt, they waſh them; and, to drain them again, lay them in piles on the galleries of the ſcaffold: when drained, they range them on hurdles, a fiſh thick, head againſt tail, with the back uppermoſt; obſerving, while they lie thus, to turn and ſhift them four times every 24 hours. When they begin to dry, they lay them in heaps, of 10 or 12 a piece, to retain their warmth, and continue to enlarge the heap every day, till it becomes double its firſt bulk; at length, they join two of theſe heaps into one, which they turn every day, as before: laſtly, they ſalt them over again, beginning with thoſe that had been ſalted firſt; and thus lay them in huge piles, as big as hay-ſtacks. In this manner they remain till they are carried a ſhipboard; where they are laid on branches of trees, diſpoſed for that purpoſe in the bottom of the veſſel, with matts all around, to prevent their contracting any moiſture.

There are four kinds of commodities drawn from cod; the tripes, and tongues, which are ſalted at the ſame time with the fiſh, and barrelled up; the roes, or eggs, which being ſalted and barrelled up, ſerve to caſt into the ſea, to draw fiſh together, particularly pilchards; and, laſtly, the oil, which is uſed in the dreſſing of leather.

This trade is extremely beneficial to the French, who, by the advantage of Cape Breton, carry on an unbounded fiſhery, annually employing at leaſt 1000 ſail, from 200 to 400 tons, and 20,000 ſeamen; the produce of their labour being ſo great, that, in the year 1730, there was a computation made of 220,000 quintals, containing 23 989 000 lb. Engliſh avoirdupoiſe, of fiſh, at Marſeilles only, for a market; though it has been affirmed, that, one year with another, they cure above five millions of quintals, each quintal being 112 lb. Engliſh avoirdupoiſe; which, if true, would produce, at 10s. a quintal, a return of 2,500 000 l. for this fiſhery of the ſubjects of France, which afforded them a formidable ſeminary of ſeamen.

The French ſend to the cod-fiſhery, ſhips from Bourdeaux, Rochelle, Grandville, Havre-de-grace, Dieppe, Honfleur, St. Malo's, Nantz, and ſome other places; one of theſe ſhips, of 200 tons, with 24 hands, being ſuppoſed to get commonly 400,000 fiſh, whoſe chief deſtination is for Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the Levant.

The ſalary uſually allowed the captain and ſailors, is one third of the cod they bring home ſound.

The Scotch catch a ſmall kind of cod on the coaſt of Buchan, which is highly prized, though very much like ling. They ſalt it, and dry it in the ſun upon rocks, and ſometimes in the chimney; but the greateſt part of it is ſpent at home. Cod are alſo taken, in large quantities, along the Britiſh and Iriſh coaſts; and they are taken in abundance on the Dogger's bank off Holland, from whence moſt of the fiſh come that ſupply the market at Billingſgate with freſh cod.

But it ſhould alſo be obſerved, that this fiſh is diſtinguiſhed into ſix different ſorts, from the manner of curing, and places from whence it comes; as green-fiſh, ſtock-fiſh, north-ſea cod, Iceland-fiſh, Aberdeen-fiſh, poor jack, and barrelled cod; beſides, it is called bacalao, particularly among the Spaniards.

By the ſtatute of the 10th and 11th of William III. it was enacted, That all the ſubjects of Great Britain reſiding in the realm, or the dominions thereunto belonging, trading to Newfoundland, ſhould have free trade and fiſhery there; and the freedom of taking bait, and fiſhing in any of the adjacent ſeas, rivers, lakes, or places, and to go on ſhore there for the curing their fiſh, and making oil; and to cut down wood for making and repairing of ſtages, ſhip-rooms, train-vats, hurdles, ſhip-boats, and other neceſſaries: but no alien ſhould take any bait, or uſe any trade of fiſhing in Newfoundland, or the iſlands adjacent. That every Engliſh fiſhing ſhip, or the maſter thereof, as ſhould firſt enter any harbour or creek in Newfoundland, ſhould be admiral of the ſaid harbour for that ſeaſon, and reſerve only ſo much beech or flakes, as were needful for his boats, and one over; and the maſter of the ſecond ſhip ſo entering, ſhould be vice-admiral; and of the third, rear-admiral;

and

and the perſons poſſeſſed of ſeveral places, in ſeveral harbours or creeks there, ſhould chuſe which they would abide in, within 48 hours after demand of any aftercomer; and, in caſe of any difference, the admirals of the harbours, or any two of them, ſhould ſettle the ſame.

That no perſon ſhould deſtroy, or deface, any ſtage or cook-room, or any thing thereto belonging; but ſhould uſe ſuch only as were uſeful for him, and leave the ſame undamaged: and no fiſherman, or inhabitant, in Newfoundland, or other perſon, ſhould ſeize, or poſſeſs, any ſuch ſtages, which ſhould belong to any fiſhing ſhips, before the arrival of the fiſhing ſhips from England, and until ſuch ſhips be provided therewith. That the maſter of every by-boat ſhould carry with him at leaſt two freſh men in ſix; that is, one who had made but one voyage, and one who had never been at ſea before; and every inhabitant ſhould employ two ſuch freſh men, for every boat kept by them; and the maſters of the fiſhing ſhips ſhould carry with them one freſh man, that never was at ſea before, in every five men they carried; and the maſters of ſuch by-boats, and fiſhing ſhips, were to make oath before the collector, or principal officer, of the cuſtoms of the port they ſailed from, that they had ſuch freſh or green men as this act directed, of which they ſhould have a certificate *gratis* from ſuch officers. That no perſons ſhould eraſe, or alter, the mark of any boat or train-fat, to defraud the owner thereof, or convert the ſame to their own uſe, or remove or take away the ſame, without giving notice to the admiral of the harbour. That no perſon ſhould rind any trees growing there, nor ſet on fire any of the woods, or damage the ſame, except for neceſſary fuel for the ſhips and inhabitants, and the building and neceſſary repairs of houſes, ſhips, boats, train-fats, and of the ſtages, cook-rooms, beeches, and other things; nor caſt anchor, or annoy the haling of ſayns, in the accuſtomary baiting-places; or ſhoot their ſayns upon thoſe of others, or ſteal the nets or baits of other perſons: and no ballaſt, ſtones, or other annoyance to the harbours there, ſhould be thrown out of any ſhip or otherwiſe, but carried on ſhore. That the admirals, in every port and harbour, were to ſee the rules and orders of this act for the regulation of the fiſhery duly put in execution; and to keep a journal of all ſhips, boats, ſtages, train-fats, and ſeamen, in their reſpective harbours, and at their return to England ſhould deliver a copy thereof to the privy council: and all differences ariſing in Newfoundland between the maſters of fiſhing ſhips and the inhabitants there, or the by-boat keepers about the fiſhing-rooms, ſtages, or other things, ſhould be determined by the fiſhing admirals in the ſeveral harbours; an appeal being reſerved to the commanders of the men of war appointed convoys for Newfoundland. However, by the treaty of Utrecht, the French were allowed the liberty of curing their fiſh on the northern coaſt of the iſland of Newfoundland. See *Britiſh* America.

Whale-FISHERY, or *Greenland-fiſhery*. This enormous fiſh is principally caught in the north-ſea; the largeſt ſort are thoſe about Spitzbergen, ſome of them being 200 feet in length; thoſe on the coaſts of America are about 90 or 100 feet long: but thoſe on the coaſts of Guyenne, and the Mediterranean, are the ſmalleſt of all. See *Whale*, Whale *fiſhery* company, *Greenland*, and *Greenland* company.

The Dutch have, for more than a century, had the whale-fiſhery almoſt to themſelves; and it is now eſteemed one of the principal branches of their flouriſhing trade; becauſe the chief merchants of the ſeveral provinces aſſociate themſelves into a body, for the carrying it on; and ſend, every year, a great fleet of veſſels to the north-ſeas for that purpoſe. They attempted to make their firſt eſtabliſhments in Greenland; but, not ſucceeding, they have ſince fixed their fiſhery about the weſtern coaſt of Spitzbergen, from the northern latitude of 76 degrees 40 minutes, to 80 degrees. However, the Engliſh South-ſea company, in the year 1725, began to participate in the advantages of this trade with the Dutch, which had been unſucceſsfully attempted by the Eaſt India and Ruſſia companies before: the Swedes, Danes, Hamburghers, Bremeners, Lubeckers, and the inhabitants of Embden, have alſo adventured in this trade, which lies under no excluſive reſtriction; but none of theſe have had ſuch extraordinary ſucceſs as the Engliſh.

To give ſome idea of the manner and importance of this trade, it is neceſſary to ſubjoin the diſcipline accuſtomed to be obſerved by the Dutch in the whale-fiſhery; the method of fiſhing, the cargo and equipage of a veſſel, and the produce thereof.

The diſcipline is adjuſted by a ſtanding regulation, conſiſting of 12 articles; the principal whereof are, That in caſe a fiſhing veſſel be ſhipwrecked, and the captain and crew ſaved, the next veſſel they meet ſhall take them in, and the ſecond veſſel take half of them from the firſt; but no veſſel is obliged to take any of the loading of a veſſel ſhipwrecked. That what effects of a ſhipwrecked veſſel, which are abſolutely relinquiſhed, another captain ſhall find, and take up, on his arrival in Holland, he ſhall account for one half of them to the proprietor of the ſhipwrecked veſſel, clear of all expences. That if the crew deſert a ſhipwrecked veſſel, they ſhall have no claim to any of the effects ſaved; but the whole ſhall go to the proprietor; though, if they are preſent when the effects are ſaved, and aſſiſt therein, they ſhall have 1-4th thereof. That if a perſon kill a fiſh on the ice, it ſhall be reputed his own, ſo long as he leaves any perſon with it; but the minute he leaves it, it becomes the due of the firſt captain coming that way; though, if a fiſh is tied to an anchor, or a rope faſtened to the ſhore, it ſhall remain to its firſt proprietor, notwithſtanding he leaves it alone. That if any perſon is wounded, or lamed, in the ſervice, the commiſſioners of the fiſhery ſhall make him a reaſonable ſatisfaction; to which the whole fleet ſhall contribute.

Beſide this general regulation, which all the captains, pilots, and maſters of veſſels, are obliged to ſwear to ſee obſerved, before they put to ſea; there is alſo a particular one for the crew of every ſhip, which they are all ſworn to execute, in preſence of one of the commiſſioners, who goes aboard every ſhip to receive the oath. This regulation is a kind of charter-party, importing, that they will attend prayers morning and evening, on pain of an amercement, at the diſcretion of the captain: that they will not get drunk, nor draw their knives, on forfeiture of half their wages; nor fight, on forfeiture of the whole: that no body ſhall lay wagers on the good or ill ſucceſs of the fiſhing; nor buy, or ſell, on theſe conditions, in caſe they take one or more fiſh, on penalty of 25 florins: that they will be contented with the proviſions allowed them; and that they will never light fire, candle, or match, by night or day, without permiſſion from the captain, on the like penalty. After the reading of this regulation, the crew are all called, to receive the cuſtomary gratuity before their ſetting out, with an aſſurance of another ſum at their return, in proportion to the ſucceſs of the fiſhing. The captain, on this occaſion, receives from 100 to 150 florins, the pilot from 40 to 60 florins, each harpooneer from 40 to 50 florins, the other officers from 26 to 36 florins, the elder ſailors 20, and the younger 12; each florin being 1s. 9d. ſterling.

The fleet, which conſiſts principally of fluyts, from 2 to 300 tons, and from 35 men to 41, uſually ſets ſail about the beginning of April, and takes its courſe by the iſle of Iceland, from 60 to 61 degrees of latitude; after which, leaving that iſland to the weſt, it ſteers northward, through 73, 74, and 75 degrees of latitude, where they begin to find the ice. It is through theſe mountainous piles of ice, wherewith the whole quarter is filled, that they firſt begin to diſcover the whales; and there most of the veſſels fix their abode for the fiſhing: but as the fiſh are larger and fatter as they are further north, ſome captains will venture as far as 80 or 82 deg. of N. lat. Each veſſel of 300 tons has ſix ſhaloops; and each ſhaloop has ſix harpooners, with five ſeamen to row it. To every ſhaloop there are ſeven lines, of three inches circumference, five of them in the hind part of the veſſel, and two before; the hind lines together making 600 fathoms

nd, with the addition of the other two, 880: but if the whale dives deeper, or runs further underneath the ice, he line muſt be cut, leſt the ſhaloop be drawn after it.

The inſtrument wherewith the execution is done, is a arping iron, or javelin, 5 or 6 feet long, pointed with teel, in a triangular ſhape, like the barb of an arrow. The harponeer, upon ſight of the fiſh, from one end of he ſhaloop where he is placed, flings the harping iron with all his might againſt the back of the whale; and if e is ſo happy as to make it penetrate the ſkin and fat into he fleſh, he lets go a ſtring faſtened to the harping iron, t the end whereof is a dry gourd, which, ſwimming n the water, diſcovers whereabout the whale is; who, he minute he is ſtruck, plunges to the bottom.

f the whale returns to breathe in the air, the harponeer akes occaſion to give him a freſh wound; till, fainting y the loſs of blood, the men have an opportunity of ap-roaching him, and thruſting a long ſteeled lance under is gills into his breaſt, and through the inteſtines, which iſpatches him: when the carcaſs begins to float, they cut ff the fins and tail; and tying a rope to the place where he tail was, ſwim to the veſſel, where he is taken in.

When they have got their quantity of whales, they be-in to take the blubber, or fat, and the fins, or whale-one. In order to this, the whale is hoiſted overboard, nd kept ſuſpended above the water by two ropes, the ne tied around his neck, the other about his tail; and nder the carcaſs are two ſhaloops, placed to receive what nay chance to drop. When this is effected, 3 or 4 men o down upon the whale, with a kind of calkers, or irons n their feet, to prevent their ſlipping; who begin to pen him on the ſide, and proceed downwards to the elly, cutting off all the lard or fat, in pieces of about hree feet broad, and eight long: they alſo cut off the fat f the throat, and the under lip, leaving all the lean be-ind; and they afterwards proceed to the whalebone, which they cut off with a hatchet made for the purpoſe, rom the upper jaw of the fiſh, and make it up in pac-ets: the fat and bone thus procured, what remains of he whale they leave for the bears, who are extremely ond of it. See *Fin*.

In proportion as the large pieces of fat are cut off, the reſt of the crew are employed in ſlicing them ſmaller, and picking out all the lean; which, when they have pre-pared, they ſtow under the deck, where it lies, till the fat of all the whales is on board; then cutting it ſtill ſmaller, they put it up in tubs in the hold, or bottom of the veſſel, cramming them very cloſe and full: ſo that nothing remains after this, but to ſail homewards, where the fat is to be boiled, and melted down into train oil. See *Oil*, and *Whale*.

To ſtate the produce of this fiſhery for one year, choice has been made of that of 1697, as being the greateſt and moſt fortunate that ever was known; for, in that year, there were 197 veſſels of ſeveral nations; whereof 129 were Dutch, 47 Hamburghers, 2 Swediſh, 4 Daniſh, 12 of Bremen, 2 of Embden, and 1 of Lubeck; but, in the year 1725, there were 226 veſſels; whereof 144 were Dutch, 12 Engliſh, 43 Hamburghers, 23 of Bremen, 2 of Bergen, and 2 of Flenſberg: their captures each year being as follows.

In 1697.

129 Dutch veſſels took	1255	whales.
47 Hamburghers	449	
2 Swedes -	113	
4 Danes -	52	
12 Bremen -	96	
2 Embden - -	2	
1 Lubeck -	1	
In all, 197 veſſels took	1968	

In 1725,

144 Dutch veſſels took	248½	whales.
12 Engliſh -	25½	
43 Hamburghers	46	
23 Bremen -	29	
2 Bergen -	0	
2 Flenſberg -	0	
In all, 226 veſſels took	349	whales.

The Dutch captures in 1697

produced -	41,344	puncheons of blubber.
The Hamburghers	16,414	
The Swedes -	540	
The Danes - -	1710	
The Bremeners -	3790	
The Embdeners -	28	

The Engliſh captures in 1725 produced 1000 puncheons of blubber, and 20 tons of whalebone.

Now, eſtimating the puncheon of blubber at 2 l. 15 s. ſterling, the current price in the year 1697, the total produce of the oil, obtained by the fiſhery of that year, amounted to 175,521 l. 10 s. ſterling. As to fins, or whalebones, ſetting them at 2000 weight *per* whale, and 100 weight, at 4 l. 4 s. they will yield 171,233 l. which added to the former ſum, amounts to 346 754 l. 10 s. whereof the ſhare belonging to the Dutch was 228,737 l.

In the year 1751, there were 167 veſſels employed in this fiſhery; whereof 31 were Engliſh; 52 from Amſterdam, 2 from Dordrecht, 4 from Rotterdam, 1 from Erimpen, 2 from Alkmaar, 2 from Monnikendam, 30 from Zaandam, 4 from Ooſaanen, 6 from Waſſaneen, 3 from Zaandyck, 2 from De Koog, 1 from Cromnenie, 1 from Thiſp, and 7 from De Ryp, being 117 Dutch veſſels; 13 from Hamburgh, 3 from Altena, 2 from Bremen, and 1 from Embden.

But Monſieur Savary ſays, that the Dutch have upwards of 300 ſhips employed in the whale fiſhery, and the French of Bayonne 18 or 20.

The Engliſh Whale FISHERY, *or Greenland company*, was eſtabliſhed by the ſtatute of the 4th and 5th of William and Mary; whereby it was enacted, That a joint ſtock of 40 000 l. at leaſt, ſhould be raiſed, by ſubſcriptions, by Sir William Scawen, knight, and ſeveral other perſons, to be paid to the uſe of the company eſtabliſhed by this act: and the ſaid Sir William Scawen, and the reſt of the perſons named, and all and every other perſon and perſons, ſubjects born, or naturaliſed, or made denizens, who ſhould have any ſhare in the ſaid joint ſtock, ſhould be incorporated by the name of "The company of merchants of London trading to Greenland;" and have a common ſeal, with ability to purchaſe lands and tenements, ſo as the ſame did not exceed the yearly value of 100 l. and might do and execute all matters and things which any other body corporate might lawfully do or execute. That the company, during the continuance of the joint ſtock, ſhould freely uſe the trade and merchandiſe of catching whales in the Greenland ſeas, and in all ſeas and places whatſoever, except in the ſeas belonging to the Britiſh colonies and plantations in America, without interruption or diſturbance. That a governor, deputy-governor, and 16 committees, ſhould be elected, to have the management and direction of the trade; and any 13 perſons named in the act might call a court of all the ſubſcribers and others, that ſhould have any ſhare in the joint ſtock, who ſhould meet and chooſe one fit perſon, having ſubſcribed 1000 l. or upwards, to be the governor, and another perſon ſo qualified to be deputy-governor; and 16 others, having ſubſcribed each 500 l. or upwards, to be the commitees; all of whom ſhould take an oath to maintain the company, and for the faithful execution of their truſts. That no perſons who ſhould ſubſcribe, or have leſs in the ſtock than 500 l. ſhould have any voice at the general court of the company: but every perſon ſo ſubſcribing ſhould have one vote; and ſuch as ſubſcribed, or had 1000 l. in the ſtock, ſhould have two votes, and no more, though their ſubſcription exceeded that ſum. That no private contract of the ſale of any goods, ſhould be made by the company to any member thereof; but all goods belonging to the company ſhould be ſold publicly by inch of candle, once a year at the leaſt; of which ſales public notice ſhould be given three weeks before on the Royal Exchange, and no lot be expoſed to ſale of more than 300 l. value in the allotment. That the money ariſing by the ſale of the company's goods ſhould be applied to the advantage of the joint ſtock, and of the perſons concerned therein, according to their proportions, and not to the private advantage of any particular perſon; and the dividends of

the profits ſhould be made in money only. That perſons intereſted in the ſtock might transfer their ſhares to ſubjects born, perſons naturaliſed, or made denizens; and ſuch aſſignments were to be entered in the books of the company, which ſhould lie open for the view of all perſons concerned: but all other aſſignments and diſpoſitions were to be void, except deviſes by will, or where part of the ſtock ſhould come to a perſon as executor, or adminiſtrator. That no perſon ſhould agree for, bargain, or ſell, any greater part of the ſtock, than ſuch ſum only as they ſhould be poſſeſſed of, and have ſtanding in their own names, in the books of the company; and all agreements, contracts, bargains, or ſales, for any part of the ſtock, not executed within ten days after ſuch agreement, ſhould be void.

By the ſtatute of the 7th and 8th of William III. it was enacted, That the Greenland company ſhould not be charged with the payment of any cuſtom, duty, or impoſition, for any oil, blubber, or whale fins, which ſhould be caught and imported into the kingdom, by any veſſels belonging to the company.

The Greenland company having neglected that trade, it was, for the encouraging and enlarging the ſame for the good of the kingdom, by the ſtatute of the 1ſt of Queen Anne, ordained, That it ſhould be lawful for any ſubjects of Great Britain, that would adventure to Greenland for fiſhing of whales, to have and enjoy all privileges granted by the act of the 4th and 5th of William and Mary; and that they ſhould not pay any further or other duty than if they had been of the company, any law or ſtatute to the contrary notwithſtanding; and that no harponeer, or other foreigners, permitted by that act for carrying on this fiſhery, ſhould be impreſſed for the royal ſervice.

By the 5th of George II. it was enacted, That any perſons might import whale-fins, oil, and blubber of whales, ſeal-oil, ſeal-ſkins, or any other produce of ſeals, or other creatures taken in the Greenland ſeas, in Britiſh ſhips navigated according to law, without paying any duty; but nothing therein ſhould be conſtrued to extend to give liberty for importing ſuch whale-fins, oil, or blubber, duty free, unleſs the maſter of the ſhip who imported the ſame, firſt made oath before the commiſſioners, or other principal officers of the cuſtoms in the port of importation, that all the commodities imported in ſuch ſhip, were really thoſe caught and taken in the Greenland ſeas by the crew of the ſame ſhip only, whereof the maſter, and one third part of the mariners, were Britiſh ſubjects.

By the ſtatute of the 6th of King George II. it was enacted, That every Britiſh ſhip of 200 tons, that ſhould proceed from any port of Great Britain on the whale-fiſhery to the Greenland ſeas, or Davis's ſtreights, and the adjacent ſeas, manned and navigated according to law, ſhould, before ſhe proceeded on ſuch voyage, be viſited by the officers of the cuſtoms, who ſhould examine into ſuch ſhip, and take an account of the tonnage thereof by admeaſurement: and if it appeared that ſhe had on board ſuch a number of men, proviſions, boats, fiſhing-lines, and inſtruments to be uſed in ſuch fiſhery, as therein were mentioned; and had a ſufficient number of harponeers, ſteerſmen, and line-managers, who had before been employed in ſuch voyages; and if it further appeared, by the oath of one owner and the maſter of the ſhip, that it was their purpoſe to make a voyage to the Greenland ſeas, and there, in the approaching ſeaſon, to uſe their endeavours to take whales, ſeals, or other creatures, in thoſe ſeas, and on no other deſign of profit; as alſo to import the fins, oil, and blubber, into Great Britain, naming the port to which it was their intention to return; and if the maſter became bound, with two ſureties, for the faithful dealing of himſelf, and the company of the ſhip, then three of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms ſhould, on receiving certificates thereof, grant a licence to proceed on ſuch voyage. That every ſhip being 200 tons, deſigned for this fiſhery, ſhould have forty fiſhing lines, of 120 fathom each; 40 harpoon irons, 4 boats with 7 men, including a harponeer, a ſteerſman, and a line-manager, to each boat, making in the whole 28 men, beſides the maſter and the ſurgeon, with ſix months proviſions: and every ſhip of larger burthen ſhould have an increaſe of ſix men, one boat, ten lines, and ten harpoon-irons, for every fifty tons. That on the return of ſuch ſhips, the maſter and mate ſhould make oath, before the collector and comptroller of the cuſtoms, annexed to the licences, that they did, in purſuance thereof, proceed in a voyage to the places aforeſaid; and had not ſince been on any other voyage, or purſued any other deſign of profit; and that they did there, mentioning the time of their continuance in thoſe ſeas, uſe their endeavours to take whales, and other fiſh, in the ſaid ſeas; and that all the fins, oil, and blubber, imported in ſuch ſhips, were really caught in thoſe ſeas by the crews of the ſaid ſhips only: and then, upon certificate of ſuch oath tranſmitted to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, they ſhould cauſe payment to be made to the maſter or owners of every ſuch ſhip, by the receiver-general of the cuſtom-duties, a bounty of 20 s. *per* ton, according to the admeaſurement of the ſhip.

By the ſtatute of the 13th of King Geo. II. it was enacted, that the laſt mentioned act ſhould be continued to the 25th of Decembrr 1750: that during the war then carried on againſt France and Spain, the bounty-money ſhould be increaſed 10 s. *per* ton, over and above the other bounty of 20 s. *per* ton: that no harponeer, line-manager, boat-ſteerer, or ſeaman, engaged in the Greenland fiſhery trade, ſhould be impreſſed from that ſervice: and that any ſuch ſeamen might ſail in the colliery at leiſure times, giving ſecurity to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms that they would ſail to Greenland, or Davis's ſtreights, on the whale-fiſhery, the next ſeaſon.

As the enlargement of the whale-fiſhery would be of great advantage to the trade and navigation of Great Britain; for the further encouragement thereof it was enacted, by the ſtatute of the 22d of Geo. II. that the before-mentioned acts ſhould be continued unto the 25th of December 1757; and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament: that, over and above the allowance of 20 s. a ton bounty, the reſpective commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in Great Britain ſhould, until the expiration of this act, upon their being ſatisfied of the faithful dealings of the maſter and other perſons employed in any ſhip with reſpect to this fiſhery, cauſe payment to be made to the maſter or owners, or aſſigns, by the receiver-general of the cuſtoms in that part of Great Britain from whence ſuch ſhip ſhould depart, of the additional ſum of 20 s. *per* ton. That every ſhip built or fitted out in any of the Britiſh dominions in America of 200 tons and upwards, and not being more than two years old from the firſt building thereof, that proceeded from any port of the Britiſh dominions in America, on the whale-fiſhery, manned and navigated according to law, which ſhould, before ſhe proceeded on ſuch voyage, be viſited by the proper officer of the cuſtoms, who ſhould take an account of the tonnage thereof as directed by the act of the 6th of Geo. II. and ſhould certify the ſame to the governor, or commander in chief of the place where ſuch veſſel ſhould be fitted out, or to the naval officer of the port; and if it ſhould appear by the ſaid certificate, that ſhe had on board, at the time of giving the ſame, ſuch a number of men, proviſions, boats, fiſhing-lines, and inſtruments, to be uſed in ſuch fiſhery as the ſaid act requires; and that ſhe was a ſhip ſtrongly built, and otherwiſe proper for ſuch voyage and fiſhery; and had among her crew ſuch a number of harponeers, ſteerſmen, and line-managers, who had before been employed in ſuch voyages as the act requires; and if the owner and maſter, or chief officer of ſuch ſhip, ſhould, at the foot of ſuch certificate, make ſuch oath, before the governor or naval officer, as directed, and likewiſe that ſuch ſhip was no more than two years old from the firſt building thereof; and if the maſter ſhould alſo afterwards become bound, with ſuch ſureties as the act requires; which bond ſhould be taken by the governor or naval officer; then the governor, or commander in chief, or naval officer, ſhould grant them full licence to proceed on ſuch voyage: that on the arrival of ſuch ſhip at the port in Great Britain, to which the maſter and mate declared on oath they intended to proceed after their voyage to the Greenland ſeas, or to

Davis's ſtreights, or to the ſeas adjacent, or at their arrival at ſome other port in Great Britain where they ſhould unload, the proper officers of ſuch port ſhould proceed in ſuch manner, and make ſuch ſchedule as directed by the act of the 6th of Geo. II. concerning Britiſh ſhips intitled to the benefits of the ſaid act; and the ſame ſhould be tranſmitted to the reſpective commiſſioners of the cuſtoms for that part of Great Britain in which ſuch ſhip ſhould arrive, who being ſatisfied of the faithful dealings of the maſter and other perſons employed, with reſpect to ſuch voyage and fiſhery, ſhould cauſe payment to be made by the receiver-general of the cuſtoms of the ſum of 20 s. and 20 s. *per* ton, according to the admeaſurement of ſuch ſhip: that all ſhips that ſhould be fitted out for the whale-fiſhery in America, after having conformed to the rules and regulations of the act of the 6th of Geo. II. ſhould ſail from ſuch port where ſurveyed directly on her intended fiſhery, on or before the 1ſt of May, and ſhould not leave Davis's ſtreights, or Greenland, and the ſeas adjacent, before the 21ſt of Auguſt, unleſs they ſhould have filled ſo many caſks with blubber as would amount to not leſs than 200 hogſheads for a ſhip of 300 tons, and ſo in proportion for a ſhip of 200 tons and upwards, or ſhould meet with ſome unavoidable accident ſo as to endanger the lives of the crew; the ſame to be declared on the oaths of the maſter, mate, carpenter, harponeers, line-managers, boat-ſteerers, and ſurgeon, or ſuch of them as ſhould be living at the time of their arrival in port to the ſatisfaction of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms; and in caſe of any irregular proceeding contrary thereunto, every ſhip ſo offending ſhould loſe the benefit of this bounty. That every perſon born out of the allegiance of his Majeſty, being a proteſtant, who ſhould ſerve for three years on board any ſhip belonging to Britiſh ſubjects, which ſhould be lawfully fitted out, and employed in this fiſhery, ſhould, upon taking the proper oaths, be deemed a natural-born ſubject of Great Britain: but if any perſon naturalized by virtue of this act, ſhould go out of Great Britain or Ireland, or the Britiſh plantations in America, for more than 12 months at any one time, he ſhould loſe the benefit of this act.

The Dutch have a company for this fiſhery in Davis's ſtreights and Greenland, and alſo for the fiſhery of Nova Zembla; but theſe fiſheries are not therefore prohibited thoſe who are willing to undertake them: all the difference between the fiſhermen of this company and other fiſhers conſiſting only in this, that the latter are not permitted to land, cut up, or prepare their blubber; being obliged to cut their whales in pieces, and ſo bring them to be prepared in Holland; whereas the fiſhermen belonging to the company are allowed thoſe privileges, which occaſions their lading to be leſs cumberſome, and more abundant.

The eſtabliſhment of the Engliſh Greenland company ſo greatly alarmed the Dutch, that their high mightineſſes reſolved upon prohibiting, in the countries of their juriſdiction, the importation of whales not of their own fiſhery: which, however, was of no conſequence; becauſe the Engliſh ſoon abandoned the deſign of their new company; and, beſides, the ſtates-general were prevailed upon to alter this reſolution, by the remonſtrances of the Marquis de Monteleon, embaſſador from Spain, who, upon the rumour of prohibiting the whale commerce in Holland, preſented them with a memorial repreſenting the injuſtice of ſuch a prohibition, eſpecially with regard to the Spaniards, thoſe of Biſcay being the firſt whale-fiſhers in all Europe, and having always enjoyed the liberty of importing their fiſh and oil into all the European ſtates, and particularly Holland.

Salmon-FISHERY. The chief ſalmon fiſheries in Europe are along the coaſts of England, Scotland, and Ireland; where the fiſhing uſually begins about the 1ſt of January, and ends by the laſt of September. See *Salmon*.

The Thames, Severn, Tine, and Tees, in England; the Dee in Wales; the Don, Dee, Clyde, and Tweed, in Scotland; and the Shannon, Boyn, and Sure, in Ireland, are the moſt remarkable for ſalmons. The Thames, Severn, and Dee ſalmon are chiefly ſent freſh to the fiſhmongers of London, to whom they are ſold by the pound; but thoſe from the north of England, and Scotland, are pickled and ſent up in kits, marked and valued according to the fiſh they contain; ſome kits having only two ſalmon, which are eſteemed the beſt, and others three: but theſe ſalmons are not ſent whole, the jouls and body being ſeparated for the ſake of the package.

This fiſhery is performed with nets, in the places where the rivers empty themſelves into the ſea, and along the ſea coaſts adjacent; where the fiſh are ſeen frequently to croud in ſhoals from all parts, in ſearch of the freſh water: they alſo fiſh for them higher up in the rivers; ſometimes with nets, and ſometimes with a kind of locks, or wears, made for the purpoſe, with iron grates therein, ſo diſpoſed as that the fiſh, in going up the river, open them with their head; but are no ſooner entered, than the gate claps to: ſo that the ſalmon are incloſed as in a reſervoir, where it is eaſy taking them. In ſome places they fiſh for ſalmon in the night-time, by the light of torches, or kindled ſtraw; when the fiſhermen watch the fiſh drawing towards the light, whereof he is naturally a great lover, and ſtrikes him with a ſpear, or liſter. In ſome parts of Scotland they ride a-fiſhing up the rivers, and when they ſpy them in the ſhallow parts, ſhoot them with fire-arms; and in the river Severn, the ſalmon are frequently ſpeared.

When the fiſh is taken they open them, take out the guts and gills, and ſalt them, in large tubs for the purpoſe; out of which they are not taken before October, to be packed up in caſks from 300 to 450 pounds weight.

By the ſtatute of Weſtminſter, the 13th of Edward I. it was enacted, That the waters of Humber, Owſe, Trent, Don, Arre, Derwent, Wherfe, Nid, Yore, Swale, Teeſe, Tine, Eden, and all other waters wherein ſalmons were taken, ſhould be in defence for taking ſalmons from Lady-day to Martinmas; and the young ſalmons ſhould not be taken by nets, nor other engines at mill pools from the middle of April unto the nativity of St. John the Baptiſt; and in places where ſuch waters were, there ſhould be aſſigned overſeers of this ſtatute, who, being ſworn, ſhould often enquire of the offenders; and for the firſt treſpaſs they ſhould be puniſhed by burning of their nets and engines; for the ſecond they ſhould have impriſonment for a quarter of a year; for the third treſpaſs they ſhould be impriſoned a year; and as the treſpaſs increaſed ſo ſhould the puniſhment.

By the ſtatute of the 1ſt of Geo. I. it was enacted, That if any perſon ſhould lay or draw any nets or engines, or do any other act in the Severn, Dee, Wye, Team, Were, Tees, Ribble, Merſey, Dun, Air, Owſe, Swaile, Calder, Wharfe, Eure, Derwent, and Trent, whereby the ſmall fry of ſalmon, or any kepper or ſhedder-ſalmons, or any ſalmon not 18 inches long, from the eye to the extent of the middle of the tail, ſhould be taken or killed; or ſhould ſet any bank, dam, hedge, ſtank, or nets, croſs the ſaid rivers, whereby the ſalmon might be taken, or prevented from going up the rivers to ſpawn; or ſhould, between the laſt of July and the 12th of November, take, or wilfully hurt, any ſalmon in the ſaid rivers; or ſhould, at any time after the 12th of November, fiſh there for ſalmon, with any net the meſh whereof ſhould be under two inches and a half ſquare, and not extended from knot to knot, allowing to each meſh four knots, or which ſhould be above twenty yards in length, and ſix in breadth or depth in the wing of the net, and ſhould be convicted thereof, before one juſtice of peace, he ſhould forfeit 5 l. for every offence, together with the fiſh and the nets.

By this laſt act it was alſo enacted, That no ſalmon ſhould be ſent to London from any of the above-mentioned rivers to fiſhmongers, that weigh leſs than ſix pounds each fiſh: and every perſon buying, ſelling, or ſending, a ſalmon of leſs weight, ſhould forfeit 5 l. beſides the fiſh; or to ſuffer three months impriſonment.

Sturgeon FISHERY. The ſturgeon is a large ſea-fiſh, which, at its ſeaſon, runs up the rivers; having a ſharp-pointed ſnout, flat belly, and bluiſh back; of which there are all ſizes, ſome being 20 feet long; but the middle ſized are reckoned the beſt. Sturgeons are reckoned among the royal fiſhes, and, when left on ſhore, belong to the King:

it ſhould be lawful for the watchmen, balcors, huors, condors, directors, and guides, for the uſe of the taking of herrings, pilchards, and other ſea-fiſh, within the counties of Somerſet, Devon, and Cornwal, and ſuch fiſhermen and others, as ſhould neceſſarily attend the ſeas, or nets, at the times of fiſhing, to go into any lands near ſuch fiſhing places, fit to watch and walk in, or to draw the fiſh on ſhore, and there to watch for the fiſh, balk, hue, cond, direct, and guide the fiſhermen, and draw the fiſh on land.

By the ſtatute of the 3d of James I. it was enacted, That every perſon that ſhould erect any new wear along the ſea-ſhore, or in any haven or creek, or within five miles of the mouth of any haven or creek, or ſhould willingly take or ſpoil any ſpawn, fry, or brood of ſea-fiſh, in any wear or other device, ſhould forfeit for every time 10 l.

By the ſtatute of the 13th and 14th of Charles II. it was enacted, That no perſon ſhould in any year, from the 1ſt of June till the laſt of November, take fiſh in the high ſea, or in any bay, port, creek, or coaſt of Cornwal or Devon, with any drift-net, trammel or ſtream-net, or other nets of that ſort, unleſs it was one league and a half from the ſhore, on penalty of forfeiture of the nets, or the value thereof, and impriſonment for a month. That if any perſons, being neither owners, partners, or adventurers, in fiſhery, and in the boats and ſaynes thereunto belonging, ſhould make pilchards or ſumathoes in caſk, to be ſold or tranſported, except they openly bought the fiſh of the owners, partners, and adventurers, in the pilchard-craft, or with their conſent, they ſhould forfeit all ſuch pilchards and ſumathoes, or their value; one half to the King, and the other to the proſecutor. That if any perſon ſhould fraudulently purloin out of the nets, boats, or cellars, any pilchard fiſh, without conſent of the owner, and major part of the company reſpectively, ſuch perſon ſhould pay treble the value in ſatisfaction to the parties wronged, and be ſent to the houſe of correction for three months. That if any idle or ſuſpicious perſons, ſhould, in the night, aſſemble about the boats, nets, or cellars, belonging to any pilchard craft upon the coaſts of Cornwal or Devon, having no buſineſs there, and being warned by the company or owner to be gone, upon complaint to any juſtice of peace, ſuch perſons refuſing ſo to do, ſhould pay 5 s. to the poor of the pariſh, or be ſet in the ſtocks for five hours.

By the ſtatute of the 15th of Charles II. it was enacted, That, for encouragement of the North ſea, Iceland, and Weſtmony fiſheries, no freſh herring, freſh cod, or haddock, coal-fiſh, or gutt-fiſh, ſhould be imported but in Engliſh built ſhips, having a proper certificate, being lawfully manned, and which fiſh had been caught in ſuch ſhips, and not bought of ſtrangers, under pain of forfeiture of all ſuch fiſh, and the ſhip in which it was imported.

By the ſtatute of the 18th of Charles II. it was enacted, That if any ling, herring, cod, or pilchard, freſh or ſalted, or any ſalmon, eels, or congers, taken by foreigners, ſhould be imported, it ſhould be lawful for any perſon to ſeize the ſame; one half to the poor of the pariſh, and the other half to the uſe of the ſeizor.

By the ſtatute of the 1ſt of Queen Anne it was enacted, That if any cod-fiſh, ling, or hake, or any pilchards, ſcads, white herrings, red herrings, ſalmon, or dried ſprats, ſhould, after the ſame were exported, be fraudulently relanded or reimported, the fiſh ſhould be forfeited, and double the value be recovered of the importer or proprietor.

By the ſtatute of the 1ſt of Geo. I. it was enacted, That no herring, cod, pilchards, ſalmon, or ling, freſh or ſalted, dried or bloated; nor any grill, mackarel, whiting, haddock, ſprats, coal-fiſh, gull-fiſh, congers; nor any ſort of flat fiſh or freſh fiſh, ſhould be imported, or ſold in England, which ſhould be taken by, or received from any foreigner; or out of any ſtranger's bottom, except proteſtant ſtrangers inhabiting the kingdom; nor ſhould any perſon give or exchange goods for fiſh ſo taken. That every maſter of any ſmack or veſſel in which fiſh ſhould be imported contrary to this act, ſhould forfeit 20 l. for every offence, or ſuffer 12 months imprisonment. But this forfeiture, by the 9th of Geo. II. augmented to 50 l. and a forfeiture of 100 l. was upon every perſon offending againſt the preceding That nothing therein contained ſhould prevent the porting eels, ſtock-fiſh, anchovies, botarge, or and it ſhould be lawful for any perſons, as well foreign as ſubjects, to import into, and ſell in Great Brit lobſters or turbits, whether of foreign or Britiſh catch That if any perſon ſhould uſe at ſea, upon the coaſt England, any traul-net, drag net, or other ſea-net, the catching of any fiſh, except herrings, pilchards, ſp and lavidnian, having a meſh of leſs than three and a half from knot to knot; or any falſe or double tom, cod, or pouch; or ſhould put any net, though legal ſize, behind the others, to deſtroy the ſmall he ſhould forfeit ſuch nets, and 20 l. for every offence or ſuffer 12 months impriſonment; and where illegal were proved to be forfeited they ſhould be publicly That if any perſon ſhould bring to ſhore in England, ſell, or expoſe to ſale, or exchange for goods, unſized fiſh, not of the lengths following, from the eyes to extent of the tail: bret, or turbot, 16 inches; brill, pearl, 14 inches; codlin, 12 inches; whiting 6 inches baſs and mullet 12 inches; ſole, plaice, or dab, 8 inches and flounder, 7 inches, he ſhould forfeit the fiſh to the of the pariſh, and 20 s. one moiety to the informer, and other to the poor; or to be impriſoned, ſeverely and kept to hard labour ſix days.

All fiſh taken by Engliſh ſubjects, and brought by Engliſh bottoms into the realm, are excepted out of the of the 12th of Cha. II. of tonnage and poundage, ſo to be free from duty: beſides, herrings, and other ſea-fish taken by ſubjects, may be tranſported in Britiſh veſſels without paying any duty for the ſame. But any ling, fish, pilchard, or other dried or ſalted fiſh, uſually caught by Engliſh ſubjects; or any cod-fiſh, or herring; or oil or blubber made of fiſh; or any whale-fins, or whale bones, imported into England, not caught in Engliſh veſſels, and the fiſh cured and dried, and the oil and blubber not made by Engliſh ſubjects are, purſuant to the ſtatute of the 12th of Cha. II. to pay double aliens cuſtom.

FISHING-*markets*. By the ſtatute of the 10th and 11th King Will. III. it was enacted, That Billingſgate market in London ſhould be every day, except Sundays, a market for all fiſh; and it ſhould be lawful for any perſon to buy or ſell fiſh in the ſaid market. That no perſon ſelling ſea-fiſh in the ſaid market ſhould pay other toll or duty for coming with his veſſel, or landing, ſtanding, or ſelling at the ſaid market, than as follows: every veſſel with ſalt-fiſh, for groundage 8 d. a day, and 20 d. a voyage for all demands: for every lobſter-boat, for groundage 2 d. a day, and 13 d. a voyage; the ſame for every veſſel of freſh ſea-fiſh, and the ſame for every dogger-boat, or ſmack, with ſea-fiſh; and for every oyſter veſſel, or cock, 2 d. a day for groundage, halfpenny for metage of every buſhel, and 13 d. a voyage, to be diſpoſed of as the lord mayor and court of aldermen ſhould annually direct, according to the right of the perſons intitled. That it ſhould be lawful for any perſon who ſhould buy fiſh in the ſaid market, to ſell the ſame again in any other place in London, or elſewhere, by retail, except that none but fiſhmongers ſhould ſell in public or fixed ſhops or houſes; provided that this ſhould not alter any law concerning fiſh caught by foreigners. That the evil practice uſed by the fiſhmongers in employing one or two perſons to buy up the fiſh brought to Billingſgate, and afterwards dividing the ſame amongſt the fiſhmongers by lots, ſhould be diſcontinued, and no ſuch practice uſed for the future. That no perſons ſhould employ, or be employed by, any other in buying at the ſaid market any quantity of fiſh, to be provided in order to be afterwards put to ſale; nor ſhould any fiſhmonger ingroſs, or buy, in the ſaid market, any quantity of fiſh, but what ſhould be for his own uſe, and not for any other fiſhmonger, under pain of forfeiting 20 l. for each offence: and no perſon ſhall bring on ſhore, or put to ſale, any lobſters that were eight inches from the peak of the noſe to the end of

middle fin of the tail, under pain of forfeiting 1 s. for every lobſter. But nothing in this act ſhould prohibit the ſelling of mackarel before or after divine ſervice on Sundays.

By the ſtatute of the 9th of Queen Anne it was enacted, That no fiſh ſhould be ſold more than once within the market, or within 150 yards of Billingſgate-dock; nor ſhould any perſons, other than free fiſh-mongers, in their houſes and ſhops within 150 yards of the ſaid dock, and not in the market of Billingsgate, and other than fiſhermen, or the firſt importers of, or perſons bringing up ſuch fiſh to the market, their wives, apprentices, factors, or ſervants, hired for that purpoſe, ſell, or expoſe to ſale, any fiſh at the ſaid market, or within 150 yards of the ſaid dock. That no fiſh ſhould be ſold, or expoſed to ſale, on board, or on ſhore, within the limits of the ſaid market, or within 150 yards of the dock, before three o'clock in the morning from Lady-day to Michaelmas, and before 5 o'clock from Michaelmas to Lady-day; and at thoſe times the proper officer ſhould ring the bell.

By the toll-books of Billingsgate market it appears, that, in the year 1729 there arrived there 991 oyſter-boats, 50 whereof, as meaſured by the city meters, contained 5976 buſhels; therefore the whole muſt have contained 115,536 buſhels. And, in the ſame year, from the 26th of May, the beginning of the mackarel ſeaſon, to the 6th of July the end thereof, there arrived at Billingsgate 589 boats, which, at a medium, carried about two laſts and a half each, each laſt containing 10,000; ſo that it thereby appears, that the number of mackarel brought to the city of London in that ſeaſon, amounted to 14,740,000. And alſo, in the ſame year, there are arrived at the ſaid market 1398 ſmall boats, with cod, haddocks, whitings, and other ſea-fiſh; beſides, there are vaſt quantities of other ſea-fiſh and river fiſh brought from many parts of the kingdom to London, without mentioning the great quantity of ſalt fiſh imported from all parts.

As a free and open market for fiſh in the city of Weſtminſter would greatly tend to increaſe the number of fiſhermen, and improve and encourage the Britiſh fiſhery, an act of parliament was paſſed in the year 1749, whereby it was enacted, That there ſhould be an open market held in the city of Weſtminſter, for all ſorts of fiſh, and any perſons might buy or ſell any ſorts of fiſh in the ſaid market, paying ſuch ſums as were therein after mentioned. That Lieutenant-general James Oglethorpe, Admiral Vernon, and 24 others, therein particularly named, ſhould be truſtees for putting this act in execution; and they, or any five or more of them, were inveſted with all the powers and authorities granted by this act. That there ſhould be paid to the truſtees, or ſuch perſon as five or more of them ſhould appoint, by every fiſherman, or other perſon ſelling fiſh in the ſaid market, the ſame ſums as were payable at Billingsgate, by the ſtatute of the 10th and 11th of Will. III. for the groundage and voyage of each veſſel laden with ſalt-fiſh; each lobſter-boat, dogger-boat, ſmack, or other veſſel, laden with freſh ſea-fiſh; and for every oyſter-veſſel or cock. That the ſaid ſums ſhould be veſted in the truſtees, and be applied as therein after directed; and five or more of the truſtees, or ſuch perſons as ſhould be appointed by them at a general meeting, might demand and take the ſaid ſums, and levy the ſame by diſtreſs of any boat, her tackle or furniture, belonging to any perſon liable, and not making payment, and after three days make ſale thereof, returning the overplus after deducting all charges. That five or more of the truſtees, at a general meeting for that purpoſe, might aſſign over the ſaid duties, as a ſecurity for any ſums of money which they ſhould borrow for the purpoſes of this act, with intereſt not exceeding 5 *per cent. per annum*. That out of the monies ariſing by the ſaid duties, or which ſhould be borrowed on the credit thereof, the truſtees, or any five or more of them, at a public meeting, ſhould, in the firſt place, pay all the expences and charges incurred in paſſing this act; and, in the next place, the charges of laying out, and erecting a commodious place for the market, and finiſhing and keeping the ſame in good repair, and all other neceſſary expences attending the execution of this act. That the truſtees ſhould appoint a collector of the duties, a treaſurer, and all other neceſſary officers; and ſhould allow them ſuch ſalaries, or other rewards, as they ſhould think reaſonable; and they might remove or diſplace them, and put others in their ſtead: and the collector and treaſurer ſhould, upon the firſt Monday in every month, or oftener, if required, give in, before five or more truſtees, an accompt under their hands, of all monies received and diſburſed by them to that time, on account of their reſpective offices, and produce vouchers for the ſame, and pay over the balance to ſuch perſon as the truſtees ſhould at ſuch meeting direct. That five or more of the truſtees ſhould yearly deliver to the juſtices for Weſtminſter, at any petty or ſpecial ſeſſions, an account, entered in a book to be kept for that purpoſe, and ſigned by five or more truſtees, of all ſums received and diſburſed on account of this act during the preceding year, with the balance in their hands; and the ſurplus of the ſaid ſums remaining in the truſtees hands ſhould be annually applied, within 12 months after delivering of ſuch accompt to the juſtices, in the apprenticing boys to fiſhermen, or to perſons employed in the ſea-ſervice; ſuch boys to be choſen by a majority of truſtees at a general meeting. That perſons who ſhould buy fiſh in the ſaid market, might ſell the ſame again in any other place within Weſtminſter, or elſewhere, being ſound and wholſome fiſh. That if any perſon ſhould contract for buying up fiſh, to be ſold again by retail, before ſuch fiſh ſhould be brought to an open market, and there expoſed to public ſale, the contract ſhould be void, and each of the parties ſhould forfeit 50 l. one moiety to the truſtees, and the other to the proſecutor: and if either of the parties ſo contracting ſhould, before any information made againſt him, inform againſt and convict the other of ſuch offence, he ſhould be acquitted of the penalty, and be intitled to ſue for, and recover the whole forfeiture incurred by the other; one half of which ſhould be for himſelf, and the other for the truſtees: but this act was not extended to make void any contracts in regard to freſh ſalmon, or ſoles brought by land-carriage; or to oyſters, or ſalt or dried fiſh. That if any fiſherman, or other perſon, natives or foreigners, ſhould keep any fiſh at Queenborough, Graveſend, or any other place, in any well-boat, ſtore-boat, or other manner, ſo as not to ſell off their whole cargo within eight days from their arrival on the Britiſh coaſt, between North Yarmouth and Dover, after their firſt arrival at the reſpective place or places as aforeſaid, he ſhould forfeit the whole cargo of fiſh belonging to him, and alſo the veſſel, with her tackle, apparel, and furniture; one moiety to the informer, and the other to the poor of the pariſh. That the commiſſioners for building the bridge at Weſtminſter, were impowered to make a grant of a piece of ground near Cannon-Row in Weſtminſter, to the truſtees, to be made uſe of for holding the ſaid intended market; for which the truſtees ſhould pay the commiſſioners 5 l. as the purchaſe money for the ſame. That all bonds, or other ſecurities, for not ſuing or recovering any penalty or forfeiture to be incurred by this act, ſhould be void: and that all actions which ſhould be commenced for any thing done in purſuance of this act, ſhould be brought within ſix months after the fact committed. That fiſh under ſuch dimenſions as were prohibited importation by the ſtatute of the 1ſt of Geo. I. might be expoſed to ſale, or exchanged for any other goods, provided they were taken with a hook, and ſo not fit or capable of being preſerved alive.

FISHMONGER. A perſon whoſe buſineſs conſiſts in the ſale of fiſh.

FISHMONGERS *company of London.* The fiſhmongers, as well as other victuallers of this city, were anciently under the immediate direction of the court of Lord Mayor and Aldermen; which power was confirmed to the ſaid magiſtrates, by act of parliament in the 7th year of Richard II. being the year 1384.

The dealers in fiſh of the city of London, then conſiſted of two communities, the ſalt-fiſh, and ſtock-fiſhmongers; the former were incorporated by letters-patent of the 11th of Henry VII. in 1433, and the latter by charter of the 24th of Henry VII. in 1509. But, this diviſion proving

proving prejudicial to the profeſſion in general, they united, and were incorporated, by letters-patent of the 28th of Henry VIII. in 1536, by the appellation of The wardens and commonalty of the fiſhmongers of the city of London.

This corporation conſiſts of a prime and five other wardens, 28 aſſiſtants, and 140 liverymen; who, when admitted, pay each a fine of 13 l. 6 s. 8 d. They have a very ſtately and magnificent hall in Thames-ſtreet, to tranſact their affairs in, and pay to charitable uſes about 800 l. a year.

FISHING-*veſſels*, or thoſe uſed in the ſeveral fiſheries at ſea, or on the coaſts, are the buſs, coble, cock, dogger, driver, eel-boat, fly-boat, fluyt, hooker, peter-boat, ſmack, ſtrand-boat, trawler, and trinker. See *Veſſel*, and *Boat*.

FITCH, or *Vetch*. A kind of pulſe, uſed for feeding of poultry.

FIUME, or *St. Veit*. A port-town of Iſtria on the gulph of Venice, ſituated in 15 deg. of E. lon. and 45 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria. See *Italy*.

FIXATION, in chemiſtry, is a peculiar preparation of mercury, whereby it is fitted to bear the fire without evaporation, and the hammer without ſeparation or flying away. It is alſo applied to the binding together any volatile body, ſo as it may bear the fire, which it cannot naturally; for chemiſts make but two general diviſions of all bodies, fixed and volatile; the principal of theſe in a ſtate of fixation being gold, ſilver, precious ſtones, particularly diamonds, ſalts, and ſome others.

FIZGIG. A dart, or javelin, to ſtrike fiſh as they ſwim.

FLAG, is particularly uſed at ſea, for the colours and ſtandards borne on the top of the maſts of veſſels, for diſtinguiſhing the nations to whom they belong, the rank of the chief officers, and the quality of the ſhip with regard to its uſe and armament.

FLAGS, in general, are ſeveral colours delineated with the reſpective arms of princes, and nations, for diſtinguiſhing the rank of each veſſel in its fleet, or that of the commanding officer.

Merchants FLAG, is that which diſtinguiſhes a mercantile ſhip from a man of war.

Not only merchant ſhips belonging to the moſt powerful European nations which trade at ſea, as the Engliſh, Dutch, French, and Spaniards, have flags for diſtinguiſhing them from ſhips of war; but alſo all the Hanſe towns, and thoſe ſituated upon the German ocean, in the North, and in the Baltic.

Beſides the national flag, merchant ſhips frequently bear leſſer flags, on the mizzen-maſt, with the arms of the city, where the maſter ordinarily reſides; and on the fore-maſt the arms of the place where the perſon who freights them lives.

The admiral, or commander in chief, carries his flag on the main-top, or top of the main-maſt; the vice-admiral carries his on the fore-top; and the rear-admiral his on the mizzen-top, or top of the mizzen-maſt. The commanders of ſquadrons bear their flag on the mizzen-maſt, when in the body of a fleet; but on the main maſt when they command a party, which ſhould be cleft two thirds of its height, and terminate in a point: but the flags bore on the mizzen are particularly called gallants.

The faſhion of bearing the flags pointed, or triangular, which now obtains, according to Roderick Toletanus, came from the mahometan Arabs, or Saracens, upon their ſeiſing of Spain; before which time all the enſigns of war were ſquare, ſtretched, or extended, on croſs pieces of wood, like church-banners, on which account they were called in Latin *vexilla*, as if they ſaid, *velilla*, *a veli diminutione*, as is remarked by Iſidore.

The pirates of Algiers, and throughout the coaſts of Barbary, are the only people that bear a hexagonical flag; which is gules, charged with a moreſk head, coifed with its turbant; tho' this is expreſly contrary to their law, which prohibits the making any image, or repreſentation of a man; founded on an opinion, that they who make them ſhall be obliged at the day of judgment to find ſouls for them; and that, in defect thereof, they ſhall be damned: but this portrait is that of Hali, Mahomet's ſon-in-law, to whoſe party the Africans all retain; who ordered that his effigy ſhould be expreſſed on their flags and their ſtandards, believing himſelf ſo formidable to the Chriſtians, that the bare ſight of his image would carry undoubted victory over them.

To hang out the white FLAG, is to aſk quarter; or, it ſhews, when a veſſel is arrived on a coaſt, that it has no hoſtile intention, but comes to trade, or the like; the red flag, on the contrary, is a ſignal of defiance and battle.

To lower, or ſtrike the FLAG, is to pull it down, or take it in, out of reſpect or ſubmiſſion, when the weaker party meets a more powerful one. See *Striking*.

By an ordinance of Philip XI. King of Spain, in 1565, the captains are peremptorily commanded to periſh, rather than lower their royal flag, when once hung out.

The way of leading vanquiſhed ſhips in triumph, is to tie the flags to the ſhrouds, or the gallery in the hind part of the ſhip, and let them hang down towards the water, and to tow the veſſels by the ſtern: thus, Livy relates, the Romans uſed thoſe of Carthage.

FLAG-*officers*. Thoſe who command the ſeveral ſquadrons of a fleet; as admirals, vice-admirals, and rear-admirals. See *Admiral*.

The flag-officers in Britiſh pay, are the admiral, vice-admiral, and rear-admirals, of the white, red, and blue ſquadrons. See *Navy*.

FLAG *ſhip*. A ſhip commanded by a general or flag officer, who has a right to carry a flag, in contradiſtinction to the ſecondary veſſels, under command thereof.

FLAG-*ſtaves*, are ſtaves ſet on the head of the top-gallant-maſt, ſerving to let fly, and unfurl the flag.

FLAGELLET. A ſmall muſical pipe, or diminutive flute.

FLAGGON, or *Flagon*. A large veſſel, to contain wine, or water, for feaſts, or other public uſes.

FLAMBEAU, or *Flamboy*. A luminary made of ſeveral thick wicks of tow, covered over with bees-wax, ſerving to burn at nights in the ſtreets; as alſo at funeral proceſſions, and illuminations: they differ from links, torches, and tapers; for they are made ſquare, ſometimes of white wax, and ſometimes of yellow. They uſually conſiſt of four wicks, or branches, near an inch thick, and about three feet long, being made of a ſort of coarſe hempen yarn, half twiſted.

FLAMBOROUGH *Head*. A cape on the coaſt of Yorkſhire, ſituated on the German ſea, in 20 min. of E. lon. and 54 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. five miles eaſt of Burlington.

FLANDERS. See *Netherlands*.

FLANDERS *lace*. See *Lace*.

FLANEL, or *Flannel*. A kind of ſlight, looſe, woollen ſtuff, not quilted, but very warm; compoſed of a woof and warp; being wove on a loom, with two treddles, after the manner of bays; of which there are great quantities made in Wales, and ſold to the merchants of Shrewſbury, who ſend them to Flanders. See *Bays*.

French flannels are made of ſeveral breadths and lengths, but uſually of half an ell, 2 3ds, and 3-4ths; the piece containing from 24 to 70 ells.

France imported formerly great quantities of flannel from England; but ſince this commerce was interrupted by long wars between the two kingdoms, and the French manufacturers had applied themſelves to imitate them, there were ſcarce any more Engliſh flannels to be ſeen in France, even in time of peace.

The principal uſe of flannel is for placing it between two ſtuffs, inſtead of flocks, or cotton, to make cloathing the warmer; but ſome uſe it for waiſtcoats, drawers, ſhirts and ſhifts, and women moſt commonly for under-petticoats.

FLASK. A thin bottle, or glaſs-veſſel, to put wine in; particularly that of Florence, which is commonly covered with wicker, or withes, to defend it from blows or cracking; and, in gunnery, it is a ſmall horn curiously made to put gun powder in, for thoſe who go a fowling.

FLATS, in the ſea-language, a dangerous place for ſhips or boats to go over, for fear of ſticking; being the ſame with ſand-banks, ſhelves, and ſhoals.

FLATTER. A mechanic, whoſe buſineſs is to flat go

or ſilver wire, by paſſing the wire between two rollers in the flatting mill.

FLAW. A crack, deficiency, or imperfection in a thing; eſpecially applied to the breaking off ſhivers, or thin pieces, from precious ſtones.

FLAX, or *Line*, *Linum*. A plant with a ſlender hollow ſtem, uſually about two feet high, whoſe bark conſiſts of fibres much like thoſe of hemp; which being properly dreſſed and worked, makes that noble commodity linen-cloth.

There are upwards of thirty different ſpecies of this valuable plant; of which only two are in uſe for the linen manufacture: but it has been experienced in Great Britain, France, and other parts, that flax and hemp are much improved in their reſpective countries, by fetching the ſeed from more northern climates, and particularly from Courland: for though the ſeed brought from thence is dear, it repays the charges with abundance; one ſowing frequently producing two or three crops, before it is neceſſary to be renewed.

The ſeed of flax, called linſeed, has ſeveral conſiderable properties, by entering the compoſition of divers medicines, and yielding an oil by expreſſion. See *Linſeed*, and *Oil*.

Great quantities of flax, as well as linſeed, are imported into Great Britain, and many other countries, from Ruſſia and Holſtein, and ſome other parts of the Baltic; there is alſo ſome imported from Flanders, Egypt, and the Levant.

Three buſhels of linſeed will ſow an Engliſh acre; and the beſt time for ſowing it is in April. After it is pulled, wetted, dried, and ſweated, it muſt be beat, broke, and hackled; when it is fit for the market. As the linen manufacture depends upon the cultivation of flax, and as this manufacture is daily increaſing in Ireland, the growth of it ſhould be greatly encouraged in that kingdm, where 11,000 hogſheads of flax-ſeed are generally imported every year; which, at 2 l. the hogſhead, coſt 22,000 l.: but this expence might be ſaved to Ireland, if the Iriſh farmers would raiſe flax, inſtead of continuing their old cuſtom of neglecting all kinds of tillage; or it would come into Great Britain, if the growth of flax was properly encouraged in her northern colonies, where the lands are fit for it, and from whence conſiderable quantities are alſo imported in England.

Yarn ſpun of unripe or bad flax, will never make good cloth; and where it is mixed with other yarn, the cloth is not eſteemed: for which reaſon no flax-ſeed is exported from Ruſſia, and other places on the Baltic, without inſpection by officers appointed for that purpoſe, and the barrels marked with the arms, and other ſeals of the place.

Flax is well prepared in Flanders, where one acre produces from 800 to 1000 lb. weight, worth 2 s. ſterling the pound: but their manner of preparing it is not much followed in England; though it ought to be general, becauſe it would be greatly more advantageous than the Engliſh method of dreſſing it; whereby the cambric trade might be greatly promoted in Scotland and Ireland, as alſo the manufactures of thread, tape, and lace, in England: by which means great ſums of money might be kept at home, inſtead of ſending it away upon a loſing trade to the Baltic for flax and ſeed; or to Germany, Holland, Flanders, and France, for cloth and laces. See *Linen*, and *Yarn*.

By the ſtatute of the 15th of Charles II. it was enacted, That it ſhould be lawful for any perſons, in any place privileged or unprivileged, corporate or not corporate, to ſet up the trade of breaking, heckling, or dreſſing, of hemp or flax; as alſo for making and whitening of thread; alſo of ſpinning, weaving, making, whitening, or bleaching of cloth made of hemp or flax only; as alſo the trade of making twine or nets for fiſhery, or of ſtoving of cordage; and alſo the trade of making tapeſtry-hangings. That all foreigners who ſhould ſet up, and uſe any of the trades aforeſaid three years in England, ſhould, upon taking the oaths of allegiance and ſupremacy, enjoy all privileges of natural-born ſubjects, unleſs they ſhould uſe merchandiſe into and from foreign parts; in which caſe they ſhould be liable to pay cuſtoms as aliens during five years, and no longer.

By the ſtatute of the 7th and 8th of William III. it was enacted, That it ſhould be lawful for natives of England or Ireland, to import into England directly from Ireland, any ſorts of flax or hemp, and all the production thereof, as thread, yarn, and linen, of the growth and manufacture of Ireland, free from all duties: the maſter of the veſſel importing the ſame bringing a certificate from the chief officer of the port in Ireland, expreſſing the marks, number, tale, or weight, of the ſpecies in each bale mentioned in the bills of lading, with the names and places of abode of the exporters from Ireland, and of ſuch perſons who ſhould have ſworn the goods to be of the growth and manufacture of the kingdom, and where, and to whom in England conſigned; and the maſter of the ſhip, on arrival in England, making oath that the ſaid bales and goods were the bales and goods taken on board by virtue of the ſaid certificates.

By the ſtatute of the 1ſt of Queen Anne, it was enacted, That all flax or hemp, and the production thereof, as thread, yarn, and linen, imported directly from Ireland, being of the growth and manufacture of Ireland, upon producing certificates, and making oath as directed by the laſt mentioned act, ſhould be free from the additional ſubſidy of poundage, and all duties whatſoever.

FLAX-*dreſſer*, is a perſon who prepares the flax after importation, and makes it ready for the ſpinners, by combing it on heckles of different degrees of fineneſs, according to the nature of the flax, or the uſes it is deſigned for.

FLEECE. The covering of wool ſhorn off the bodies of ſheep; or it is as much wool as comes from one ſheep. See *Wool*.

FLEET. A number of veſſels going in company, whether on a deſign of war, or commerce. In times of peace, merchant-ſhips go in fleets, for their mutual aid and aſſiſtance. In times of war, beſides this ſecurity, they likewiſe procure convoys of men of war; either to eſcort them to the places whither they are bound, or only a part of the way, to a certain point or latitude, beyond which they are judged out of danger of privateers.

The Spaniſh fleet ſent againſt England by Philip II. conſiſted of a thouſand veſſels; and, in the eaſt, there have been fleets of 3000 veſſels aſſembled together.

Merchant-fleets generally take their denomination from the place they are bound to; as the Turky fleet, Eaſt India fleet, Baltic fleet, and Braſil fleet: but the Spaniards call ſimply the fleet, or flota, a certain number of veſſels, belonging partly to the King, and partly to merchants, ſent every year to Vera Cruz, a port of New Spain. The flota conſiſts of the captain, admiral, and patach or pinnace, which go on the account of his moſt Catholic Majeſty; and about ſixteen ſhips, from 400 to 1000 tons, belonging to particular perſons: they are all ſo heavy laden, both going and coming, that they have great difficulty to defend themſelves when attacked; and the fleet puts out from Cadiz about the month of Auguſt, making it 18 or 20 months before its return. The fleet ſent annually from the ſame port to Peru, they call the galleons, which goes out in company as far as the Antilles, where they ſeparate; the galleons for Carthagena and Porto Bello, and the flota for Vera Cruz; but, at their return, they join at the Havanna: and though, of the two fleets, the galleons are the moſt richly laden; yet it is to be obſerved, that the cargo of the flota is very conſiderable.

Chineſe FLEETS, or *floating towns*, are ſeveral barks, or buildings, uſed by the Chineſe for the interior commerce of their vaſt empire; eſpecially in places abounding with water, which is common in China.

Theſe barks ſail ſeparately, or ſome linked only together; but, when arrived at the place deſigned for carrying on a trade for ſome time, they are placed in regular order, forming ſtreets, and, as it were, ſquares between them: afterwards they are all joined with a kind of cordage interwoven with ſticks, and faſtened to large ſtakes: Theſe fleets, or little floating towns, have their magiſtrates and police; each boat being as a houſe, with its

ſtore-rooms, ſhop, and ſign, to inform purchaſers what kind of merchandiſe is ſold there.

The inhabitants of theſe floating houſes have no other abode; for they are uſually born, and alſo live and die in them. They never ſolicit the land-inhabitants to purchaſe their commodities, who come to the fleet in ſmall barges, and only in the day-time, the avenues of the fleet being ſhut up in the night.

Some of theſe fleets are met with alſo on the coaſt of Sumatra; but they are only hammocks, in compariſon to the Chineſe.

FLEMISH. Any thing belonging to the provinces of the Netherlands. The Flemiſh language, or Low Dutch, is ſo called, to diſtinguiſh it from the German, whereof it is a corruption, and a kind of dialect; but it differs from the Walloon, which is corrupt French.

FLEMISH-*bricks*. A neat, ſtrong kind of bricks, of a yellowiſh colour, brought from Flanders, and much uſed for paving. See *Bricks*.

FLENSBURGH. A port-town of Sleſwick, ſituated on a bay of the Baltic, in 9 deg. 45 min. of E. lon. and 55 deg. of N. lat. See *Denmark*.

FLESH. The eatable part of any animal, as beef and pork; both of which are intitled to a bounty of 5 s. the barrel on exportation, if cured with any ſalt in England, but only with foreign ſalt in Scotland: however, before laid on board for exportation, the caſks are to be marked by the ſalt officer; and if fraudulently relanded or reimported after exportation, the ſame are to be forfeited, and 40 s. *per* barrel.

FLETCHER. A perſon whoſe buſineſs conſiſted in making of bows and arrows; which was a trade much in requeſt formerly, before the invention of guns.

FLETCHERS *company of London*. Though it is only a company by preſcription, and not by charter, has nevertheleſs obtained a coat of arms, and a livery; being, in point of precedence, become the 39th company of the city; and ſeems, in all reſpects, as firmly eſtabliſhed as thoſe incorporated by royal letters-patent.

This fraternity conſiſts of 2 wardens, 10 aſſiſtants, and 25 liverymen, who pay a fine of 10 l. each upon their being admitted; and they have a ſmall, but convenient hall, in St. Mary Axe, where they manage their affairs.

FLIE, or *Fly*. That part of the mariners compaſs, on which the 32 winds are drawn, and over which the needle is faſtened underneath. See *Compaſs*.

FLIE, or *Uly-iſland*, is ſituated on the coaſt of Holland, at the entrance of the Zuider ſea. See *United* Provinces.

FLINT. A ſmall, hard, livid, or black pebble, chiefly uſed for yielding ſparks of fire by colliſion againſt ſteel, particularly in muſkets, guns, and piſtols; but flints are alſo one of the principal ingredients in the making of glaſs. Great quantities of flint-ſtones are ſold by the ironmongers of Shrewſbury, to the people of Wales; and great quantities are exported by the Eaſt India company, as alſo by the African traders.

FLIP. A ſort of ſailor's drink, made of malt liquor, brandy, and ſugar, mixed.

FLITCH. A name given to the ſide of a hog, when cured, dried, and made bacon of, without the head or legs. See *Bacon*.

FLOAT. A certain quantity of pieces of timber, joined together with rafters athwart, thrown into a river, to be conveyed down the ſtream, or to lie in ſome convenient part of the river, to keep them moiſt, and preſerve them from tearing or rending with the heat of the ſun, till they are wanted for making of maſts, building, or other purpoſes; and even ſometimes to carry burdens down a river with the ſtream; the invention of which is of great uſe, and is ſaid to have been firſt put in execution at Paris, in the year 1618.

FLOATING, among farmers, is the letting in of water upon a meadow, or low land, ſo as to overflow. In weaving, it is when ſome of the threads break; ſo that the ſhoot, or warp, is not bound down tight; but, lying up looſe, is ſubject to be eaſily broke.

FLOCK. A large number, or drove, of ſheep, goats, or geeſe.

FLOCKS. Tufts of wool, commonly of the worſt ſort, uſed to ſtuff chairs, or to make ordinary beds. See *Wool*.

FLOOD, is a term uſed in ſpeaking of the tides: ſo when the water is at loweſt, it is called flood; when riſing, young, or old flood; and when at higheſt, and beginning to fall, ebb-water. See *Flux*, and *Tide*.

FLOOK, *Flouk*, or *Fluke*, is the bearded end of an anchor. See *Anchor*.

FLOOR *of a ſhip*, ſtrictly taken, is only ſo much of her bottom as ſhe reſts on when aground. Such ſhips as have long and broad floors, lie on the ground with moſt ſecurity, being not apt to ſeel, or tilt, on one ſide; whereas others, which are narrow in the floor, or, in the ſea-phraſe, cranked by the ground, cannot be grounded without danger of being overturned.

FLOOR-*cloth*, is a cloth painted in oil colours, for covering rooms; which is performed by a particular claſs of painters, called floor-cloth painters. There is a conſiderable manufactory of floor-cloths at Knightſbridge; but they are generally ſold in the turners ſhops.

FLORENCE. The capital of Tuſcany, in Italy, ſituated in 12 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. See *Italy*.

FLORENTINE. A particular kind of marble; the veins of which have a natural reſemblance to houſes, buildings, &c. by ſome called landſcape marble.

FLORES. An iſland of the Azores, ſituated in 32 deg. of W. lon. and 39 deg. of N. lat. in the Atlantic ocean, almoſt in the midway between Europe and America: named from the variety of beautiful flowers its produces. See *Azores*.

FLORES, is alſo an iſland in the Indian ocean. See *Celebes*.

FLORIDA, was a name given by the Spaniards to all the part of the continent of North America, which lies north of the gulph of Mexico, bounded on the eaſt by the Atlantic ocean; which country now goes under many different names; for within theſe limits are contained moſt of the Engliſh colonies in North America, and thoſe countries which the French have denominated Louiſiana, and New France: all that retains the name of Florida, at preſent, being that peninſula between the colony of Georgia and Cape Florida, in 25 and 30 deg. of N. lat. and 81 and 85 deg. of W. lon. The chief and almoſt the only place, the Spaniards are poſſeſſed of within theſe limits, is the port-town of St. Auguſtin, with a fort a little diſtance from it; the town being a very ſmall one, and the fort not able to reſiſt ſuch a force as is uſually employed in ſieges; though it has baffled ſome attempts that have been made to take it by the Engliſh, with a force ſcarce equal to the garriſon, and the want of moſt neceſſaries requiſite for a ſiege. See *Spanish America*, under *Spain*.

FLORIN, is ſometimes uſed for a coin, or real money, and ſometimes for an imaginary money, or money of compt. See *Coin*, and *Money*.

FLORIN, as a coin, is of ſeveral values, according to the different metals and countries where it is ſtruck. Pieces under this denomination were anciently very frequent in commerce; but at preſent they are leſs common, though there were abundance of them ſtruck in Holland, of Engliſh ſilver, during the war which was terminated by the treaty of Ryſwick. In all appearance, they took their name from the city of Florence, where they were firſt ſtruck; and their æra is about the year 1251; though others aſcribe the name to a flower-de-lis, which is ſtruck on one ſide.

The gold florins were moſtly of a very coarſe alloy, and of them not exceeding 13 or 14 carats, and not above and a half, being about 2 dwts, and 13 grains. Some obſerves, that there were gold florins in the year 1252, from which time the names frank, or florin, became applied to the gold coins, which till that time had been called ſolidi, or ſhillings; but now there are none. As to ſilver florins, thoſe of Holland, or the guilder, worth 1 s. 9 d. ſterling; and pieces of 3 florins called ducatoons. See *Ducatoons*.

FLORIN, as a money of accompt, is uſed by the Dutch, and German merchants and bankers, in

eir books, and making up their accompts: but this florin very diverſe, and admits of ſeveral diviſions; becauſe Holland it is on the foot of the Dutch coin of that me, containing 24 deniers groſch, and divided into pards and penings; at Francfort, Nuremberg, and ſome her places in Germany, it is equivalent to three ſhilgs ſterling, and is divided into creutzers and pfennings; Liege it is equivalent to 2 s. 3 d. at Straſburg to 1 s. d. in Savoy to 11 d. at Genoa to 8¼ d. and at Geneva 6½ d.

DRIST. A perſon ſkilled, or delighting, in the ſtudy, ltivation, and nature of all ſorts of flowers.

DTA, or *Flotta*. A name the Spaniards give particuly to the ſhips which they ſend annually from Cadiz to e port of Vera Cruz, to fetch the merchandiſes gathered Mexico for Spain. Thoſe ſent to fetch the commoties prepared in Peru, are called galleons; and the name otilla is given to a number of ſhips, which get before e reſt in their return, to give information of the deriture and cargo of the flota and galleons. See *Fleet*, and *Galleons*.

DTAGES. All ſuch things as are floating on the top the ſea, or great rivers; a word principally uſed in the mmiſſions of water-bailiffs.

DTILLA. See *Flota*.

DTSON, *Flotzam*, or *Floatſam*. A term ſignifying y goods loſt by ſhipwreck, and ſwimming on the top the water; which, with jetſon, lagan, and ſhares, are ven the Lord High Admiral, by his letters-patent. See *Admiral*, *Jetſon*, *Lagan*, *Shares*, and *Wreck*.

DUR, or *Flower*. A powder of ſome ſort of grain, or alſe, ground, and ſifted from the bran. See *Corn*.

DWERED, in the manufactures, is a ſilk, ſtuff, or oth, which is ſaid to be flowered, flouriſhed, ſprigged, figured, when there are repreſentations of flowers, ther natural or imaginary, wrought thereon. There e ſtuffs flowered of almoſt all kinds of matters; as wers of gold, ſilver, ſilk, wool, thread, and cotton; hich ſtuffs and cloths are uſually denominated from the ound whereon the flowers are raiſed: thus, there are wered velvets, taffaties, damaſks, ſattins, mohairs, dimities, and other things; but thoſe flowered with gold d ſilver are more commonly called brocades.

WERS *of ſulphur*, or *Brimſtone*, are the vapours of elted brimſtone conveyed from an iron pot, in which it kept boiling, through a proper flew, into a cloſe room, here this vapour condenſes into flowers. See *Sulphur*.

OWING *of the tide*. See *Flux*.

UE. The ſoft or downy hair of a rabbet, or the feaers of a fowl.

ORES, among miners, a ſort of ſpar, ſoft, and anſparent.

USHING, or *Vliſſingen*. A port-town of the United rovinces, in the province of Zealand, ſituated on the coaſt of the iſland of Walcheren, in 3 deg. 25 min. E. lon. and 51 deg. 33 min. of N. lat. See *United Provinces*.

UTE. A muſical inſtrument; of which there are ſeveral kinds; as concert flute, octave flute, German flute, and others.

YTE, or *Fluyt*, is alſo a kind of long veſſel, with flat ms, or floor-timbers, round behind, and ſwelled in the middle; ſerving chiefly for the carrying of proviſions in eets, or ſquadrons of ſhips; though it is alſo uſed in erchandiſe.

UX, in hydrography, a regular, periodical motion of e ſea, happening twice in twenty-four hours; wherein e water is raiſed, and drawn violently againſt the ſhores: is flux, or flow, being one of the motions of the tide; e other, whereby the water ſinks and retires, being lled the reflux, or ebb. See *Tide*, and *Reflux*.

here is alſo a kind of reſt, or ceſſation, of about half hour, between the flux and reflux; during which the ater is at its greateſt height, called high-water. The x is made by the motion of the water of the ſea, from e equator towards the poles; which, in its proper proſs, ſtriking againſt the coaſts in its way, and meeting th oppoſition from them, ſwells, and, where it can find ſſage, as in flats and rivers, riſes up, and runs into the d. This motion follows, in ſome meaſure, the courſe of the moon; as it loſes, or comes later every day by about three quarters of an hour, or, more preciſely, 48 minutes; and by ſo much is the motion of the moon ſlower than that of the ſun; it is always higheſt and greateſt in the full moons, particularly thoſe of the equinoxes: in ſome parts, as at Mount St. Michael in Cornwal, it riſes 80 or 90 feet; though, in the open ſea, it never riſes above a foot or two; and in ſome places, as about the Morea in the Mediterranean, there is no flux at all. It runs up ſome rivers about 120 miles; and it flows up the river Thames to Kingſton in Surry, which is 80 miles from the ſea. Above London bridge the water flows 4 hours, and ebbs 8; but below the bridge it flows 5 hours, and ebbs 7. See *Tide*, and *Flood*.

FLUX, in chemiſtry, is the reducing metals that by nature are hard and ſolid, to a condition of flowing; when they are ſaid to be in the flux.

FLUX-*powders*, are thoſe prepared to facilitate the fuſion of the harder metals; as alſo to melt oars, in order to diſcover what proportion of metal they contain; and ſuch is powder of antimony, which will readily melt iron, or ſteel, in a crucible, with an ordinary charcoal fire. See *Antimony*, and *Foundery*.

FLY-BOAT. A large veſſel, with a broad bow, uſed by merchants in the coaſting trade; ſome of which are capable of carrying 800 ton of goods.

FLYBUSTER. See *Freebooter*.

FOAL. The colt of a mare or aſs.

FOANG. A ſmall ſilver coin, current at Siam; being the half of the mayon; and 800 coris are given for a foang, which is about 2 d. ſterling.

FODDER, or *Fother*. Any kind of meat for horſes, or other cattle; but, in ſome places, hay and ſtraw mingled together is more peculiarly underſtood by this denomination.

FODDER, is alſo the name of a quantity of lead, which in different places is of different weights; as in London it is 19 hundred, at Newcaſtle 21 hundred, and in Derbyſhire 24 hundred; ſometimes more, and ſometimes leſs, according to the cuſtom of the ſeveral liberties where it is melted or made.

FOGO. One of the Cape Verd iſlands, ſituated in 25 deg. of W. lon. and 15 deg. of N. lat. See Cape *Verd* iſlands.

FOILING, or *Foliating*, is the putting ſomething under real or factitious ſtones or jewels; and in looking-glaſſes it is the ſpreading a compoſition of ſomething that will firmly adhere to the back of the glaſs, and there reflect the image; being uſually made with quickſilver, mixed with ſome other ingredients. See *Glaſs*.

FOINES. A term for the furs, or ſkins, of weazels, and ſome other little animals.

FOLIO, in commerce, ſignifies a leaf, or page.

Merchants, bankers, traders, and all thoſe who are obliged to keep books, uſe this term, particulary in the alphabets of their regiſters, in order to find readily the pages where merchandiſe, or goods, bought and ſold, are ſet down in debit and credit, or where the names of creditor and debtor lie. In merchants ledgers, the double face, or right and left hand opening of the book, are numbered both alike.

In abridging, folio is thus marked, F°; and recto and verſo, R°, V°.

FOLIO is alſo a term uſed by bookſellers, when the printed ſheet is only folded in two, each leaf making half a ſheet.

FOLIO-*Chiroſe*. A medicinal drug, prepared in China, which has a good ſale in Japan.

FOLIUM *Caryophillatum*, or *Clove-leaf*. See *Cloves*.

FOLIUM *Indicum*, or *Indum*, called alſo *Thamalapathra* and *Malabathrum*, is a leaf brought from the Eaſt Indies, growing chiefly about Cambaya in India, produced by a tree not unlike the lemon-tree, uſed in the compoſition of Venice treacle. See *Theriaca*.

The good choice of it conſiſts in being beautiful, large, green, and as entire as poſſible.

FOLKSTONE. A market-town of Kent, on the Engliſh channel, ſituated in 1 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 6 min. of N. lat. 6 miles W. of Dover, of which it is a member.

FOLLICULI *Senæ*. The pods which encloſe the grain,

or ſeed of ſena, eſteemed as purgative as the ſena itſelf. See *Sena*.

FONT. A term given by printers to letters of one ſize, both great and ſmall; together with the points, ſtops, &c. to enable them to compoſe and print a work in that character, called engliſh, pica, brevier, &c. according to the ſize.

FONTARABIA. A port-town of Spain, in the province of Biſcay, ſituated in 1 deg. 35 min. of W. lon. and 43 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. at the mouth of the river Bideſſoa, on the bay of Biſcay, and on the frontiers of France. See *Spain*.

FONWA. A drug for dying ſcarlet, met with at Suez in Egypt, and its neighbourhood, making one of the merchandiſes of the royal ſhip, which ſails yearly, upon the Grand Signior's account, from Mocha in Arabia.

FOOL. A weight and meaſure uſed among the tinners in Cornwal, from 50 to 80 pounds weight, according to the goodneſs of the metal.

FOOT. A long meaſure, conſiſting of 12 inches in England; but is of different lengths in different countries; for the Paris royal foot exceeds the Engliſh by 7 lines, or 7-12ths of an inch: the antient Roman foot of the capitol conſiſted of 4 palms, equal to 11 inches and 7-10ths Engliſh; the Rhinland, or Leyden foot, by which the northern nations meaſure, is to the Roman foot, as 950 to 1000: but the proportions of the principal feet of ſeveral nations, compared with the Engliſh and French, are ſubjoined. See *Meaſure*.

The Engliſh foot being divided into 1000 parts, or into inches, the other feet will be as follow.

	Th. pts.	foot.	inc.	lines.
London foot -	1000	0	12	0
Paris, the royal foot	1068	1	0	8
Amſterdam foot -	942	1	11	3
Antwerp foot -	946	0	11	2
Dort foot - -	1184	0	2	2
Rhinland, or Leyden foot	1033	1	0	4
Lorrain foot -	958	0	11	4
Mechlin foot -	919	0	11	0
Middleburg foot -	991	0	11	9
Straſburg foot -	920	0	11	0
Bremen foot -	964	0	11	6
Cologn foot -	954	0	11	4
Francfort foot -	948	0	11	4
Spaniſh foot -	1001	0	11	0
Toledo foot -	899	0	10	7
Roman foot -	967	0	11	9
Bononia foot -	1204	1	2	4
Mantua foot -	1569	1	6	8
Venice foot -	1162	1	1	9
Dantzic foot -	944	0	11	9
Copenhagen foot	965	0	11	6
Prague foot - -	1026	1	0	3
Riga foot -	1831	1	9	9
Turin foot - -	1062	1	0	7
The Greek foot	1007	1	0	1
Paris foot, by Dr. Bernard	1066	1	0	1
Old Roman foot -	970	0	0	0

And the Paris foot being ſuppoſed to contain 1440 parts, the reſt will be as follow.

Venetian foot	$1540\frac{2}{5}$	Conſtantinopolitan foot -	3120
Paris foot	1440	Bononian foot	$1682\frac{2}{5}$
Rhinland foot	1391	Straſburg foot	$1282\frac{3}{4}$
Roman foot	1320	Norimberg foot	$1346\frac{1}{4}$
London foot	1350	Dantzic foot	$1721\frac{1}{2}$
Swediſh foot	1320	Hall foot -	1320
Daniſh foot	1403		

FOOT *hooks*. See *Futtocks*.

FORAGE. Proviſion for horſes, ſuch as corn, hay, or ſtraw.

FORBEARANCE, is a term given to the premium paid for the uſe of a ſum of money, called *forbearance-money*. See *Premium*.

FORBISHER's *ſtraits*. See *Frobiſher*'s ſtraits.

FORE-BOLTS. Iron pins made with an eye at each end, into which an iron forelock or key is driven, to prevent its ſtarting; particularly uſed in ſhip-building, to keep the timbers firm.

FORECASTLE *of a ſhip*, is that part where the fore-maſt ſtands, being divided from the reſt of the floor by a bulk-head; but that part of the fore-caſtle which is aloft, and not in the hold, is called the *prow*. See *Ship*, and *Prow*.

FOREFOOT, in the ſea-language, is when one veſſel ſails, or lies, acroſs the way of another; as if two ſhips being under ſail, and in ken of one another; one of them lies in a courſe with her ſo much a-weather of the other, that if both hold on, the windward ſhip will run a-head of the other: and ſuch ſhip is ſaid to lie with the fore-foot of the other; though, as ſoon as ſhe has paſſed, they ſay ſhe is gone out a head.

FOREIGN. Something extraneous, or that comes from another kingdom or dominion.

FOREIGN, or *Foraign traitte*, is a duty belonging to the King of France, of one twentieth of the value of all goods imported or exported into or out of the kingdom.

FORE-*knight*, in the ſea-language, a piece of wood, carved in the figure of a human head, and faſt bolted to the beams upon the ſecond deck.

FORELAND, or *Foreneſs*, in navigation, a point of land jutting out into the ſea; ſuch as the north and ſouth foreland in Kent. See *Cape*.

FORELOCKS, in a ſhip, are little flat wedges, like pieces of iron, uſed at the ends of bolts, to keep them from flying out of the holes.

FOREMAN, in trade, is a principal workman ſet over the others, both to direct and govern them.

FORE-*maſt of a ſhip*, is a round large piece of timber, ſtanding in the fore-part, on which the fore-ſail, and fore-top-ſail yard, are borne; the length of it being uſually one eighth of the main-maſt. See *Maſt*.

FORE-*ſail*. The ſail of the fore-maſt. See *Sail*.

FOREST. A certain territory of woody grounds, and fruitful paſtures, privileged for wild beaſts, and fowls of foreſt, chace, and warren, to reſt and abide in the ſafe protection of the King, for his diverſion. The antient Norman monarchs were the firſt who incloſed foreſts in England; which they did in ſo deſtructive a manner that the new foreſt in Hampſhire was raiſed by the depopulation of 22 pariſh-churches, and all the villages, manors, churches, chapels, and other places, for 30 miles together: however, though it was at that time extremely prejudicial to the inhabitants of England, it has conferred the greateſt advantages on their poſterity, by affording them ſuch valuable quantities of timber for the royal navy, as to render them the moſt formidable maritime people that ever contended for the dominion of the ſea: and beſide New Foreſt, there are now ſubſiſting 67 foreſts in England, 13 chaſes, and 781 parks, all well repleniſhed with timber for navigation. See *Tree*, and *Timber*.

FORE-*ſtaff*, or *Croſs-ſtaff*. An inſtrument uſed at ſea, for taking the altitudes of heavenly bodies; which has this denomination, becauſe the obſerver, in uſing it, turns his face towards the object, in contradiſtinction to back-ſtaff, where he turns his back to the object. See *Altitude*, and *Back-ſtaff*.

This inſtrument conſiſts of a ſtraight, ſquare, graduated ſtaff, with four croſſes, or vanes, ſliding thereon: the firſt, and ſhorteſt, of theſe vanes, is called the *ten croſs*, or *vane*, and belongs to that ſide of the inſtrument whereon the diviſions begin at 3 degrees, and end at 10: the next longer vane is called the *thirty croſs*, belonging to that ſide of the ſtaff, whereon the diviſions begin at 10 degrees, and end at 30, called the *thirty ſcale*: the third vane is called the *ſixty croſs*, and belongs to the ſide where the diviſions begin at 20 degrees, and end at 60: and the laſt, called the *ninety croſs*, belongs to the ſide where the diviſions begin at 30 degrees, and end at 90.

The great uſe of this inſtrument, is to take the height of the ſun and ſtars, or the diſtance of two ſtars: and the ten, thirty, ſixty, or ninety croſſes, are to be uſed according as the altitude is greater or leſſer, that is, if the altitude be leſs than 10 degrees, the ten croſſes is to be uſed; if above 10, but leſſer than 30, the thirty croſs is to be uſed; and ſo of the other two: but for altitudes greater than 60 degrees, this inſtrument is not ſo convenient as a quadrant, or ſemicircle. See *Quadrant*.

RESTALLING. The buying or bargaining for corn, ttle, or other merchandiſe, by the way, before it aches the market, or fair, to be ſold; or by the way, it comes beyond the ſeas, or otherwiſe, towards any ty, port, haven, or creek, of the realm, with deſign take advantage thereof, and ſell it again at a more adnced, and extenſive rate. See *Monopoly*.

y an old Engliſh ſtatute, it was enjoined, that no forealler ſhould be ſuffered to dwell in any town, who maifeſtly was an oppreſſor of the poor, a public enemy of e country, who meeting grain, fiſh, herring, or other ings coming to be ſold, ſhould buy them before other; irſting after wicked gain, oppreſſing the poor, and deceivg the rich; and by that means ſhould go about to ſell e ſaid things much dearer than he who brought them; ho ſhould come about merchant-ſtrangers, and offer em his help in the ſale of their wares, and inform them at they might ſell their wares dearer than they meant have done: he that was convicted thereof, the firſt me ſhould be amerced, and ſhould loſe the thing ſo ught, according to the cuſtom of the town: he that as convicted the ſecond time, ſhould have judgment of e pillory: the third time he ſhould be impriſoned and nſomed: the fourth time he ſhould abjure the town, d likewiſe they who gave him counſel, help, or faur.

y the ſtatute of the 6th of Edward VI. it was enacted, hat whoſoever ſhould buy any merchandiſe, or victuals, ming toward any fair or market to be ſold in the ſame, coming toward any city, port, creek, or road of the alm, or Wales, from beyond ſea to be ſold, or ſhould make y bargain for having the ſame before the ſaid merchanſe or victuals ſhould be in the market, ready to be ſold; ſhould make any motion for inhauncing the price, or ould move any perſon coming to the market to forbear bring the things to be ſold, he ſhould be judged a foreller.

hat whoſoever ſhould regrate, or get into his hands, in y fair or market, any corn, wine, fiſh, butter, cheeſe, ndles, tallow, ſheep, or other dead victuals, that ſhould brought to fair or market to be ſold, and ſell the ſame ain in any fair or market within four miles, ſhould be reted a regrator.

hat whatſoever perſon ſhould ingroſs, by buying or proiſe, taking, other than by leaſe of land or tithe, any rn growing, or other corn, butter, cheeſe, fiſh, or her dead victuals, within England, to the intent to ſell e ſame again, ſhould be reputed an unlawful ingroſſer.

hat if any perſon ſhould offend in the things before reed, and be thereof convicted, he ſhould for the firſt fence ſuffer two months impriſonment, and ſhould alſo feit the value of the goods ſo bought.

hat if any perſon convicted ſhould be thereof eſtſoons nvicted, he ſhould ſuffer impriſonment for one half ar, and ſhould loſe the double value of the goods.

hat if any perſon, twice convicted of the ſaid offences, ould offend the third time, and be thereof convicted, ſhould be ſet on the pillory near his dwelling-place, feit all his goods, and alſo be committed to priſon ring the King's pleaſure.

ESTIERI. A term of the *Linguo-Franco* at Cairo, d Alexandria, in Egypt, to ſignify linen made after the nner of Dutch cloth.

GE. A little furnace, wherein ſmiths and other artiers heat their metals red hot, to ſoften and render them re malleable, and manageable on the anvil: but this m is more properly uſed for a kind of furnace, wherein iron oar, melted down and ſeparated in a former nace, and there caſt into ſows and pigs, is heated, ed over again, and beaten with large hammers; ereby it is rendered more ſoft, pure, ductile, and fit for ; of which there are two kinds, that the iron ſucceſly paſſes through, before it comes to the ſmith; the t called the *finary*, where the pigs are worked into groſs n, and prepared for the ſecond, which is called the *ſery*, where it is further wrought into bars fit for uſe. *Iron*.

E, is alſo to faſhion, or make a thing, in iron, or er metal, by heating and hammering it. See *Forging*.

FORGE-*mills*. See the article *Mill*.

FORGERY ſignifies a fraudulent making, and publiſhing, of falſe writings, to the prejudice of the right of another perſon; which was ſo detrimental to the enjoyment of property, and the ſecurity of trade, that ſuch offenders were, by the ſtatute of the 5th of Queen Elizabeth, to be ſet upon the pillory, and there have both their ears cut off, and their noſtrils ſlit and ſeared; beſides which, they were to forfeit to the government the whole iſſues and profits of their lands during their life, and to ſuffer perpetual impriſonment.

But, in ſucceeding reigns, this pernicious practice was carried to ſuch a pitch of atrocity, that more rigorous penalties were neceſſary for the prevention of ſuch enormous evils, and the abolition of ſuch ſecret iniquity, not otherwiſe to be guarded againſt; aad accordingly, by the ſtatute of the 8th of George I. it was enacted, That if any perſon ſhould forge, or counterfeit, or procure to be forged or counterfeited, or knowingly and willingly aſſiſt in the forging and counterfeiting, any letter of attorney, or other authority or inſtrument, to transfer any ſhare in a capital ſtock eſtabliſhed by parliament, or to receive any dividend attending ſuch ſhares, or annuity, in reſpect whereof the proprietors had ſuch ſhares; or ſhould forge or counterfeit the name of any of the proprietors of ſuch ſhares, annuities, or dividends, to any ſuch inſtrument; or ſhould knowingly and fraudulently demand, or endeavour to have ſuch ſhares transferred, or ſuch annuities or dividends received by ſuch forged authority; or ſhould falſely and deceitfully perſonate any of the proprietors of the ſaid ſhares, annuities, or dividends, thereby transferring, or endeavouring to transfer, the ſtock; or receiving, or endeavouring to receive, the money of ſuch proprietor; every ſuch perſon ſhould be guilty of felony, without benefit of clergy.

By the ſtatute of the 12th of George I. it was enacted, That if any perſon ſhould forge, procure to be forged, or willingly aſſiſt in the forging, the name or hand of the accomptant-general, the regiſter, or the clerk of the report-office, belonging to the court of chancery, or any of the caſhiers of the bank, to any certificate, report, inſtrument, or writing, in order to the receiving any money or effects of any of the ſuitors of the court of chancery; or ſhould forge any bond under the ſeal of the Eaſt India company, or any indorſement or aſſignment thereon; or on any bond under the ſeal of the South-ſea company; or ſhould utter or publiſh any ſuch, knowing the ſame to be forged, with intention to defraud any perſon; every perſon ſo offending ſhould be guilty of felony, without benefit of clergy.

By the ſtatute of the 2d of George II. it was enacted, That if any perſon ſhould forge, cauſe to be forged, or willingly aſſiſt in the forging any deed, will, bond, writing-obligatory, bill of exchange, promiſſory note for payment of money, or any indorſement or aſſignment thereon, or any acquittance or receipt for money or goods, with intention to defraud any perſon; or ſhould utter or publiſh the ſame, knowing the ſame to be falſe; they ſhould be guilty of felony, without benefit of clergy. But this act was not extended to Scotland; nor does the attainder work corruption of blood: however, it was revived, and made perpetual by the 9th of George II.

By the ſtatute of the 4th of George II. reciting, That there being treaties ſubſiſting between the King and the ſeveral governments of Barbary, by which it was ſtipulated, that all ſhips belonging to his Majeſty or his ſubjects, might paſs the ſeas, and enter into the harbours of thoſe governments, without any ſeizure or moleſtation, upon producing paſſes of a certain form, under the hand and ſeal of the lords of the admiralty, called Mediterranean paſſes: It was therefore enacted, That if any perſon ſhould forge any ſuch paſs, for any ſhip; or ſhould alter or eraſe any ſuch paſs, or publiſh the ſame, knowing it to be forged; every ſuch perſon being convicted in Great Britain, Ireland, or the plantations, where ſuch offence ſhould be committed, ſhould be guilty of felony, without benefit of clergy.

By the ſtatute of the 7th of George II. it was enacted, That if any perſon forge, falſely make, or alter, any ac-

ceptance of any bill of exchange, or the number or principal ſum of any accomptable receipt for any note, bill, or other ſecurity for money; or any warrant or order for payment of money, or delivery of goods, with any intention to defraud any perſon, or ſhould aſſiſt therein, or ſhould publiſh the ſame, knowing it to be ſo; every ſuch perſon ſhould be guilty of felony, without benefit of clergy. Beſides the penalty of theſe ſtatutes, it is made felony without benefit of clergy, to forge bank-notes, and exchequer-bills, or orders, by the ſeveral acts of parliament relating to thoſe ſecurities: yet ſuch is the flagrancy of the age, that villains are deſperate enough to continue theſe abominable practices in defiance of the law, contempt of ſociety, and diſregard of their own lives.

FORGING, in the mechanic arts, the art of beating or hammering iron on an anvil, after having firſt made it red hot in the forge; to extend it into various forms, and faſhion it into works. Iron is hammered, and forged, two ways: either by the force of the hand; in which there are uſually ſeveral perſons employed, one of them turning the iron, and hammering likewiſe, and the reſt only hammering: or by the force of a water-mill, which riſes, and works ſeveral huge hammers, beyond the force of man, under the ſtrokes whereof the workmen preſent huge lumps or pieces of iron, which are ſuſtained at one end by the anvils, and at the other by iron chains faſtened to the cieling of the forge; but this laſt way of forging is only uſed in the largeſt works, as anchors for ſhips, which uſually weigh ſeveral hundred weight.

FORLE. A copper coin, ſtruck and current in Egypt, eight of which are worth about a penny ſterling.

FORMENTERA. See *Spaniſh* iſlands.

FORMOSA. An iſland in the Pacific ocean, ſituated between 119 and 122 degrees of E. lon. and between 22 and 25 degrees of N. lat. 100 miles eaſt of the province of Fokien and Canton in China, and ſubject to the ſovereign of that empire. See *Chineſe* iſlands.

FORTAVENTURA. One of the Canary iſlands, ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, in 14 deg. of W. lon. and 27 deg. of N. lat. See *Canary* iſlands.

FORTH, is one of the largeſt rivers in Scotland, antiently called Bodotria; which riſes near the bottom of Leimon-hill, and runs from eaſt to weſt, diſchargiug itſelf into the frith of Forth, which forms the harbour of Leith, near Edinburgh.

FOSSIL, in natural hiſtory, is uſed, in a general ſenſe, for any thing dug up, or found under ground; which are divided into ſimple, and compound; the former being all metals, ſalts, ſtones, both vulgar and precious, and earths; the latter being all ſulphurs, all ſemi-metals, or what is properly called minerals, and all bodies combined out of any two or more of the preceding, either ſimple or compound foſſils.

FOTAS. A ſort of wearing apparel, uſed by the women of the iſland of Java, and brought ready made from the coaſt of Coromandel, Bengal, and Surat: which makes a conſiderable part of the Dutch Batavia trade, as alſo of the Javaneſe.

FOTHER. See *Fodder*.

FOTTALONGEES. A ſtriped Indian ſtuff, mixed with ſilk and the bark of trees.

FOTTES. A cotton cloth chequered, brought from the Eaſt Indies, particularly from Bengal; the piece being one ell and a half in length, and 7-8ths in breadth.

FOUANG. A weight uſed in the kingdom of Siam; 2 fouangs make 1 mayon, and 4 mayons 1 tical, which weighs about half an ounce avoirdupoiſe weight.

FOUANG, is alſo a coin of the ſame kingdom, being the 8th of a tical, and worth 800 coris. See *Coris*.

FOUL, in the ſea-language, is uſed when a ſhip has been long untrimmed; ſo that graſs, weeds, periwinckles, barnacles, or the like, ſtick or grow to her ſides, under water: in which ſtate ſhe is ſaid to be foul.

A rope is likewiſe ſaid to be foul, when it is either entangled in itſelf, or hindered by another; ſo that it cannot run, or be haled.

A ſhip is alſo ſaid to make *foul water*; when being under ſail, ſhe comes into ſuch ſhoal, or low-water, that tho' her keel does not touch the ground, yet ſhe comes ſo near it, that the motion of the water under her r a mud from the bottom, and ſo fouls the water.

FOUNDER. An artiſt that melts or caſts metals into rious forms, for ſeveral uſes; as bells, ſtatues, bo types, or printing characters; beſides other ſmall wo as candleſticks, buckles, and other things; who are ferently denominated, from their different works or ductions, as founders of ſmall works, bell-founders, founders, letter-founders, and figure-caſters. See *dery*.

FOUNDER, in the ſea-language. A ſhip is ſaid to fou at ſea, when, by an extraordinary leak, or a great breaking in upon her, ſhe is ſo filled with water, ſhe cannot be freed of it; nor is able to ſwim it, but ſinks with the weight thereof.

FOUNDERS *company of London*, was incorporated by le patent of the 12th of King James I. dated the 14 September 1614, by the name of The maſter, wa and commonalty, of the myſtery of founders of the of London.

They conſiſt of a maſter, 2 wardens, 24 aſſiſtants, 132 liverymen, who pay a fine of 8l. 7s. 6d. when mitted; and they have a convenient hall in Lothb wherein they manage their affairs.

To prevent all frauds in the making and marking weights, all makers of braſs weights within the ci London, and three miles thereof, are obliged to hav ſeveral weights ſized by the company's ſtandard, marked with their common mark; and ſuch of the works as are of avoirdupoiſe, to be ſealed at the G hall of the city, and thoſe of troy at Goldſmiths- The company, by their charter, are alſo impower view and ſearch all braſs-weights, and braſs and c wares, within the diſtrict aforeſaid.

FOUNDERY, or *Foundry*. The art of melting, and ing, all ſorts of metals; particularly braſs, iron, bell-metal; but the word is alſo uſed for a place, work-houſe, furniſhed with furnaces, or forges, for purpoſe.

FOWEY, or *Foy*. A port-town of Cornwal, ſituate 5 deg. of W. lon. and 50 deg. 26 min. of N. lat.

FOWL, in its general ſenſe, is of equal import with b but is, in a more particular manner, underſtood poultry, or the larger ſort of birds, both domeſtic wild, either bred up, or hunted, for the table; ſuch turkeys, geeſe, cocks, hens, and ducks, both wild tame; pheaſants, partridges, ſnipes, and ſome others Tame fowl are a neceſſary part of the ſtock of a cou farm, yielding conſiderable ſervice, and profit, by eggs, brood, feathers, and dung. The oldeſt hea always the beſt for ſitting, and the youngeſt for la but no ſort will be good for either, if kept too fat. beſt age to ſet a hen for chickens, is from two year to five, and the moſt proper month to ſet them in is bruary; though it may be done, to good purpoſe, time between that and Michaelmas; one cock will ten hens; and a hen ſits 20 days; whereas geeſe, d and turkies, ſit thirty. Buck wheat, or French w or hempſeed, will make them lay faſter than any food; and the ſame buck wheat, either whole or gro and made into a paſte, fats them apace; though common food for that purpoſe is barley-meal, or w flour, ſoaked in milk or water, made into a paſte, crammed down their throats twice a day, till they hold no more.

The lighteſt coloured geeſe are the beſt; and thoſe begin to lay the ſooneſt, as they have a chance of h ing twice in one year: they begin to lay in the ſp and lay 12 or 16 eggs; though they will ſcarcely ſ any but their own; whereas a hen will ſit indiffer on all. Green geeſe are begun to be fattened at a m old, and will be fat in a month more; but old gee chiefly fattened at 6 months old, in or after the ha See *Feathers*.

FOWLING *piece*. A portable fire-arm, for the ſho of birds; of which thoſe are reputed the beſt that the longeſt barrel; as from five feet and a half, t with an indifferent bore under the harquebuſs; th for different occaſions, they ſhould be of different

nd ſizes: but, in all, it is eſſential the barrel be well po-iſhed, and ſmooth within; and the bore all of a bigneſs, rom one end to the other; which may be proved by hruſting in a piece of wood, cut exactly to the bore of he muzzle, down to the touch-hole,

ACTION. A rent in a piece of cloth.

AIGHT. See *Freight*.

AIL. A baſket made of ruſhes, or the like matter, wherein o pack up figs, raiſins, and ſuch kind of commodities.

AIL, alſo denotes a certain quantity of raiſins, being bout 75 lb.

AMES, are engines for the making and knitting of tockings, gloves, and other things: but they are not to be xported out of Great Britain, upon forfeiture, and 40 l.

AMEWORK-*knitter*, is the ſame as a ſtocking-weaver.

AMEWORK-*knitters*, or *Stocking-weavers*, *company of Lon-on*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 15th of Charles II. dated the 19th of Auguſt 1663, by the name f The maſter, wardens, aſſiſtants, and ſociety, of the rt and myſtery of framework-knitters in the cities of London and Weſtminſter, the kingdom of England, and ominion of Wales; which is a company conſiſting of a naſter, 2 wardens, 18 aſſiſtants, and 58 liverymen, whoſe fine for the livery is 10 l. They have a ſmall, but onvenient hall, in Red-croſs-ſtreet, to diſpatch their af-airs in.

ANC *Language*, or *Lingua Franca*, is a kind of jargon, oke on the Mediterranean, and particularly throughout he coaſts and ports of the Levant; compoſed of Italian, paniſh, French, vulgar Greek, and other languages. The Lingua Franca is the trading language; and is thus alled from the Franks, a common appellation given in he Levant to all the European merchants and traders, who come thither to traffic. In this language, if it may e honoured with ſuch an appellation, nothing but the in-initive mood of each verb is uſed, which ſerves for all the enſes and moods of the conjugation; and yet this lame, nutilated diction, this barbarous medley, is learned and nderſtood by the merchants and mariners of all nations reſorting to this ſeat of diſſonance.

ANC, or *Frank*, alſo denotes an antient coin, ſtruck, and urrent in France; thus called from its impreſſion, which epreſented a Frenchman, ſometimes on horſeback, and ometimes on foot, being either of gold or ſilver: the ormer was worth ſomewhat more than the ecu d'or, r gold crown; and the latter was a third of the former; ut this money has been long diſuſed: however, the erm franc is ſtill retained as the name of a money of ac-ompt; in which ſenſe it is equivalent to a livre, 20 ols, or 1-3d of a French crown, or $9\frac{3}{4}$ d. ſterling; and hus they ſay indifferently, a hundred franks, or a hun-red livres. See *Money*, and *Livre*.

ANCS, *Franks*, *Frankis*, or *Franquis*. A name which he Turks, Arabs, Greeks, and Armenians, give to all he inhabitants of the weſtern parts of Europe; which ppellation is commonly ſuppoſed to have had its riſe in ſia, at the time of the croiſades, when the French made he moſt conſiderable figure amongſt the croiſees; from hence the Turks, Saracens, Greeks, and Abyſſinians, ſed it as a common term for all the Chriſtians of Europe, nd even extended it ſo far as to call Europe by the name f Frankiſton.

ANCE, is a large and populous kingdom, bounded by he Britiſh channel, and the Netherlands, towards the orth; by Germany, Switzerland, Savoy, and Italy, on he eaſt; by the Mediterranean, and Spain, on the ſouth; nd by the Atlantic ocean, on the weſt; extending rom the 42d to the 51ſt degree of N. lat. and taking up bove 11 deg. of lon. the moſt eaſterly part of Provence ying 7 degrees to the eaſtward of London, and the moſt weſterly part of Bretagne 4 degrees odd minutes to the weſtward; the whole extent being 600 miles in length, nd 500 in breadth.

rance abounds with towns and villages, being ſo well nhabited in the reign of Charles IX. in 1564, that above 0 millions of perſons contributed to the poll-tax; and, ac-cording to the computation of Cardinal Richlieu, this ation can raiſe 600,000 foot, and 150,000 horſe: but he perſecution of the Proteſtants, war, and famine, have diminiſhed their numbers to 15 millions of inhabitants, and impoveriſhed their finances.

The general income of France from land, trade, and manufacture, in times of peace, and before the perſecution of that kingdom, amounted to 110,000,000 of livres; but the interruption of trade, and the expulſion of the Proteſtants, ſunk the annual income to 77 millions of livres: however, by additional impoſts ſince the treaty of Utrecht, the French monarch, at the commencement of the laſt war with the Britiſh nation, enjoyed an annual revenue of 267,924,130 livres, or 13,396,206 l. ſterling, ariſing by the tailles, capitations, free gifts, tenths, aids, gabelles, and other caſual revenues; the aids being the duties and cuſtoms on all goods and merchandiſes except ſalt; and the gabelles are the taxes ariſing from ſalt. The circulating coin of the kingdom, in 1683, might amount to about 500 millions of livres: at preſent it may be about 1200 millions, according to the judicious Mr. Voltaire; which, if he means livres, muſt be greatly too much, as, according to the preſent ſtandard-valuation of money, it amounts to 48,750,000 l. ſterling: but the computation of the preſent time is almoſt double what it was in the time of Colbert; ſo that France is not above a ſixth richer in ſpecie ſince the death of that miniſter. The French army, in May 1748, conſiſted of 453 battalions, and 411 ſquadrons, being 395,382 men, whoſe annual pay amounted to more than five millions ſterling. The maritime forces of France were inconſiderable till the reign of Lewis XIV.; but, notwithſtanding the great augmentation of her navy, France was never able, at any time before the late war, to equip a fleet of more than 45 ſhips of the line, 67 frigates, and 55 gallies: beſides, France has little ſtore of timber proper for navigation, moſt of her ſhips being purchaſed of other nations; and, conſequently, were ſhe, by ſome inſtant blow, ſuch as was given to her by Admiral Ruſſel in 1692, to be deprived of her navy, the loſs would be almoſt irreparable, at leaſt it would be certainly ſo during the continuance of a war; which was ſufficiently manifeſt in the year 1748, when it appeared that the French had loſt 2185 ſhips during the war; and among theſe were 22 ſhips of the line, with 23 frigates, beſides ſloops of war: ſo that the whole royal navy of France was then reduced to two ſhips of 80 guns, ten of 74, two of 70, three of 64, three of 60, five of 60, two of 54, and four of 50, being 31 ſhips of the line, beſides 7 frigates; but of theſe, ſeven were old and unſerviceable: however, the French have been ſo vigilant in repairing their navy, that, by a liſt publiſhed in June 1751, it appears to have conſiſted at that time of 48 ſhips of the line, beſides 28 frigates. But this was not an authentic liſt of the whole navy of France; for they had, at the ſame time, ſeveral other capital ſhips in Rochefort, and other ports; beſides, they had 30 more capital ſhips on the ſtocks in France, and ſeveral others building in Canada; which the French were determined not only to ſupport, but they have been ever ſince increaſing their marine annually; ſo that a hard ſtruggle may be hereafter neceſſary to decide the ſovereignty of the ocean.

The legiſlative, as well as executive power in France, is ſolely veſted in the King; his edicts being of equal force with the Britiſh acts of parliament; and he appoints the judges and officers who are to put them into execution. Nothing of conſequence, in relation to the government, was formerly decreed or enacted, but by the conſent of the three eſtates, conſiſting of the repreſentatives of the clergy, the nobility, and third eſtate; but theſe aſſemblies are entirely laid aſide, having never been convened ſince the year 1614.

The common people of France are as little conſiderable in the government, as the children; ſo that the nobility and ſoldiers may, in a manner, be eſteemed the nation, whoſe intereſt and hopes carry them all to war; and whatever is the general humour and bent of a nation, ought ever to be much conſidered by a ſtate, which can hardly miſcarry in the purſuit of it.

The admiral of France is general of the royal blood, and takes cogniſance of all offences committed therein; he alſo conſtitutes the members of the admiralty, who adminiſter

miniſter juſtice, in his name, concerning all controverſies at ſea, either relating to war, the fiſheries, or merchandiſe; and he has a right to a tenth of the prizes taken at ſea: however, the King, at preſent, reſerves to himſelf the power of appointing the officers concerned in building and fitting out the fleet, as alſo in buying in proviſions and ammunition for the naval arſenals and magazines. The admirals had formerly a right to wrecks; but Lewis XIV. by an ordinance in 1681, decreed, that they ſhould be reſtored to the owners, if claimed within a year and a day, after charges paid. Prizes are adjudged by the admiral, and commiſſioners appointed by the King; the admiral having under him two vice-admirals, who are uſually marſhals of France; and under him are generally the lieutenants-general of the royal navy, who have the precedence of commanders of ſquadrons, and give them orders, which they communicate to the inferior officers: but there are eleven commanders of ſquadrons, who hold the ſame rank as the marſhals de camp at land. The captains of men of war are the next to the commanders of ſquadrons, and when they ſerve on ſhore have the ſame rank as colonels: though there are actually in France 170 captains of men of war, and 53 captains of frigates; and of all kinds of commiſſion-officers, not leſs than 1800, excluſive of the commanders of ſquadrons, and notwithſtanding the leſſer number of their martial ſhips. In time of war, there are 900 guards marine, diſtributed in three companies, at Toulon, Breſt, and Rochefort, who are gentlemen volunteers, taught navigation, and other parts of the mathematics, at the royal charge, out of whom the vacant commanders are ſupplied: beſides which, his Majeſty entertains 100 companies of marines, of 100 men each, commanded by the lieutenants of the men of war; and it appeared, in the year 1713, that there were 52,544 ſeamen employed in the royal navy, beſides officers, and a great number of workmen in their ports and magazines, employed in making and providing naval ſtores; as alſo upwards of 1200 invalids, with 10,000 cabin-boys. The royal navy is diſtributed in the ports of Toulon, Breſt, Port-Louis, Rochefort, and Havre-de-Grace; where there are magazines filled with all manner of neceſſaries and ammunition for building and rigging out a fleet: but in every port where the King has a magazine, there is an intendant of the marine, who takes cogniſance of civil and criminal cauſes, as alſo of the revenues relating to the ſea-ſervice, and takes care to furniſh the magazines with all manner of ſtores.

The galleys of France are another conſiderable force, of which there are thirty in the port of Marſeilles, and ten more in other ports. The general is ſtiled, *General of the galleys, and Lieutenant-General of the Levant ſeas*; having under him a lieutenant-general, and five commanders of ſquadrons; and, before the year 1748, was independent of the admiral; but in that year it was annexed to the admiralty. The principal galley, where the general goes on board, is called the *Reale*, on account of the royal ſtandard which it carries; the ſecond galley is called the *Patron*, in which the lieutenant-general commands; theſe two galleys being larger than the reſt, and having 300 ſlaves on board each; whereas the other galleys have only 200: but, beſides the crew, every galley has a company, conſiſting of 60 men, commanded by the officers of the galley. There is alſo a company of young gentlemen belonging to the galleys, called The guards of the ſtandard, who are inſtructed in navigation, at the royal expence. There are alſo belonging to the galleys, an intendant, inſpector, comptroller, commiſſary-general, ſecretary-general, and two treaſurers-general.

The guards of the coaſt are commanded by their proper officers on all the ſhores of the kingdom; being inſtituted to prevent any ſurpriſe from an enemy, who ſhould attempt to invade or harraſs the maritime provinces: they are exempted from ſerving in the ban, and the arrear-ban, which are the ordinary militia of France, and enjoy many other privileges, on account of their being always in readineſs, to prevent a deſcent from a foreign enemy; but they are ſubject to the admiral of the royal navy.

The ſituation of this kingdom is quite convenient for correſponding with the reſt of the world; the Britiſh channel waſhing all its northern ſhores, the Atlantic ocean its weſtern coaſts, and the Mediterranean the ſouth: therefore no country can be better ſituated for the advancement of trade and navigation. It is alſo extremely well watered with navigable rivers; the principal of which are the Loire, which falls into the ocean 40 miles below Nantz; the Rhone, which falls into the Mediterranean below Arles; the Garonne, which falls into the Bay of Biſcay, 15 leagues below Bourdeaux; and the Seine, which falls into the Britiſh channel, near Havre-de-Grace; beſides, ſince the French have been in poſſeſſion of Alſace, they have had the navigation of the Rhine, which for ſome hundred miles ſeparates their dominions from Germany.

Theſe rivers are indeed for the moſt part the work of nature; but their canals are the proper praiſe of the art and induſtry of the inhabitants of France; being equally deſerving of admiration, on account of their grandeur and contrivance, as for their utility to trade in lowering the price of carriage: among theſe, that of Languedoc, and the two canals of Orleans and Briare, are worthy to be particularly mentioned; for, by means of the former, a communication is opened between Bourdeaux and Marſeilles, with the Ocean and the Mediterranean, without paſſing through the ſtreights of Gibraltar, and coaſting along Portugal and Spain: and, by virtue of the latter, an eaſy intercourſe is maintained between all the great towns ſituated on the Seine and the Loire. But, beſides theſe, there are ſeveral other canals, and many more ſtill intended to be made, greatly advantageous to the commerce of France. Nor are their excellent roads, for travelling by land, of leſs ſingular advantage to their trade; their great roads being always in good order, and always carried on in a ſtreight line, where the nature of the ground will permit; which are made at a moſt prodigious expence; and yet there is no payment for turnpikes from one end of the kingdom to the other, each province being obliged to make and repair their own roads.

France is at preſent divided into 36 provinces, or general governments, which ordinarily go under the name of generalities; being the general government of Paris, of the iſle of France, Picardy, Champagne, Lyonois, Guyenne, Gaſcony, Burgundy, Dauphine, Limoſin, Provence, Languedoc, the government du Foix, Navarre and Bearne, Saintonge and Angomois, Aums, Bretagne, Normandy, Havre-de-Grace, Maine, and Perche, Orleanois, Nivernois, Bourbonois, Auvergne, La Marche, the government of Berry, Touraine, Anjou, Saumur, the Netherlands, Metz, and Verdun, Toul, Alſace, Franche Compte, and Rouſſillon; the commerce of which, both inland and maritime, is as follows; except the French Netherlands, which are done under the general article of *Netherlands*. See *Netherlands*.

Inland places of trade.

Paris, and the iſle of France. The city of *Paris*, the largeſt, the moſt populous, and the metropolis of the kingdom of France, is ſituated in 2 deg. 25 min. of E. lon. and 48 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. 200 miles eaſt of London.

This city is uſually divided in three parts: 1ſt, The town, which is the largeſt, ſituated on the north-ſide of the river Seine; 2d, The city, much the leaſt, but the moſt ancient, conſiſting of three little iſlands in the middle of the Seine; 3. The univerſity, which lies on the ſouth-ſide of the river. That part of the city which ſtands on the north-ſide of the river, and called the town, lies on a perfect level, and was formerly a bog; and that part called the city lies low; but that part called the univerſity, on the ſouth-ſide of the river, has ſeveral little hills in it. The whole town, according to the French writers, is of a circular form, ſix leagues in circumference, and the diameter three; conſequently it muſt ſtand on more ground than London; but thoſe who have viewed both are of another opinion: however, it is certain that London is more populous. The largeſt calculators will not make the inhabitants of Paris amount to much more than 700,000, and there are at leaſt 200,000 more in London. There are, according to a late French writer, 22,000 houſes in Paris, many of which are ſeven ſtories high,

h, and a family almoſt in every ſtory; 52 pariſhes; 4 monaſteries, of which 56 are inhabited by friers, and by nuns; 979 ſtreets, and 14,000 coaches. Paris is principal object, and the centre of all the commerce ried on in the reſt of the kingdom. To uphold ſo enſive a commerce, ſix corporations of merchants ve been eſtabliſhed at Paris; being the drapers, includ- linen and woollen drapers; grocers, including apo- caries, druggiſts, confectioners, and wax-chandlers; rcers, to which are annexed haberdaſhers and iron- ngers; ſkinners, with furriers and fell-mongers; ho- rs, with cap-makers; and goldſmiths, with jewellers. here has been alſo a ſeventh eſtabliſhed, that is, the rporation of wine-merchants: but the ſix other bodies ver would conſent to their incorporation.

ſides theſe corporations of merchants, there are 124 arts and trades eſtabliſhed, as well as the former, by al patents; and 17 others without letters-patents, as having ſeemed conſiderable enough to be erected into body; whereof the following is a catalogue.

he maſter — Needle, awl, chizzle, and punch-makers. rmourers. Gunſmiths. Ballance-makers. Barbers, bag- -keepers, and periwig-makers. Gold and ſilver beaters. urners, ſieve and ſearce makers. Hoſiers, and manu- cturers in knit-work. Butchers. Bakers of the city d ſuburbs. Flour-makers. Purſe-makers. Harneſs d ſaddle makers. Cord-makers. Brewers. Embroi- rers, and upholſterers. Bruſh-makers. Combers, rders, dreſſers of wool and cotton, hair-cutters, and inners of wick for lamps. Card-makers. Girdle- akers. Chain-makers. Cooks, who ſell all manner of gs-fleſh, with puddings, ſauſages, neats and hogs ngues. Tallow-chandlers, oil-men, and huckſters of lt and muſtard. Hatters. Carpenters. Cartwrights. rgeons. Braziers, and tinkers. Nailers, loriners, and on-mongers. Milliners. Trunk-makers. Rope-makers. oe-makers. Curriers. Cutlers, and engravers upon el and iron. Seamſtreſſes. Tylers. Cryers of old inkets and cloaths. Cooks, and ordinary keepers. Dan- ng-maſters, and muſicians. Pinkers. Copper-gilders. namellers. Spurriers. Writers. Pin makers. Fan- akers. Muſical inſtrument makers. Black-ſmiths. ounders in earth and ſand. Laſt-makers. Fullers and eſſers of cloth. Furbiſhers. Brokers. Fruiterers. orn chandlers. Glovers, and furriers. Engravers on etal. Perfumers. Clock-makers. Carpenters, and iners. Copper-plate printers. Gardeners. Lapidaries, ngravers, and workers on all kinds of precious ſtones. ox and deſk makers. Bookſellers, and printers. Bran- y-ſhop keepers. Linen-drapers. Flax and hemp mon- ers. Fencing-maſters. Maſons. Wholeſale wine- erchants, inn and tavern keepers. Tawers. Opti- ians, looking-glaſs and ſpectacle makers. Mat-makers. Workers in cloths of gold, ſilver, ſilk, and other mixed tuffs. Stocking-weavers. Bird-ſellers. Ginger-bread ellers. Feather-men. Paſteboard-makers. Parchment- akers. Button-makers. Bead-makers of wood and orn. Bead-makers of jet, amber, and coral. Paſtry- ooks. Paviours. Tennis-court keepers, and tennis- all makers. Skinners, and leather-ſtrainers. Painters, culptors, engravers, and illuminers. Plumbers. Tin- nen. Potters. Book-binders. Cooks. Midwives. Coblers. Coach-makers. Lock-ſmiths. Toymen, ca- inet and comb-makers. Iron-mongers. Taylors. Tan- ers. Tapeſtry-makers. Dyers of cloth, ſerges, and ther woollen ſtuffs. Silk-dyers, and dyers of wool and hread. Dyers in other reſpects. Gold and ſilver wire- rawers. Linen and canvas weavers. Silk-weavers. hear-men, and cloth-workers. Coopers. Turners. Baſket-makers. Glaſs, flaſk, and bottle makers. Gold- inders. Vinegar-men. And glaziers.

Beſides theſe 124 corporations, or communities, there re others without letters patent, or ſtatutes in form; whereof the principal are,

The watermen. Thoſe who ſell flowers. The milli- ners. The horſe-ſellers. The ſellers of Auvergne ta- peſtry. The writers for the public. The needle-makers. The image makers. The organiſts. The fiſhermen. The ſmall fruiterers. The retailers of fiſh. The tripe men and women.

Theſe corporations are now reduced to a hundred and twenty, upon account of the unions that have been made in them: the chief of thoſe are the maſter knit-workers united in 1716 with the corporation of hoſiers, the maſter ſtocking-weavers united alſo with the ſame corporation in 1723; the maſter needle-makers with the pin-makers, and enamel bead-makers with earthen ware mongers.

Theſe corporations are compoſed of upwards of 35,000 maſters all unequally divided; but the greater number is on the taylor's ſide, who have 1882 maſters.

Shoemakers 1800. Seamſtreſſes and mantua-makers 1700. Wine-merchants 1500. Coblers 1380. Gardeners 1200. Painters and ſculptors 967. Periwig-makers and barbers 700. Brokers 700. Linen-drapers 659. Carpenters and joiners 895. Bakers 580. Button makers 530. Ribbon-weavers 735. Tapeſtry-weavers 627. Surgeons 500.

Among the ſmaller ſort of corporations may be ranked thoſe whoſe maſters are not above 500. Such are dancing-maſters 442. Diſtillers 380. Leather gilders 360. The manufacturers of gold ſtuffs 318. Founders 330. Sword-cutlers 240. Fruiterers 321. Glovers 250. Corn chandlers 260. Paſtry-cooks 243. Butchers 240. Harneſs-makers 200. Embroiderers 265. Tallow-chandlers 269. Hatters 319. Curriers 260. Toy-men 209. Book-binders 229. Potters 215. Cooks 307. Sadlers 253. Lock-ſmiths 355. Silk and wool-dyers 240. Coopers 202. Sieve and ſearch-makers 382. Glaziers 300. Laſtly, the leaſt of theſe corporations have upwards of 100 maſters, and but a few under 50, except balance-makers 15. String-makers for muſical inſtruments 10. Preparers of ſhammy leather 8. Cryers of old cloaths, iron, and trinkets 35. Pinkers 20. Spurriers 22. Fullers 18. Fencing-maſters 14. Bird-ſellers 37. Feather-mongers 24. Paſteboard-makers 36. Parchment-makers 30. Bead-workers in jet 18. Bead-workers in wood 2. Plumbers 40. Gold-drawers 35. Bruſh-makers 29. Gold-finders 36. Armourers 1.

Through the hands of theſe ſeven mercantile corporations, and the maſters that compoſe thoſe of arts and trades, all the commerce of Paris paſſes; as well for the ſale of their own manufactures. as for thoſe which come to them from abroad; no other perſons but them being allowed to keep ware-houſes or open ſhops.

However, there are exceptions to this general rule, ſome celebrated manufactures, eſtabliſhed by royal authority, being not compriſed therein; as the Royal Hotel of the Gobelins, where tapeſtries and inlayed works have been brought to the greateſt perfection.

The Hotel de la Savonerie, where the rich carpets of wool and ſilk are manufactured.

The manufacture of glaſs at St. Gobin.

Laſtly, the new manufacture eſtabliſhed in the Fauxbourg St. Marcel, for the manufacture and dying of ſcarlet-cloths.

Among privileged artiſans are reckoned thoſe whoſe ingenuity and experience in their arts have merited for them lodgings in the galleries of the Louvre; as alſo, but in a much lower rank, the artiſans of the pretended privileged places; ſuch as the Fauxbourg St. Antoine, the Temple, and ſome others.

The principal manufactures of Paris are ſtuffs of gold, ſilver, ſilk, and wool mixed with ſilk; among others brocades, damaſks, velvets, taffeties, plain and flowered gauzes, ferrandines, otherwiſe called griſettes, ſtuffs of mohair, ribbands of gold and ſilver, gold and ſilver lace, ſtockings of all ſorts, caſtor and woollen hats, caps of all ſorts, perukes, blanketing, tanned leather, and laſtly all kinds of jewellers work.

Beſides markets every Wedneſday and Saturday in ſeveral places in Paris, there are alſo two free fairs; the one after Candlemaſs, held in the Fauxbourg St. Germain; the other in the Fauxbourg St. Laurent, the day after the feaſt of this ſaint.

The dealers of Amiens, Beaumont, Rheims, Orleans, and Nogent, are thoſe who frequent moſtly theſe fairs; eſpecially that of St. Germains: the merchandiſe they bring there being cloths, or other woollen ſtuffs, or ſtuffs mixed with ſilk and wool, or wool and thread.

This great trade, that flows in upon Paris from all quarters of the kingdom, is rendered more conſiderable by the commerce of money that is carried on by the merchants and bankers; to facilitate which, to the amount of 24 agents of bank have been erected, from time to time, for the city of Paris alone.

To what has been ſaid of the commerce of Paris, the three following remarks may be added,

1ſt, 'Tis the prevot of the merchants and the aldermen who have there the inſpection of, and juriſdiction over, all the commodities of grain, meal, wine, brandy, beer, and other liquors, wood, coal, plaiſter and lime, that arrive by the river, and are landed on its ſeveral quays.

2d, Before the lieutenant-general of the police are diſcuſſed all the differences ariſing among merchants, and the incorporated companies of arts and trades; whereof an account is given to the King's procurator, or attorney-general, at the Chatelet, who takes the oaths of the maſters, on their admiſſion into the company.

3d, To judge peremptorily of all theſe differences between merchants in matters of commerce, there is a conſular juriſdiction eſtabliſhed, being the ſecond in the kingdom for its antiquity; upon whoſe model all the reſt at preſent in France, to the number of ſixty, have been eſtabliſhed.

Paris is alſo the center of all the foreign trading companies; ſuch as the India company, African company, and Turky company.

There were conſumed in Paris in the year 1722, of

Salt 750 muids, or 3333 quarters of London.
Pickled mackarel 950 barrels.
Salmon 2400 barrels.
Herrings 26000 barrels.
Coal 22000 ton.
Swine 28000.
Oxen 60000.
Sheep 430000.
Wheat 100000 muids, or 800,000 quarters of London.
Cod 150,000 barrels.
Oats 22000 quarters of London.
Hay and Straw 8,000,000 truſſes.

The principal places for trade and manufactures in the diſtrict of Paris, and iſle of France, are as follow.

At St. Cloud there are three manufactures, that of porcelain, that of common earthen-ware, and that of glaſs. The French ſay, that the porcelains manufactured here are not in the leaſt inferior, for fineneſs, enamel, and colour, to the Chineſe and Japaneſe; and that, in the beauty and regularity of the form and deſign, they ſurpaſs them by far.

Sureine, and Argenteuil, are famous for their wines.

St. Denis for its two free fairs, frequented by the traders of Champagne, Picardy, and Poitou, who bring there cloths, ſeveral kinds of woollen ſtuffs, or ſtuffs mixed with wool and ſilk.

In general all the elections of the diſtrict of Paris, excepting thoſe that belong to Champagne, Burgundy, and Picardy, have few or no manufactures; their trade conſiſting chiefly in corn, wine, wood, wool, hay, leather, cattle, hemp, eggs, butter, fowls, and ſome linen.

Out of the vineyards of Meaux are made yearly near twenty thouſand hogſheads of wine, which, upon account of its bad quality, is only uſed by the inhabitants; however, what Meaux is chiefly famous for, is a kind of cheeſe, called *fromoge de brie*, of which great conſumption is made at the beſt tables in Paris.

Provins is remarkable for tanners.

The commerce of Dreux is partly carried on at Paris, and partly at Rouen: the cloths manufactured there are ſent to the Pariſian woollen-drapers, and are ſold by them for the cloathing of the troops; its corn and wine are ſent to Rouen, whence they are either exported for England or Holland.

The wines of Mante, conſtitute its principal commerce; and a celebrated traveller has obſerved, that, of all French wines, none ſtand the teſt of the ſea ſo well; ſome of them being tranſported by him to Agra, and Iſpahan, without ſuffering any diminution in their ſtrength, or quality; whereas thoſe of Burgundy, Bourdeaux, the Moſelle, and the Rhine, could not ſtand the ſame proof.

Of the principal commerce and manufactures of Picardy.

The natural productions of this province are grain, hemp and wool; and its manufactures are of woollen cloths, linens, caps, ſtockings, tapeſtries, and ſoap.

The towns of Picardy remarkable for the commerce of woollen cloths and ſtuffs, are Amiens, Abbeville, and Beavois; St. Quintin being famous for its linen manufacture.

Amiens is a large beautiful town, ſituated on the river Somme, 80 m. S. of Paris, where upwards of 129800 pieces of woollen ſtuffs are yearly manufactured; beſides 50000 other pieces in the ſuburbs; and none but the wool of the country, with that of England, Holland, and Germany is uſed; eſpecially that of the country and England. The French compute that the ſale of the ſtuffs manufactured at Amiéns amounts one year with another, to upwards of 160,000 livres, or about 60,000 l. ſterling: their exports to foreign countries, being uſually for Spain, Switzerland, Italy, and the French American iſlands.

There is alſo at Amiens, and in its neighbourhood, a manufacture of orris, whoſe produce amounts yearly to about 42,000 livres, or 1700 l. ſterling: beſides a manufacture of ſoft ſoap, wherein are made upwards of 10,000 quintals, or hundreds, uſed in the fulling of theſe ſtuffs, and whoſe ſale is computed annually to exceed 100,000 livres, or about 4000 l. ſterling.

Abbeville, is a large city, ſituated 90 miles N. of Paris, and 15 E. of the Britiſh channel; its principal manufacture being that of the Meſſieurs Vanrobais, for woollen cloth. It was eſtabliſhed by the Sieur Joſſe Vanrobais, a Dutch merchant, in conſequence of the King's letters-patent, in 1665. Fifteen years after, the ſame privilege was renewed in favour of the ſaid Joſſe Vanrobais, and his eldeſt ſon Iſaac. After the father's death the King granted a third prorogation to his children Iſaac and Joſie; laſtly upon Iſaac's death, the ſurviving brother, and Iſaac's widow, obtained, in 1708, a confirmation of the ſame privilege for 15 years more.

The French ſay that the cloths of this celebrated manufacture, imitate, in ſuch perfection, thoſe of England and Holland, that it is difficult to determine the preference.

It is computed that the produce of this manufacture amounts, one year with another, to about 20,000

There are alſo two other privileged manufactures at Abbeville; one for pluſh, and the other for tent-cloth or ticking; beſides, there are other manufactures kept up there, of camblets, or barracans, ſerges after the manner of London, druggets, and flannels.

Beavois, always reckoned as one of the towns of Picardy, tho' included in the government of the iſle of France, is a city 43 miles N. of Paris, which is famous for the manufacture of rateens, ſerges and flannels, half-hollands, tapeſtry, and lace.

It is computed that the two different corporations of drapers, the one called the great corps, and the other the ſmall one, incorporated in 1670, uſe in their reſpective manufactures, the former a hundred and fifteen thouſand pounds of Spaniſh wool, two thouſand pounds of Engliſh, and a hundred and ſixty thouſand of French, wherewith they make near thirteen thouſand pieces of ſtuff; and the latter conſume a hundred and eighty-five thouſand pounds of French common wool, whoſe produce is one third leſs than that of the others.

At St. Quintin there is no woollen manufacture, but the commerce of linnens, particularly cambrics, is very conſiderable there, amounting yearly to the value of about 80,000 l. ſterling. The whole trade is carried on by about twenty or twenty-five linen-drapers, who ſend conſiderable parcels to Paris, Rouen, Bourdeaux, Lyons, Spain, Italy, and ſome towns of Flanders, eſpecially Ghent, from whence they paſs into England.

Of the commercial commodities and manufactures of the province of Champagne, *and diſtrict of* Soiſſons.

The proximity of the two diſtricts of Chalons, and Soiſſons, with the great reſemblance of their natural productions, and the manufactures therein eſtabliſhed, ſeem to require but one article.

The lands of both are fruitful in all kinds of grain, eſpecially

cially in wheat and oats: their riſing grounds are covered with vineyards productive of excellent wines, ſuch are thoſe of Rheims, Sillery, Hautvilliers, Eſpernay, and Chateau Thierry, eſpecially the firſt, which are called more particulary Champagne wines, and are in great eſtimation throughout all Europe. There are alſo, in ſeveral other diſtricts of theſe provinces, wines leſs delicate, yet very good; as thoſe of Oxmery, Chatillon, Vertus, and Dormans, in Champagne; thoſe of Laon, Guichy, Pargnant, and Coucy, in the Soiſſonnois; the latter of which are carried into Picardy, Flanders, Hainault, and the former to Paris, where a great conſumption is made of them at the tables of the moſt opulent citizens.

The other commodities of theſe two provinces, are flax and hemp, whereof all ſorts of linens, and threads for laces, are manufactured; whereto may be added ſeveral iron mines, which keep a great number of forges, furnaces, and founderies, conſtantly employed.

The other productions and manufactures of Champagne and the Soiſſonois conſiſt in paper, for which there are eight mills: allum, whereof there are conſiderable mines at Bourg and Covin; ſalt-petre, which ſerves the powder-mill at Ferre; and glaſs, for which there are ſeveral glaſs-houſes near that town, and in St. Gobin.

Laſtly, ſeveral woollen, linen, and ſilk manufactures are eſtabliſhed in the principal towns of theſe provinces; ſuch as thoſe of Rheims, conſiſting of woollen ſtuffs, ſtuffs of ſilk and wool, ſilks, crapes, druggets, ſerges after the London manner, hats, caps, ſtockings, blanketing, flax and hempen cloths, beſides ſeveral tan-yards. Thoſe of Retel, Chateau Porcien, Mezieres, and Sedan, whoſe manufactures are much of the ſame nature with thoſe of Rheims, except that at Sedan they make ſome pieces of cloth after the Dutch, Engliſh, and Spaniſh manner.

The manufacture at Soiſſons is inconſiderable, conſiſting moſtly in hoſiery, hats, and the weaving of ribbands. The ſame may be alſo ſaid of the other towns in its diſtrict.

The woollen manufactures of Chalons are much of the ſame quality with thoſe of Rheims, except that at Chalons they uſe all wool, whereas the warp at Rheims is of ſilk; about four thouſand five hundred pieces of theſe ſtuffs being yearly manufactured there.

Troyes, the capital of the province, is ſituated on the river Seine, about 80 miles S. E. of Paris: its principal manufactures conſiſt in woollen ſtuffs; ſuch as ſerges, druggets; in damaſks of ſeveral kinds; in hoſiery; in the dreſſing of leather; and, laſtly, in the preparing of furs: but there is an inſpector of manufactures eſtabliſhed at Troyes, who alſo inſpects thoſe of Chalons.

Of the commerce of Lyonois, *with its appendances of* Foreſt, *and* Beaujolois.

Though little ſilk is gathered in the Lyonois, Lyons is as remarkable as any place in the world for the ſilk manufactures.

All the ſilks brought from the Levant, Perſia, Italy, Spain, and other places, into France, muſt be imported to Lyons, as a kind of ſtaple; it being from thence that they are ſent to Paris, Tours, and the other places of the kingdom, where there are ſilk manufactures, or where no ſilk is gathered.

The natural productions of the Lyonois, which make a part of their commerce, are hemp, wines, vitriol, and ſaffron.

The greateſt trade of Lyons conſiſts in the manufacture of gold and ſilver cloths, and all ſorts of ſilk ſtuffs; as velvets, damaſks, ſatins, mohairs, and taffetas, which, one year with another, are worth about 400,000 l. ſterling: beſides, the commerce of gold twiſt, and thread, is alſo very conſiderable.

The fuſtians and dimities of Lyons, the manufacture of which was introduced from Milan in 1580; that of ribbands, eſtabliſhed at St. Eſtienne, and St. Chaumont; that of hard-ware alſo at Eſtienne; the cheeſe of Roche, made in Foreſt, and brought from Rouen to Paris; the linens of Beaujolois, ſold in the markets of Tiſſy and Dampleplus; the book-ſelling and mercery of Lyons; laſtly, the various qualities of paper manufactured by ſeveral mills, are likewiſe a conſiderable portion of the commerce of this province.

Having ſtated this general idea, it will not be amiſs to deſcend to ſome particulars, with regard to the city of Lyons; which has always been, and is ſtill, one of the moſt celebrated cities in France for opulence and extent of commerce.

Lyons is ſituated 225 miles S. of Paris, upon four large rivers, that either waſh it, or are not at any conſiderable diſtance from it; theſe rivers are the Rhone, the Saone, the Loire, and the Doux: the city containing eleven pariſhes, and about 90,000 ſouls. By the Rhone it has a communication with Dauphiné, Provence, Languedoc, and even with Guienne by the canal of Languedoc; and it is from the latter that, by communicating with the Mediterranean, it trades with Italy, Spain, and all the port-towns of the Levant.

The river Saone, into which the Doux empties itſelf, opens a trade for it to Burgundy and Franche-comté, from whence the paſſage is but ſhort into Alſace, Lorrain, and Champagne.

The Loire, which begins to be navigable at Rouanne, 12 leagues from Lyons, facilitates a commerce for it with Paris, and all the inland provinces; beſides, being in the neighbourhood of Switzerland and Savoy, it can eaſily trade with Germany, Piedmont, and the Milaneze.

The foreign nations with whom the merchants of Lyons have any trade, are Spain, Italy, Switzerland, Germany, Holland, and England; Marſeilles being uſed for the Levant, and Poland.

But few of theſe merchants trade directly to Spain; the commerce they have there being chiefly in the hands of the Genoeſe, who extend it to the Spaniſh Weſt Indies.

Linens, fuſtians, ſaffron, and paper, are the commodities that Lyons uſually ſends to Spain; the return being in wool, ſilk, dying ſtuffs, piaſtres, and ingots of gold and ſilver.

It is computed that there comes to Lyons to the value of about 180,000 l. ſterling in gold and ſilver; but ſcarce the one half is the direct return of the goods ſent from Lyons to Spain, the other half accruing from all parts, by the means of the refining of gold.

The merchandiſe ſent from Lyons to Italy, and chiefly of its own manufacture and produce, amounts one year with another to about 260,000 l. ſterling; the return to not leſs than 350,000 l. ſterling. This balance might ſeem at firſt ſight of ſome diſadvantage to the Lyoneſe, the profit of commerce being uſually on his ſide whoſe greater return is in money: but this maxim cannot take place on this occaſion, the manufactures of Lyons wanting abſolutely Italian ſilk, and Spaniſh money, which, being employed by its artizans, produce a profit that makes up the deficiency.

The commerce of Lyons with Switzerland is chiefly carried on in the towns of Zurich, and St. Gall; and it alſo extends to Bern, Baſil, and Schaffhauſen.

All theſe cities furniſh Lyons with ſilks and ferrets, manufactured at Zurich; beſides linens, cheeſe, and horſes. They have in exchange ſeveral parcels of coarſe cloths, hats, ſaffron, wine, oil, ſoap, and haberdaſhery ware.

It is thought that the commodities ſent yearly from Lyons to Switzerland amount to about 40,000 l. ſterling; and, on the contrary, that thoſe imported, one year with another, amounted to about 56,000 l. ſterling in linens and cheeſe; and in war time to 37,500 l. ſterling in horſes: ſo that this commerce would ſeem diſadvantageous to the French, if the Switzers were not conſidered in more important reſpects than thoſe of trade.

The commerce of the Lyoneſe, with ſeveral cities of Germany, conſiſts in the ſame commodities they ſend to Switzerland; beſides ſeveral ſtuffs of gold and ſilver. This commerce is of vaſt advantage to Lyons, its annual exports amounting to about 60,000 l. ſterling, and the returns not to one fourth of this ſum, which are uſually in tin, copper, iron, and ſome haberdaſhery wares.

The greateſt commerce of Lyons with the Dutch conſiſts in the remittances of money and negotiations of bills of exchange, with Amſterdam and Rotterdam. However,

the

the Lyoneſe annually import ſome Leyden cloths, and Haerlem linens, to the value of about 40,000 l. ſterling.
The merchandiſe yearly exported for Holland amounts to about 18,000 l. ſterling, being for the moſt part in black taffetas, ſilk, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, ſome fruits of Provence, and garden-ſeeds of Languedoc.
The trade of Lyons with England is alſo pretty conſiderable, eſpecially with the cities of London, Exeter, and the town of Plymouth: with London for cloths; with Exeter for ſerges, and Plymouth for tin and lead; beſides ſtockings, ſome haberdaſhery-ware, pepper, dyeing-ſtuffs, nut-galls, campechy-wood, and ſometimes ſilks; but it is only when all theſe particulars are wanting at Marſeilles.
The exports of Lyons for England are luteſtrings, for the moſt part black; ſilk ſtuffs; with gold and ſilver brocades: the commerce of luteſtrings being ſo great, that often at one fair of Lyons to the value of 50,000 l. ſterl. are bought up, and exported. The commodities of Lyons for England amount yearly to about 110,000 l. ſterling; and thoſe of England for Lyons to about 30,000 l. only: ſo that the balance of this trade is greatly in favour of the French, which the Engliſh pay in money, or bills of exchange.
As for the commerce of the Levant, carried on by the way of Marſeilles or Genoa, the Lyoneſe are yearly intereſted therein for about 60,000 l. ſterling.
Their trade with Poland is inconſiderable; however, they keep a ware-houſe at Warſaw; but the ſtuffs they ſend there are of an indifferent quality.
There are four free fairs at Lyons; as alſo a royal office for the refining of gold and ſilver, which brings there vaſt quantities of theſe rich materials.
By way of recapitulation it may be ſaid, that the value of eleven millions of livres, or 412,500 l. ſterling, in ſilk, gold, and ſilver, uſed in the manufacture of Lyons, is annually imported there; that the preparation of theſe materials, and the manner of the different works manufactured out of them, amount to upwards of three millions of livres, or 112,500 l. ſterling: that the ſale thereof, by the merchants of Lyons, and by thoſe of the other towns of the kingdom of France, who have them from thence, produces alſo upwards of 3 millions of livres; and that of 17 millions, or 637,500 l. and upwards, that compoſe the total of theſe three ſums, foreigners pay about one third; which, notwithſtanding, muſt be underſtood of the time of peace, when the commerce of the kingdom is in a flouriſhing condition.

Of the commerce of Guyenne *and* Gaſcony, *comprehending the generalities of* Bourdeaux *and* Montauban.

Montauban, in the Quercy, is ſituated on the river Agout, 18 m. N. of Toulouſe, being famous for the great number of its fairs, and the rich trade its merchants carry on with their wines, brandies, and other productions of the country, to Bourdeaux; where they ſend them by the rivers that fall into the Garonne.
Montauban is the chief place of the inſpection of manufactures, extending throughout all Quercy and the Rouergue; in which diſtrict are yearly collected from 12 to 15 hundred quintals of wool of all qualities, which, with great parcels of foreign wools, are employed in different manufactures; not to mention ſilks of various colours, and ſerges which are ſaid to wear very well.
The other commerce of Guyenne is very conſiderable, eſpecially for wine and brandy, whereof, in a plentiful year, ſcarce leſs than a hundred thouſand tons are made.
The commodities of the produce of the country which the Engliſh, Dutch, and northern nations, take away with them, beſides wines and brandies, are prunes, vinegar, reſin, cheſnuts, oil, freſh fruits, and ſuch like commodities.
Guyenne alſo affords iron and copper manufactured, or unmanufactured, great quantities of paper, and a good quantity of hemp.
The cod and whale-fiſhery, and the exports for the Antilles, Cayenne, and St. Domingo, are alſo ſome of the principal parts of the Guyenne trade; but this is intirely in the hands of the merchants of Bourdeaux and Bayonne, the commerce of which places may be conſulted under their reſpective articles, in the deſcription of the maritime trade of this province.

Of the commerce of Limoſin *and* Angoumois.

Theſe two provinces, which compoſe but one generality, are very different from each other in fertility, and the produce of things neceſſary for life.
Angoumois produces corn, wine, and all kinds of excellent fruits: Limoſin, on the contrary, is cold, barren, and with difficulty ſupports its inhabitants, yielding but poor wines, with ſome barley and cheſnuts, of which they commonly make their bread.
Both provinces have a great number of paper-mills, whoſe manufacture is in great eſteem. The paper of Angoumois, at leaſt that for printing, is all intended for Holland; whereon the arms of Amſterdam are ſtamped; and ſome of it is alſo ſent to Paris; and, what ſeems pretty remarkable is, that the Dutch, with all poſſible care and expence, could never exactly imitate the paper of Angouleme. That of Limoſin is not leſs excellent for printing; it is admirable for the impreſſions of copper-plates; but not ſo good for writing, being not ſufficiently ſtiff.
The principal revenue of both the high and the low Limoſin conſiſts in the commerce of cattle, eſpecially horned cattle and horſes. Limoges is the chief city, which is ſituated on the river Vienne, and has a manufacture of bays, wherein are yearly made to the amount of 1300 pieces.
Wines are the principal and moſt important commerce of Angoumois, whereof the beſt are the produce of Cogniac, the red being ſold in Limoſin and Poictou, and the white burnt for brandy.
The ſale of Cogniac brandies varies according to the circumſtances of times. In war time they are bought up for the French garriſons, and the armies in Flanders and Germany; in time of peace their ſale is greater, the Engliſh and Daniſh ſhips taking them in at Charente above Rochefort, in great quantities; but it is apprehended that the duty on them at Charente is of ſome prejudice to the commerce.
Saffron, next to wine and brandy, is a great article in the commerce of Angoumois, vaſt exports being made thereof for Lyons and Germany; from whence it is ſent to Pruſſia and other northern countries.
Angouleſme, the chief city, beſides the trade of wine, brandy, ſaffron, and paper, has alſo a ſmall manufacture of ſerges and ſtamines: there being annually made 450 pieces of the latter, and of the former 650.

An account of the brandies throughout the diſtrict of Cogniac.

One year with another, throughout the diſtrict of Cogniac there are collected 200,000 bariques, or barrels of wine fit for burning, which make 50,000 hogſheads, proportion of 13,400 pipes of brandy of three bariques.
There are years when wines are weak; and, in ſuch caſes ſix barrels of wine are required to make one of brandy, a barrel of brandy being ſeldom made out of four barrels of wine; but, if the wine is tolerably good, nine barrels of wine make two barrels of brandy.
Cogniac brandy is ſuperior to, and more in eſteem, than all others; it being computed that foreigners take away yearly of it between 24 and 27 thouſand barrels.
Each barique of brandy pays at the office of Charente 15 livres, 16 ſols: ſo that if from Charente only there are yearly exported 27,000 bariques of brandy, the ſole duty of 15 livres 16 ſols *per* barique muſt produce a revenue for the King of 426,600 livres, or 15,747 l. *per annum*.

Of the commerce of Poictou.

The principal commodities of this province are corn, wine, cheſnuts, hemp, and ſalt. It is ſituated, for the moſt part, on the ſea, which ſituation, and the ſeveral ports its enjoys, might ſeem to put it in a flouriſhing condition for trade; however, it is one of the moſt inconſiderable in the kingdom, either for an exterior or interior commerce.
Poictiers is the capital city, which is one of the largeſt in the kingdom, being ſituated on an eminence, near the little river Clain, 70 m. N. E. of Rochelle: it has manufactures of ſtamines, camblets, ſerges, crapes, ſtockings, &c.

aps, and ſhammy leather. The other manufactures in he ſeveral towns of this province are much of the ſame ature, but of no great conſideration.

The commerce of Aunis and Xaintonge, are under their eſpective port towns, *Rochefort*, *Rochelle*, *Brouage*, and *onnai-Charente*, in the maritime ſtate of this kingdom.

Of the commerce of Orleans *and its diſtrict.*

The greateſt commerce of the diſtrict of Orleans, with hoſe of Blois and Beaugency, conſiſts in wines and randy, which are either ſold at Paris, or to the Engliſh nd Dutch when the vineyards in the neighbourhood of Nantz, and the iſland of Rhe, are deficient. 'Tis thought hat one year with another, Orleanois might afford a undred thouſand hogſheads of wine, and Blois and Beaugency about the ſame quantity.

The town of Orleans is properly the ſtaple of all the ommodities tranſported by the Loire, on which it is ſi-uated, either in going up or coming down.

The Loire, in deſcending, procures for it the merchan-izes of Provence, Languedoc, Lyonnois, Bourbonnois, Nivernois, and Berry; together with thoſe imported into rance in the Mediterranean; and the ſame river, in e paſſage up, brings to it the merchandiſes of the ocean, ith thoſe of Britany, Anjou, Poictou, and Touraine.

The manufactures of Orleans are of no great reputation; owever, a pretty briſk trade of linen and woollen cloths, rges, bays, ſtockings, ſhammy-leather, hats, and caps, driven on there, by the dealers of moſt of the towns in s diſtrict, who bring their reſpective manufactures there, nd find a conſiderable vent for them.

The ſaffron which is gathered at Boiſne, and Boiſcom-un, in Gatinois, forms alſo a conſiderable commerce this diſtrict: and there are likewiſe iron mines, which eep ſeveral forges employed.

f the commerce of Touraine, Anjou, Maine, *and* Perche.

The principal manufactures eſtabliſhed in this fruitful and greeable part of France, are thoſe of ſilk, ſome woollen oths, and leather.

The two laſt are inconſiderable; but the ſilk manufacture Tours, the chief city, is not inferior, as the French y, to any foreign manufacture; not even to thoſe of enice, Genoa, Florence, and Lucca.

'Tis pretended that the firſt calendar eſtabliſhed in France r watering tabbies, and other ſilk ſtuffs, was introduced ere by one Chomey, who brought the invention from taly.

The commerce of Anjou conſiſts almoſt entirely of wine, x, and hemp, of which two laſt ſeveral cloths are made; ines of coal and iron, bleaching of wax and linens, re-ning of ſugar, and ſalt-petre, iron forges, and glaſs-ouſes; laſtly, ſtamines and druggets of all kinds.

The principal commerce of Maine conſiſts in flax and emp, of which great parcels of linens are made; being ld moſtly at St. Maloes, for the conſumption of Spain. ans, the chief city, has a manufacture of double ſtamine d camblets, wherein are annually made to the amount 2500 pieces, which are chiefly ſold at Paris.

The manufactures and trade of Perche are much of the me nature with thoſe of Maine.

Of the commerce of Berry, Moulins, *and* Auvergne.

The chief trade of Berry conſiſts in ſheep, wool, grain, on-mines, hemp, walnut-oil, wine, and wood; but the ant of navigable rivers renders this traffic leſs conſiderable an it might be.

the diſtrict of Moulins there are forges and founderies r cannon, anchors, and other large iron works; beſides anufactures of earthen-ware, glaſs, enamel, hard-ware, peſtry and cloths. The natural productions conſiſt in ine, hemp, iron, coal, cattle, fiſh, and cheſnuts.

uvergne is uſually divided into the upper and lower, ing chiefly remarkable for its paper, whereof great rcels are ſent to Paris, Holland, and England, for eir moſt beautiful impreſſions of books.

ermont, its chief city, tho' not ſituated upon any na-gable river, is, notwithſtanding, the ſtaple of the greater rt of the commerce that is carried on from the lower nguedoc and Provence to Paris.

ormandy *and* Britany, *ſee their commerce under the ar-cle of their reſpective port-towns.*

Of the commerce of Burgundy, Franche-comté, *and* Dauphiné.

Generally ſpeaking the wines of Burgundy, and eſpecially thoſe of Dijon, Nuis, Beaune, Pomarre, Chaſſagne, Macon, Tonnere, and Auxerre, make its greateſt commerce; not ſo much for the quantity thereof, as their excellent quality, which has raiſed their reputation all over Europe.

As for its manufactures, one year with another, there are between 12 and 13000 pieces of ſtuffs made: there are alſo thirty-two forges in the province, beſides eight manufactures for paper.

Wheat, oats, and other grain, mines of iron, ſalt-petre, wood, ſalt, horſes, horned cattle, butter, and cheeſe, are the chief commodities of Franche-comte. The value of the ſalt-petre manufactured in this diſtrict, might amount one year with another to about 38,000 l. ſterling: the ſalt got out of two pits, on a mountain called the *golden mountain* upon account of its containing this rich treaſure, brings in a yearly revenue to the King of upwards of 18,000 l. ſterling.

The province of Dauphiné, being partly mountainous and partly a plain, the productions of the ſoil and the commerce, anſwer this diverſity of ſituation.

The mountains produce fir, and other trees, fit for building ſhips; beſides ſeveral metals and minerals, ſuch as copper, lead, iron, vitriol, copperas, coal, and ſalt-petre. The manufacture of all theſe different metals and minerals being diffuſed throughout the whole province.

As to the plains, they produce hemp, and grain; and the inhabitants plant mulberry-trees for the feeding of ſilk-worms.

Grenoble, the chief town, is the place where moſt of the manufactures of this province are eſtabliſhed, which conſiſt in working the above-mentioned metals and minerals, as alſo in making woollen ſtuffs, linen-cloths, ſilks, and paper.

For the trade of Provence, *ſee it under the article of its port-town* Marſeilles.

Of the commerce of Languedoc, *and its two diſtricts* Toulouſe, *and* Montpellier.

The commodities of the produce of this country are ſalt, oils, dry fruits, cheſnuts, and wines of ſeveral colours, ſorts, and qualities, exported to Italy, England, the north, Switzerland, Germany, and ſometimes for the coaſts of Barbary.

The woollen manufactures eſtabliſhed in the two diſtricts of Languedoc, are thoſe of cloths, druggets, ſerges, ratines, and bays; whereof the greater part is deſigned for the Levant; and the reſt for Switzerland, Germany, and ſeveral provinces of France.

In the ſilk manufactures eſtabliſhed at Toulouſe, Montpellier, Niſmes, and Allay, there are wrought taffetas, tabbies, crapes, ferandines, with ſome brocades and damaſks, which conſume, one year with another, 12 or 15 hundred quintals.

In Languedoc are alſo cultivated great quantities of paſtel, and ſaffron: the ſcarlet grain is found in the wood of Grammont, and turnſol in the dioceſe of Niſmes.

The verdigreaſe made at Montpellier, and cryſtal of tartar prepared at Aniane, are in great reputation in foreign countries.

There are ſome mines in this country of iron and tin; jet is alſo found there; and the diſtrict of Montpellier has a very conſiderable manufacture of hats.

Of the commerce of the Lower Navarre *and* Bearn.

If Bearn is but indifferently fertile, the lower Navarre is leſs ſo; and therefore their chief commerce muſt be owing to the induſtry of the inhabitants.

The valleys of Baretons, Aſpe, and Oſſant, produce fir-trees for the King's ſhips: they have alſo mines of lead, copper, and iron, which keep in action ſeveral forges and founderies.

The inhabitants of Oleron, who are all traders, buy up theſe metals manufactured or unmanufactured, ſending them to Arragon, and other frontier places of Spain.

The wines of Morlac are in ſuch great eſteem, that they are all bought by the Engliſh.

The wool of theſe provinces is good, and paſſes for Spaniſh

wool; of which the French dealers purchaſe the finer ſort, and ſend it into the other provinces of France.

Commerce of the three biſhoprics.

Under this denomination are comprehended Metz, Toul, and Verdun, three epiſcopal and imperial towns, placed under the protection of France in 1552, and afterwards fully ceded to the French by the treaty of Weſtphalia.

Wines, timber, grain, ſalt, leather, cheeſe, fruits, confects, brandy, linen, and ſeveral woollen manufactures, make the interior commerce of the three biſhoprics.

The imported commodities are horſes, cattle, carpenters timber, planks, furs, iron, butter, cheeſe, rape-ſeed, French and Dutch cloths, and various other articles of merchandiſe; of which a part are conſumed in the country; the other paſs into the neighbouring provinces, and even into Holland, by the Meuſe. The beſt woollen manufactures are eſtabliſhed at Metz, and in its neighbourhood, conſiſting chiefly of rateens of all ſorts, ſtuffs for women's apparel, a kind of frize for the peaſants, and ſome druggets and ſtamines; but the manufactures of Toul and Verdun are inconſiderable.

The chief commerce of theſe three biſhoprics paſſes thro' the hands of the Jews; but that of horſes, in war-time, is the moſt conſiderable.

Commerce of Alſace.

The indolence of the inhabitants of this province has given up to ſtrangers the greater part of its commerce; who bring there the commodities that are wanted, and export great quantities of thoſe it produces.

This commerce extends itſelf, on one ſide, into the interior part of Germany, towards the Upper Rhine; and, on the other ſide, into all the countries ſituated from Straſburg to the mouth of the river.

The foreign commerce of Straſburg, the capital of the Lower Alſace, conſiſts in tobacco, brandy, hemp, ſome dying ſtuffs, leather, tallow, and wood.

The manufactures of this city are tapeſtries, blankets, fuſtians, and ſome cloths of hemp and flax.

The commerce of the reſt of the province conſiſts in wood of the Lower Alſace, wine of the Upper Alſace, brandy, vinegar, corn, hogs, tobacco, ſaffron, turpentine, hemp, flax, tartar, tallow, gun-powder, cheſnuts, prunes, and other fruits; with all ſorts of legumes and plants, as onions, cabbages, poppy, aniſe, and fennel.

The commerce of all theſe particulars, eſpecially corn, is conſiderable in France and Holland; the other commodities being moſtly bought up by the Germans and Switzers.

The manufactures of Alſace are inconſiderable, buckram and canvas excepted; of which the greateſt part are exported for England, Holland, and Germany. Beſides, the Upper Alſace has ſeveral mines of ſilver, copper, iron, and lead: the ſilver mine of Guramain produces annually about 1600 lb. of purified metal; that of copper, or rather that of ſilver, which affords alſo copper, upwards of 24,000 lb. weight.

Commerce of Rouſſillon.

Wool, iron, and oil of olives, make the principal commerce of this county.

Of the oils, one year with another, are exported to the value of about 300,000 livres, or about 12,000 l. ſterling.

The reſt of the commerce conſiſts in corn, and large and ſmall cattle.

The manufactures are inconſiderable; being moſtly confined to ſome blankets, and coarſe linens.

Maritime places of trade.

The principal ſea-port towns of France, to begin with thoſe of *Picardy*, are St. Vallery, Calais, and Boulogne.

St. Vallery is a town, ſituated at the mouth of the river Somme; being of difficult acceſs, upon account of the banks that run more than a league into the ſea, and ſhift with the winds.

The port of St. Vallery has particular advantages for the Dutch trade; becauſe a ſhip with a favourable wind, may arrive there from Holland in 24 hours, and the merchandiſe wherewith this ſhip is freighted is capable of being tranſported to Amiens in two days and a half, and even in three days to Paris; being a conveniency of which Havre is defective.

When the exportation of corn is permitted in Fra great quantities are exported from St. Vallery: but as commerce is not always open, the commodities ſent uſual to foreign countries are ſail-cloths, woollen ſtuffs, or wool and ſilk manufactured at Amiens and Beauv Champagne and Burgundy wines, indigo of the Fren American iſlands, ſaffron of Gatinois, ſeveral ſilk-ſtuf and other manufactures, eſpecially from Lyons; laſt ſalt herrings and mackarel.

Of theſe various commodities, ſome are for Spain a Portugal, as the cloths and ſtuffs of Picardy; others England and Holland, as wines, ſilks, indigo, and fron; and others for Artois, Flanders, and Paris, ſalt-fiſh.

The commodities imported by foreign ſhips to St. Va lery, conſiſt in common aſhes of Denmark, for bleachin pot-aſhes of Holland, for the manufacture of ſoap; tra oil, Spaniſh wool, and wool from the Baltic; Campe wood, Brazil, and yellow wood, for dying; ſalt cod herrings, of the Dutch fiſhery, or at leaſt thoſe wh paſs for ſuch; Dutch cheeſe; white and black Hamb iron, Swediſh iron, and Hungary ſteel; whale fins; pla from the north; tools for artificers of various kinds, dru and groceries; Dutch cloths and camblets; Engliſh a Iriſh tallow and butter; coal, lead, tin, copperas, alu and Alicant ſoap; Dutch braſs, hard-ware, and horn combs and lanthorns; all theſe foreign commodities b ing imported to St. Vallery by the Engliſh, Dutch, Swed and Hamburghers.

The port of St. Vallery is one of the two ports France, fixed by ſeveral arrets of the King's counc eſpecially by thoſe of the 8th November 1687, and July 1692, for the importation of various commodi and manufactures from Spain, England, and Holla eſpecially for foreign cloths; as Dutch camblets of kinds, and all other camblets of foreign manufactur woollen cloths of all ſorts and colours; including rate of all kinds, ſerges, bays, blanketing, half-cloths, fl of wool and hair; ſtuffs mixed with wool, ſilk, thre hair, cotton; flannels, and frizes of all kinds, drugs, groceries, wax and ſugar excepted: but it ſhould be o ſerved, that it was after the years 1687 and 1692, t the port of St. Vallery was added to the other ports the kingdom, which had already been ſpecified for entry of the ſaid groceries and drugs.

There is at St. Vallery, as well as at Calais, a King's ſpector for foreign manufactures.

Calais, a town of Picardy, in the county of Oye, is ſitua 22 miles E. of Dover, and 140 N. of Paris, betwe Graveline and Boulogne; its port, with that of St. V lery, being the only places by which foreign draperies enter into the kingdom: ſo that what has been ſaid of Vallery, may ſerve to give an idea of the trade of Ca It is likewiſe one of the towns by which, purſuant to ordonnance of the farms of 1687, drugs and groce can enter France, either by ſea or land; the other be Rouen, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, Lyons, and Marſeil but St. Vallery, as appears from the foregoing article, afterwards added.

The ſituation of Calais, diſtant only from the En coaſt about 7 leagues, and where Dutch ſhips may rive in a few hours with a favourable wind, would be commodious for the Engliſh and Dutch trade, had no port been very dangerous, and that moſtly thro' neg However, propoſals were made for putting it in a dition to receive ſhips of greater burden, but wit taking place, though the expence was conſiderable. Calais has a communication up the country, by ca with Graveline, Ardres, St. Omer, Dunkirk, and ſe other parts of French Franders and Artois; which m the carriage of French and foreign merchandiſe arrive there very eaſy even to Ghent, and the other cipal towns of the Auſtrian Netherlands.

The difficulties found in entering the port of Calais greatly diminiſhed its commerce; which is not quite ſtructed for ſalt; wines, and brandies, are brought in French ſhips, from Bourdeaux, Rochelle, and N butter and hides from England, and beef from Ire

which are afterwards diſtributed by the canals into Artois, and French Flanders.

But this commerce is inconſiderable, compared to the clandeſtine traffic the merchants of Calais carry on with the Engliſh, either bringing to them woollen ſtuffs of a French manufacture, cambrics, gold lace, and ſeveral manufactures from Lyons; or, by the ſame means, bringing back Engliſh wool, and other commodities.

Boulogne, the capital of the Boulonois, is ſituated 16 miles S. W. of Calais. The port of this town is ſmall, and of difficult acceſs, the water riſing there ſcarce to ſeven feet in the higheſt ſea. There is only one place within cannon-ſhot, to the ſouth-eaſt of the new tower, that ſhips any way conſiderable can be ſecure; and it is there alſo that veſſels weigh anchor in low water, till the flood brings them into the harbour.

Its exterior commerce conſiſts chiefly in ſalt, white wine, and brandy, brought there from Bourdeaux, Rochelle, and Nantz; as alſo in Iriſh butter; but, of all together, what is only neceſſary for the conſumption of the country.

Its interior commerce is, for the moſt part, the produce of its different fiſheries; and, among others, that of ſalt herring and ſalt mackarel. It is computed, that the ſale of both theſe kind of fiſh, comprehending thoſe pickled at St. Vallery, but not in ſuch quantities as at Boulogne, might, one year with another, amount to about 18,000l. ſterling, which fiſh are bought up for Flanders, Paris, and Artois.

This place is a kind of aſylum for Engliſh bankrupts. There is a free fair held yearly at Boulogne, commencing the 8th of November, and continuing to the 27th.

Normandy. The port towns of Normandy are, Dieppe, Havre-de-Grace, Harfleur, Cherburg, and Honfleur.

Dieppe is a conſiderable mercantile town; its inhabitants carrying on a good trade, either in different works of their own manufacture, or the commodities that come to them from abroad upon their own bottoms, or thoſe of foreigners; or, laſtly, in their freſh and ſalt fiſh, which employ a great number of hands and ſhips.

The ſale of its commodities is not only at Paris, and the principal towns of France, but alſo throughout ſeveral other parts of Europe, and America, where it ſends conſiderable cargoes.

Spice is likewiſe a great article of its commerce, which the Dutch import there in vaſt quantities; and for which the town of Diepe ſerves as a ſtaple, to be from thence diſtributed into the neighbouring provinces, and eſpecially to Paris.

Havre-de-Grace is a ſmall fortified town, ſituated in a flat country at the mouth of the river Seine, 14 or 15 leagues north-weſt of Rouen, and as many north-eaſt of Caen. It is almoſt of a ſquare figure, divided into two parts by the port, ſurrounded by a wall and other works, and defended by a citadel; of great conſequence on account of its ſituation at the mouth of the Seine, its harbour, and foreign trade, being looked upon as one of the keys of the kingdom: the French uſed to arm out their privateers and ſmall ſquadrons from this place, which occaſioned its being bombarded by the confederate fleet in 1694.

Harfleur. This town is in the county of Caux, at the mouth of the river Seine; its principal commerce conſiſts in corn and hemp; its bleach-yards are alſo in great eſteem, where moſt of the Norman cloths are brought to be whitened.

There is a great concourſe of merchants to its two free fairs; one of which is held on St. Martin's in ſummer, and the other on St. Martin's in winter.

Cherburg is ſituated on a bay of the ſea, 15 leagues north of Coutance. It is a ſmall ſea-port, and fortified by Lewis XIV. who ordered the works to be demoliſhed in the year 1689; and this was one of the laſt towns the Engliſh poſſeſſed in Normandy.

Honfleur is ſituated on the weſt bank of the river Seine, near its mouth, three leagues ſouth-weſt of Havre-de-Grace, and 16 weſt of Rouen: the late King endeavoured to improve it, by making a baſon fit to receive ſhipping, and a large key about it. At this town, which is ſuppoſed to contain about 12,000 ſouls, the ſalt brought from the bay of Brouage is unloaded, and diſtributed to all the towns on the Seine.

To theſe may be added, Rouen, the metropolis of Normandy, and center of all the trade on that ſide of France; its principal commerce conſiſting in all kinds of woollen cloths, ſerges, tapeſtries, linen cloths, tanned hides, hats, combs, paper, playing cards, corn, cyder, cattle, hemp, flax, and the different fiſheries carried on at Diepe, Honfleur, Havre, and other places. One year with another, 9000 bales of wool are imported to Rouen; one half of which are Spaniſh wools of different qualities, and the other French wool, called common wool.

Britany. The principal port-towns of Britany are St. Malo, Morlaix, Breſt, Conquet, Coveron, Port Louis, Avray, and Nantz.

St. Malo. The greateſt commerce the merchants of St. Malo carry on in Europe, is that with England, Holland, and Spain: but they alſo ſend ſhips to the north ſea and the Baltic.

The commerce of St. Malo in America, comprehends the cod-fiſhery, the furniſhing of the French colonies with proviſions, and ſometimes the South-ſea trade: but this trade, for the general part, is contraband, and ſubject to conſiderable riſks.

The commerce upon the African coaſts is not leſs dangerous; and as all theſe coaſts, in a manner, are comprehended in the conceſſion of various trading companies, the traders of St. Malo ſend there only ſome interlopers, though in danger of being taken up by the companies to whom the excluſive trade thereof belongs.

Laſtly, the Aſiatic ſeas have ſeen alſo ſhips from St. Malo, ſince the diviſion made between the French Eaſt India company and the merchants of this town, of a ſhare of the returns, purſuant to a ſtipulation between both parties.

The trade of St. Malo employs yearly about 100 Engliſh veſſels, between 20 and 100 tons; the ports from whence they come being London, Lynn, Yarmouth, Southampton, Weymouth, Exeter, Plymouth, Briſtol, and the ports of the coaſts of Cornwal.

From Briſtol are brought coals and lead; the return being in linens, ſoap, honey, and a great quantity of oil.

The ports on the coaſt of Cornwal ſupply them with tin, coal, and ſome barrels of white herring. The Engliſh have 30 or 40 veſſels, of between 20 and 30 tons, for this trade; the return being in cloths of the manufacture of Halle, Languenau, Vilve, Fougeres, Pontorſon, Noyalles, and Quintin; ſoap, oil, wine, brandy, undreſſed calf and goat-ſkins, honey, and quills.

Exeter, Plymouth, Southampton, and Weymouth, trade in the ſame manner as the ports on the coaſts of Cornwal.

Lynn and Yarmouth ſend to St. Malo lead, coals, linſeed, and herrings; receiving in exchange, wine, brandy, and linens; which trade employs four veſſels of 40 or 60 tons.

Laſtly, London ſends there lead, copperas, nut-gall, and to the value of about 5000l. in coarſe cloths, peneſtons, and frizes; the return being in cloths of Laval, Rouen, Quintin, Halle, Vilve, Pontorſon, and Noyalles, with ſoap, oil, and Bourdeaux wine; this trade employing between 20 and 25 veſſels, from 20 to 100 tons.

St. Malo has not ſo conſiderable a trade with the Dutch as with the Engliſh; the Dutch ſhips that come there yearly ſcarce exceeding the number of 25 or 30. Their cargo conſiſts chiefly in planks, maſts, cordage, hemp, train-oil, whale fins, cheeſe, herrings, and ſpice; their returns being in honey, ſoap, Genoeſe and Provence oil, which the Dutch often take on their own account, or which the people of St. Malo freight their veſſels with for Holland.

The commerce to Spain is very rich, and the moſt conſiderable the merchants of Malo have on their own bottoms. The number of veſſels they ſend there is not certain, depending moſtly on the exigency of Spain, or the Indies for French commodities: however, they uſually employ in this trade to the amount of 15 frigates.

The time of the departure of theſe veſſels is regulated purſuant to the advice received from the galleons and flota

for Spaniſh America. The merchandiſe they freight their ſhips with, are cloths of all kinds, both linen and woollen, Caſtors, Lyons and Tours ſatin, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, woollen ſtuffs of Amiens, Rheims, and other manufactures of the kingdom. Their returns are, for the moſt part, in gold and ſilver; alſo in leather, cochineal, and indigo; Campechy wood, and Spaniſh wool. Theſe returns arrive not at St. Malo till 18 months, or two years, from the time of their departure for Cadiz: but they are always extremely rich, being ſcarce ever leſs than 230,000l. ſterling, and ſometimes amounting to double that ſum.

Next to the commerce of Spain, the cod-fiſhery at Newfoundland is one of the moſt conſiderable carried on by the merchants of St. Malo. The fiſhery of Chapeau rouge employs 15 or 20 ſhips, from 100 to 300 tons; that of the Petit Nord 40 or 50; and that of the Grand Bank much leſs than the two others.

To what has been ſaid may be added, that St. Malo drives a conſiderable trade with Nantz, in war-time, by the prizes the privateers bring in there; as alſo in time of peace by the returns of ſeveral veſſels belonging to St. Malo, that are employed in the cod-fiſhery; and, after having ſold their fiſh up the Streights, or in Italy, unload at Nantz the commodities they got in exchange, as Roman alum, Genoeſe oil, coffee, Parmeſan cheeſe, Levantine drugs, wine, ſoap, ſolder of Alicant, wine, and raiſins of Malaga, ſoap, ſulphur, and other commodities of Spain, Italy, and Provence. It is alſo the ſame commodities that the ſhips of St. Malo bring to Havre, from whence they are ſent to Rouen and Paris.

Morlaix is famous for its great commerce of linen cloth, though not ſo remarkable as formerly; the Engliſh being accuſtomed to take from them, one year with another, to the value of about 175,000 l. ſterling; but the long wars of Lewis XIV. obliged them to eſtabliſh manufactures among themſelves, or ſubſtitute, in the place of theſe cloths, thoſe of Holland and Hamburg, which are much dearer, and perhaps not ſo good. Next to the Engliſh, the traders of Morlaix ſent moſt of their linens, among other commodities, to Spain: great parcels of them are alſo ſent to Paris, and other towns of the kingdom.

The Engliſh give, in part of payment, for the cloths they have from them, lead, tin, and coal; the ſurplus being paid in bills of exchange on London, Paris, Rouen, and other places.

Theſe cloths, though denominated from Morlaix, are not manufactured there; the inhabitants enjoying the privilege of purchaſing them at the firſt hand from the weavers and dealers of the biſhopric of Leon; upon account of which privilege, all others muſt have them from an inhabitant of Morlaix; where the commerce of thread is alſo very conſiderable.

Breſt is ſituated on an eminence, to the north-ſide of a fine bay, called Breſt or Cameret bay. The harbour, in the phraſe of the French writers, is the fineſt in the world; ſeeming to have forgot that much finer of their own at Toulon; for their largeſt ſhips are always built and laid up at Toulon, becauſe Breſt will not eaſily admit of ſhips of that bulk. They have indeed a great number of men of war at Breſt, but not one of the firſt rate, the entrance of the harhour being either too rocky, or too ſhallow, to admit them; which is however a ſecurity againſt the fleet of an enemy. The town and entrance of the harbour are fortified as well as the nature of the ground will allow; and the port, it is ſaid, will contain 500 ſail of ſhips. The yards and magazines here are ſo conſiderable, if credit is given to French writers, that they can equip out 20 ſail of men of war from this port; but they muſt certainly mean of the leſſer ſort, from what has been hinted already. Their ſmall ſquadrons, and privateers, which ſheltered themſelves here, were extremely troubleſome to the Engliſh merchant-men in the late wars; for which, and other reaſons, it was thought proper by the confederates, to make a deſcent here in 1694, in order to have taken the town, and deſtroyed their ſhipping; but the attempt miſcarried, having been ſo long diſcovered before the Engliſh fleet ſailed from their ports, that the Britiſh government had intelligence that the deſign was betrayed, and yet were ſo ſanguine as to proceed in the expedition, to the no ſmall loſs and diſgrace of their fleet and forces: for there was an army more numerous than themſelves ready to receive them, and batteries of guns planted on the ſea-ſhore, where-ever there was any poſſibility of landing. Here the brave Talmaſh, who commanded the land-forces, received his mortal wound, as he was about diſembarking the firſt 600 men, who were moſt of them killed, wounded, or made priſoners, the tide leaving the boats they were in upon the ſand. It was a brave and wiſe attempt of the Engliſh, to endeavour the deſtruction of the French ſhipping, and the only two harbours they have of any conſequence, Breſt and Toulon, though neither of their enterpriſes ſucceeded according to expectation; for as the French, in one reign, increaſed their royal navy to ſuch a degree, as to diſpute the empire of the ſea with the united fleets of England and Holland more than once, what may not the Engliſh dread, if they ſhould ſee another enterpriſing monarch at their head?

Conquet, is a little port-town, in the moſt weſterly part of Britany, near the entrance of the bay of Breſt; the ſea between which, and the iſles of Uſhant, has obtained the name of Conquet road.

The pilchard fiſhery conſtitutes the principal trade of this place, which the inhabitants, and thoſe of Breſt, with Port Lewis, Belleiſle, and Audierne, ſend in great quantities to Spain, Portugal, Provence, and all the port-towns of the Mediterranean, ſalting yearly ſeveral thouſands of caſks.

Port Lewis. The ſituation of Port Lewis is very advantageous for trade; but this trade is inconſiderable, and reduced to almoſt the pilchard fiſhery, which employs, in the ſummer-ſeaſon, upwards of 300 ſloops, and all the ſeamen of the neighbourhood.

Port Lewis, one year with another, makes 4000 barrels of pilchards, each barrel conſiſting of nine or ten thouſand fiſh, which are ſold for about 11 l. 16 s. 6 d. the barrel.

Coveron. A large village, with a ſmall port, three leagues from Nantz. The brandy made of their white wines is the beſt of all Britany; and there is a conſiderable fiſhery here, as well as at Auray, a ſmall port, half a league below it; where the firſt ſhads that enter the river Loire are caught.

Auray. A ſmall port, but very commodious, upon account of the ſecurity the largeſt ſhips can be in there. Its trade is chiefly with the Spaniards, to whom its merchants ſend their fiſh, ox-hides, butter, and other commodities of the province; their returns conſiſting in wines, dry fruits, and particularly in Biſcay iron.

Nants, or *Nantz.* There is ſcarce a town in France better ſituated for commerce than Nantz. The ſea opens a communication for it with all the nations in the world; and the Loire makes it penetrate into the richeſt provinces of the kingdom, even to Paris, by canals that communicate with the Seine.

It is true, Nantz is not ſituated upon the ſea; but the road for ſhips at Pimbeuf, only eight leagues diſtance, where the largeſt ſhips can anchor with ſafety, and the facility wherewith veſſels of 50 or 60 tons, can get up the river, give it the commodiouſneſs of the beſt maritime towns.

The diſtrict of Nantz comprehends Pimbeuf, Bourneuf, Pornie, Croiſic, and Pouligen. About 50 ſhips are yearly employed in this diſtrict for the trade of the American colonies, 25 or 30 for Martinico, 8 or 10 for Guardeloupe, 1 or 2 for the turtle fiſhery, as many for Cayenne, and 8 or 10 for the coaſt of St. Domingo.

The following is a computation of the merchandiſe imported yearly by the ſhips of Nantz into France, from the French American colonies.

Of unprepared ſugar, ſix millions of pounds weight.
Molaſſes four hundred thouſand lb.
White lump ſugar from 3 to 5 hundred thouſand lb.
Cacao two hundred thouſand lb.
Ginger, about one hundred thouſand lb.
Cotton wool, 150 thouſand lb.

ndigo, 150 thouſand lb. or thereabouts.
Rocou of Cayenne, 10 thouſand lb.
Tortoiſe-ſhell, between 5 and 6 thouſand lb.
Caſſia, 50 thouſand lb.
The cod-fiſhery employs upwards of 30 ſhips belonging o Nantz, from 70 to 300 tons; 15 of theſe ſhips are or green cod, and the reſt for dry.
This cod is ſometimes ſold to the Spaniards and Portuueſe; and the commodities in return, if at Liſbon, or t Oporto, are Brazil ſugar and tobacco, ſumac, and oil f olives; if at Bilboa, St. Sebaſtian, Cadiz, Seville, or ome ports of Catalonia and Galicia, beſides gold and ſilver ſpecie, wool, oil, cotton, and cochineal.
As to the north, Dutch, Engliſh, Iriſh, and Scotch trades, which are ſome of the moſt important at Nantz, the merchants there never carry it on upon their own account; theſe nations, eſpecially the Dutch, having agents upon the ſpot, to ſell their merchandiſe, and prepare cargoes for their return.

te of the manufactures and commodities of the produce of Britany, which are yearly exported for the other provinces of the kingdom, and foreign countries.

Cloths of all kinds, to the amount of	12,000,000 livres:
White threads, raw, and coloured,	1,000,000
Paper - - -	200,000
Woollen ſtuffs for the French iſlands and ſhips - -	4,000
Honey and wax - -	600,000
Butter - -	100,000
Horſes - - -	1,000,000
Oxen - -	350,000
Hogs - - -	100,000
Sheep - -	40,000
Corn - -	100,000
Salt - - -	100,000
Fiſh - - -	50,000
Game - -	10,000
Fowls - - -	14 000
Skins and leather -	60,000
Wines and brandy for the French iſlands	80,000
Cordage and hemp - -	150,000
Old linens and hair -	20,000
Wood for caſks - -	15,000
Wood for building and fire -	230,000
Iron for the anchors of ſhips -	10,000
Cards for playing - -	6,000
Tallow - - -	100,000
Total -	16,375,000 livres,
Or about	614,500 l. ſterling.

Aunis, and Xaintonge.

The port-towns of the province or government of Aunis are Rochefort, Rochelle, Brouage, and Tonnai-Charente.

ch fort was but a little caſtle in 1665; when Lewis XIV. obſerving that the coaſts on the ocean were generally very dangerous, and of difficult acceſs, and that there was ſcarce a road or port, except that of Breſt, where the royal navy might ride with any ſecurity, ordered ſeveral places to be ſounded; whereby he diſcovered, that a good port might be made in the mouth of the river Charente, and that there was depth of water ſufficient in that river for the largeſt veſſels: accordingly he purchaſed the caſtle of Rochefort, and ordered the plan of a town to be traced out, of the bigneſs of Bourdeaux; where, having ſurrounded it with a wall, and other modern fortifications, he erected an arſenal and magazines, and gave all manner of encouragement to his ſubjects to build and ſettle there: ſo that it is now one of the fineſt towns, and the beſt provided to accommodate the royal navy, of any upon the coaſt, except Breſt and Port Lewis; the entrance of the river, and the port, being defended by ſeveral forts, that render it inacceſſible to an enemy by ſea.

Rochelle. The chief trade of this town, is chiefly by ſea; the productions of the countries that compoſe its generality being ſalt, wine, brandy, and hemp.

The ſhips it ſends abroad are uſually for the French Leeward iſlands, that of Cayenne, for Canada, the coaſt of Guinea, the Azores, and Portugal: but, before the peace of Utrecht, ſhips were alſo ſent from thence to Hudſon's bay, and Nova Scotia.
The cargo of the ſhips ſent to the French Leeward iſlands, conſiſts in all that is neceſſary for the cloathing and ſuſtenance of the inhabitants; as wine, brandy, corn, Iriſh beef, cloths, and all kinds of dry commodities. The goods for Canada are haberdaſhery, grocery, and hard wares.
The returns from the Antilles conſiſt in ſugar, cocoa, rocou, ginger, caſſia, leather, Brazil wood, Campechy wood, citron wood, tortoiſe-ſhell, and ſeveral kinds of confects: beſides, St. Domingo furniſhes cochineal, quinquina, cocoa, vanille, pearls, emeralds, and piaſtres; but as theſe are conſequences of the captures made by the flybuſters, or freebooters, the proper commodities may be deemed leather, tobacco, and wood for dying and inlaid work.
Canada, and the northern colonies, afford green and dry cod, ſtock fiſh, ſalmon, ſalt eels, train-oil, maſts, and all kinds of furs; but theſe are only upon the Caſtor company's account.
Whatever is ſent from Rochelle for the French colonies, pays no duties of exportation; but what comes back, and all the commodities of any other deſtination, pay the duties of importation and exportation; as alſo the other duties. The number of ſhips the merchants of Rochelle employ in the commerce to the Leeward iſlands, is about 50, from 80 to 150 tons.
In war-time, the Swedes and Danes freight their ſhips at Rochelle with wine and brandy; in time of peace, the Engliſh and Dutch do the ſame; to which they add paper, cloths, ſerges, ſyrups, indigo, and caſtor.
Rochelle ſends alſo brandy into Normandy and Picardy, ſilks and ſtuffs to Portugal; and cocoa of the French American colonies into Spain.
The Rochelle trade to Africa brings in return for goods exported, leather, wax, and gold duſt; that of Portugal, molaſſes, chocolate, citron bark, oranges, and Brazil tobacco; England, lead, and tin; Ireland, ſalt beef, butter, tallow, and leather; Holland, ſpice, cheeſe, and train-oil.
The commerce of Africa, Spain, and Portugal, is upon no eſtabliſhed footing; the Rochelle merchants contenting themſelves to ſend their ſhipping there, as they ſee an occaſion; but the Engliſh, the Dutch, and thoſe of the north, uſually ſend the ſhipping of their own countries to Rochelle.
The refining of ſugar at Rochelle is very conſiderable; and this town would be one of the moſt flouriſhing places in the kingdom for commerce, had not its port and harbour been ſtopped up with ſand, pebbles, ſtones, and other obſtructions to the entrance of merchant-veſſels, which run great riſks, either at coming out or going in.

Brouage is a town of Xaintonge, ſix leagues from Rochelle, three from Rochefort, four from Tonnai-Charente, and ſeven from Xaintes, ſituated upon a canal formed by the flowing and ebbing of the ſea. Its port was formerly pretty good; but the Prince of Condé, during the wars in France on account of religion, quite choaked up its entrance; ſince which time it has been impoſſible to ſet the canal upon the ſame footing: however, ſhips of ſome burden enter there in high water, and are very ſecure.
The principal object of the commerce of Brouage is the ſalt-marſhes that ſurround it on all ſides; affording yearly ſuch quantities of ſalt, as to ſupply the whole kingdom, and all the northern countries.

Tonnai-Charente, is a village ſituated a league from Rochefort, wherein is eſtabliſhed an office for the revenue; whoſe receipts, for the duties of wine, brandy, and ſalt, amount yearly to about 36,000 l. ſterling, upon account of the great quantities exported from thence by foreigners. It is computed, that, one year with another, 35,000 barrels of brandy, and 7000 muids, or 168,000 buſhels, of ſalt, are ſent out of Charente; the brandy paying the duty of 15 livres, 16 ſols, or about 12 s. 10 d. ſterling,

per barrel; and the ſalt is bought at about 12 livres, or 9s. 8½d. ſterl. *per* muid, each muid containing 24 buſhels.

Guyenne, and Gaſcony.

The principal port-towns are Bourdeaux and Bayonne.

Bourdeaux, is ſituated on the river Garonne, 90 miles S. of Rochelle, and 260 miles S. W. of Paris, being one of the largeſt and richeſt cities of France, containing about 40,000 inhabitants. It has three principal objects of trade; the vent of its own wine and brandy to foreigners, its exports for the French American colonies, and its whale and cod fiſheries.

The commerce of wine and brandy brings to Bourdeaux ſo many foreign veſſels, that there are uſually in its port, throughout the whole year, upwards of 100 ſhips; and, in the time of its fairs, upwards of 150.

Thoſe who ſend their ſhips to Bourdeaux for wine and brandy, are the Engliſh, Iriſh, Scotch, Dutch, Swedes, Danes, and other northern nations; but the Engliſh and Dutch buy up more than all the reſt together.

The Engliſh, one year with another, take away with them 6000 tons of wine, and between 3 and 400 butts of brandy; beſides vinegar, prunes, reſin, turpentine, cheſnuts, walnut-timber, paper, cork, and honey. What they import to Bourdeaux conſiſts in woollen ſtuffs, tin, lead, coal, white and red herrings, all kinds of leather, ſalt beef for the French Leeward iſlands, butter, cheeſe, tallow, and dying ſtuffs. But when the ballance of the merchandiſe is not equal, the Engliſh pay the ſurplus in bills of exchange on London and Paris.

The wines the Dutch have from Bourdeaux amount, one year with another, to 50,000 tons, and the brandy to 10 or 12,000 butts; beſides vinegar, linſeed, ſyrup, and ſuch commodities as the Engliſh have from thence. Thoſe they leave in exchange, are planks, maſts for ſhips, hemp, copper, and cheeſe; the ballance being diſcharged either in ready money, or bills of exchange.

The Swedes and Danes import the ſame commodities with the Dutch, and their returns are much the ſame: however, each of theſe nations ſeldom take more than 3 or 4000 tons of wine, and brandy in proportion; becauſe they rely on the Dutch for ſupplying them with what they want, and as cheap as at the firſt hand.

The commerce carried on at Bourdeaux with the French American colonies, employs 24 or 28 ſhips, from 50 to 250 tons; as, 2 or 3 for Quebec, 3 or 4 for Cayenne, 4 or 5 for St. Domingo, and 12 or 15 for Martinico; the reſt being for the other Antilles.

Their cargo conſiſts in wine, cloth, linen, hats, hardware, and tools for artiſans of all kinds; the return being in ſugar, cotton, ginger, indigo, tortoiſe-ſhell, rocou, and cocoa.

As for the whale and cod fiſheries, the merchants of Bourdeaux import a part for their own conſumption, and diſtribute the other in the different ports of Spain, Italy, and other places of Europe.

There are two free fairs at Bourdeaux; the one on the firſt of March, the other on the 15th of October.

Bayonne, is ſituated on the rivers Nive and Adour, 85 miles S. of Bourdeaux, and 360 S. W. of Paris; being the moſt conſiderable port on this coaſt next to Bourdeaux: the town is tolerably large and populous, and of great conſequence on account of its foreign trade, as alſo for being one of the ſtrongeſt frontier garriſons on the ſide of Spain: the harbour is likewiſe pretty goad, but of difficult entrance.

To this town the Spaniards bring their wool, over the mountains, on mules, and take ſugars in return; and from Bayonne the Spaniſh wool is diſtributed to all the provinces of France, where there are woollen manufactures. Timber for ſhipping, as maſts and yards, are alſo brought down the rivers in floats from the Pyrenean mountains to Bayonne, and ſent from thence to Breſt and other ports, where the King's ſhips are built and repaired.

The merchants of this town fit out ſhips alſo every year for the whale-fiſhery in Greenland, and pretend to have been the firſt who diſcovered, and were engaged, in this branch of trade. It is true, their neighbours the Biſcayners of Spain, were the firſt the Engliſh were acquainted with that followed the whale-fiſhery; and, on account of their dexterity in that art, the Engliſh took ſe-veral of them into their ſervice, when they firſt eſta-bliſhed the whale-fiſhery in the Greenland ſeas; ſo that under the name of Biſcayners, it is highly probable the mariners of Bayonne, and other ports on this coaſt, might be included. But it appears they followed this employ-ment in more ſouthern latitudes, and not in the ſeas of New Greenland, till they were carried thither by the Engliſh.

Between 20 and 25 ſhips, from 200 to 300 tons, are em-ployed by the merchants of Bayonne in the cod-fiſhery, and 12 or 15, from 130 to 300 tons, in the whale fiſhery.

Provence.

The moſt conſiderable roads and harbours on the coaſt of Provence, are thoſe of Marſeilles, Toulon, Hieres, and Antibes.

Marſeilles, is ſituated on a fine bay of the Mediterranean, 20 miles ſouth of Aix, 30 north-weſt of Toulon, and 360 ſouth-eaſt of Paris. The town is well fortified, hav-ing ſo large and populous, that it is ſaid to contain 100,000 inhabitants: it has a ſecure, capacious harbour, being the ſtation for the French galleys, but will not ad-mit of large men of war; it has a good ſilk manufac-ture, and the warlike magazines are ſaid to equal any in Europe.

The French relate, that they export annually from the port of Marſeilles to Italy, to the value of about 140,000 ſterling, of the product and manufactures of Languedoc, Dauphiné, and Provence; as, 6000 bales of cloth, ſerges, and other woollen manufactures, being of the value of two millions of livres, or about 81,250 l. ſterling; of almonds, the value of about 8125 l. ſterling; 200 barrels of honey, amounting to about 2000 l. ſterling; and as much in prunes and figs, ſalted eels, olives, and anchovies; ſome oil, grain, and flour; 6000 bales of cotton linen made at Marſeilles; ſtrong waters, cotton waiſtcoats and ſtock-ings; as alſo thread and worſted ſtockings.

On the contrary, they import annually from Italy to Marſeilles, 6000 quintals of hemp of Piedmont, at 8 livres the quintal, or 100 weight; as many quintals of rice from the ſame country, by way of Nice and Oneglia; 2000 quintals of rice from Lombardy, by the way of Ge-noa, and that coaſt; 15,000 charges of bread-corn from Venice and Ancona, each charge being about 8 buſhels Engliſh; 1000 charges, or quarters, from Sardinia and Sicily, and as much from Civita-Vecchia; 1500 quintals of ſulphur from Civita-Vecchia and Ancona; 200 quin-tals of aniſeed from the eccleſiaſtical territories; 75 cheſts of manna, gathered in Sicily, the pope's territories and about mount St. Angelo in Calabria, of which the laſt is the beſt; 2600 bales of fine ſilk, of the growth of Savoy, Piedmont, the Milaneſe, Lombardy, Bologna, Ferrara, and Sicily, conſiſting of two quintals the bale; 1000 bales of fine ſilk, of two quintals each, imported into Marſeilles by ſea: all which merchandiſes, and ſome other ſmall articles, amount to 3,335,350 livres, or 135,498 l. ſterling.

The trade from Marſeilles to Spain is much more con-derable than that to Italy; for there is annually ſent to Spain to the value of about 40,000 l. ſterling, in linens of all ſorts, ſtuffs of Tours, brocades, taffetas, and other wrought ſilks; ſome galoons, gold and ſilver lace; coun-terfeit galoons, lace, and pins; box-combs, and other made at Marſeilles, and in the neighbourhood. But this is nothing, in compariſon of the trade of gold and ſilver ſtuffs from Lyons, brocades, wrought ſilks, gar-bands, Chaumont laces, Avignon taffetas, hard-ware, Puy laces, laces of Britany, Rouen, and other places; camblets of Liſle in Flanders, the ſerges and coarſe wool-len cloths of Niſmes and Auvergne, with their ſuffs and dimmities, which amount in the whole to the value of ſix millions, 280,000 livres, or about 250,000 ſterling; other merchandiſe of Marſeilles, conſiſting of hats, galls, paper, tobacco, prunes, and thread, amount-ing to 180,000 livres; cotton-thread of Jeruſalem, gum-arabic, galls of Aleppo, drugs of all kinds, ſaffron, and other articles, amounting to 1,500,000 livres: the total of all which ſums is 9,170,000 livres, or 366,00

366,000 l. ſterling. On the contrary they annually import from Spain to the value of eight millions, one hundred and fourſcore thouſand livres, or about 325,600 l. ſterling in cochineel, quinquina, indigo, Campechy-wood, wool of Segovia, and other places, ſarſaparilla, ſugar, vermillion, ſilk, liquorice, piaſtres, oil, dried raiſins, and other articles.

As to the Turky or Levant trade, they ſend annually to Conſtantinople twelve or fifteen ſail, whereof four or five are ſhips, and the reſt barks. The merchandiſes they carry thither of their own growth, or manufactures, are woollen cloths or ſerges, caps, paper, hard-ware, clocks and watches: the goods they carry which are the produce of other countries, are ſpice and cochineel, powder ſugars, indigo, ſarſaparilla, quick-ſilver, arſenick, Brazil and Campechy wood, white lead, tin plates, wire, and other ſmall articles. The goods imported from Conſtantinople to Marſeilles, are ſheeps wool, goats hair, buffaloes hides, and other ſkins, yellow wax, allum, maſtick, ſhagreen ſkins, box-wood, cotton, and other ſmall articles: the cuſtoms at the port of Conſtantinople amounting to no more than 3 *per cent.* either for goods imported or exported.

To the port of Smyrna the French ſend annually ſeven or eight ſhips, and about as many ſmall barks. The merchandiſes exported thither are much the ſame as thoſe for Conſtantinople; only the French find a greater vent for their caps, which the Armenians and Greeks take off their hands. The returns from Smyrna to Marſeilles are made in cotton, cotton-linens, ſponges, goats hair, camblets, Turkey carpets, yarn, galls, drugs, maſtick, and Scio turpentine, which is eſteemed the beſt in the Levant. To Salonichi, or Theſſalonica, they export from Marſeilles Engliſh cloth, or ſuch as they make in imitation of it, paper, cochineel, ſpice, tin, wire, and tin plates: they import from thence hides, wool, wax, ſilk, cotton-thread, allum, ſponges, and tobacco.

The number of ſhips which go to Canea, in the iſle of Candia, are very uncertain, depending moſtly upon the crop of corn and oil: ſome years 100 barks ſail thither, carrying Engliſh cloth, French cloth, ſerges, caps, ſpice, and ſome ſilver; making their returns from thence in oil for ſoap, wax, bread, corn, and ſome cheeſe.

They have alſo ſome little trade with the iſlands of the Archipelago; and there is a particular company of merchants at Marſeilles who trade to Satalia, a ſea-port town of Pamphylia, in the Leſſer Aſia, who carry only ſilver thither; and bring back wool, goats-hair, wax, cotton-thread, gum adraganth, opium, and currants.

About two or three ſhips in a year are ſent to Scanderoon, the port town to Aleppo, which carry and bring back the ſame goods as thoſe which trade to the other ports of Turky above-mentioned. The trade thither was formerly more conſiderable; but the exceſſive duties which the baſhaws lay on the caravans from Perſia and India, occaſion their travelling on to Smyrna, where the neighbourhood of the Port prevents thoſe extortions.

The trade to Tripoli and Sidon, in Syria, is inconſiderable; as is alſo that to Cyprus.

To Alexandria, the port-town of Grand Cairo in Egypt, they uſually ſend from Marſeilles ten or twelve ſhips, and four or five barks, with merchandiſe and money. The goods are caps, paper, ſpice, drugs for painting, coral, and wire; for which they bring back hides, flax, wool, thread, ſaffron, wax, aloes, incenſe, coffee, myrrh, white-plumes, herons feathers, elephants teeth, and gum lack: the cuſtoms here alſo are 3 *per cent.* upon all merchandiſes, but nothing is demanded for money.

Toulon, is ſituated in a valley, almoſt encompaſſed with hills on the land ſide, and on a bay of the Mediterranean, which forms a ſecure and commodious harbour, 25 m. S.E. of Marſeilles, 80 S. W. of Nice, and 400 S. E. of Paris. The town is not large, or beautiful; though it has ſome fine buildings, eſpecially the magazines and offices, which the late King erected for the uſe of the navy.

The French lay up their largeſt men of war, and have the fineſt docks and yards in the kingdom for fitting out a royal fleet at Toulon; ſuch as, in the ſtrain of the French writers, are not to be paralleled in the world: but thoſe who have ſeen Portſmouth and Chatham, or the Dutch magazines and yards in Holland, poſſibly may be of another opinion: however, the following is an abſtract of what the French ſay of their naval magazine, and works at Toulon.

They tell us, that there is a covered rope-yard of ſo ſurpriſing a length, that a man cannot ſee from one end to the other; and over it is an infinite number of workmen, employed in ſorting of hemp and ſpinning. That they have ſchools for the marine-guards, where they are taught navigation and their exerciſes: that the hall of arms is a noble fabric, where they make muſkets, piſtols, halberts, and other arms: that, in another magazine, they have all manner of utenſils for cannoneers and bombardeers: that the offices where the ſmiths, carpenters, and coopers work, are of a vaſt extent: that the park where the cannon, bombs, and bullets are piled up in a regular manner, and the vaſt number of anchors, aſtoniſhes a man: that the ſtore-houſe where the ſails and rigging for the men of war are laid up, is of a prodigious length; that the foundery, where all manner of cannon and mortars are caſt, requires attention; and the royal bake-houſe, with its numerous ovens, is admirably contrived; that the machine for putting maſts into ſhips at the old dock is the admiration of all that ſee it; and, laſtly, that there has been found in Toulon, at one time, near 600 braſs cannon, upwards of 3000 iron guns, 16 firſt-rates, 8 ſecond-rates, beſides frigates, bomb-veſſels, fire-ſhips, and others: nor were there leſs in the place when the allies came before it in the year 1707.

Hieres, is a pretty little town, ſituated near the ſea, about 3 leagues to the eaſtward of Toulon, which gives its name to the iſlands that lie oppoſite to it in the Mediterranean. It is conſiderable at preſent on account of its excellent ſalt, made both from the ſea-water and ſalt pools.

Antibes, is one of the moſt antient towns in Provence, ſituated on the ſea-coaſt, about 3 leagues S. W. of Nice, conſiderable on account of its port, and antiquities: it has alſo a pretty ſtrong citadel for its defence.

FRENCH *Netherlands*. See *Netherlands*: alſo ſee *Lorrain* and *Bar*.

FRENCH *Iſlands*. To begin with thoſe of Provence; there are firſt thoſe of St. Margaret and St. Honorat; ſecondly, the Hieres; and, thirdly, thoſe of Marſeilles. The iſles of St. Margaret and Honorat lie a little to the ſouthward of Antibes, which, with Cape Garoupe, form a noble road, called the Gourjean, where there is excellent anchorage. The iſle of St. Margaret lies 3 leagues to the S. E. of Cannes, being a mile in length, and a quarter of one broad; defended by three forts, and was known to the ancients by the name of Leras.

The iſland of St. Honorat, formerly Lerina, is a little iſland ſeparated from St. Margaret's by a channel, a quarter of a league over, and is defended by a great tower.

The iſlands of Hieres lie S. E. of Toulon, forming, with the oppoſite ſhore, one of the fineſt roads in the Mediterranean; being about 10 leagues long, and 6 broad; which is uſually the place of rendezvous for the royal navy. Theſe iſlands are three in number; the iſland of Porquerolle, the iſland of Portecroz, and the iſland of Levant. That of Porquerolle was called by the antients Proten, and is about four miles in length, and one in breadth. The iſland of Portecroz, known to the antients by the name of Pomponiana, and Alſen, lies ſix miles to the eaſtward of Porquerolle, and has a caſtle of the ſame name, ſituated on a rock. The iſland of Levant lies the moſt eaſterly of any of them, being four miles in length and one in breadth.

The iſlands of Marſeilles lie a little to the ſouthward of that city, and are three in number; If, Ratoneau, and Pomegues. The iſle of If took its name from the yew-trees which grew there; the word If, in the French language, ſignifying a yew-tree; where there is a caſtle in the middle, well furniſhed with artillery. The iſle of Ratoneau is a dry barren rock, about a mile and a half in length, and half a one in breadth, having a fort on the top of it. The iſle of Pomegues is almoſt as large as Ratoneau, and defended by a large tower.

Iſlands

Iſlands of the province or government of Aunis.

The iſle of Rhé, or Ree, lies five or ſix miles to the weſtward of Rochelle, being four or five leagues in length, and one and a half in breadth; producing plenty of wine and ſalt; tho' the wine is but indifferent, and ſerves chiefly to make brandy and ſtrong waters. They have neither corn, graſs, or trees upon the iſland; which, however, is populous, and ſtands very advantageouſly for a foreign trade: the chief town is that of St. Martin's, beſides which there are five or ſix pariſhes.

The iſle of Oleron lies two or three leagues to the ſouthward of Rhé, and as much to the weſtward of the continent, being about five leagues in length, two in breadth, and twelve in circumference; containing 6 pariſhes, and ten or twelve thouſand inhabitants. It is defended by a caſtle ſituated on the eaſt part of the iſland, and ſome other forts. The natives had formerly a great reputation for their ſkill in navigation; in conformity to whoſe cuſtoms it was, that Queen Eleanor, Dutcheſs of Guyenne, made thoſe conſtitutions relative to ſea-affairs which obtained the title of the laws of Oleron, and became a model for all other maritime powers on the ocean, as thoſe of Rhodes were in the Mediterranean, in the time of the Romans. Upon each of theſe iſlands of Rhé and Oleron, there is a pharos, or light-houſe, for the direction of mariners in the night. The ſoil of Oleron is very fruitful, producing corn and wine in abundance; beſides which the natives make great quantities of ſalt from the ſea-water.

Iſlands of Britany.

Belle-Iſle lies about ſix leagues S. W. of the continent of Britany, being ſix leagues in length, and two in breadth; but it is almoſt encompaſſed with rocks, which make it of difficult acceſs.

There is a pretty good road to the northward of the iſland, defended by forts and other works, in which there is always a good garriſon; and here the French fleet uſually rendezvous before they put to ſea. The moſt remarkable places upon it are the pariſhes of Zauzan, Palais, Locmaria, and Bangor.

The iſland of Uſhant, or Oueſſant, lies four or five leagues to the weſtward of Conquet, being about eight miles in circumference: there are ſome little villages upon it, and a caſtle for its defence. There are alſo a great many other leſſer iſlands near it, which, from the larger, have obtained the name of the iſles of Uſhant.

For the iſlands adjacent to Normandy, ſee Great *Britain*, and *Britiſh* Iſlands.

France, ſituated in a pleaſant climate, is generally very fertile, being productive of every thing neceſſary to life, and many delicacies. Scarce any metals are found in France; but this is ſufficiently made amends for, by the induſtry of the inhabitants, and folly of foreigners: for their manufactures, eſpecially ſince the eſtabliſhment of that for ſilk, by Henry IV. have brought great quantities of money into the kingdom. It has been calculated, that France receives annually from foreigners 40,000,000 of livres, or 1,625,000 l. ſterling for ſilks; 15,000,000 or 609,375 l. ſterl. for wines; 10,000,000 or 406,250 l. ſterling for ſalt; 5,000,000, or 203,125 l. ſterling for brandy, and ſo in proportion for the reſt of its commodities. It has been affirmed, that the yearly exports from France to England, exceed in value thoſe from England to France, above a million ſterling: and it is notorious, that great part of the treaſure from the Spaniſh Weſt Indies comes into France: however, maritime affairs were ſo neglected by the French, that, notwithſtanding the ſeamen were all regiſtered, and obliged to ſerve in the royal ſhips when called upon, no fleet could be fitted out equal to that of Great Britain or Holland.

The crown of France, conſidered in the extent of country, in the number of people, in the riches of its commodities, in the revenues of the King, the greatneſs of the land-forces, and the augmentation of the marine, the number and bravery of their officers, and the conduct of their miniſters, may appear to be deſigned for greater atchievements and empires than have been ſeen in Chriſtendom ſince that of Charlemagne. The preſent greatneſs of this crown may be principally derived from the fortune it has had of two ſuch great miniſters as Richlieu and Mazarine ſucceeding one another, between two great Kings, Henry IV. and Lewis XIV. ſo as during the courſe of one inactive life, and of a long minority, that crown acquired a great deal of ground both at home and abroad, inſtead of loſing it, which is the common fate of kingdoms upon thoſe occaſions. The latter greatneſs of this crown began in the time of Lewis XI. in 1477, by the ſpoils of the houſe of Burgundy, and the diviſions of the princes, which gave that King the heart of attempting to bring the government, as he called it, *hors de page*, or to be free, being before controuled by their princes, and reſtrained by their ſtates; as alſo, in point of revenue, kept within the bounds of the royal demeſnes, and the ſubjects voluntary contributions. It is unneceſſary to obſerve, by what difficulties and dangers to the crown this deſign of Lewis was purſued by many Kings, like a great ſtone forced up a hill, and, upon every ſlacking of either ſtrength or care, rolling a great way back, often to the very bottom of the hill; and ſometimes with the deſtruction of thoſe that forced it on, till the time of Cardinal Richlieu, who ſucceeded in eſtabliſhing the arbitrary power at preſent ſo deſpotically great in France.

Though Lewis XI. firſt laid the foundation of that abſolute power, which the French monarchs have ſo illicitably enjoyed; it was Henry IV. who effectually attempted to put in execution the ſchemes of Francis I. and to increaſe his power by the aſſiſtance of trade: it was this prince who eſtabliſhed the manufacture of ſilk; he encouraged Nicholas Cadeau in raiſing, and bringing to perfection, the woollen manufacture of Sedan; and he aſſiſted Joſſe Vanrobais in forming that of Abbeville, whereby France no longer envies the beautiful cloths of England, Spain, or Holland. Lewis XIV. made conſiderable improvements in every branch of trade, but particularly in the woollen manufactures, wherein he was aſſiſted by the zeal and abilities of that great miniſter John Baptiſt Colbert; and for which he aſſigned the annual ſum of a million of livres, or 40,625 l. ſterling. The whole life of Lewis XIV. was a continued and vigilant protection of commerce and navigation; in which he was imitated by the miniſters he had choſen for this important direction, and whom he alſo encouraged not only with repeated favours, but alſo ſupported againſt the ſtruggles of envy and emulation. He made ſeveral very ſalutary proviſions for the regulation and encouragement of commerce; as alſo for the increaſe and ſecurity of the royal navy. Though he poſſeſſed many good ports in the ocean, moſt of them large, abounding with ſeamen and other inhabitants; however, for a place to fit out, lay up, and winter the ſquadron for the ocean ſervice, he made choice of, and improved, the harbour of Breſt, where there was very little trade, and no great number of people; on which account men of war might be there fitted out with leſs difficulty, and more expedition, a conſiderable ſaving made in the purchaſe of materials, and other charges occaſioned by a great fleet; beſides, it was a great convenience to its officers, mariners, and ſailors, in reſpect to their maintenance, lodging, and other neceſſary articles. Some men of war were alſo fitted out in the port of Rochfort; but it was not ſo much with a view of laying them up there in the winter, as to take advantage of its fine docks, and convenient ſituation for materials; for, in this place, there is alſo much leſs trade than in any of the other cities upon that coaſt. Among others in the Mediterranean there are the two remarkable ports of Toulon and Marſeilles, ſituated on the coaſt of Provence, a very fruitful country, diſtant from each other but 8 or 9 leagues; which have equal advantages to recommend them to an inland, as well as foreign trade: however, Lewis XIV. favoured, and made Marſeilles a mart for the Levant, by the reſidence of a conſul, who is ſtill maintained in that city; though he made choice of Toulon only for a port to lay up, and fit out, his ſecond naval ſquadron; keeping alſo the ſame ſeparate from the other, for the very reaſons he had for employing it in the ocean: nor could it be ſaid, that he had found at Breſt and Toulon ſpacious and ſafe ports, for he improved and changed them ſo much, by conve-

ng conſiderable tracts of land into ſea, and ſea into and, beſides other vaſt works, that, it is aſſerted, they coſt him as many millions of livres as if he had made thoſe very ports anew, and as perfect as they are; and Monſieur de Vauvre, intendant of the marine, has ſaid, that the regular pay of the French naval armaments, during the war which ended at the peace of Ryſwick, was 18 millions of livres, or 731,250 l. ſterling yearly. Though the French galleys were laid up in winter, as they are at this time, in the port of Marſeilles, they did not occaſion any conſiderable obſtructions to trade; both as the fitting of them out was a thing of no great labour, or expence; and as moſt part of their hands conſiſt of criminals condemned to them, and who live on board, upon coarſe ſcanty diet; beſides, whilſt they are in port, it is cuſtomary for moſt of them to work conſtantly in the manufactories of rigging, and other naval ſtores, for the uſe of the galleys, and the ſhips of war; as alſo upon ſeveral other fabrics eſtabliſhed there. Nor did Lewis XIV. make it ſo far his only meaſure to keep his naval armaments ſeparate, and diſengaged from the concourſe, ſcarcity, and difficulties, trading towns are liable to, that he made choice of diſtinct ports, and at firſt ſettled other proviſions; but all thoſe that followed, during his long and happy reign, were uniform, and agreeable to this maxim: it was his conſtant care to prevent commerce from extending itſelf very much in thoſe places which he had ſet apart for fitting out, and laying up his ſhips of war, at the ſame time that he cheriſhed it in other cities, as may be ſeen in the many edicts and ordinances, which are collected in the French books, containing rules and proviſions made in favour of trade in that kingdom.

It may be neceſſary to ſhew how this great monarch, who ſo well knew how to gain his purpoſes, planned, and put in execution, his noble proviſions in this important affair; the origin and main ſpring of the vaſt power, riches, and ſtrength, his kingdom acquired, and which proved him ſuperior to all the great princes whoſe names are regiſtered in his palace, or tranſmitted down in the genealogy of his anceſtors. By the tariff of 1664 his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty laid a duty of 70 livres, or 2 l. 6 s. 17 ½ d. ſterling, upon the importation of 30 yards of Spaniſh cloth, and 40 livres, or 1 l. 12 s. ſterling, upon a piece of 25 yards of cloth from Holland or England; though, at the ſame time, he permitted 30 yards of French cloth to be exported upon paying only 20 ſols, or 9 d. ſterling: ſilk ſtockings exported paid only 2 *per cent.* but 20 *per cent.* when imported. By an arret in 1701, the duty on exporting linens of Marigny, and other parts about Coutance in Normandy, was reduced to leſs than 1 *per cent.* becauſe a larger duty was a diſcouragement to the trade in this commodity at Cadiz, for the Indies.

It was repreſented to the King, by his royal council of commerce, that it would be an effectual means to encourage and enlarge the commerce of his ſubjects, as well as the fabrics of the kingdom; and, at the ſame time, favour the exportation of their own manufactures, provided the duties upon the exportation of ſome of the principal commodities, that ſhould be manufactured in his dominions, were entirely taken off, and thoſe upon others reduced lower; it being certain that ſuch indulgencies, and abatements, far from turning out to the prejudice of the royal revenues, would conſiderably augment them, from the greater quantities of merchandiſe ſent abroad, by means of this exemption from the duties upon exports, which would cauſe a greater conſumption of materials, whoſe duties upon importation would be conſiderably augmented, and the revenue that would have been received upon exports be made amends for; and alſo, as the commodities, upon which the duty of exportation ſhould be reduced, would be ſent abroad in larger quantities to foreign parts, this increaſe would yield a revenue equal at leaſt to that of the ſmall quantity before exported, and which paid the higher duties chargeable at that time; upon which conſiderations, the King, by an arret in 1701, ordered that all gold and ſilver tiſſue, ribbons, ſatins flowered and plain, velvets, damaſks flowered with gold and ſilver, and all other gold and ſilver ſtuffs; as alſo plain ſilks, velvets, ſatins, damaſks, taffety, ribbons, and all other ſilks whatſoever, ſhould be exported out of France free of duty: and that ſtuffs made of thread, hair, or wool, mixt with ſilk; cloths, and other ſtuffs of wool or hair, or mixt; linens; and hats, be exported on paying only a moiety of the former duties: it was alſo permitted that paper, white, grey, blue, and other colours; printed books, cards, and paſteboard, ſhould be exported free of duty: and though afterwards, at the inſtance of the farmer-general of the revenue, ſome alteration was made in reſpect to their being exported duty free, the duties upon exportation ſtill remained upon a very moderate footing, ſince many of theſe commodities did not pay 1 *per cent.*

The long, very prudent, and glorious reign of Lewis XIV. has left ſo many, and ſuch illuſtrious examples to future ages, to ſhew how to inſure the ſame ſucceſs he himſelf obtained in the grand affair of commerce, and other policies of civil government, that they are highly meritorious of obſervation. This monarch, in an edict of the year 1664, was lamenting that moſt of his ſubjects were naturally inclined to a lazy inactive life: but the vigour and influence of his government was ſo prevalent, that his ſubjects, as it were changing their nature, ſhook off their indolence, ſhewing themſelves to be the moſt active, ingenious, and laborious people in Europe; particularly in manufactures, commerce, and navigation. The King, finding by experience, that nothing could contribute to the proſperity of his ſubjects like trade, reſolved to make it his principal concern to revive and improve it: therefore, he appointed commiſſioners, in every province, to examine into the debts and charges upon every trading company; the condition, management, and diſpoſal of their revenues, and what charges or expences might be remitted: thus, by a thorough acquaintance with their ſituation, he formed general and particular rules to prevent diſorders, eaſe their charges and expence, pay off their debts, and ſettle regular payments for the future, appointing officers of zeal and abilities to do it annually; by which proviſions and relief, the people found themſelves in a condition to improve their commerce.

He inſtituted ſeveral academies, under the direction of able engineers, for the inſtruction of youth in coſmography, the art of navigation, and the other branches of mathematics, which have a reference to war either by ſea or land; not omitting the architecture, or building of ſhips. He cauſed very preciſe and well-adjuſted ordinances, to be drawn up, for the ſervice, diſcipline, polity, pay, and fitting out of his fleet; the building of his ſhips; the government and preſervation of the ports; as alſo for the eſtabliſhment and direction of the arſenals, docks, and magazines: he alſo gave ſtated rules for the navigation, freights, contracts, polity, fitting out, and other concerns of merchantmen; the form of trafficking in them; and deciding all their cauſes and diſputes, in theſe, or any other points, by a ſhort proceſs. He invited and encouraged the nobles, either ſingle or in partnerſhip, to embark in trade as merchants, by ſea and land, declaring that it ſhould never be any imputation on their honour. He formed an independent general council of commerce, conſiſting of miniſters and others of great experience and credit in trade; which council was convened every 15 days in his preſence: for at Roan, Lyons, and other cities of large trade, he inſtitituted particular aſſociations of perſons ſkilful in this affair, in which was debated by men of experience upon the ſpot, and granted, every thing that favoured its improvement, according to the ſituation and advantages of each city and province: and an account was tranſmitted to his Majeſty of every thing they reſolved upon, as well as what occurred to them; which the King ordered to be examined in the general council of commerce; and, by this univerſal knowledge of the conſtitution of every one of his provinces, and the opinions of the moſt experienced men in all the kingdoms aſſembled together, and members of that council, he formed his decrees for the recovery, enlargement, and preſervation of trade in general, both at home and abroad, with an eye particularly to its manufactories; ordering the governor-general of the provinces, the intendants, and trading companies of the principal cities and towns, to encourage and pro-

tect all merchants and traders, by adminiſtring juſtice to them in a brief manner, in preference to all others, that they might not be drawn away from their buſineſs by the chicanery and tricks of the law: he alſo, by circular letters, encouraged all merchants and traders to apply directly to his Majeſty in every thing that ſhould occur to them: he invited them alſo to depute certain perſons of their own body to be near his royal perſon, and repreſent to him their complaints and propoſals; and, in order to render more effectual theſe proviſions, and ſecure the continuance of them, he appointed a miniſter for this purpoſe to be about his perſon, with a charge to hear their grievances, and ſolicit inſtantly the meaſures they ſhould ſtand in need of: beſides, in each of the ſeveral places where he uſed to reſide, he erected a court of commerce, where they might aſſemble and conſult about trade. He likewiſe appointed men of abilities, and fidelity, to be inſpectors, who were to uſe the utmoſt care and vigilance that all manufactures of ſilk, wool, cotton, and other fabrics, ſhould have the goodneſs, weight, quality, and other circumſtances preſcribed by his ordinances. So that Lewis XIV. added to his conqueſts, plenty and riches in the kingdom, making the commerce of the French flouriſh in all the four quarters of the world.

However, the perſecution of the proteſtants ſeems to throw a ſhade over all the luſtre of this great monarch: the conſtable Luynes firſt projected their fall, which was proſecuted by Richlieu, as his ſcheme was followed by Mazarine; but Louvois exceeded them all; for he projected and executed the deteſtable deſign of their extirpation; which was begun by dragooning them into apoſtacy; and completed by the revocation of the edict of Nantz, on the 22d of October 1684, the moſt open and ſcandalous breach of public faith that ever was committed: however, as unjuſt and inhuman as this act was, conſidered in the light of a religious perſecution, it fell every way ſhort of the imprudence thereof, when conſidered in a legiſlative light; and, therefore, did equal injury to its authors in their characters, as men of rank and conſideration in the court of the moſt Chriſtian King, as well as politicians of great penetration, and miniſters of long experience: for, by this means, 800,000 perſons were driven out of the kingdom, and obliged to take ſhelter in foreign countries; which, though in itſelf a prodigious debilitation to the ſtate, yet was much more ſo from the temper and employment of the perſons thus expelled, who were, for the general part, merchants, manufacturers, or officers of the middle rank in the land and ſea ſervice, being the moſt induſtrious and uſeful people in the kingdom. It may be eaſily conceived from hence, that the trade and manufactures of France ſuffered extremely; and a clear notion may be had of the miſchiefs reſulting from this important ſtep, when it is conſidered that theſe people carried out of the kingdom 5 millions ſterling in ready money, plate, and jewels: yet, groſs and apparent as this error was, ſuch was the meanneſs and ſervility of the French nation, that the King was complimented upon it, as on the moſt glorious action of his reign.

Many are the advantages of France with reſpect to trade; but the principal is, the ſubordination of the common people; for, by this means, the manufacturers are always kept induſtrious; they are not inclined to drunkenneſs, nor dare they run into ſhocking lewdneſs and debauchery, as in England: the law obliges all unmarried men to ſerve as common ſoldiers in the militia and the army, unleſs they have particular exemptions on account of their ſtations and profeſſions, whereby they raiſe up large families to labour, and keep down the price of it; and, conſequently, by working cheaper, enable the merchant to ſell the cheaper. The rules and regulations they are obliged to obſerve in manufacturing their goods, and expoſing them to ſale, is a great advantage to the credit of their manufactures: becauſe, all ſorts of goods for exportation muſt undergo an inſpection of the proper officer, in the public hall, where they are compared with the patterns or ſamples delivered in before; when the bad, and ſuch as do not anſwer to their ſamples, are confiſcated, with a fine levied upon the offender: by which means, the fraudulent deſigns of private traders, who would get rich at the public expence, are prevented, and the [illegible] manufactory conſtantly kept up in high credit. The neighbourhood to Spain, and preſent connection with it, is of ſo great advantage, as to be worth all their trade beſides; for it is certain they get more from the Spaniards than all the trading nations in Europe: becauſe, the poor from Perigord, Limoſin, and other places, go yearly into Spain to reap their corn, and gather in their vintage, carrying back what they have earned to ſpend in France: the fiſhermen from Bayonne, and the neighbouring places, ſupply the Spaniards with great quantities both of freſh and ſalt fiſh, to eat on feſtival days, and to keep lent: the pedlars and ſhopkeepers in Spain are generally French, who retire into their own country when they have made their fortunes: the towns of Languedoc ſupply them with cloth, ſilks, and ſtockings; Rouen with hats, and coarſe linen ſtuffs; Abeville with ſuperfine cloths; Amiens and Arras with worſted and camblet ſtuffs; and Lyons with all ſorts of rich ſilks, gold and ſilver lace, and embroidery, for their conſumption both in Europe and America: ſo that the greateſt part of the produce of the mines of Potoſi is brought into France, which occaſions their payments to be all in ſilver; for gold is more ſcarce in France, in the currency of coin, than ſilver is in England, which is a plain proof that the French have the great trade to Spain, as the Engliſh have to Portugal. Their addreſs in drawing raw materials from other countries, to work up in France, ſerves greatly to enlarge and extend their trade; for though France produces ſome wool and ſilk, it is not a fourth part of what they manufacture: becauſe they import wool from Barbary, the Levant, and Spain; they alſo bring this commodity from Switzerland; ſome is run from England, and great quantities from Ireland: the beſt of their raw ſilk they draw from Piedmont, Italy, Spain, and the Levant: their cotton is brought from the Levant, and their ſugar colonies; and the aſhes for making ſoap at Marſeilles, are chiefly imported from Egypt. Beſides, they reap inexpreſſible advantages, by the permiſſion and encouragement given to foreign merchants and manufacturers to ſettle among them; for, by this good policy, the price of labour is always kept ſufficiently low, and a competition and emulation are raiſed, who ſhall work and ſell the cheapeſt, which muſt turn out greatly to the national advantage, though it may not be ſo favourable to the private intereſt of individuals: for theſe reaſons, the government is particularly gentle and indulgent to foreigners; and the ſituation of the country is greatly aſſiſtant to this diſpoſition of the government; becauſe France is ſurrounded with populous, that is, prolific nations, who have no trade and manufactures of their own to employ their poor; which makes Flanders, all Germany on the ſide of the Rhine, Switzerland, Savoy, and ſome parts of Italy, pour their ſupernumerary hands every year into France, where they are received into the army, or the manufactures, according to their inclinations.

However, there are ſome great diſadvantages attending the commercial intereſt of France; the firſt of which ariſes from the deſpotical and arbitrary power of the government; and, therefore, ſuch as a merchant would not chuſe to live under, were he acquainted with the ſweets of liberty in another country, and had no attachment of family or intereſt to keep him in France: for though his property, generally ſpeaking, is ſecure enough, yet his perſon is not ſo: becauſe, though there are eſtabliſhed and ſtated laws, in France, to decide all caſes of property, and criminal cauſes, as in England; ſo that a man may know the rules he is to be governed by in thoſe reſpects, and can have an open trial for his life and fortune: yet there are no laws to aſcertain the nature of political offences, or to circumſcribe the power of the judge; which ſubjects the merchant entirely to the mercy of the Lieutenant de Police, and his deputies; who can impriſon him at will, without aſſigning any reaſon, or bringing any evidence to confront him: therefore, his only ſecurity conſiſts in being continually laviſh in the praiſe of the King and the miniſtry; and in ſaying nothing which may afford the leaſt pretence to the ſpies, who ſwarm all over the kingdom, to inform againſt him. The ſecond diſ-

advantage

dvantage to the freedom of trade, is the Romiſh reli-
gion; though the bigotry of the court of France is not
near ſo great as it was in former times. Another great
burthen, and conſequently a diſadvantage to the trade of
France, is the great number of religious of both ſexes;
the loweſt computation of theſe amounting to 300,000
perſons. A fourth diſadvantage, is their numerous
and poor nobility. A fifth inconveniency ariſes from
the nature of the taxes, which, in ſome provinces,
are arbitrary; in others heavy, and in all oppreſſive to a
ſpirit of induſtry. The French alſo ſuſtain ſome diſad-
vantages by their monopolies and excluſive charters: be-
ſides, they labour under no ſmall difficulties on account of
the expence they are at in the article of ſhipping; for
they have more men to navigate their ſhips than the
Engliſh, becauſe they are not ſo expert ſailors; they muſt
carry ſome ſupernumerary landmen; and they muſt have
many officers to govern theſe men, becauſe the merchant
is to be reſponſible for them when the ſhip returns: add
to this, that the officer belonging to the marine in France,
will find ways and means to occaſion great trouble to the
merchant, both as to the choice of ſailors and of officers,
unleſs he is properly conſidered; which is generally done
by purchaſing ſome ſhip ſtores of himſelf, or his friends, at
an exorbitant price.

In reſpect to the intereſts of France, the nature of the go-
vernment, and the views which the court propoſes to it-
ſelf, ought only to be conſidered; ſince theſe are very dif-
ferent from, or, to ſpeak the truth, directly oppoſite to,
the true intereſt of the nation: for conſidering the ſoil,
climate, and ſituation of the country, with the number
of its inhabitants; as they have no reaſon to fear, ſo they
have no cauſe to diſturb their neighbours; by whom, if
they apply themſelves induſtriouſly to manufactures at
home, and to foreign trade, they might be exceſſive
gainers; and, as the ſeveral provinces of the kingdom are
full of great towns, they might be all rendered populous
and rich, as well as the country about them. A govern-
ment, therefore, that conſulted the good of the people,
and the general benefit of its ſubjects, would labour to
preſerve tranquility, and be aſſiduous in cultivating the
arts of peace; which, perhaps, would tend as much to
increaſe the power, and fix the ſecurity, of ſuch a go-
vernment, as the contrary meaſures have tended to
ſtrengthen and aggrandize that abſolute monarchy, which
has been erected on the ruins of the French conſtitution
by the houſe of Bourbon. If there were any certain
height where the flights of power and ambition ought to
end, it might be imagined, that the intereſt of France
ſhould be only to conſerve its preſent greatneſs, ſo feared
by its neighbours, and ſo glorious in the world: but, be-
ſides that the motions and deſires of human minds are end-
leſs, it may perhaps be neceſſary for France, from re-
ſpects within, to have ſome war or other in purſuit abroad,
which may amuſe the nation, and keep them from re-
flecting on their condition at home, hard and uneaſy to
all but ſuch as are in charge, or in pay from the court:
for it may be improper to ſay miſerable, the term uſually
given it; becauſe no condition is ſo, but to him that
ſeems it ſuch; and if a peaſant of France thinks of no
more than his coarſe bread and onions, his canvas cloaths,
and wooden ſhoes; labours contentedly on working-days,
and dances or plays merrily on holydays; he may, perhaps,
live as well as a boor of Holland, who is either weary of
his very eaſe, or whoſe cares of increaſing his wealth
waſte his life in toils at land, or dangers at ſea; and, pro-
bably, fool him ſo far, as to make him enjoy leſs of all
mind in his riches, than the other in his poverty.

French America.

In treating of this ſubject it will be neceſſary to begin
with the commerce the French carry on in their American
iſlands, and afterwards proceed to that of their colonies
on the continent.

French American Iſlands.

Under this denomination are uſually comprehended
thoſe Antilles or Caribbee iſlands, of which the French
are in poſſeſſion: as alſo their part of Hiſpaniola, and
Tortuga. The iſle of Anticoſte, Cape Breton, and
Cayenne, may alſo be added: but the two former have
ſuch a connection with Canada, that it is not eaſy to ſe-
parate them; and as for the latter, tho' it is called an
iſland, upon account of the interpoſition of the river
Cayenne, yet, in reality, it conſtitutes a portion of the
ſouthern American continent. See *Caribbee* Iſlands.

The *Caribbee* iſlands are ſituated under the torrid zone,
taking them from the 11th degree of the equator to the
18th northwards, being 28 in number, whereof the
French poſſeſs 8: but, before the treaty of Utrecht,
in 1713, they were alſo maſters of one half of St. Chri-
ſtophers, which was ceded to the Engliſh by the 12th
article of that treaty.

Martinico is the moſt beautiful, moſt opulent, and moſt
flouriſhing of all the colonies the French have in theſe
iſlands.

Guardeloupe, or Guadelupe, is alſo very conſiderable;
but much inferior to Martinico.

Deſeada, or La Deſirada, Marigalante, or Maria Ga-
landa, Granada, or Grenada, and St. Bartholemew, come
after; yielding in different degrees of goodneſs and fertil-
ity to Guardeloupe.

Laſtly, the leaſt of all are St. Martin, and St. Croix, or
Cruz, which the French poſſeſs in common with the
Dutch.

Upwards of 200 French ſhips trade to theſe iſlands; and
it is no extraordinary thing to ſee 80 merchant-veſſels be-
fore Martinico. Theſe ſhips are uſually between 100
and 250 tons; which are preferred to thoſe of a larger ſize,
becauſe they are not ſo long in taking in their freight.

The ſeaſon for the departure of theſe ſhips from France, is,
from September to February; becauſe, tho' the navigation
for the French American iſlands might be performed at any
time, it is adviſeable to avoid the ſtorms that rage in theſe
iſlands during the months of July, Auguſt, and Septem-
ber; beſides the ſhips which depart in the months of Octo-
ber, November, December, and January, arrive at the
iſlands preciſely in the ſugar harveſt, which is the prin-
cipal object of this commerce.

Tobacco, for a conſiderable time, made the greateſt traf-
fic of theſe iſlands; but at preſent ſugar has the aſcendant,
tobacco being only cultivated there, eſpecially at Marti-
nico, for the conſumption of the country.

The other commodities brought from thence are indigo,
cocoa, rocou, cotton, ginger, caſſia, pepper, confects,
ſome medicinal gums, hides, tortoiſe-ſhell, and wood for
dyeing and inlaid work, ſuch as roſe-wood, Indian-wood,
brazil, fuſtick, and green ebony.

It is computed that Martinico furniſhes, one year with
another, about 5,500,000 lb. of ſugar: Guardalupe 4
millions: Marigalante between five and ſix hundred thou-
ſand pounds; and Granada and St. Croix, four or five
hundred thouſand between them: the other iſlands culti-
vate tobacco, and ſome of them nothing but pulſe, where-
in they carry on a pretty good trade at Martinico, St.
Kit's, and Guardalupe.

Before the eſtabliſhment of the French Weſt India com-
pany, in 1664, the European French reaped little or no
advantage from the flouriſhing commerce of thoſe colo-
nies; the Dutch having almoſt entirely engroſſed it to
themſelves: when Fluſhing and Middleburg ſent the
richeſt cargoes to Martinico, and employed yearly up-
wards of 100 ſhips in that trade.

The company's excluſive privilege having diminiſhed this
foreign commerce; the merchants of Rochelle, Bour-
deaux, Rouen, St. Malo, and Nants, even thoſe of
Marſeilles and Toulon, took a liking to theſe voyages,
for which it was no difficult matter for them to obtain
paſs-ports; and the company's privilege being revoked at
the expiration of eight or ten years, the whole commerce
remained to the French; which, notwithſtanding the
long wars of Lewis XIV. that frequently interrupted it,
is now one of the moſt opulent and flouriſhing that France
exerciſes in her ports on the Ocean and Mediterranean.

The commodities ſent by the French to theſe iſlands con-
ſiſt in all that is neceſſary for the nouriſhment and main-
tenance of the inhabitants, the culture of land, and the
employment of negroes; but they are different, according
to the ports of France wherein they are freighted.

If the ſhips are ſent from Rochelle or Bourdeaux, the
cargo

cargo is in beef, ſalt-pork, corn, brandy, Rochelle and Bourdeaux wines; ſometimes Madeira wine, taken in on the voyage, though its importation is prohibited in the French colonies; ſalt-cod, herrings, oil of olives, cheeſe, butter, ſoap, iron, linen-cloths, merceries, and hard-ware.

The Rouen ſhips take there all manner of cloathing for men and women: but Marſeilles and Toulon furniſh oils, olives, dry fruits, wines, and ſome ſlight ſtuffs of the manufacture of Provence.

'Tis computed that, one year with another, there are exported, from France, for theſe iſlands, to the value of four millions of livres, or 162,500 l. ſterling, in theſe manufactures and commodities; and that this return is near ſeven millions, or 284,375 l. ſterling.

The French of Canada alſo carry on a conſiderable trade with the iſlands, furniſhing them with the greater part of the cattle they have an occaſion for, beſides corn, pulſe, dry fiſh, and carpenters timber: for which they take ſugar, tobacco, and the other produce of the iſlands: all this commerce, as well as that of the European French, being moſtly carried on by exchange.

'Tis likewiſe by exchange that the trade of negroes is tranſacted; which is both conſiderable in itſelf, and neceſſary for others, becauſe agriculture, and the ſugar works, and plantations, are incapable of being ſupported without theſe unhappy ſlaves, with which the African companies, now incorporated with the great French India company, have continued to ſupply the iſlands.

It has been already obſerved, that Martinico is the chief, and, as it were, the capital of the French iſlands: but to give a juſter idea of an iſland ſo celebrated for commerce, a few particulars are inſerted here regarding its trade, which has made it the reſidence of the governor-general and intendant of the iſlands, as alſo the ſeat of a ſovereign conſul, whoſe juriſdiction extends to the other Antilles iſlands; as alſo to St. Domingo and Tortuga.

Martinico is about 18 leagues in length; its breadth is unequal, and its circumference 60 leagues.

In the creeks of this great extent of coaſt the iſland has three ports; Le Carmage, Fort St. Peter, and the Culde-ſac of the Trinity, where ſhips are ſecure in all the three; but Fort St. Peter has almoſt the whole trade; the King's farmers holding their offices there; the African and Senegal companies, with the richeſt merchants, alſo keep ware-houſes there, and the French privateers make it their place of rendezvous in time of war.

At preſent upwards of 10,000 whites, and near 20,000 negroes are computed to be in the iſland; which laſt are employed in the ſugar manufactures, as alſo in the culture of indigo, cocoa, rocou, cotton, and tobacco.

There are 300 mills for the ſervice of the ſugar plantations; and the refining of ſugars has now got footing in moſt of the French iſlands.

Guardalupe, is ſituated about 30 degrees N. of Martinico, and almoſt as much S. of Antegoa. It is ſaid to be the largeſt of all the Caribbee iſlands, being 22 leagues in length, and half as much in breadth at each end; but almoſt cut in two by a deep gulph or bay on each ſide; ſo that the ends are joined together by a very narrow iſthmus, and the whole circumference is about 50 leagues.

The French began to ſend colonies to this iſland about the year 1632; but knew ſo little what the ſoil was good for then, that for many years they were in danger of ſtarving; and afterwards the planters, by their diviſions, almoſt ruined one another; for though they had 1500 men bearing arms, and about 8000 negroes of both ſexes, the country became depopulated: ſo that this iſland did not make any great figure till the preſent century; ſince the beginning of which it has been repeopled, and ſo far increaſed as to make more ſugar now than any of the Britiſh iſlands, except Jamaica.

Deſeada, or *Deſirada*, the deſireable iſland, was ſo called by Columbus, becauſe it was the firſt land he diſcovered in his ſecond voyage to America, in the year 1493. It is ſituated in 61 deg. of W. lon. and 16 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. about 10 leagues N. E. of Guardalupe, being a little inconſiderable iſland, not ſo fruitful as the others which belong to the French.

Marigalante, is ſituated a little to the S. W. of Guardalupe, being about 5 leagues in length, and 4 in breadth. It was diſcovered by Columbus, in 1493, who named it Marigalante, or the Gallant Mary, after the name of his ſhip. The French began to ſend colonies here about the year 1647, and having expelled the natives, after ſeveral years war, the French remained in the peaceable poſſeſſion of the iſland; the produce of which is ſugar of the finer ſort, indigo, cotton, and ginger.

Granada, is ſituated about 30 leagues S. W. of Barbadoes, and about the ſame diſtance N. of Caribiana, or New Andaluſia; being 25 leagues in circumference, and having ſeveral good bays and harbours, ſome of which are fortified. It is eſteemed a fruitful ſoil, and well watered, producing ſugar, rocou, cotton, caſſet, and excellent indigo. There are alſo abundance of very ſmall iſlands, that lie at the N. end of Granada, which are called the *Granadilloes*.

St. Bartholomew, is a ſmall iſland about 10 leagues N. of St. Chriſtopher's, which was taken by the Engliſh, under the command of Sir Timothy Thornhill, in the year 1689, but reſtored to the French at the peace of Ryſwick.

St. Croix, or *Sancta Cruz*, is another ſmall iſland, ſituated about 20 leagues E. of St. Chriſtopher's, which has been contended for by the Engliſh, Dutch, Spaniards, and French; but is now in the peaceable poſſeſſion of the French Weſt India company.

St. Martin's, is another iſland of no great conſequence, belonging to the French, ſituated a little to the N. W. of St. Bartholemew.

But what has been ſaid of Martinico may ſerve for both the other iſlands, which, in proportion, produce the ſame commodities, and enjoy the ſame trade.

Hiſpaniola, or St. Domingo; and Tortuga.

The iſland of *Hiſpaniola*, as will be remarked in treating of the commerce of the Spaniſh American iſlands, is divided between the crowns of France and Spain; and as mention is made in that place of the part poſſeſſed by the Spaniards, as alſo of its trade, and all that regards the diſcovery, ſituation, riches, and productions of the iſland in general, the French part, which generally goes under the denomination of St. Domingo, and the various commerce thereof, is only to be diſcuſſed here; together with ſome occaſional remarks concerning the flybuſters, or freebooters, who ſeemed to have made choice of this iſland, and that of Tortuga, for their general rendezvous.

The French who firſt came to the iſland of *St. Domingo*, and eſtabliſhed themſelves there, came from St. Chriſtopher's, from whence they were expelled by the Spaniards, but rage, and deſire of revenge, for being diſturbed in their infant colony, firſt united them to the Dutch, who made ſome incurſions on the Spaniards, their common enemy; and their numbers increaſing by ſeveral ſuccours from France, theſe firſt adventurers went in queſt of a proper place for preſerving their booty, and giving them a retreat when they could not well weather it out at ſea.

The iſland of *Tortuga*, ſituated in 73 deg. of W. lon. and 20 deg. of N. lat. and three quarters of a league from the N. coaſt of Hiſpaniola, ſeemed to them convenient for the execution of their deſign; whereupon they took poſſeſſion of it, after having expelled about thirty Spaniards. This iſland, about 16 leagues in circumference, was divided between the adventurers, who diſtributed themſelves into three bands: the firſt applied themſelves to hunting, whence they obtained the name of *buckaneers*; the ſecond continued to cruize upon the Spaniards, and were called *flybuſters*, from the Engliſh fly-boat, which they imitated in their ſailing: and the laſt, addicting themſelves to tillage, were called *planters*, a common appellation to all thoſe that compoſe the American colonies, whoſe cultivated lands are called *plantations*.

From among theſe three bands the planters remained in Tortuga; the buckaneers paſſed over to St. Domingo, and the flybuſters kept the ſea; the laſt returning now and then to Tortuga, to divide their ſpoil with the two others; one of which ſupplied them with all kinds of fleſh; and the other with ſeveral proviſions, either in gumes or cattle, which they cultivated and reared in the iſland.

This ſmall iſland, which was to people the better part of St. Domingo with French inhabitants, and of which

ventu ers made themſelves maſters in 1635, was for a ng time diſputed by the Spaniards; who, after ſeveral ain attempts to expel the French buckaneers from St. Domingo, ſeemed to conſent to the diviſion of Hiſpaiola, having in a manner abandoned to them all from he Cape de Lobos in the ſouth of the iſland, to the Cape amana northwards; being one half of the iſland, and bout 250 leagues in circumference.

The towns ſubject to the French are, Petit Guaves, hich is a port-town, ſituated in a great bay, at the weſt nd of the iſland, the principal ſettlement the French ave upon it. Leogane, another port in the ſame bay. ort Lewis, a good harbour on the ſouth-weſt part of he iſland. And Cape St. Francis, the moſt eaſterly ſetlement the French have on the north-ſide of the iſland, ear which they have the Fort de Paix. Beſides theſe, here are now a great many more thriving French conies, on the north and weſt parts of the iſland.

When the Weſt India company was eſtabliſhed in France n 1664, and was put in poſſeſſion of the trade of the ſland of Tortuga, and the plantations of St. Domingo, none but the company's ſhips arrived there: however, the free and unconſtrained humour of the French iſlanders, who had ſtill an inclination to their former manner of life, could not brook the reſtraint laid upon them by the company; whereupon the company, not finding its account, abandoned the trade in 1665; and ſince that time all French ſhips are at liberty to trade there.

The reputation of the French colony of St. Domingo, already ſo flouriſhing, was ſtill augmented in 1698, by the eſtabliſhment of a new company, to complete the cultivation of the places where the French had no plantations. The conceſſion contained in the letters-patent given at Verſailles, comprehends all from Cape Tiberon to the river Naybe, both incluſively, three leagues into the land, beginning from the ſea-coaſt throughout this whole breadth.

The principal conditions for the commercial advantage of theſe iſlands were, that the company ſhould be obliged to people the new colony within the term of five years, with 1500 whites, and 2500 negroes; and, after the expiration of the ſaid time, to ſend there annually, during the remaining 50 years of its privilege, 100 whites, and 200 negroes only; without permitting any inhabitant of the French Cape of Leogane, the little Goare, and other places already peopled, to eſtabliſh themſelves in any part of the extent of its conceſſion.

The commodities common to St. Domingo and Tortuga, are tobacco, ſugar, indigo, ginger, rocou, cotton, and cocoa, but eſpecially tobacco. Thoſe proper to St. Domingo only are hides, brazil wood, cedar, and wood for dying and inlaid work; beſides, ſome medicinal plants are alſo found at Tortuga.

The cargoes of ſhips for theſe two iſlands are almoſt the ſame with thoſe for the Caribbees, except ſalt fleſh, which is neceſſary there; St. Domingo abounding in that commodity, and carrying on a great trade therein with the other French iſlands: but, on the other hand, brandy and wines are imported in great quantities, whereof the flybuſters and buckaneers make a conſiderable conſumption. All theſe commodities pay 3 *per cent.* duty of importation and exportation.

Upwards of 40 ſhips are employed in this commerce, without reckoning the ſix ſhips which the company is obliged to keep on footing both in peace and war, for the ſole trade of its conceſſion.

Till the peace concluded at Ryſwick in 1697, the Spaniards always looked upon the new French inhabitants of St. Domingo as uſurpers; and, upon this footing, very frequently attempted their expulſion; but, on the diviſion of this iſland, ſtipulated between the two nations by an article of this treaty, the French remained maſters of the northern and weſtern parts of the iſland, and of a third of thoſe to the ſouth; the Spaniards having only reſerved to themſelves the eaſtern parts, which notwithſtanding makes almoſt an equal diviſion, at leaſt for the coaſts, each nation poſſeſſing about 200 leagues, reckoning from point to point; and near 300, according to the different windings of the ſea.

In all the French parts of this iſland, there are excellent ports, very ſpacious, ſafe, and eaſy to be fortified at little expence; an advantage in which the coaſts belonging to the Spaniards are deficient, wherein there are only a few ports, and ſome indifferent places for landing.

The ports belonging to the French are, to the north, that of Bayaha, not much inhabited; and the port of Cape François, which is the beſt peopled of all their colonies; having, in the year 1700, 900 men bearing arms, and about 2000 blacks of both ſexes.

In the W. N. W. the port of Paix, which is the leaſt of all, and has few inhabitants in it.

In the weſtern part, the port of Little Goare, which is excellent, and well peopled.

Laſtly, in the ſouthern part, there are three very commodious ports; being Port St. Louis, which is well fortified, and inhabited; Port Haquin, from whence this company had been expelled by the Engliſh, who began to eſtabliſh themſelves there in 1692; and the Port Jaemel, where there are alſo ſeveral handſome plantations.

Generally ſpeaking, the lands of St. Domingo are very good; the ſea ſhore is a plain, and, farther up the country, there are ſome mountains; the French reſiding in the iſland being about 4000 families.

Though the Spaniards were almoſt a century in the iſland before the French, yet their colony is far from being as well eſtabliſhed: having 2000 men only that bear arms, and between 5 and 6000 others, including men, women, and children.

The lands poſſeſſed by both nations are almoſt of an equal fertility, though the culture is not equal; the French plantations being in greater number, well planted, and well kept up; whereas thoſe of the Spaniards remain uncultivated, being ſcarce deſtined for any other uſe than the grazing of their cattle, whoſe fleſh ſerves them for food, and their hides for trade; for they ſlaughter yearly to the amount of 30 or 40000 oxen, whoſe green hides they ſell to the Engliſh, Dutch, and French, who give the Spaniards what proviſions and wearing apparel they have occaſion for.

It ſhould be obſerved, to put an end here to whatever regards the Spaniſh colony of Hiſpaniola, that it is more than 30 years ſince the King of Spain, or the European Spaniards, ſent a ſhip to this iſland: all the ſuccours it has are from the continent of America, which conſiſt in one only veſſel ſent annually to the viceroy of Mexico, to pay the garriſon his Catholic Majeſty maintains there, which ſhould be compoſed of 200 men, but ſeldom made up 20 effective ſoldiers.

The firſt plantations which the French eſtabliſhed at St. Domingo, were for tobacco; which acquired ſuch reputation, that the Dutch, and moſt of the northern nations, preferred it to any other kind. But theſe plantations have been abandoned ſince the excluſive farming of tobacco in France, by a miſtake on both ſides, difficult to be conceived; yet it is the cauſe of the entire deſtruction of the tobacco plantations, whoſe trade would actually employ upwards of 100 ſhips, and which it would not be impoſſible to re-eſtabliſh, without any prejudice to the farming of tobacco.

The ſugar of this iſland is greatly eſteemed, and ſells in France ſometimes for 3 and 4 *per cent.* more than that of the Caribbee iſlands. It is true, there was ſome difficulty at firſt in eſtabliſhing the ſugar-plantations, upon account of the too great nouriſhment given to the ſugar-canes by the richneſs of the ſoil; which made them fat, and hard to be purged; but experience has made it appear, that the ſecond or third crop has afforded excellent ſugar. That of the plain of Leogane is in great reputation; and the only thing that can prejudice the ſale of theſe ſugars, is the too great quantity that is made of them.

Indigo has been alſo for a conſiderable time one of the principal commodities of St. Domingo; but the preparation thereof being ſomewhat neglected, renders it worſe than formerly; though, the French ſay, if a little attention was given to its culture, it would equal in goodneſs that of Guatimala on the continent of Spaniſh America, or even that of Agra in the Eaſt Indies.

What at this time ſupports the cultivation of this drug, is the cuſtom of beginning with the planting of indigo and tobacco; which requires few implements, and no great

number of negroes; beſides, the profits are ſo prompt and conſiderable, as ſoon to put the inhabitants in a condition to make ſugar: a thing to which they all aſpire; becauſe it is the principal object of the commerce belonging to the iſland.

Cotton, cocoa, vanilla, rocou, and ginger, are alſo cultivated in St. Domingo, and ſucceed perfectly well; yet made in ſmall quantities, becauſe the inhabitants are chiefly employed in their plantations of ſugar, tobacco, and indigo,

They have alſo made ſome attempts to plant coffee, in which they have had but indifferent ſucceſs.

Rice, potatoes, and all ſorts of French pulſe, grow there in great abundance, and are very good; which may likewiſe be extended to all kinds of herbage, whoſe ſeeds have been brought from Europe.

However, the ſoil is ſomewhat ungrateful to corn and wines; grapes ſeldom arriving there at an exact maturity; and the wheat ſown in the plains bearing ears, of which ſome ripen ſooner than others, and fall as they ripen: the wheat on the mountainous parts is not ſubject to this inconveniency; though, far from holding the failure of wheat and wine as diſadvantageous to the colony, intelligent perſons are of opinion, that the inhabitants of St. Domingo, and the merchants of France, find therein equally their account; becauſe theſe two articles, ſo neceſſary to life, and which France can furniſh abundantly, may be a ſufficient means to keep up a commerce between both.

There are few manufactures in St. Domingo; and perhaps it would be a point of good policy not to encourage ſuch an eſtabliſhment in the iſland.

As to cattle, French authors ſay, there is not any place in the world fitter for rearing them than St. Domingo: thoſe the Spaniards brought there to breed, as ſoon as they made the diſcovery, eſpecially oxen and ſwine, having multiplied in ſuch a manner, that the French buckaneers and Spaniſh hunters, who, with a kind of emulation, ſtrove to deſtroy them, could not accompliſh their deſign. Several of theſe cattle are reared in the plantations, beſides conſiderable flocks of ſheep bearing fleeces of a pretty good quality; ſo that if the colony knew how to uſe this advantage, a good trade could be promoted by the commodities accruing from theſe animals, ſuch as leather, tallow, and wool.

The iſland is likewiſe ſo well ſtocked with horſes, that there are quarters, particularly thoſe of Leogane, Eſterre, and the Cape, wherein the inhabitants would bluſh at any other carriage than a coach, a ſingle horſe not ſeeming to them ſufficiently honourable.

All the mountains and plains not as yet grubbed up, are covered with all kinds of wood, either fit for carpenters, dying, or inlaid work: but thoſe who inſpected, or made theſe grubbings, managed them improperly; being accuſtomed to burn all indifferently, in order to make the more ſpeedy work; whereas ſome ſhould have been reſerved for ſawing, upon account of the facility there might be in eſtabliſhing ſeveral ſawing mills; which would prove no ſmall advantage for the ſeveral buildings wanted for the ſugar manufactures, and frequently for the refitting of ſhips.

As to the wood fit for dying, the company of the iſle of Vache, or Cow-iſland, have ordered, by their regulations, the planting of them along the high roads, and thoſe that run acroſs to ſeparate the plantations.

To conclude; St. Domingo lies very commodious for a rich contraband trade with the Spaniards of the continent, which the Engliſh of Jamaica, and the Dutch of Curacao, know ſo well how to turn to their advantage: a conveniency which ſeemed ſo great to the famous F. Labbat, that, ſpeaking of the eſtabliſhment of a French colony in the Cow iſland in 1698, he ſaid, that the ſole view of this company ſeemed to be not ſo much for peopling this part of St. Domingo, as to have a commodious ſtaple for the goods ſent to the coaſts of Terra firma: but the nature of this commerce is fully treated of in ſpeaking of that of the Dutch to the Weſt Indies, under the article of the *United* Provinces; as is alſo the trade of the French ſugar colonies, in a comparative light with thoſe belonging to the crown of Great Britain, under the article of *Sugar*.

Commerce of the Continent, or Terra firma, of French America.

The French poſſeſſions on the continent of North America are Canada, or New France; and Louiſiana, called alſo Miſſiſſipi: on the continent of South America, they have Cayenne, with ſome plantations upon the river of Surinam.

They were alſo maſters of Acadia, or Nova Scotia, ſituated between Canada and New England; this country having been reſtored to them by the Engliſh, by virtue of the treaty of 1629, confirmed by that of 1632, and ſince by that of Breda in 1667. But this colony, remarkable for the trade of dry cod, and its furr-commerce, having returned under the Engliſh government in 1713, in conſequence of the 12th article of the peace of Utrecht, is treated of in the article of *Britiſh* America; where alſo what regards Newfoundland is diſcuſſed, which was likewiſe ceded by the French to the Engliſh, in conſequence of the 13th article of the ſaid treaty. But it ſhould be obſerved, that although the French are not now allowed to eſtabliſh plantations there, to fortify themſelves, or even to land at Newfoundland; yet their fiſhermen enjoy always a full liberty, in the fiſhing-ſeaſon, of erecting ſcaffolds and hutts, for the drying of their fiſh; but this is only from the Cape of Bona-Viſta to the northern extremity of the iſland, and from thence along the weſtern part, to a point called the *Riche*.

Canada, or New France.

Canada, computed by ſome to be as extenſive as one half of Europe, reaches in latitude from the 39th degree to the 65th; that is, from the lake Erie to the north of Hudſon's bay; and in longitude from the river Miſſiſſipi to Cape Race in Newfoundland, according to Baron Hontan. But others extend it from the 25th to the 53d deg. of N. lat. and from 76 to 93 degrees of W. longitude; being bounded, on the north, by the land called Labrador, or New Britain; on the eaſt, by the northern ſea, and New England; on the South, by Florida; and on the weſt, by New Mexico, with the unknown tracts to the north of it. Some others extend this colony from 33 to 63 degrees of N. lat. quite from Florida to the northern boundaries of America: though Canada, properly ſo called, is only a ſmall province of this whole tract, ſeated on the ſouth and eaſt ſide of the river St. Lawrence, and eaſt of its mouth. This great river of St. Lawrence, which is 22 leagues broad at its mouth, and whoſe ſource is as yet unknown, though traced more than 800 leagues up the country, almoſt entirely croſſes Canada; forming, in its courſe, ſeveral great lakes, ſome of which are of ſuch an extent, that they may be taken for ſeas.

Theſe lakes, ſo commodious for the French commerce with the Indian nations that border thereon, and which ſerve theſe nations to viſit the French in their capital of Quebec, are the lakes of Frontenac, or Frontigniac; Erie, or Conti; the lake of the Hurons; the Upper Lake, or Superior; Michigan; Nipiſſing; and Temiſcaming. The Upper Lake is ſituated moſt to the north; being 100 leagues in length, and about 70 in the broadeſt part; having ſeveral iſlands on it, the principal of which are the Royal iſle, Philipeau, Pont Chartrain, Maurepas, St. Anne, St. Ignatius, and the Tonerre.

The Indians affirm, that there is alſo another lake, greater than any of the reſt, and farther up the country, which they call the lake of Aſſinipouals, wherein the great river of St. Lawrence has its ſource; but the French have not penetrated ſo far, and the Indians are too uncertain in their relations to be depended upon.

It is from the waters of the lake Frontenac, which is the laſt in deſcending towards the ſea, that the regular courſe of the river St. Lawrence is properly formed, continuing near 200 leagues; and, after having waſhed Mont-real and Quebec, the two principal French colonies, diſcharges itſelf into the ocean, 100 leagues and upwards from Quebec.

If it was not for the ſeveral cataracts and water-falls in this river, Canada would lie very commodious for an extenſive trade; nor would it be a difficult matter to paſs from Quebec to the gulph of Mexico, by the lakes and rivers that

hat join the river of St. Lawrence to that of Miſſiſſipi, which empties itſelf into this gulf.

The iſland of Anticoſte, ſituate at the mouth of the river of St. Lawrence, is inhabited by the French, who give arms and proviſions in exchange to the natives, for their ſea-wolf pelts, and other ſkins.

Canada, in its largeſt ſize, is divided into eaſtern and weſtern; the former of which is commonly known by the name of Canada, or New France; and the latter, which is of much later diſcovery, Louiſiana, in honour of Louis XIV.

The eaſtern Canada, according to the French account, contains the provinces of Canada, properly ſo called; Sanguenay, Acadia, Atrurumbeg, New England, New Holland, and New Sweden; the five laſt of which have been diſmembered from it; ſo that now only Canada proper, and Sanguenay, belong to the French.

Canada proper, including all to the north and weſt of the great river and lakes, contains 28 tribes of Indians; being the Quovatavata, Illinois, Quinquiai, Miamis, Attiquemeques, Maſkontens, Aentordac, Ontovagarmis, Errahonanoate, Hurons, Chiantonati, Outoavatz, Chavuanear, Enchek, Aoſſendi, Nipiſirinians, Eachiriovacheon, Taranton, Quiſnontareon, Algonkins, Elſovataizonan, Oavechiſſaton, Skiarenons, Aſtakouvanda, and Oronons, Nadoveſſoveronons, Kiriſtincas, Iramnadous, and Jaetous. Some of theſe tribes are very numerous and brave; they feed themſelves by hunting, and ſell the ſkins to the French; who have divided the country into the ten following provinces, moſt of them named from their capital towns or ports; as Gaſpe, St. Jean iſle, Miſcon iſle, Richlieu, the three rivers, or treble river, Montreal iſle, Fort Frontenac, De Conti, St. Francis, Notre Dame des Anges, Alexis, St. Michael, and St. Joſeph.

Sanguenay contains the four tribes of Eſkimaux, Berſiamites or Oupapinachois, Oumionquois, and Coucochaquois; but the French have divided it into the ſix provinces of Quebec, Silleri, Tadouſſac, Port Neauf, Chichequedec, and Port St. Nicholas; but the three laſt, together with Port Quartier, belong to the Eſkimaux.

The climate and ſoil of this country are different in many places: but all that part which is inhabited by the French, being chiefly along the banks of the great river of St. Lawrence, is very cold in winter, and warm in ſummer; and the other known ports of the country being interſected with large woods, lakes, and rivers, which render it ſtill colder: however, there are great quantities of good fertile lands, which may produce corn, barley, rye, and other grain, fruit, and almoſt every thing that grows in France; but their chief product is tobacco, which the country yields in large quantities.

There is plenty of ſtags, and other deer; elks, bears, foxes, martins, wildcats, and other wild creatures in the woods; beſides wild-fowl, and other game; the ſouthern parts in particular breeding great numbers of wild bulls, ſmall deer, roebucks, goats, wolves, and other animals, both wild and tame. The meadow-grounds yield excellent paſturage, and breed great quantities of large and ſmall cattle; and where the arable land is well manured, it produces good crops. The marſhy grounds ſwarm with otters, beavers, and other amphibious animals; and the rivers and lakes with fiſh of all ſorts: the mountains abound with coal-mines, and ſome of ſilver.

The whole country is well watered; but the two principal rivers are thoſe of St. Lawrence, and the Miſſiſſipi.

The entrance into the bay of St. Lawrence lies between Cape de Retz on the iſle of Newfoundland, and the North Cape in Cape Breton: that of the Miſſiſſipi, which runs through the greateſt part of the province of Louiſiana, from north to ſouth, is called by the French the river of St. Louis, and by the natives the Miſchiſipi, Miſſiſſipi, and Meſchagamiſii, on account of the vaſt tract of ground which it overflows at certain ſeaſons: it is alſo called by the Spaniards La Paliſſada, from the great quantities of timber which they ſend down upon it in floats to the ſea. The ſpring-head of this river is not known; but it is navigable above 450 leagues up from its mouth, and diſcharges itſelf into the gulph of Mexico by two branches, which form an iſland of conſiderable extent.

The French are computed to be at preſent in Canada to the amount of 200,000; all opulent, according to their authors, or at leaſt all at their eaſe. They have but few towns; and they ſcarce give this name to any, except Quebec, Mont-real, and Trois rivieres, or the Three rivers; which, though two leſſer towns, are as opulent, and as mercantile as Quebec.

Quebec is ſituated on the north-ſhore of the river of St. Lawrence, about 200 leagues ſouth-weſt of the mouth of it; being divided into the upper and lower town, both of them about three miles in circumference, and defended by a caſtle, which ſtands on an eminence; there being in the upper town 5 churches, beſides the cathedral; the biſhop and 12 prebends reſiding together in the chapter-houſe, which, it is ſaid, is a moſt admirable fine ſtructure. This city is the metropolis of the French dominions in North America, as well as a biſhop's ſee; the viceroy who reſides here aſſuming the title of Governor and Captain-General both of New France and Louiſiana; which, according, to the French, comprehends all Canada and Florida; except ſome little portions they are pleaſed to permit Great Britain to poſſeſs, till they are in a condition to drive our colonies from thence into the ſea, in the language of one of their writers.

Mont-real is ſituated on an iſland in the river of St. Lawrence, 60 leagues ſouth-weſt of Quebec; the iſland being about 14 leagues in circumference. The whole iſland is full of fine plantations, and the town ſtrongly ſituated; at leaſt it was ſtrong enough to defend itſelf againſt the attacks of the Iroquois, or five nations, when they burnt and plundered all the French ſettlements in the iſland but this town, in the year 1688. It is the principal frontier garriſon of the French againſt the Iroquois, or Indians under the protection of New York; but the river St. Lawrence is not navigable above Mont-real, on account of ſome cataracts.

Trois rivieres, is a town ſo named, from its ſituation at the confluence of three rivers; one whereof is that of St. Lawrence, and lies almoſt in the mid-way between Quebec and Mont-real: it is a well built town, and a conſiderable mart, where the Indians exchange their ſkins and furs, for European goods.

The French colony conſiſts in a great number of plantations, ſituated on both ſides of the river, from Quebec to Mont-real; which being only a muſket's diſtance from each other, compoſe, as it were, two kinds of large villages of upwards of 50 leagues in length.

The leaſt accommodated of theſe planters have four acres of land front-ways, and 30 or 40 up the country: but for large conceſſions, which are properly the ſeignories of the country, whereon the plantations are dependent; they have frequently three, four, and five leagues front-ways, with as many as they pleaſe up the country; of which the perſon to whom the grant is made, retains but a part, for a chief place or reſidence; farming the reſt at 2 s. 6 d. ſterling an acre to other planters.

There are alſo plantations in ſome iſlands formed by the river; whereof thoſe of the iſle of Orleans, at a league and a half diſtance from Quebec, are in ſome repute; this iſland, which is about ſeven leagues in length, and three in breadth, being very fruitful, eſpecially in the produce of wheat.

A part of the Canada commerce conſiſts in grain, and legumes of all kinds; as alſo in planks and timber for carpenters; of which great quantities are conſumed in the country, and exported for the French iſlands; the return being in ſugar, tobacco, and ſuch like commodities as are wanted by the inhabitants of Canada, or not cultivated by them.

However, ſkins, and furs, eſpecially caſtor, make the principal object of the commeree of theſe colonies; a commerce which paſſes entirely through the hands of the Indians; who receive, in exchange for their caſtor, ſeveral European commodities: but the profits are immenſe on the French ſide, though not ſo great as formerly; eſpecially ſince the Engliſh found means to treat with theſe Indians for the ſame commodity.

Theſe Indians, the original inhabitants of Canada, are almoſt

almoſt perpetually at war with each other, conſtantly jealous of their liberty, and always regretting the eſtabliſhment of ſtrangers among them.

The Iroquois, who compoſe but five ſmall nations, are the moſt deſperate, and the braveſt of all, equally dreaded by the Europeans and natives. They carry an appearance of friendſhip towards the Engliſh, who know how to manage them better than the French; and it is to the former that they bring almoſt all their caſtor-ſkins; for which they are better paid than at Mont-real, and the Three rivers, where they deſcend ſometimes to treat with the French.

However, when the French are not at war with them, they trade frequently at the fort of Frontigniac; where it is more commodious for them to convey their ſkins by the lake in canoes, than to tranſport them by land to New York.

The French have alſo from them, for the ſupport of the garriſon of this fort, all kinds of veniſon, Indian fowls, and fiſh; for which they get, in exchange, needles, knives, gun-powder, and ball.

Among the other Indians, there are ſeveral nations in friendſhip with the French; ſome even who have embraced Chriſtianity, and fixed their reſidence in the midſt of the French colonies; ſuch are the Hurons, and the Abenakis; the one eſtabliſhed at Loretto, and the other taking up their abode in Sillery, and Sault-Chaudiere, villages not much diſtant from Quebec. There are alſo two villages of Chriſtian Iroquois near Mont-real; but for the moſt part compoſed of the children taken from theſe Indians, during their wars with the French. It is with theſe nations, who are leſs troubleſome, and leſs ſuſpicious, than the Iroquois, that the French trade for ſkins; which they carry on two different ways; the one is made by the Indians, who come yearly with their caſtors, and other ſkins, and furs, to the French plantations; the other is made by the French wood-rangers, who bring the neceſſary European commodities to all the Indian nations of this continent.

Mont-real is the chief place of rendezvous for this commerce; ſcarce a year paſſing without the arrival of thirty or forty canoes, conducted each by three of theſe wood-rangers, and laden with the caſtors they obtain in exchange from the Indians in their huts: the Indians alſo annually fail down theſe great lakes, about which they dwell, with a prodigious quantity of rich furs; which they exchange for arms, kettles, hatchets, knives, and an abundance of other commodities; whereby the profits are uſually 200 *per cent.* in favour of the French.

When their canoes are unladen, their huts erected, and their merchandiſe ranged in order, they demand an audience from the governor-general; or, in his abſence, from the particular governor of the place where they arrive.

The governor having granted their requeſt, places himſelf the ſame day in a two-armed chair, in the midſt of the public market; when each nation, forming its peculiar circle, ſeat themſelves about him, every one wirh a pipe in his mouth.

All being ſettled, and ſilence enjoined, the orator of one of the nations ſays, in the form of an harangue, addreſſing himſelf to the governor, "That his brethren are "come to viſit him, and to renew their antient friend-"ſhip: that the chief motive of their journey was to be "of ſome advantage to the French, who would be at "great difficulties to get beaver-ſkins, if the Indians "had not made it their buſineſs to bring them into their "colonies: that they know how much eſteemed beavers "are in France, and how inconſiderable the value is of "the commodities given them in exchange: that, not-"withſtanding, the friendſhip they have for the French "engages their treating with them; and to be in a condi-"tion to bring them another year greater ſtores of their "furrs, they come to take in exchange, fuſees, powder, "and balls, either to make the emoluments of their hunt-"ing more abundant, or the more to torment the Iro-"quois, in caſe of their attacking the plantations of their "friends the French: and, laſtly, that for a pledge of "their fidelity, and ſincere dealing, they throw down "a collar of porcelain with ſeveral caſtors for the k-"chiokima, or the general governor; whoſe protection "they requeſt, in caſe of being plundered, or ill uſed in "the town."

The diſcourſe finiſhed, and the orator having reſumed his ſeat and pipe, the governor ſpeaks in his turn, making also his preſent: after which, the liberty of commerce being granted, the aſſembly breaks up; when the Indians, returning to their huts, prepare themſelves for the exchange which they begin the next day.

All this commerce is carried on by truck, where gold and ſilver never interfere; and, as it is very free, the Indians not brooking the leaſt conſtraint, all the inhabitants become dealers; nor is any merchandiſe reputed contraband, wine and brandy excepted, upon account of the quarrels theſe nations are ſubject to when intoxicated with ſuch liquors: their bargains concluded, and their goods exchanged, each nation returns home, after having taken leave of the governors.

Quebec, Mont-real, the Three rivers, Tadouſas, Richelieu, and Chambli, are the principal places reſorted to by the Indians for this commerce: Chambli being formerly in ſuch great reputation, that it was the chief rendezvous of the Soccokis, Mahingans, and Openangos; but the dread of the Iroquois obliged them to trade with the Engliſh: however, ſome nations viſit this place, and the French have even a ſmall fort there; though not ſo much for the maintaining of this commerce as for obſtructing the contraband trade which the French carry on with the Engliſh of New York, to whom the wood-rangers bring their caſtor preferably to the Canada company, becauſe their profits are much greater: but at preſent, as has been mentioned, Mont-real is the principal place of the French plantations, where this trade is carried on.

The moſt precious of theſe ſkins, aud the principal object of commerce with the Indians, are caſtors; but the different kinds of theſe make a wide difference in their price; theſe kinds being the winter-caſtors, called alſo Muſcovy-caſtors, becauſe proper for Archangel; fat caſtors, or old coat; moulted, dry, and ſummer caſtors: there are alſo white caſtors; but as theſe are ſcarce, they make a diſtinct kind.

See the articles of *Beaver* and *Hats*, as likewiſe the *North* companies, for a more ample information of all theſe kinds of caſtor, their value, uſe, and commerce.

The other furs got from the Indians are,

Common foxes, black and ſpeckled.

Common martins, and thoſe called ſables.

Otters, ſome reddiſh, and others brown, called winter-otters.

Bears, black and white.

Peſkans, or wild cats, called alſo the devil's children.

Ferrets, pole-cats, and weazles.

Laſtly, wolves, ſquirrels, and muſk-rats, with their teſticles.

The Indians alſo ſupply the French with the ſkins of ſeveral animals, ſome green, and others dreſſed after the manner of the country; ſuch as the ſkins of elks, ſea-wolves, ſtags, fawns, and goats.

It ſhould be obſerved, that when, according to their manner of trafficking, they ſpeak ſimply of ſkins, without ſpecifying the name of the animal, elk-ſkins ſhould be underſtood, theſe being the deareſt of all thoſe in Canada.

The French of Quebec ſend alſo, during the ſummer-ſeaſon, ſome barks to trade for ſea-wolf ſkins with the Eſkimaux, who are ſo diſtruſtful, as never to come aboard the French barks: ſo that the entire commerce with them is carried on in a ſingular manner; the Indians expoſing, from their canoes, on the top of a pole, the ſkins they would ſell; and demanding, at the ſame time, what they would have in exchange, as knives, powder, balls, fuſees, hatchets, kettles, and other things: the French, on their ſide, having as little confidence in the Indians, faſten alſo their merchandiſe to the tops of poles, remaining always in their barks; whence they deliver what is required, and receive ſkins in return: but they never ſuffer theſe Indians to flock about them in any conſiderable number, leſt they ſhould make off with any of their unguarded barges, which has often happened.

has been already ſaid, that all theſe ſkins and furs are changed for other commodities; wherefore it will not amiſs to lay down the ſtate of theſe commodities, extracted from the memoirs of Baron Hontam, but rectified ſome places, according to the obſervations of the merants who traded chiefly in this particular.

ate of the merchandiſe proper for the caſtor trade of Canada.

ort and light fuſees; gun-powder for fowling; balls, ſmall ſhot; ſmall and large hatchets, and bill-hooks; ives in ſheaths; ſword-blades, for making darts; ket- and pots of all ſizes; ſhoemakers awls; hooks of all es; ſteel and flints for ſtriking fire; ſhort cloaks of e ſerge: ſhirts of common Britany linen; ſhort and ck worſted ſtockings; Brazil tobacco; thick whipd for nets; ſewing-thread of different colours; packead for nets; drinking-glaſſes; a few arrows; ſome ad ſwords; a little ſoap; with ſome needles and pins.

he beſt commodity, and of moſt certain vent, is brandy. it was not prohibited; yet it is one of thoſe wherewith canoes of the wood-rangers are not the leaſt laden; which canoes, made of birch-bark, all the commerce the great river, and lakes, is carried on, during the mmer-ſeaſon: but, in winter, ſledges are uſed, drawn horſes and dogs; which is the uſual carriage from uebec to Mont-real, whilſt the river of St. Lawrence frozen.

ſhould not be forgot, that the commerce of the lakes ſt belong only to ſuch of the planters, who, for this rpoſe, have obtained permits from the governor-gene-; and that thoſe permits are fixed at a certain number ery year: but this trade, confined thus to particulars, o' very lucrative for them, is exceeding prejudicial to general trade of the colony; as it hinders great nums of the Indians from bringing their ſkins and furs to ublic mart, where all the inhabitants, rich or poor, vileged or not privileged, might have a ſhare.

hat has been thus diſcuſſed, regards only the interior mmerce of New France: ſo that now it will not be proper to add ſomething concerning the trade promoted ere by foreign importations.

he Normans were the firſt that traded to Canada; and, ring an entire century, none but the ſhips of Rouen, ieppe, and Havre, were ſeen at Quebec. The merants of St. Malo and Nants afterwards divided this trade ong themſelves; but at laſt it wholly remained in the nds of the Rochelle merchants: however, thoſe from ourdeaux and Bayonne frequently ſend ſome other ſhipng there; whereby the Canadeans receive the greater t of their wines, brandy, and iron, from France.

here are two ſeaſons for the departure of French ſhips Canada; one towards the end of April, or the beginng of May; the other in the month of September: the ter being to arrive there when the ice is melted; and e former to arrive before it is formed.

he French ſhipping deſtined for this trade, pay neither the ty of exportation out of the kingdom, nor the duty of portation at Quebec, except for Brazil tobacco.

he cargo of theſe ſhips is partly the ſame with that ſent the Caribbee iſlands, and partly different; tobacco, gar, and ſeveral other commodities, from the Caribes, being of the number of thoſe imported to Canada, here the ſoil and climate are not proper for their cultiion. There is alſo ſome difference in the cloths and ffs, ſo cold a country as New France requiring them rmer and thicker than the Caribbees ſituated under the rid zone.

hough vaſt profits accrue from all the commodities imted to Quebec in French bottoms, ſcarce amounting leſs than 50 *per cent.*; yet ſuch as are leaſt neceſſary, d moſtly for ornament and curioſity, ſell beſt; as ribnds, lace, ſnuff-boxes, watches, and a variety of ſuch nkets; of which a ſufficient quantity ſeldom arrives, ough uſually ſold at four times their juſt value, when expences are deducted.

hen ſhips arrive at Quebec, the merchants of this town, o keep ſailors at Mont-real and the Three Rivers, load ne barks with a part of the merchandiſe imported on eir account, and ſend it to be ſold by the retailers.

However, there are ſeveral rich traders in both theſe towns, who receive various commodities at the firſt hand; coming themſelves to make their market at Quebec, and freighting ſeveral barks, which bring back themſelves, and their merchandiſe, to the place of their reſidence.

All this merchandiſe is paid for, either in money, or bills of exchange on Rochelle; or in ſkins and furs, ſuch as martins, bears, wild cats, foxes, and others above mentioned, caſtors excepted, which are brought to the company's office, and ſent in their ſhips to France; or, laſtly, in corn and legumes, particularly in dry peaſe; as alſo in carpenter and joiners timber, and in madder. The returns in furs and ſkins are the beſt; but there is never, either of theſe or any other commodities, a ſufficiency to freight all ſhips that come from France; beſides, there are only ſome privileged ſhips allowed to have a full freight for their return.

The Rochelle ſhips, not to return empty, frequently take in coals at Cape Breton for Martinico and Guardaloup, where great quantities are conſumed in the refining of ſugar; of which they afterwards make the cargo of their return. Others went for dry-cod to Placentia, which they paid for in ready money; but, ſince the ceſſion of Placentia and Newfoundland to the Engliſh, they bring corn to Cape Breton, where they are paid in bills of exchange, till the cod-fiſhery eſtabliſhed there can furniſh them with a ſufficiency for an ample return in dry fiſh.

It is in the lower town of Quebec, that the richeſt traders of Rochelle have their warehouſes and factors; where it is alſo that the merchants of the other towns, and even of Quebec, not capable of having correſpondents in France, come to ſupply themſelves with all the merchandiſe they have an occaſion for.

There are alſo merchants of the country who keep ſuch warehouſes at Quebec; but theſe are furniſhed with ſhips of their own, which go and come from Canada to France, bringing backwards and forwards all neceſſary commodities.

Miſſiſſippi, or Louiſiana.

According to Savary, a vaſt tract of land, extending 1800 leagues and upwards, ſituated in North America, between Canada, Carolina, and New Mexico, and the Ocean, has received the name of Louiſiana, becauſe diſcovered by the French in the reign of Lewis XIV. It is alſo called the Miſſiſſippi, from a great river, which, having croſſed it by a courſe of more than 800 leagues, empties itſelf into the gulph of Mexico.

But other authors differ about the boundaries of this country; ſome of the French geographers aſſert, that its bounds are too extenſive to be known; while others ſay, it is bounded on the ſouth, by the gulph of Mexico; on the north, by the Indian nations called the Illinois, the Paniaſſus, Poaducas, Oſages, Tionontetecagas, Chavanons, and other wild nations; on the eaſt, by part of Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina; and on the weſt, by New Mexico, and New Spain. They alſo ſay it extends itſelf from north to ſouth about 15 degrees, that is, from the 25th to the 40th degree of north latitude; and from eaſt to weſt about 10 or 11, that is, from 86 to 96 or 97: for, according to father Charlevoix, the boundaries are certain; though theſe boundaries, according to the maps of De Liſle, are carried much farther, eſpecially on the north-ſide, where they make Louiſiana contiguous to Canada; ſo that part of it is bounded, by theſe maps, by New York, Penſilvania, and Virginia; and on the weſt, by the rivers called Rio Brave and Salado. The boundaries on the north-weſt are not much leſs uncertain; for the Miſſouri, a great river, which gives name to a great tract of the land, flows from that point into the Miſſiſſippi, more than 400 leagues above its mouth: ſo that, except the ſouth, where the ſea bounds it, all the reſt muſt be left uncertain; and ſo it is like to remain, till theſe boundaries are ſettled on the eaſt with the Engliſh, and on the weſt with Spain; for till that time they will be liable to diſputes among the three nations.

However, it is certain, that Louiſiana contains the greateſt part of theſe new-diſcovered lands eaſt and weſt of the Miſſiſſippi river, which were at firſt called Florida, by Sebaſtian Cabot, who was ſent upon this deſign by Henry VII

of England. The Spaniards alſo lay claim, if not to the firſt diſcovery, at leaſt to the firſt ſettlement on this continent in 1512, when John Pontio de Leon landed and built a fort there: but the Indians prevented the Spaniards from ſettling there, who were alſo diſturbed by the French: however, the French could not form any ſettlement here till 1684, when Monſieur de la Sale diſcovered the mouth of the Miſſiſſippi, and built Fort Louis on that bay; and, in 1698, Capt. Ibberville called the whole country Louiſiana, which has been greatly improved, eſpecially ſince the year 1720.

This country is well watered by ſeveral large rivers beſides the Miſſiſſippi; particularly the Mobile, whoſe banks are inhabited by the Chicachaws, Catas, Nanibas, Mobilans, and other nations. The river Mobile runs a courſe of 200 leagues, deſcending from the mountains in the country of the Illinois, and emptying itſelf into the gulph of Mexico: the bay of this river is reckoned 30 leagues deep; it receives two others, that of the Alibamons, which comes from the eaſt; and that of the Chicachaws, which flows from the north; and it is on the weſt coaſt of this bay, that the moſt conſiderable colony belonging to the French in all Louiſiana is eſtabliſhed, which is alſo inhabited by the Tomez, Apachi, and ſome other Indian nations.

The chief bays of this country, beſides the Miſſiſſippi and the Mobile, are thoſe of St. Roſe, Penſacola, St. Andrew or Sandy bay, St. Joſeph, and St. Bernard or St. Louis: that of St. Roſe is guarded by an iſland of the ſame name, which extends to the bay of Penſacola; the channel between it and the land being wide and deep enough for any ſhips to ſail from one to the other of thoſe bays; beſides, the tide flows in here twelve hours, and is more regular than in any other parts of the Mexican gulph.

The climate and ſoil are good, there being an abundance of rich paſture and arable land: in ſome parts there are three or four crops in a year; becauſe the winter conſiſts of heavy rains, without nipping froſts. Moſt of the trees in Europe are to be found there; beſides, the country has ſome peculiar to itſelf, particularly its lofty cedars, which yield a very odoriferous gum; and the cotton-trees, which grow to a prodigious height. The whole country alſo abounds with variety of game, fowl, cattle, and moſt of the neceſſaries of life.

Along the banks of the river Miſſiſſippi, are the plantations of ſeveral opulent perſons of Paris, and the other provinces of France, purchaſed from the Weſt India company, containing from 10 to 20 ſquare leagues, and upwards; wherein corn is ſowed, tobacco planted, cotton cultivated, indigo made, ſilkworms fed, and every thing executed to inhance the value of a very fertile country; which requires but little labour to repay, with an hundred fold, whatever is in any ſhape expended.

Beſides the commodities ariſing from the cultivation of the land, a conſiderable commerce might be carried on with the natives; who are more cultivated than thoſe of Canada, ſeeming diſpoſed, with great familiarity, to make but one people with the French.

The chief of theſe Indians, with whom the French at preſent carry on a trade, are the Hannetons, the Iſſalis, the Chuas, the Tintonkas, and the Nadoneſſans, who live in the neighbourhood of the river Miſſiſſippi.

The commodities to be had from them are much the ſame with thoſe furniſhed by the Indians of Canada; though they have ſome peculiar to themſelves; as the green hides of bulls, called by the Spaniards *cibola*; as alſo the hair of theſe animals, which is a kind of long wool, fine and gloſſy, whereof the Indians make ſome ſtuffs for their own uſe; and the French have endeavoured to turn to ſome account in their manufactures: beſides, they have the ſkins of other animals, ſuch as bears, horſes, and roe-bucks; which laſt are ſo cheap, that each ſkin is ſold from 10 to 20 muſket-balls, according as lead is ſcarce or plentiful in the colony.

The French entertain great hopes of ſome of the ſilver mines in this colony; for, according to their account, upon trial in France, 6 lb. of ſilver have been extracted from a quintal of the mineral; which is a produce not to be equalled by any of the Spaniſh mines, the workers eſteeming thoſe good which yield 2 *per cent.*

As to the other mines diſcovered, or diſcoverable there, ſuch as mines of gold, copper, lead, quickſilver, and iron; their certainty depends moſtly upon the relations of the Indians; which, if proved to be true, might one day or other enrich this colony, whoſe real and undoubted wealth at preſent conſiſts in thoſe great numbers of cattle which fill the plains and foreſts, ſuch as horſes, cows, ſheep, goats, and hogs; as alſo ſeveral kinds of fowls; timber for the building of ſhips and houſes, ſuch as oak, walnut, cypreſs, black and white cedar, and mulberry trees for ſilkworms, yielding, according to French relations, as good ſilk as that of Meſſina; to which may be added, pitch and tar, prepared in ſeveral parts of the colony.

The French commodities proper for this colony are much the ſame with thoſe ſent to Canada, and the French iſlands; thoſe for trading with the Indians being coarſe blankets, ſerving for coats; Limburg cloths, red or white, dark colours not pleaſing them; coats ready made of these cloths; common hats; knives, hatchets, and pick-axes; ſmall looking-glaſſes, drinking-glaſſes, and vermillion: beſides, there is alſo a great trade of negroes in Louiſiana.

The coins of greateſt currency in the colony are piaſtres, accepted there upon the footing of 100 ſols, or about 4 s. ſterling; and all other ſilver pieces in proportion.

The French monarch has likewiſe ordained, that thoſe piaſtres brought from this colony, ſhall be received in the mints; and, in caſe of variation in the value of the coin of the kingdom, that the ſaid piaſtres ſhall be paid weight for weight, purſuant to the ſpecies then current, without any reſervation for the expences of coin; which is to be underſtood alſo of bullion, but in proportion to its title: the whole, notwithſtanding, with the injunction of producing certificates, in the form ordained by the arret, that the piaſtres, or bullion, have been embarked at Louiſiana, and that they belong to the company.

The two principal officers of the colony are, a director who has full authority over thoſe employed in commerce, navigation, and the eſtabliſhments made, or to be made; and a commander in chief of the troops, whoſe inſpection and power extends to all military affairs, as alſo to the Indians.

The ports, poſts, and eſtabliſhments, poſſeſſed by the French, are the ſixteen following.

Iſle aux Vaiſſeaux, or *The iſland for the Shipping*. The anchorage of the company's ſhips was formerly in the channel of the iſle Dauphine; but this channel being choaked up, the Iſle aux Vaiſſeaux was choſen for this purpoſe, being ſituated four leagues from the continent, and of conveniency for the loading and unloading of ſhips giving it a preference to all other places.

The building of a fort was ordered and began there, with caſerns, lodgments, and neceſſary warehouſes, where the company was to maintain a peculiar commandant and major.

The road of this iſland is excellent, where ſhips can ride in great ſafety, and anchor within gunſhot of the iſland.

Biloxi, or *Fort Lewis*. This poſt is ſituated on the continent, four leagues from the *Iſle aux vaiſſeaux*, which, in ſome ſhape, covers it.

Its ſituation is ſo happy, that it is not only eaſy to ſecure it with very few fortifications; but alſo, in war time, to convey merchandiſe and inhabitants to New Orleans, without any danger; which conſiderations and advantages have erected it into the principal eſtabliſhment for the reception of new cottons and merchandiſe from France.

Among the various buildings began there, an hoſpital is not the leaſt conſiderable, deſigned for ſuch paſſengers and ſailors as might have fallen ill during ſo tedious a voyage; and that no neceſſary refreſhment ſhould be wanting, a plantation has been formed, with gardens and paddocks; the one for the rearing of all ſorts of fowls with large and ſmall cattle; the other for the production of the different kinds of garden-ſtuff brought from France, and for the planting of all ſorts of fruit trees, either of the country's growth, or imported from Europe.

The lands in the neighbourhood of Biloxi are not equally proper for tillage, though ſome ſpots are

lent; but this port has its peculiar commandant and major.

w Orleans, and *Manchac*. These two eſtabliſhments are joined together, though 25 leagues diſtant from each other; becauſe the latter is the ſtorehouſe of the former; both being ordained for each other's ſupport, and either of them was to acquire the name of Orleans, according as it became the more conſiderable.

Monſieur de Bieuville, Governor-general of Louiſiana, was the founder of New Orleans, ſituated about 40 leagues from the mouth of the Miſſiſſippi, equally fitted for the commerce of this river, and that of the lakes. Its inhabitants in 1718 were 300; which number is ſince greatly augmented.

The chief view of the company in ſettling New Orleans, was to form large warehouſes, for the ſupplying of all the eſtabliſhments to be made on the Miſſiſſippi, and the rivers that empty themſelves into it: but experience having proved the difficulty of founding ſolid building on the banks of this river, upon account of its being ſubject to overflow, thoſe warehouſes firſt deſigned for New Orleans, were afterwards built at Manchac.

Manchac is a rivulet iſſuing from the Miſſiſſipi, and emptying itſelf into the lake of Maurepas, which communicates with that of Pontchartrain; this laſt communicating with the ſea; ſo that the boats going from the Iſle aux Vaiſſeaux, or Biloxi, to bring to the warehouſe of Manchac the merchandiſe imported from France, will be in no dread of either pirates or ſtorms, as they can coaſt along to get to the lake of Pontchartrain.

The port of Manchac is alſo very convenient for ſmall veſſels to navigate in the river Miſſiſſippi; becauſe, as they never deſcend to the ſea, they will not be worm-eaten, and of conſequence can be preſerved longer.

The ſoil of New Orleans is excellent for the produce of rice, and in ſome places for tobacco. The eſtabliſhment is in great forwardneſs, by the number of lands already cleared; and, in order to put it upon the beſt footing, the company has appointed ſettlements for all the ſoldiers who are willing to become planters.

All the juriſdiction there is in a particular commandant and major, whoſe authorities extend likewiſe over Manchac.

Natchez. The French have eſtabliſhed this poſt to make themſelves reſpected by the Indians, and to facilitate the navigation of the Miſſiſſippi, for the proviſions they take in here and there, as they coaſt along.

It is 90 leagues from New Orleans; the ſoil being pretty good for corn, and excellent for tobacco; as it is alſo in ſome places for rice.

The tobacco-planters ſent there by the company in 1719, were eſtabliſhed in the month of February 1720; and, for the ſecuring of the inhabitants and their navigation, a ſmall fort has been raiſed, where the company maintains a garriſon.

Natchitoches. This port is eſtabliſhed on the red river, with the view of being near the Spaniards, and preſerving the commerce of the Indians; whoſe inhabitants are pretty numerous along this river, where the ſoil is not ungrateful, and will admit of great improvement.

Yatſas. This port has it name from the river whereon it is eſtabliſhed, which is 15 leagues from Miſſiſſippi, and 30 below Natchez. Its ſoil is one of the beſt in Louiſiana, eaſy to be cultivated, and equally proper for the productions of America, ſuch as tobacco and indigo; as alſo for thoſe of Europe, as corn and garden-ſtuff.

The utility of this poſt is of two kinds; as furniſhing thoſe with proviſions who go up to the Illinois, and keeping in awe the ſcouts of the neighbouring nations.

Illinois. This poſt is ſituated upon the Miſſiſſippi, towards the mouth of the Miſſouri, and is thought to have ſeveral mines: the ſoil is capable of producing all the neceſſaries of life; and a conſiderable commerce of furs may likewiſe be promoted there. This eſtabliſhment, projected a long time before, was at laſt commenced in the year 1720; two companies of foot, and ſome workmen and planters, being tranſported there by M. de Boiſbriant, the King's lieutenant for Louiſiana.

The fort built there, called Fort de Chartres, is ſituated eight leagues above the village of the Kaſkaſſias upon the banks of the Miſſiſſippi: in whoſe neighbourhood there is a plain, upwards of ſix leagues in extent, fit for producing rice and corn in abundance, and almoſt without any labour; the ſoil being diſpoſed to admit the plough without any of thoſe preparations which, in infant-colonies, are the cauſe of ſo many fatigues to the planters.

The jeſuits of Illinois are thoſe who have been moſt ſucceſsful in the cultivation of corn: in 1718, they built a windmill, and were building a ſecond; they alſo diſcovered ſalt-marſhes in the country, productive of ſalt fit for the pickling of fleſh; of which they ſent to the colony in the lower part of the river, to the amount of 200 quintals.

There is a peculiar commandant and major, reſiding in the Fort de Chartres.

Ouabache. The eſtabliſhment of this port in 1710 was only in idea; yet ſome perſons were ſent to take poſſeſſion; and the plantation and fort for ſupporting it, were to be placed in an angle formed by the river Ouabache, which falls into the Miſſiſſippi 25 leagues below the Illinois.

This territory is ſo exceeding fertile, that its fine meadows graze an abundance of buffaloes, whoſe hides might turn out very advantageous in trade.

A company of foot was deſigned for the fort of Ouabache, whoſe captain was to command the whole diſtrict.

Iſle Dauphine. This poſt was abandoned; but a fort, containing one officer, with 10 ſoldiers, has been kept there, to hale the ſhips that appear on the coaſt.

The Fort of Conde. This poſt is ſituated upon the bay of the Mobile, and was firſt called Fort-Lewis; but, ſince Biloxi became the principal eſtabliſhment of the French upon the coaſts of Louiſiana, it has been called Fort Condé, the name of Fort Lewis beging given to the fort erected in the plantation of Biloxi.

As this port was the firſt the French poſſeſſed in Louiſiana, it is the moſt populous, and beſt eſtabliſhed of all the colony: it is even ſo happily ſituated ſince the choaking up of the Iſle Dauphine, that a fortification is uſeleſs; being inacceſſible on the ſide of the ſea, and having nothing to dread on the ſide of the land.

There are ſeveral ſand-banks extending all along the coaſts; bnt the commerce of the Alibamons is ſufficient to ſupport this port; which has a peculiar commandant and major.

The Alibamons. This eſtabliſhment has its name from a river which empties itſelf into the Mobile; whoſe banks are inhabited by the Alibamons, a very conſiderable Indian nation in that part of America.

The ſoil is kind for corn, and all kinds of garden-ſtuff; beſides tobacco, the plantations of which are in a thriving condition.

This poſt being of the laſt importance for protecting the colony from the inroads of the neighbouring people, a ſtrong garriſon is maintained there, having a peculiar commandant and major.

St. Bernard's bay. This bay is to the weſt of the Miſſiſſippi, ſerving as a boundary between the French and Spaniards, who may eaſily keep on footing a very conſiderable commerce, either by land or ſea.

Several rivers empty themſelves into this bay, adjoining to which are the moſt fertile lands of Louiſiana; which the company intended for one of their principal eſtabliſhments, and prepared to ſend there ſome Germans and Switzers for inhabitants.

It was in this bay, and the ſame place the French are now poſſeſſed of, that the Sieur de la Salle made his eſtabliſhment in 1685: the Spaniards alſo ſeemed inclinable to eſtabliſh themſelves there, but they never had either fort or plantation.

The country abounds in all kinds of cattle; and it is reported, that even cochineal is found there in great quantities.

La Riviere aux Cannes, or *The River of Reeds.* This poſt borders upon New Mexico; the river having its ſource in the mines of this rich part of Spaniſh America, where it empties itſelf into St. Bernard's bay.

The eſtabliſhment of this port was began in the month of Auguſt 1720; when it was deſigned to be peopled with French, Switzers, and Germans.

The fort has its peculiar commandant and major; being to keep the Mexican Spaniards in awe, aud protect the commerce that might be carried on with them; which is in no likelihood of failing, through the neceſſity the Spaniards of this frontier are under for European commodities, which the French might furniſh them with; as alſo upon account of the great number of piaſtres they have in their poſſeſſion, which they can give in exchange, and which otherwiſe would remain uſeleſs in their hands, as having no one to treat with.

Padoucas. The eſtabliſhment of this poſt was began in 1719, by the Sieur Diron, inſpector-general of the troops of Louiſiana, being ſituated in the upper part of the river of the Akancas, which falls into the Miſſiſſippi, 80 leagues below that of the Yaſous.

This river of the Akancas has its ſource in the country of the Padoucas, an Indian nation, upon the north of New Mexico: the country is very fertile, and abounds in mines of gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones; where the Spaniards go in caravans, and keep a regular kind of commerce with the nations.

To deprive them of this commerce, or at leaſt to divide it with them, the French have ſettled themſelves in a poſt on the upper part of the river, in one of the villages of the Padoucas; where they laid the foundations of a fort, and intended to maintain a ſtrong garriſon with a peculiar commandant and major.

The name of a Spaniard, which is odious to all the Americans, eſpecially to thoſe not as yet ſubject to them, and the conveniency of the river for the conveyance of merchandiſe, were motives inducing the French to believe, that the Padoucas would give them at leaſt the preference in the trade they were deſirous of with the Europeans.

The *Miſſouris.* The Sieur de Bourmont, who made himſelf acknowledged the chief of all the Indian nations inhabiting the banks of the river Miſſouris, and all the others that empty themſelves into it, was charged to eſtabliſh this poſt in ſome commodious place bordering upon this river.

The view of the French, in this eſtabliſhment, was to ſupport that of the Padoucas, by hindering the Indians to incommode it, and by engaging them on the contrary to favour it, in conſideration of the traffic to be promoted among them.

Penſacola. This poſt is not included among thoſe poſſeſſed by the French in Louiſiana, tho' at preſent in their hands, and belonging to them by the right of conqueſt.

M. de Bienville, general governor of Louiſiana, took it from the Spaniards in the month of July 1719. A ſquadron from the Havanna retook it the 10th of the month of Auguſt following; but Monſieur de Champmelin, ſoon took poſſeſſion of it again.

The port of Penſacola is the fineſt on the coaſt of Louiſiana: it is ſituated to the Eaſt; but, being at too great a diſtance from the river Miſſiſſippi, to unload the ſhips from France, all the ſervice it can be of is chiefly for a place of ſafety to the royal ſquadrons.

The ſoil produces nothing; nor has it any thing to recommend it but a ſmall river, whoſe banks are ſhaded with beautiful trees, fit for maſts.

Louiſiana being of ſuch an immenſe extent, the company could not well do without the above-mentioned number of poſts, either to preſerve the lands of their conceſſion, or to protect their commerce againſt foreign and domeſtic enemies; or, laſtly, to make themſelves reſpected by the Indians.

The chief officers of Louiſiana are a commandant-general, two lieutenant-generals, a major-general, and an inſpector-general of the troops, and militia; beſides a particular commandant and major in every important poſt, as already mentioned.

The troops generally kept up there conſiſt of 21 companies of French infantry of 50 men each, and a company of Swiſs labourers of 210 men; in all compoſing 1260 ſoldiers, excluſive of officers.

Some reformed officers are alſo eſtabliſhed, who were judged neceſſary for diſciplining the ſoldiery, and commanding the militia, in caſe of any emergency; which officers, according to their reſpective degrees, fill all vavant places.

Beſides theſe officers, there are, for the direction and conducting of the fortifications, an engineer-general, two ſubaltern ones, and another for ſupplying the default of the reſt; as alſo a company of near 200 workmen, who, as well as the Switzers, were deſigned for working at the fortifications.

From the time the French firſt diſcovered the river Miſſiſſipi, they have, with great care, endeavoured, and, at length, have actually ſettled, a communication between Canada and the ſouthern countries on the ſaid river. Firſt, they ſail in canoes from Mont-Real above 3 leagues, to the fall of St. Louis, where they have a portage, or carrying-place, by land, about half a league; then they reimbark and row up the ſtream about 60 leagues to Frontenac, on the north ſide, at the beginning of the lake Ontario. From thence they proceed on the lake Ontario, generally reputed to be about 80 leagues in length, to the dreadful falls of Niagara, which oblige them to land: the portage is about three leagues; after which they reimbark and go up the ſtreight, about 6 leagues into the lake Erie, reputed to be about 130 leagues in length; and from this lake they have three different routs to the river Miſſiſſippi.

The firſt and ſhorteſt paſſage by water is to go up the river Miamis, or Ouamis, that enters the lake Erie, on the S. W. about 150 leagues, where is the higheſt land; and from hence the waters divide their deſcent, between Miſſiſippi and that lake. Here they embark on a ſmall ſhallow river, called La Riviere de Portage, down which they row 40 leagues to the river Onabache, or Wabaſh; and on that river, as the traders reckon, 120 leagues to the river Ohio, into which the other falls; then 80 leagues down Ohio to Miſſiſſippi, and thence 350 leagues to the bay of Mexico. Some call both theſe rivers by the ſame name, and generally Wabaſh; but they ought to be diſtinguiſhed; becauſe the head of the Ohio comes more eaſterly towards Virginia or Carolina; and, among ſeveral other large ſtreams, it receives the river Pereſipi on the ſouth ſide, not far from the mouth of Wabaſh; which river Pereſipi is ſaid to ariſe from the mountains of Virginia or Carolina.

The other two paſſages are to ſail from the N. E. of lake Erie, to Pontchartrain, on the lake of St. Claire, a French ſettlement, where 400 traders often meet. Here is a garriſon of 30 French, and a vaſt concourſe of merchants, ſometimes no leſs than 1000, beſides Indians; this being a common place of rendezvous, near which the Outawas are ſettled.

From the lake Huron they paſs by the ſtreight of Miſſilimakina 4 leagues, being two in breadth, and of a great depth, to the lake Ilinois; thence 150 leagues on the lake to Miami, ſituated on the mouth of the river Chigagou, which runs into Erie. Up the river Chigagou they ſail but 3 leagues to a portage of a quarter of a league; then they enter a ſmall lake of about a mile, and have another very ſmall portage, and again another, of two miles to the river Ilinois, down the ſame, 130 leagues to Miſſiſippi.

The third is from Miſſilimakina on the lake Ilinois to the lake Des Puans, thence 90 leagues to the river Puans, 80 leagues up the ſame, to a portage about 4 miles over to the river Ouiſconſing, and thence 40 leagues to Miſſiſippi.

From the mouth of the river Ouiſconſing to that of Ilinois is reputed 150 leagues on Miſſiſippi, and from thence to the mouth of Ohio 70 leagues: ſo that from the mouth of Ouiſconſing to the bay is near 500 leagues. Theſe diſtances are according to the traders computation, but appear generally to be much overdone, which may be owing to their coaſting along the ſhores of the lakes, and taking in all the windings of the rivers.

They have another much ſhorter paſſage from Mont-Real to lake Huron, by the French river on the north of St. Lawrence, which anſwers the two latter routs; but as it abounds with falls, and not anſwering trade ſo well, it is ſeldom uſed. They have alſo by this river a much ſhorter paſſage to the upper lake: but of all the paſſages that by Oubache is the ſhorteſt and eaſieſt.

The ſhips which go to Louiſiana anchor no more at the *Iſle aux Vaiſſeaux*, becauſe the eſtabliſhment of Biloxi be-

been transferred to New Orleans: ſo that they go directly to the iſle of Baliſe, ſituated at the mouth of the river St. Lewis, whence they go up to New Orleans, unleſs they have orders for unloading in the iſle of Baliſe.

It is obſervable, that the inhabitants of the Britiſh colonies are, or affect to be thought, under ſome apprehenſions, that the French are ſo ſituated on the back of the Engliſh ſettlements, that it is, or will ſoon be, in their power to ruin the Britiſh trade with the Indians; and by haraſſing the Britiſh dominions on that ſide, oblige the Engliſh coloniſts to quit that continent: they alſo ſeem to think, that the French will draw a line from the mouth of the river St. Lawrence to the gulph of Mexico; and ſo ſtrengthen it with forts and redoubts, that they will in time drive the Engliſh into the ſea: and to heighten this terror from the French, their colonies are repreſented conſiſting of two hundred thouſand ſouls at leaſt, ſupported by great bodies of regular forces from France, againſt which it is impoſſible, they ſuggeſt, to defend the Britiſh frontiers. Indeed, ſeveral Weſt India merchants formerly ſeemed to be in the ſame way of thinking; but, upon taking a more particular ſurvey of the country, and the circumſtances of each nation, a perſon may be readily inclined to think, that this is an event which there is great reaſon to ſuppoſe will never happen, unleſs the Britiſh colonies ſhould find themſelves ſo ill uſed by their mother country, as voluntarily to throw themſelves into the arms of France, which, on many accounts, can never be ſuppoſed.

The frontiers, it is true, of ſome of the Britiſh colonies may be expoſed to the ravages of the French Indians; and it will be prudent to erect forts, or keep ſome troops on foot in ſuch places as lie moſt open to their incurſions; particularly on the lake of Champlain, on the frontiers of New York, and on the lakes of Ontario and Erie; as alſo to have ſome armed veſſels on theſe lakes, which would not only defend the frontiers, but protect the Indians on that ſide, and prevent their deſerting over to the French. It might alſo be proper to erect forts on the paſſes of the Apalathian mountains, on the back of Virginia and Carolina, for the ſame end; but it is not adviſeable to extend the Britiſh plantations beyond this natural barrier: for there is as much land within it as the inhabitants can ever plant to advantage; and they will only weaken their ſettlements, by endeavouring to enlarge thoſe bounds. If the French are determined to eſtabliſh themſelves on the banks of the Miſſiſſippi, and in the bay of Apalachi; the beſt reaſon Great Britain can have to oppoſe this project is, leſt they ſhould one day penetrate to the Spaniſh mines, or make themſelves maſters of the navigation of the gulph of Mexico, which will enable them to put what terms they pleaſe upon Spain. It will then be in their power to compel his Catholic Majeſty to give them the trade of Old Spain, and of the Spaniſh Weſt Indies; as alſo to exclude the ſubjects of Britain, and all other European nations, from ſending their manufactures to the Spaniſh Weſt Indies, by the flota, or otherwiſe; and poſſibly they will not reſt ſatisfied till they have compelled his Catholic Majeſty to let them have a ſhare of his mines.

The Spaniards, both on the E. and W. of Florida, are much more in danger of the French than the Britiſh colonies are, and they will probably be one day made ſenſible, that their ſafety conſiſts in a ſtrict union with great Great Britain; as alſo that there is no other way left to defend their mines in North America from the encroachments of the French, if they eſtabliſh themſelves on the northern ſhores of the gulph of Mexico, and on the banks of the Miſſiſſippi.

Commerce of L'Iſle Royale, *or the* Royal Iſland; *more commonly known by the name of* Cape Breton.

The colony of Cape Breton is of a later date than that of Louiſiana; the French commencing their eſtabliſhments there in 1714; that is, ſince they ceded to the Engliſh, by the treaty of Utrecht, the fort of Placentia, and the other poſts they poſſeſſed in Newfoundland.

This iſland always belonged to France, under the denomination of Cape-Breton, as making a part of Canada; and the French, ſome time before the year 1640, had forts and plantations there, which they afterwards abandoned; becauſe their eſtabliſhments in Newfoundland were ſufficient, both for their merchants and fiſhermen, to erect a fiſhery there, and promote the commerce of dry cod.

The ceſſion of Newfoundland to the Engliſh induced the French to reſume their antient project of peopling the iſland of Cape Breton; and, for a further aſſurance of its poſſeſſion, the ſame article of the treaty of Utrecht, which takes from France Placentia, cedes to her Cape-Breton, in the following terms: "That the iſle called "Cape Breton, and all others whatſoever, ſituated in the "mouth, and in the gulph of St. Lawrence, ſhall re-"main for the future to France; with an entire power "and authority, in his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, to for-"tify therein one or more places."

It is, therefore, from the wrecks of the French colony of Newfoundland, and the remains of that of Acadia, ceded alſo to the Engliſh, that Cape Breton is repeopled; compoſing, at this time, a flouriſhing colony, not only by the cultivation of lands, but alſo by the cod-fiſhery; which, as the French flatter themſelves, is not inferior to that they were obliged to abandon.

Cape-Breton is ſituated between 61 and 62 deg of W. lon. and between 45 and 48 deg. of N. lat. and, with Newfoundland, about 16 leagues diſtant from it, forms the S. entry of the bay, or gulph of St. Lawrence: the ſtreight of Canſo, which ſeparates it from Nova Scotia, is little more than 5 leagues in length, and one in breadth: ſo that the poſſeſſion of this iſland commands the navigation to Canada, by the river of St. Lawrence. The iſland is about 150 miles in length, from N. E. to S. W. and about 99 broad, from E. to W. its ſhape is very irregular, being ſo deeply indented with rivers and lakes, that the N. and S. parts are only joined by an iſthmus of about 600 yards over, which ſeparates the bottom of the bay of Touloufe, near the mouth of the ſtreight of Canſo, from the lakes of Labrador, that diſcharge themſelves into the Atlantic ocean, by two channels of unequal breadth, formed by the iſle of Verderonne, or De la Boularderie, which is about 22 miles in length. The climature of this iſland is not very different from that of Quebec, and Canada: and, tho' the fogs are more frequent here, the air is not reckoned unhealthy: the ſoil is tolerably good, and the mountains may be cultivated even to the tops; but the beſt lands are ſuch as incline to the S. being defended from the N. and N. W. winds, by the river of St. Lawrence. The Marquis du Maiſon Fort has reported, that, in the year 1732, the iſland produced a conſiderable quantity of grain; but tho' there were more than 4000 inhabitants, they found their account much better in fiſhing than huſbandry, which conſtantly occaſioned the land to lie waſte, the natives procuring all neceſſaries by their fiſh. Here are oaks of a prodigious ſize, pine-trees fit for maſts; and, in general, all ſorts of timber, eſpecially the cedar, the aſh, the maple, the plane, and the aſp. Domeſtic animals, ſuch as horſes, black cattle, ſheep, ſwine, and poultry, thrive very well: tho' hunting and fiſhing yield the inhabitants a plentiful ſubſiſtence for a great part of the year; for no place in the world abounds more plentifully with cod, or has greater conveniencies for drying it; and the fiſheries for ſeals, porpoiſes, and ſea-cows, is both eaſy and profitable: here are ſeveral good mines of excellent coal, which, as they lie on the mountainous part of the iſle, require no neceſſity of digging for them; and there is alſo a good quantity of lime-ſtone. All the frequented ports of this iſland lie from the E. inclining to the S. for 55 leagues, beginning from port Dauphin to port Touloufe, and are, the bay of Gabaron, the port of Louiſburg, and port de Baleine; the bays of Panadon, Miray, Morienne, Indiana, Spaniſh bay, and port Dauphin: the northern coaſt is very ſteep and inacceſſible; as is alſo the weſtern ſide, to the ſtreight of Canſo, and all the reſt of the coaſt ſcarce affords anchorage, but for ſmall barks, in the little bays between the iſles.

The French had ſtrongly fortified Louiſburgh, the principal town in the iſland, which, they were ſenſible was naturally ſeated for a ſtaple of trade, between Old and New

France: they found it was able, of its own growth, to ſupply Old France, with fiſh, train-oil, pit-coal, lime, and timber for building; and to furniſh New France with European commodities, at a cheap and profitable rate; whereby the two colonies, mutually aſſiſting one another, were equally beneficial to themſelves, and the whole nation of France; beſides, there was no ſafer, or more convenient retreat for ſhips bound from all parts of America, whether chaſed by enemies, ſurpriſed by bad weather, or in want of water, wood, or proviſions: and, in time of war, this port might ſend out cruizers to ruin the trade of New England, and ſeize upon the whole of the cod-fiſhery; which would enable the French to furniſh Spain and the Levant with that commodity; and ſo introduce a wider channel of opulence into the dominions of France. This ſufficiently demonſtrates the expectation of the French from the colony of Cape-Breton, what encouragement it had, how faſt it grew, and how greatly beneficial it muſt have been, in a number of years more, to France; from whence the coloniſts muſt have received every neceſſary of life, and paid for them out of this valuable fiſhery; for, ſince the treaty of Utrecht, the French, by the advantage of this iſland, carried on an unbounded fiſhery, annually employing at leaſt 1000 ſail, from 200 to 400 tons, and 20,000 ſeamen; and the produce of their labour was ſo great, that, in the year 1730 there was a computation made of 220,000 quintals of fiſh, at Marſeilles only, for a market; though it was affirmed, by a gentleman converſant in this branch of commerce, that, one year with another, they cured above five millions of quintals; which, if true, would produce, at 10 s. a quintal, a return of 2,500,000 l. for this fiſhery of the ſubjects of France; but poſſibly this calculation was exaggerated, to ſhew what an extraordinary commerce, in a manner, entirely depended on the poſſeſſion of Cape Breton.

Louiſburg. The port of Louiſburg is but a league diſtant, by ſea, from the bay of Gabaron, one of the beſt in all America, being about four leagues in circumference, and having in every part of it ſix or ſeven fathom water: the anchorage is good, and ſhips may run aſhore on the ſands, without danger: the entrance is not above 400 yards broad, between two ſmall iſles, and is known 12 leagues off at ſea, by the cape of Larembec, which lies a little to the N. E. In the N. E. end of the harbour is a fine careening wharf for men of war to heave down, and very ſafe from all winds: on the oppoſite ſide are the fiſhing ſtages, with room for 2000 boats to make their fiſh; and on the ſtarboard ſide of the harbour, going in, is a light-houſe, on a high rocky point, which may be diſtinguiſhed, in a clear night, five leagues off at ſea. The city is built on a point towards the ſea, on the S. ſide of the harbour, being improved by fortifications that coſt upwards of two millions of livres, or more than 81,250 l. ſterling in building; the ſtreets are regular and broad; principally compoſed of ſtone-houſes, with a ſpacious citadel, on the weſtern part of the town, near the ramparts erected for the ſecurity of the land ſide.

How dangerous a nurſery of ſeamen this has therefore been, and ſtill will be, while in poſſeſſion of the French, is too obvious to a Britiſh conſtitution; and it was as demonſtrable, that the recovery of ſo important a place would entirely break up their fiſhery, and deſtroy this formidable ſeminary of ſeamen; which occaſioned the colonies of New England to attempt the reduction of it in the late war, wherein they were ſo ſucceſsful as to take it with an inconſiderable loſs; but the town and iſland were re-delivered to the French, in purſuance of the treaty of Aix la Chapelle.

Iſles of St. John, conſiſt of a pretty large iſland and ſome ſmall ones, in the bay of St. Lawrence. The cod fiſhery has been always very conſiderable there, and the fiſh are equally good with thoſe of Newfoundland; this being formerly the place where the inhabitants of the S. W. diviſion of the province of Gaſcony in France eſtabliſhed their fiſhery.

The large iſland of St. John is about 25 or 30 leagues in length, and but one league in breadth; being almoſt like a creſcent in figure. The other iſles are inconſiderable; though they ſupport a tolerable good fiſhery.

The conveniency of Newfoundland and Placentia for the cod-fiſhery, made the French abandon the eſtabliſhments they had in theſe iſlands; but, ſince Cape-Breton became the chief place of their cod fiſhery, they re-entered upon their poſſeſſion in theſe iſlands; and the French merchants, who ſend ſhips there, have obtained, for the importation of their fiſh into France, the ſame exemptions that were before granted for the green and dry cod, and the oils of the Cape-Breton fiſhery.

Generally ſpeaking, the coaſts of theſe iſlands are not very ſafe, eſpecially between the great iſland and that of St. Mary's; however, there are ſeveral good ports in the great iſland; as the Whale-port, the Engliſh harbour, the Spaniſh bay, and St. Anne's harbour, where ſhips may remain in great ſecurity: but the beſt of all is the harbour of St. Anne, called at preſent port Dauphin, where ſhips of 3 or 400 ton may enter at any time, which abounds with ſalmon and mackarel, and might contain 1000 ſhips and upwards.

About four leagues into the Spaniſh bay there are mines of coal; as alſo in the entrance of the little Chibou, beſides ſome other places.

The French, who firſt inhabited the iſland of St. John, to avoid the danger of the coaſts, and to ſpare themſelves a long circuit, opened a way at the bottom of the Labrador, thro' which they hawled ſloops from one ſea to another, in order to facilitate their fiſhery; the fiſh, in great ſhoals, during the ſummer ſeaſon, frequenting all parts of the iſland. This paſſage was again uſed in 1722, veſſels of 25 tons being conveyed on rollers drawn by oxen.

The moſt remarkable places for this fiſhery, which is the principal object of the colony, are the green Iſle; the Iſles Michaux, 3 leagues from port St. Peter; and Engliſh harbour, 15 leagues from it: 'tis here that the Oleneſe mariners took up formerly their winter quarters, to be the firſt at the grand bank, and the firſt who returned to France, where cod has a conſiderable vent when newly imported.

The fiſh alſo greatly frequent Tourillon, which lies backwards of Cape-Breton; as alſo Niganiche, and the north Cape. Theſe laſt places are of difficult acceſs, the one having room only for three ſhips, and the other but for one: however, theſe places are firſt reſorted by the fiſhermen, becauſe the fiſhery there is good, and prime; that is, the fiſh frequent it, and can be fiſhed for early in the ſeaſon: but it muſt be obſerved, that ſhips are not in ſafety at Niganiche, now called the port of Orleans; becauſe the rocky bottom cuts the cables.

Some Indians formerly inhabited this great iſland, which abounded in elks; and the French uſe their endeavours to bring them back, upon account of the commerce of furr and ſkins.

Since the re-eſtabliſhment of Cape Breton, the ſhips which go to Canada paſs by the great iſland of St. John in returning, and take in the commodities of the iſland; eſpecially cod, which they pay for either in ready money or corn, or other commodities of Quebec, and Europe. Some Norman, Nants, and Rochelle veſſels come there alſo laden with merchandiſes of a like nature with thoſe imported to New France, and the iſlands. Laſtly, the King ſends his ſhips there regularly every year, which ſtore the warehouſes with all that is neceſſary for the nouriſhment and ſupport of the officers and troops in the garriſons; from whence the inhabitants ſupply themſelves when the colony is deficient.

Cayenne, or *Equinoctial France*. The colony of Cayenne is the only one poſſeſſed by the French in South America, except ſome plantations on the ſide of Surinam, and the river of the Amazons, which form a kind of government of upwards of 100 leagues along the coaſt.

The iſland of Cayenne, which gives its name to this government, and which takes the ſame itſelf from the river where two branches ſeparate it from the terra firma, ſituated 100 leagues from the great river of the Amazons, and at a much leſs diſtance from the Dutch colony of Surinam.

This iſland is about 17 leagues in circumference, five of which are waſhed by the ocean, and the reſt by the two branches of the river of Cayenne.

The French firſt eſtabliſhed themſelves there in 1635, under the Sieur Poncet of Bretigny, who was maſſacred there by the Indians.

The remains of his colony defended themſelves in fort St. Lewis, built upon an eminence jutting out into the ſea, at the mouth of the Cayenne; and the new company, formed at Paris in 1651, by the Abbot of Marivaux, took poſſeſſion thereof in 1652, but abandoned it two years after.

The Engliſh, finding it without maſters, took poſſeſſion of it; but kept it only till 1664, when they were expelled by Meſſieurs Tracy and Barre, whom Lewis XIV. ſent there with troops to re-eſtabliſh his ſubjects.

In 1676 the Dutch took it from the French; but M. de Eſtrees, the Vice admiral of France, replaced the French in poſſeſſion thereof in 1677, to whom it has ſince remained.

The chief trade of Cayenne conſiſts in ſugar, rocou, indigo, cotton, and vanilla: but the want of negroes, whoſe number ſeldom exceeds 500, hinders the inhabitants from carrying on a trade to any advantage.

'Tis true, they might remedy this defect by treating for ſlaves with the Indians on the river of the Amazons; but the Portugueſe having interrupted this commerce by maſſacring thoſe Indians who adventured to come to Cayenne, the colony remained in the ſame indigence of manufacturers for their ſugar, and culture for their indigo, and other commodities; ſo that the ſhips are obliged ſometimes to wait a whole year before they can take in a ſufficient cargo.

Beſides ſlaves, the French alſo had from theſe Indians dry fiſh, and a quantity of other proviſions; as alſo ſome ſamples of ſilver-mines which the Indians ſaid were near their villages.

It was to renew with them their antient commerce, and to penetrate to theſe mines, that the French opened a road thro' the heart of the country, from Cayenne to the river of the Amazons; without being obliged to paſs near the plantations of the Portugueſe, who have three great forts towards the mouth of this river.

The commodities from France for Cayenne conſiſt chiefly in corn, wine, brandy, linen cloth, ſtuffs, mercury, hardware, and eſpecially ſalted fleſh; large cattle being ſcarce in the iſland, and no oxen being allowed to be butchered without a ſpecial licence from the governor.

The inhabitants, without reckoning the ſoldiers of the garriſons, the negroes and ſlaves, amount to 1200, or 1500 men, diſtributed through ſeveral plantations; the chief of which compoſes a town of 200 houſes, with 350 white inhabitants, where the warehouſes are kept.

Among the whites 60 Jews are reckoned, all reſiding in the plantation of Lance de Remire, where 80 negroes are employed in the culture of their plantations. See *Portuguese* America, and *Dutch* America.

Upon the whole, the French have rendered themſelves extremely powerful in America; their iſland colonies are become rivals to the Britiſh ſugar-iſlands; and their colonies on the continent have been ſo numerouſly peopled, and ſo well improved, as to make the French think of extending themſelves cloſe upon the back of the Britiſh ſettlements, to erect forts there, and cut off all communication of trade between the Indian nations and the Britiſh colonies.

About the year 1660 the French were little acquainted with commerce, and little ſkilled in navigation. The Engliſh, but more eſpecially the Dutch, ſays Mr. Voltaire, carried on almoſt the whole commerce of France in their ſhips; the Dutch in particular loaded their veſſels with French commodities, and diſtributed them throughout Europe. But Lewis XIV. began to exempt his ſubjects from an impoſt, called the right of freight, paid by all foreign veſſels; and he enabled them to tranſport their merchandiſes themſelves at a leſs expence, which made the maritime commerce of France ſoon begin to increaſe. The Weſt India company was formed, and greatly encouraged; great indulgencies were given to the planters, and many good laws made in favour of the merchants. There was almoſt an univerſal reparation, or even a creation of things, in the reign of Lewis XIV. while he was forming his numerous and well-diſciplined land armies, even before he engaged in war, he was alſo intent on gaining the dominion of the ſea; being deſirous of rendering France properly a maritime power, well knowing that trade is not to be advantageouſly proſecuted without a proper naval force for its protection. The few ſhips which Cardinal Mazarin had ſuffered to rot in the ports, were immediately repaired; others were purchaſed in Holland and Sweden; and in the 3d year of his government he made trial of his maritime forces at Gigri on the coaſt of Africa: the Duke of Beaufort cleared the ſeas of pirates in 1665; and two years after France had 60 ſhips of war in its ports.

Though this was only a beginning, yet theſe new regulations and efforts inſpired Lewis XIV. with ſuch a ſenſe of his increaſing power, that he would not ſuffer his ſhips to lower their flag before thoſe of England. The council of Charles II. in vain inſiſted upon this right, which, as the celebrated French hiſtorian ſays, force, induſtry, and time, had given to the Engliſh: for Lewis XIV. wrote to his embaſſador, the Count d'Eſtrade, to this effect: "The King of England and his Chancellor may gain a "knowledge of my ſtrength, but they do not ſee my "heart: I regard my honour more than all other things." He ſaid no more than what he was reſolved to make good; in conſequence of which, the Engliſh tamely obſerved an equality in every thing at ſea between the two nations: but while Lewis thus inſiſted upon an equality with England, he maintained his ſuperiority in regard to Spain, and obliged the Spaniſh admirals to lower their flags before the French, in virtue of the ſolemn precedency granted in 1662: and, in the mean time, efforts were every where uſed for the eſtabliſhment of ſuch a naval force as might juſtify theſe high ſentiments: ſo that in 1672, the French had 60 ſhips of the line, and 40 frigates; and in 1681 they had 198 ſhips of war, including the ſmaller veſſels, and 30 gallies in the port of Toulon, either armed, or ready to be armed. With this force the French were ſucceſsful in ſeveral naval engagements, till the battle of La Hogue, in 1692, when the Count de Tourville, in obedience to orders from court, with 45 ſail attacked the Engliſh and Dutch fleets of 90 ſhips. The French were obliged to ſubmit to ſuch ſuperior force, and they loſt 14 of their largeſt ſhips: yet, ſays the ſame elegant writer, the French ſtill preſerved their maritime force; but it declined in the war of the ſucceſſion: he does not mention how formidable it was in the year 1743; and how much it was debilitated in the year 1748; but ſays the French did not begin effectually to reſtore it till 1751, in the time of a happy peace, which is the only time proper to eſtabliſh a good marine; for in time of war the French have neither leiſure nor power to do it.

Theſe naval forces ſerved to protect the commerce of France. The colonies of Martinico, St. Domingo, and Canada, which before had been in a languiſhing condition, began to flouriſh; not indeed ſo finely as at preſent; but yet better than had till then been hoped; for from 1635 to 1665, theſe eſtabliſhments had rather been chargeable than otherwiſe. So that Lewis XIV. uſed all the means in his power to repair the error and misfortune under which France had ſo long laboured, by a neglect of the ſea; while her neighbours had been forming empires in the moſt diſtant parts of the world.

But while that great miniſter Colbert was aſſiſting his maſter in raiſing the pillars of his ſtate upon trade, we cannot enough admire that the abbot de Choiſi ſhould condemn theſe eſtabliſhments in his memoirs; which, Mr. Voltaire ſays, ſhould be read with diffidence. The French are now perfectly ſenſible of what their miniſter Colbert did for the good of the kingdom; but then they knew it not. He laboured for the ungrateful; and ſuch an animoſity was raiſed againſt him in Paris, for the ſupreſſion of ſome rents upon the hotel de Ville, which had been meanly exacted ſince the year 1636, and for the diſcredit into which the exchequer orders fell, from their having been laviſhed under the preceding miniſtry, as all the good which he did to the public in general could not counterbalance. There were more cits than good citi-

zens:

zens; and few perſons extended their views ſo far as the public good. No one is ignorant how much private intereſt faſcinates the eyes, miſleads the underſtanding, and obſtructs the intereſts, not only of a ſimple merchant, but of a company, and even of a whole city. The coarſe reply made by a merchant, named Hazon, who, being conſulted by this miniſter, ſaid, "You found the machine overturned on one ſide, and you have overturned it on the other," was cited with applauſe: however, that philoſophical ſpirit which was at laſt introduced into France, corrected the vulgar prejudices, and perfect juſtice was at laſt done to the memory of this great man, who had the ſame regularity as the Duke de Sully, and his views were much more extenſive: the Duke was ſkilled only in the arts of oeconomy; but Colbert was the founder of thoſe very great and uſeful eſtabliſhments which have founded the commerce and naval power of France in a glorious and ſurpriſing manner.

From the death of Lewis XIV. the French miniſtry have trod in the ſteps of Colbert: ſo that now their naval force is great in Europe; their colonies in America in a very flouriſhing condition; their ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies very formidable; their poſſeſſions in Africa very extenſive; and their trade very great all over the world. However, the power of France is moſt to be dreaded on the continent of America, where they have ſo much ſtrengthened themſelves with a very politic alliance and intermixture with the Indians, as to keep all the Britiſh northern colonies in continual dread, and apprehenſion of danger; but it is not to be ſuppoſed, that Great Britain will ever abandon thoſe valuable colonies to the incroachments of the French, who have built many forts on the back of thoſe ſettlements in the places where it is heartily to be wiſhed they had been erected by the Britiſh coloniſts. See *Britiſh* America, under Great *Britain*; *Indian* America; and *Spaniſh* America under *Spain*.

Iſle of FRANCE. See *Iſle* of France.

FRANCHISE. A privilege, or exemption, from ordinary juriſdiction; eſpecially from tributes and taxes: being real or perſonal; that is, either belonging immediately to the perſon, or accruing on account of this or that place, or office of immunity.

ST. FRANCIS, or *Cape St. Francis*, a town belonging to the French, on the iſland of Hiſpaniola. See *French* America.

FRANGIPANE. An excellent kind of perfume, frequently given to the leather whereof gloves, purſes, bags, and other things are made; which takes its name from a Roman nobleman of the antient family of Frangipani, who was the inventor thereof. There is alſo a kind of perfumed liquor of the ſame denomination, reported to have been invented by a grandſon of Mutio Frangipani; as alſo a perfumed kind of ros ſolis, called by the ſame name. See *Ros ſolis*.

FRANCFORT. An imperial city of Germany, ſituated in 7 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 50 deg. 10 min. of N. lat. See *Germany*.

FRANCFORT, upon the Oder, is alſo another city of Germany, ſituated in 15 deg. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 22 min. of N. lat. ſubject to Pruſſia. See *Germany*.

FRANKINCENSE, or *Simple Incenſe*, an odoriferous aromatic gum, or reſin, anciently burnt in temples as a perfume, and ſtill uſed in pharmacy as an agglutinant and ſtrengthener.

Frankincenſe diſtils from inciſions made in a tree, called *arbor thuriſera*, during the heats of ſummer: but, notwithſtanding the great uſe of this gum, both in the ancient religion and modern medicine, the tree that produces it, or even the place where it grows, are but very imperfectly known: however, the moſt common opinion has always been, that it was brought from Arabia Felix, and was found near the city of Saba; whence its epithet Sabæum: yet the name *olibanum*, which it ſometimes alſo bears, ſeems to intimate that there are ſome of theſe thuriferous, or incenſe-bearing trees, in the Holy Land, near Mount Lebanon: and travellers are poſitive that there are others in the Eaſt Indies.

This gum is uſually divided into male and female: the male incenſe, or *thus maſculum*, called alſo *olibanum*, being in fair white bits, or tears, a little yellowiſh, of a bitter diſagreeable taſte; and when chewed promotes the flux of ſaliva: it is called male in reſpect of its tears, which are larger than the common, or female: however, it is frequently in a maſs, and ſomewhat reddiſh; which is often ſold for the true bdellium: but that brought from the Indies is of a much inferior quality to that from Arabia, or Mount Lebanon; and it is ſometimes called incenſe of Mocha, though it is not brought from that city.

But as for the female incenſe, or frankincenſe, Europeans know not what it is, nor how diſtinguiſhed; though ſome ſay it is ſofter, or more reſinous, but of leſſer virtue than the former.

Bark of incenſe, or *Cortex Thuris*, is the bark of the tree from whence the incenſe flows; which has the ſame qualities with frankincenſe itſelf: but there is another kind brought from the Indies, called alſo *bark of incenſe*, and ſometimes *Jews incenſe*, in regard the Jews frequently uſe it in their perfumes.

Manna of incenſe, is the flower or farina of incenſe, occaſioned by the friction of the grains againſt each other in the ſacks wherein they carry it.

There is alſo a *ſoot of incenſe*, which is a preparation of it, burnt like reſin, to make lamp-black.

Frankincenſe was formerly burnt in the temples of all religions, in honour of the divinities that were adored there: it is ſtill retained in many of the ceremonies belonging to the Romiſh church, particularly at ſolemn funerals: and it is annually offered at the altar, as an oblation, by all European monarchs, in commemoration of the Epiphany.

FRATERNITY, or *Brotherhood*, is uſed in a civil ſenſe for a guild, aſſociation, or ſociety of perſons, united into a body, for ſome common intereſt, or advantage. See Guild.

FREDERICA. A beautiful and commodious town of Georgia, in North America, ſituated in 81 deg. and [illegible] min. of W. lon. and 31 deg. of N. lat. on the iſland of St. Simon, in the mouth of the river Alatamacha, lately built and fortified by General Oglethorpe. See *Britiſh* America.

FREDERICKSBURG. A fort upon the gold coaſt of Guinea, near Cape Three Points, ſubject to the Dutch, being ſituated in 2 deg. of W. lon. and 5 deg. of lat. See *Guinea*.

FREDERICKSODE. A town of North Jutland, ſituated in 10 deg. of E. lon. and 55 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. ſubject to Denmark. See *Denmark*.

FREDERICKSTAT. A town of Norway, ſituated on Schaggerack bay, near the frontiers of Sweden, lying in 11 deg. of E. lon. and 24 deg. 59 min. of N. lat. See *Denmark*.

FREDERICKSTAT, is alſo a town of the duchy of Sleſwick, ſubject to the Duke of Holſtein. See *Denmark*.

FREE, is to be ſet at liberty, or to quit a perſon of ſlavery: alſo when the pump of a ſhip has the full command of the water that leaks into her, it is ſaid to *free* her.

FREE *Britiſh Fiſhery*. See Herring *Fiſhery*.

FREE, or *Imperial cities of Germany*, are thoſe not ſubject to any particular prince; but governed, like republics, by their own magiſtrates. See *Germany*.

FREE-*man*, is a perſon free of any trade, or corporation: alſo ſuch negroes or convicts in America who are under no ſervitude.

FREE *port*, is a place where no duties are paid. See *Port*.

FREE *ſtate*, is a republic governed by magiſtrates, elected by the free ſuffrages of the inhabitants. See *State*.

FREE *ſtone*. A whitiſh ſtone, dug up in many parts of England, that works like alabaſter; but more hard and durable, being a kind of greet, but finer ſanded, and ſmoother ſtone; and is called *free ſtone*, from its having ſuch a conſtitution as to be cut freely in any direction, which is of excellent uſe in building. See *Stone*.

FREEBOOTER, or *Flybuſter*. A name given to pirates who ſcour the American ſeas, particularly ſuch as make war againſt the Spaniards. The French call them flybuſters, deducing the word from the Engliſh flibot or flyboat; becauſe the firſt adventurers of this kind were the people of St. Domingo, who made their excur-

with flyboats which they had taken from the Engliſh. See *Buccaneer*.

FREEDOM *of a city, town*, or *corporation*, denotes a right, or capacity, of exerciſing a certain trade, or employment in a city, or town corporate; and of being elected to the dignities and offices thereof, procured regularly by ſerving an apprenticeſhip: but ſometimes purchaſed with money; and at others conferred as a favour or compliment.

FREESE. See *Frize*.

FREIGHT, or *Fraight*, in navigation and commerce, ſignifies the hire of a ſhip, or of a part of it; for the conveyance and carriage of goods, from one port or place to another, which is called *nolis* in the Levant: or it is the ſum agreed on between the owner and the merchant, for hire and uſe of a veſſel; which is one of the principal articles in the trade of the Hollanders, who are the carriers of all the nations of Europe, and their purveyors; notwithſtanding their country produces nothing at all, and that they are obliged to have every thing neceſſary for the building and equipping of a veſſel from other countries: this being ſo very eſſential a ſtep towards the advancement and preſervation of commerce, that the Dutch make it their ſheet anchor, upon account of the great emoluments they derive from it, far beyond all other nations: and freight is every where governed by the contract, when reduced into a writing, commonly called a charter-party; executed between the owners and merchant, or the maſter, in behalf of himſelf and owners, or himſelf and the merchant, or between them all; for the regulation whereof, the legiſlators of every maritime country have made the moſt prudential and ſalutary proviſions. See *Charter*-party.

Ships are freighted either by the ton or by the great; and, in reſpect of time, the freight is contracted for at ſo much a month, or at a certain ſum for the whole voyage. If a ſhip freighted by the great, happens to be caſt away, the freight is loſt: but if a merchant agrees by the ton, or at ſo much for every piece of commodities; then, if the ſhip is accidentally caſt away, and part of the goods is ſaved, ſome civilians are of opinion, ſhe ought to be answered her freight by the equal limited rate: though, when a ſhip is inſured, and ſuch a misfortune happens, the inſured commonly transfer thoſe goods over to the inſurers, towards a ſatisfaction of what they make good, by virtue of their ſubſcriptions.

By the Rhodian laws, and alſo by thoſe of Oleron, it was provided, That where a ſhip is freighted out and in, no freight is due till the whole voyage is performed; ſo that, if the ſhip is caſt away on her returning home, the freight outwards, as well as inwards, becomes loſt: but when goods and merchandiſe are fully laden aboard, and the ſhip having broke ground; if the merchant, after that, in conſideration reſolves not to adventure, but will unlade again, then, by the marine law, the freight is deſerved. Alſo, if a ſhip in her voyage happens to become incapable of performing it, without any fault in the maſter; or if the maſter or ſhip be arreſted by ſome foreign prince or ſtate, the maſter may repair his ſhip to make her capable of the voyage, or may freight another ſhip: and if the merchant will not agree to the ſame, then the freight will be due for ſo much as the ſhip hath earned: becauſe, the maſter is otherwiſe anſwerable for all damages that ſhall happen; and therefore, if the ſhip periſhes, to which the goods are removed, the maſter muſt be reſponſible; but if both the ſhips periſh then he is diſcharged: beſides, if the ſhip is in a ſinking condition, ſo that there is an extreme neceſſity, the goods may be put into any empty veſſel paſſing by, which in all appearance ſeems ſufficient; and he is excuſable if that ſhip ſinks or periſhes.

If part of the lading is on ſhip-board, and the merchant, through ſome misfortune, has not his full lading aboard in the limited time, the maſter is at liberty to contract with another, and may have freight by way of damage for the time thoſe goods were on board: becauſe theſe agreements are in law upon a condition precedent; and by failure, as to complete lading, will determine the ſame, unleſs afterwards affirmed by the conſent of the maſter: for it is the higheſt juſtice, that the ſhip and maſter ſhould be free in theſe caſes; and that, by the delay of the merchant, on ſhipping a ſmall quantity of goods, the maſter may not loſe the ſeaſon of the year, or be defeated of the opportunity of paſſage.

And, on the contrary, if the veſſel is not ready, and part of the goods are on ſhip-board, the merchant may ſhip the remainder of his goods aboard another veſſel, and diſcharge the firſt maſter; and may alſo recover damages againſt ſuch maſter, or the owners, for the reſt; which is grounded upon the like reaſon as the former: though, by the marine law, chance, or ſome other notorious neceſſity, will excuſe the maſter; but then he loſes his freight till ſuch time as he breaks ground, and until that time he ſuſtains the loſs of the ſhip. But if the fault be in the merchant, he is to anſwer for the damage to the maſter and the ſhip; or, according to the Rhodian laws, he is obliged to provide for the ſhip's crew ten days at his own charge; beſides, if there is any ſubſequent damage, the merchant muſt run the riſque of that, and not the maſter or owners; though, by the common law of England, it ſeems to be otherwiſe, for ſo long as the maſter has the goods on ſhip-board, he is to ſee them forth-coming; nor can he detain any merchandiſe in his veſſel, in default of payment of freight; but he may order them to be ſeized any time, or any where afterwards.

Where a ſhip is not ready to take in, or the merchant not ready to lade aboard goods, the parties are at liberty; but, nevertheleſs, the perſon damnified on either ſide may bring an action againſt the other, to recompence and make ſatisfaction for the detriment ſuſtained: it has been held by the common law of England, that the party thus damnified may recover damages on the agreement; though, by the Rhodian law, if there is an agreement, and earneſt given thereon, but no writing made, and the ſame is broke by the merchant, he loſes his earneſt; and, if it is broke by the owners of the ſhip, or the maſter, they are to forfeit double the earneſt given.

If any ſhip, or veſſel, is freighted from one port to another, and ſo to ſeveral ports, on what is called a trading voyage, this is all but one voyage, if it be in conformity to the charter-party: for, generally, the touching at ſeveral ports by agreement, imports not a diverſity, but a voyage entire: though, if the ſhip otherwiſe puts into any other port than what ſhe was freighted to, the maſter, by the laws of Oleron, is to anſwer damages to the merchant, unleſs he is forced in by ſtorm, enemies, or pirates; and then he muſt ſail to the port agreed at his own expence. However, where a maſter freights out a ſhip, and afterwards privately takes out other goods, unknown to the firſt laders, he loſes his freight: and if it happens, in this caſe, that any of the freighters goods are caſt overboard, for the ſafety of the ſhip; the reſt of their merchandiſe is not ſubject to the average, but the maſter is to ſatisfy it out of his own purſe.

Leakage, occaſioned by ſtorm, may in common caſes come into an average: ſo if the freight is taken for 100 tons of wine, and 20 of them leak out, leaving above 8 inches from the buge upwards, the freight becomes due notwithſtanding; and one reaſon thereof is, becauſe, from that gage, the King can demand his cuſtoms; but if, there is under 8 inches, the merchant may relinquiſh them, and the maſter be obliged to take them for freight: however, there is an objection againſt this rule, becauſe it has been held, that if all the wine had leaked out, without any fault of the maſter, there is no reaſon the ſhip ſhould loſe her freight; for the right ariſes from the tonnage taken; and in ſome foreign places, eſpecially at Bourdeaux, the maſter is not permitted to ſtow the goods, but it is done by a particular officer appointed for that purpoſe.

In caſe a ſhip is freighted for 200 tons, or any other number of tons more or leſs, adding, *or thereabouts*; this addition is commonly underſtood to be within 5 tons, the half of the number ten, whereof the whole number is compounded. And if a charter-party is made, reciting the ſhip to be of the burthen of 150 tons, and freight is agreed for, at a certain ſum, to be paid at her return; the ſum agreed is to be paid, though the ſhip falls ſhort of

that burthen; and if no burthen is expreſſed, the ſum muſt be paid: but if a ſhip freighted by the ton is found leſs than the burthen mentioned, there ſhould be no more paid than for the real tons.

If, without agreeing for the freight by charter-party, any goods are put on board, the maſter is to have freight according to cuſtom; and if the goods are ſent to the ſhip ſecretly, without the maſter's knowledge, the ſame may be ſubjected to what freight the maſter thinks fit. And as to the maſter's anſwering for any goods and merchandiſe, when coffers, packs, and veſſels, or other marked goods are delivered cloſe packed, or ſealed, and are afterwards received open and looſe, the maſter is to be charged for it, until, on due trial, he is acquitted thereof: alſo he muſt anſwer for the damage which the rats commit in a ſhip to any merchandiſe, for want of keeping a cat, as well as for any other damage.

And concerning the marking of goods, both the common law and civil law have great reſpect to it, in relation to the ſettling the property of the merchandiſe in the right owners; ſo if one man uſe the mark of another, to the intent to do him damage, or bring him into any trouble, an action of the caſe lies.

But this relates more to home trade in general, and to aſcertain the goodneſs of commodities, than to goods uſually freighted at ſea.

In caſe of a prohibition of commerce with the country whither the veſſel is bound, ſo that it is obliged to be brought back again, the maſter is only to be paid freight for going: but if a ſhip is ſtopped, or detained in its voyage, by an embargo, there is no freight to be paid for the time of the detention, in caſe it be hired by the month; nor can the freight be increaſed if hired by the voyage; but the pay, and the victuals of the ſailors during the detention, are to be deemed average.

Freight is the ſoul of navigation, as it employs ſhipping, and breeds nurſeries of ſeamen: the cheaper the freight the better the trade; as it carries goods cheap to foreign markets, and renders the merchant capable of ſelling them at an eaſy rate; therefore, the regulation and encouragement of freight ſhould be carefully attended to by every trading nation.

It is manifeſt, that the freight of all goods exported from Great Britain, is paid by foreign nations; and perhaps more than one fifth of the freight of all the Britiſh ſhipping is paid by thoſe nations with whom Great Britain has any trade. It is ſaid, there are about 500,000 tons of ſhipping belonging to Great Britain; and that the freight may be charged at 5 l. *per* ton *per annum:* therefore, if Great Britain pays the Eaſt countries about 200,000 l. a year for naval ſtores, ſhe gains above twice as much from other nations by her ſhipping, which could not be carried on without ſuch naval ſtores.

Eaſt India and Turky goods, to the value of 150,000 l. will lie in 200 tons of ſhipping; and 800 tons of ſhipping are ſufficient for 200,000 l. value of the Britiſh woollen manufactures. A million of pounds weight of ſugar or tobacco are not above 500 tons; and 5000 tons of ſhipping are ſufficient for about 40,000 l. value in corn. Nothing is more reaſonable than that all countries ſhould pay the carriage of thoſe commodities which they conſume: but if the freight is performed in foreign bottoms, the money muſt be paid to foreign countries: ſo that it ſhould be the principal view of all trading countries to carry goods in their own bottoms; and the more ſhipping they have, the more they will be conſidered as carriers for themſelves and others: from whence it is plain, that thoſe countries who have the leaſt ſhipping pay the moſt for freight.

In the valuation of goods clear on board outwards, the freight for the importation of ſuch as are brought into Great Britain from the plantations, Turky, the Eaſt Indies, and other places, is always reckoned as part of their value at their exportation: ſo that the cheaper the freight is paid at home, the cheaper the goods can be ſold abroad.

The freight from England to and from any part of France on the ocean is about 20 s. *per* ton: but to Italy, Spain, and Portugal, it is 4 l. *per* ton.

Whatſoever is the price of building, and fitting a ſhip to ſea, is the meaſure of her value; and whatſover annual freight ſhall be given for the uſe of this ſhip, is the meaſure of the annual profit. The money thus given pays the builder and his ſervants; the landed intereſt for timber, plank, and iron; the fellers, ſawyers, ſquarers, and carriers; the Weſt India and Norway merchants for their planks, maſts, and yards; for their pitch, tar, and oil; for their tallow, roſin, and brimſtone; as alſo all other people who beſtow either labour or materials upon this ſhip: whatſoever it is they ſell, whether of labour or materials, to this ſhip, is all paid for by the firſt coſt, or the annual freight. The price of building and fitting out is therefore the meaſure of her firſt value; but if her repairs, her wear and tear, amount to more than her yearly profit, ſhe will ſoon be laid up: ſo that for a nation to carry on trade by a cheap freight, is to build ſhips at an eaſy expence, and carry its own manufactures at leaſt to other countries.

FREIGHT, is alſo uſed for the burthen, or lading of a ſhip, or the cargo of goods ſhe has on board.

FREIGHT, is likewiſe a duty of 50 ſols, or about 2 s. ſterling a ton, paid to the crown of France, by the captains and maſters of all foreign veſſels, at their entrance in, and departure from, the ports and havens of that kingdom: and it is obſervable, that all veſſels not built in France, however they may belong to French ſubjects, are reputed foreigners, and ſubject to this impoſt, unleſs it be made appear that two thirds of the crew are French.

The Dutch, and the Hans towns, are exempted from this duty; and, by the 11th article of the treaty of commerce, concluded at Utrecht, between England and France, this duty of 50 ſols a ton was to have been remitted the Engliſh; and, at the ſame time, the duty of 5 s. ſterling was to have been ſuppreſſed in favour of the French; but the execution of that article, as well as the tariff ſettled between the two nations, has been ſuſpended. See *Treaty*.

FREIGHTER is a perſon who freights a ſhip; but an under-freighter is alſo called a cap-merchant.

FREJULES, or *Frejus*, a city of Provence in France, ſituated at the mouth of the river Argens, on the Mediterranean ſea, 35 miles N. E. of Toulon, and 30 miles S. W. of Nice. See *France*.

FRENCH. Any thing relating to the people, modes, faſhions, and cuſtoms of France.

FRENCH *America*. See *France*.

FRESCO. A kind of painting performed on freſh plaiſter, or on a wall laid with mortar, not yet dry; and with water colours; which ſort of painting has a great advantage by its incorporating with the cement.

FRESH. Any thing that has little or no ſalt in it; or that is new, pure, and good.

FRESH *gale*. A pretty ſmart wind that blows ſoon after a calm.

FRESH *man*. An unſkilful perſon, or novice at any buſineſs; or a ſailor juſt entered into the ſervice.

FRESH *ſhot*, in the ſea-phraſe, ſignifies the falling down of any great river into the ſea; by means whereof the ſea has freſh water a conſiderable diſtance from the mouth of the river: and, as this is more or leſs, it is called a great or ſmall freſh ſhot.

FRESH-*ſpell*, in the ſea-language, is a freſh gang, to relieve the rowers in the long-boat.

FRESH-*water*, is the water of rivers, free from the brackiſhneſs of the ſea.

FRIENDLY *ſociety*, for inſuring houſes. See *Inſurance*.

FRIESLAND, or *Eaſt Frieſland*, is a territory of Germany. See *Germany*.

FRIGATE. A ſmall ſhip, or man of war, generally built ſomewhat lower and ſtronger than common, for its more eaſy and ſwifter ſailing; conſiſting of but two decks, chiefly employed in cruizing and privateering: however in the Britiſh navy, all ſhips, from 50 guns downwards are included under the denomination of frigates, which are never admitted into the line of battle but upon ſome emergency; though it is otherwiſe with the French, who admit 50 gun ſhips into the line.

FRIGATOON. A Venetian veſſel, commonly uſed in the Adriatic, built with a ſquare ſtern, and without

foremaſt; having only a main-maſt, mizen-maſt, and bow-ſprit.

RINGE. An ornament applied to the extremities of furniture, and ſome wearing apparel; compoſed of three parts, a little warp, a head, and a body: but there are fringes of gold, ſilver, copper, braſs, ſilk, wool, hemp, flax, and of all other materials which can be ſpun.

By the ſtatute of the 13th and 14th of Cha. II. fringes of ſilk and thread are prohibited importation into Great Britain; as are alſo thoſe of gold, ſilver, copper, or braſs, by the ſtatute of the 15th of Geo. II. See *Gold* and *Silver lace*, and *Lace*.

RIO *Cape*. A promontory of Brazil, in America, ſituated in 44 deg. of W. lon. and 23 deg. 30 min. of S. lat.

RISCHAF A bay of the Baltic ſea, formed by the iſland of Friſch and the continent, at the mouth of the river Viſtula, on the coaſt of Pruſſia in Poland.

RIT, or *Fritt*, in the glaſs manufacture, is the matter, or ingredient, whereof glaſs is to be made, calcined, or baked in a furnace; of which there are three kinds: the firſt is cryſtal frit, or that for cryſtal metal, made with ſalt of pulverine and ſand: the ſecond, and ordinary frit, is made of the bare aſhes of pulverine, or barillia, without extracting the ſalt from them; which makes the ordinary white or cryſtal metal: and the third is frit for green glaſſes, made of common aſhes, without any preparation; which will require 10 or 12 hours baking. The materials in each are to be finely powdered, waſhed, and ſierced, then equally mixed, and frequently ſtirred together in the melting-pot: but for the reſt ſee *Glaſs*, and *Cryſtal*.

RITH. See *Fryth*.

RITHGILD, was anciently the ſame with what is now called a guild, or a fraternity, or company. See *Guild*.

RIZE, or *Freeze*, in commerce, a kind of woollen cloth, or ſtuff, for winter wear, being frized, or napt, on one ſide; whence, in all probability, the name is derived: but of frizes, ſome are croſſed, others not croſſed; the former being chiefly of Engliſh manufacture, the other of Iriſh; and ſome cloths are only frized on the back-ſide, as black cloths; but others on the right ſide, as coloured and mixed cloths, rateens, bays, and frizes.

The croſſed frizes are uſually 3-4ths in breadth, and 24 or 25 ells in length; the uncroſſed are 3-4ths and a half in breadth, and 24 or 25 in length.

There are French frizes manufactured in Languedoc, which are broader by half a quarter than thoſe of England: but of all frizes, generally ſpeaking, the Engliſh are the beſt.

RIZE, is alſo a term uſed at Smyrna, ſignifying the bad quality of ſilk, often met with among the Ardaſſine, in the choice of which care ſhould be taken of its rumpling or matting.

ROBISHER's, or *Forbiſher's ſtraights*, is a ſtraight a little to the northward of Cape Farewel, in Weſt Greenland, diſcovered by Sir Martin Forbiſher; being ſituated in 48 degrees of W. lon. and 63 deg. of N. lat.

RONTIGNIAC, or *Frontenac*. A town in France, whoſe neighbouring country is remarkable for its excellent wines, which are denominated from the town. See *France*.

RUIT, in its general ſenſe, includes whatever the earth produces, for the nouriſhment and ſupport of men, and other animals; as herbs, grain, pulſe, hay, corn, flax, and every thing expreſſed by the Latins under the name *fruges*: but fruit, in natural hiſtory, ſignifies the laſt production of a tree, or plant, for the propagation, or multiplication, of its kind; and, in gardening, fruit denotes the production of a fruit-tree; as the apple, pear, plumb, peach, apricot, cherry, grape, orange, lemon, currant, raiſin, fig, almond, and others, both foreign and domeſtic.

Fruit, with regard to commerce, are diſtinguiſhed into recent or freſh, and dry; the former being thoſe ſold juſt as they are gathered from the tree, without any further preparation; as are moſt of the productions of gardens and orchards ſold by the fruiterers: but the latter are thoſe dried in the ſun, or by fire, with other ingredients ſometimes added to them, to make them keep; imported chiefly from foreign countries, and ſold by the grocers; ſuch as raiſins, currants, figs, capers, olives, cloves, nutmegs, pepper, and other ſpices; beſides, apples, pears, almonds, and filberds, are frequently included under this denomination.

FRUITERER. A perſon who deals in, or ſells fruit; particularly reſtrained to apples, pears, plumbs, oranges, lemons, and the like, excluſive of all ſorts of grain and herbage.

FRUITERERS *company of London* was incorporated by letters-patent of the 3d of James I. dated the 9th of February 1605, by the ſtyle of The maſter, wardens, and commonalty, of the myſtery of fruiterers of London; which is a ſociety governed by a maſter, 2 wardens, and 30 aſſiſtants, with a livery of 63 members, whoſe fine of admiſſion is 5 l.; but having no hall, they uſually meet at that of the pariſh-clerks, to treat of their affairs.

FRUITS current for coins. See *Coin*.

FRUITERY. A place for the laying up and keeping of fruit; which ſhould be inacceſſible to any thing of moiſture, or even froſt.

FRYTH, *Frith*, or *Firth*. An arm of the ſea; ſuch as Solway firth, frith of Forth, Tay frith, and others in Scotland; where the word is uſed in the ſame ſenſe as eſtuary is in England.

FUDER. See *Feoder*.

FUEL, in the popular ſenſe of the word, is any body which contains the pabulum of fire, for common uſe; ſuch as coal, turf, peat, wood, furze, and other things, to be commodiouſly burnt in ovens, furnaces, and chimneys.

By the ſtatutes of the 7th of Edward VI. and the 43d of Elizabeth, proviſions were made for the ſale, aſſize, and marking of talwood, billets, and faggots: the latter ſtatute ordaining, That the aſſize for talwood, billet, and faggots, ſhould continue in all cities, boroughs, and towns corporate, where ſuch talwood, billet, and faggots, were accuſtomed to be ſold. That every talſhide marked of one, being round bodied, ſhould contain 16 inches in compaſs; being half round, 19 inches; being quarter cleft, 18½ inches: and every talſhide marked two, being round bodied, ſhould contain in compaſs 23 inches; being half round, 27 inches; being of a quarter cleft, 26 inches: and every talſhide marked three, ſhould contain in compaſs, being round, 28 inches; being half round, 33 inches; being of quarter cleft, 32 inches about: and every talſhide marked four, to contain in compaſs, being round, 33 inches; being half round, 39 inches; being of quarter cleft, 28 inches about: and every talſhide marked five, ſhould contain in compaſs, being round, 38 inches; being half round, 44 inches; and being quarter cleft, 43 inches: all which to be meaſured about within 6 inches of the middle, and to contain the length limited by the ſtatute. That all faggots that ſhould be made and put to ſale, ſhould contain, beſides the knot of the bond, 24 inches; and every faggot-ſtick, or bend, within the bond to contain in length three feet, or more, excepting only one ſtick, or bend, of one foot long, to ſtop or harden the binding.

By the ſtatute of the 9th of Queen Anne, it was alſo enacted, That all billet, which ſhould be expoſed on wharfs, or other places, where billet is uſually landed, laden, or unladen; or that ſhould be put to ſale, or that ſhould be in any hoy, or veſſel, within the port of London, or any other port, ſhould be aſſized and marked in manner following. All billets ſhould contain in length 3 feet and 4 inches: every billet, named a ſingle, being round bodied, ſhould contain in compaſs 7½ inches; every billet called a caſt, ſhould be marked one; and, being round, ſhould contain in compaſs 10½ inches; being half round, ſhould contain 12¼ inches; being quarter cleft, ſhould contain 12 inches: every billet called a trois, ſhould be cut with three notches in the middle; and, being round, ſhould contain in compaſs 13 inches; being half round, 15 inches; being quarter cleft, 14¾ inches: every billet called two caſt, ſhould be marked two; and, being round, ſhould contain in compaſs 15 inches; being half round, 17¼ inches; being quarter cleft, 17 inches: every billet called three caſt, ſhould be marked with a notch at each end, and another in the middle; and, being round, ſhould contain

in compaſs 18¼ inches; being half round, 21¼ inches; being quarter cleft, 21 inches: every billet called four caſt, ſhould be marked four; and, being round, ſhould contain in compaſs 21½ inches; being half round, 24½ inches; being quarter cleft, 24 inches: every billet called twenty-five caſt, ſhould be marked five; and, being round, ſhould contain in compaſs 23¾ inches; being half round, 27½ inches; being quarter cleft, 27 inches: every billet called ſix caſt, ſhould be marked ſix; and, being round, ſhould contain in compaſs 26 inches; being half round, 30 inches; being quarter cleft, 29½ inches: every billet called ſeven caſt, ſhould be marked ſeven; and, being round, ſhould contain in compaſs 28 inches; being half round, 32¼ inches; being quarter cleft, 32 inches: every billet called eight caſt, ſhould be marked eight; and, being round, ſhould contain in compaſs 30 inches; being half round, 34¾ inches; being quarter cleft, 34 inches: every billet called nine caſt, ſhould be marked nine; and, being round, ſhould contain in compaſs 31¾ inches; being half round, 36¾ inches; being quarter cleft, 36¼ inches: every billet called ten caſt, ſhould be marked ten; and being round, ſhould contain in compaſs 33½ inches; being half round, 38¾ inches; being quarter cleft, 38 inches: every billet called eleven caſt, ſhould be marked eleven; and, being round, ſhould contain in compaſs 35¼ inches: every billet marked twelve, and being round, ſhould contain in compaſs 36¾ inches: every billet called thirteen caſt, ſhould be marked thirteen; and, being round, ſhould contain in compaſs 38¼ inches: every billet called fourteen caſt, ſhould be marked fourteen; and, being round, ſhould contain in compaſs 39¾ inches: every billet called fifteen caſt, ſhould be marked fifteen; and, being round, ſhould contain in compaſs 41 inches: every billet, called ſixteen caſt, ſhould be marked ſixteen; and, being round, ſhould contain in compaſs 42½ inches: every billet called ſeventeen caſt, ſhould be marked ſeventeen; and, being round, ſhould contain in compaſs 43¾ inches: every billet called eighteen caſt, ſhould be marked eighteen; and, being round, ſhould contain in compaſs 45 inches: every billet called nineteen caſt, ſhould be marked nineteen; and, being round, ſhould contain in compaſs 46¼ inches: every billet called twenty caſt, ſhould be marked twenty; and, being round, ſhould contain in compaſs 47½ inches.——That all billet expoſed on wharfs, or other places, where billet is uſually landed, laden or unladen; or that ſhould be put to ſale, or that ſhould be in any hoy, or veſſel, within the port of London, or any other port, and ſhould not be aſſized or marked as before directed; upon information to any juſtice of peace of the county, or to the mayor, bailiff, or other head officer of the city, borough, or town corporate, ſuch juſtice, mayor, or other head officer, ſhould have power to call before them, ſix good men of the town, pariſh or city, where the billet is, and ſhould ſwear them, truly to inquire and preſent whether the ſaid billet be of good aſſize; and if they ſhould preſent, that any of the ſaid billets were not aſſized and marked as before directed, ſuch magiſtrate ſhould take ſuch of the ſaid billets as ſhould not be marked, or be falſe aſſized, as forfeited, and ſhould deliver the ſame to the overſeers of the poor, to be given to the poor. That any owner of trees might cut billets of what aſſize he pleaſed for the private uſe of the ſaid owner only. But, by the ſtatute of the 10th of Queen Anne, the laws appointing the aſſize of fuel, are not to extend to billet made of beech-wood; provided that no perſon ſhould ſell billet made of beech-wood by retail within London and Weſtminſter, or the weekly bills of mortality, unleſs the ſame was aſſized according to the uſage of marking beech billet, or by weight, if the buyer ſhould require the ſame to be weighed.

FULLER. A workman employed in the woollen manufactures; whoſe buſineſs is to mill and thicken cloth, lay the wool one way, and cut it off equal with the ſheers, ſmooth it with teazels, and then preſs it. In the city and ſuburbs of London, there is a ſpecies of them called ſcourers, who clean cloaths. Setters are the ſame with fullers, and are called ſo only becauſe they rent tenter-grounds, and ſtretch cloths, after they are milled, upon frames called tenters.

FULLERS *earth*. A fat, foſſile earth, abounding in nitre, of great uſe in the woollen manufacture; which ſerves to ſcour cloths and ſtuffs, by imbibing all the greaſe, and oil, neceſſarily uſed in the preparing and dreſſing of the wool.

This earth is dug in great plenty out of certain pits near Brickhill in Staffordſhire; alſo near Ryegate in Surry, near Maidſtone in Kent, near Nutley and Petworth in Suſſex, and near Wooburn in Bedfordſhire. It is abſolutely neceſſary to the well dreſſing of cloth; from whence foreigners, who can procure wool to be clandeſtinely exported out of England, can never arrive to the perfection of the Engliſh cloths, without fullers earth: for which reaſon it is made a contraband commodity, and the export made equally criminal with that of exporting wool: ſo that abroad, they make great uſe of urine, in lieu of fullers earth; though there is a ſoap-earth, or a kind of fullers earth, near Smyrna in Turky.

FULLERS *Weed*, *Thiſtle*, or *Teazle*. A kind of plant much uſed by the fullers, clothworkers, and ſtocking-weavers, to card or draw out the wool or nap from the thread of ſeveral kinds of cloths, ſtuffs, and ſtockings, in order to render them cloſer and warmer.

The thiſtle is carefully cultivated in ſeveral parts of France, particularly Normandy; and the exportation thereof is prohibited in England, upon forfeiture of 1*l*. for every pound weight, on account of its great utility in the woollen manufacture. The ſtem of the plant is very high; and its extremity, as alſo thoſe of its branches, bear an oblong prickly yelloviſh ball or bur, which is the part uſed: but the largeſt burs, and thoſe moſt pointed, are eſteemed the beſt; being called male teazles, principally uſed in the dreſſing and preparing of ſtockings and coverlets: the ſmaller kind, properly called the fullers or drapers, and ſometimes the female teazle, being uſed in the preparation of the finer ſtuffs, as cloths and rateens; and the ſmalleſt kind of all, ſometimes called linnots heads, are uſed to draw out the nap from bays, and other coarſe ſtuffs.

FULLERY. A workhouſe, or place where cloths are fulled, or ſcoured; which is principally underſtood of the fulling mill, when cloths are ſent to it to be ſcoured and fulled.

FULLING. The art, or act of cleaning, ſcouring, and preſſing cloths, ſtuffs, and ſtockings, to render them ſtronger, cloſer, and firmer; which is alſo called milling, being an art that, according to Pliny, was originally invented by Nicias the ſon of Hermias; and it appears, from an inſcription quoted by Sir George Wheeler, in his travels through Greece, that this Nicias was a governor of Greece in the time of the Romans.

The fulling of cloths, and other ſtuffs, is performed by a kind of water-mill; thence called a fulling, or ſcouring-mill: theſe mills, excepting in what relates to the mill-ſtones and hopper, being much the ſame with corn-mills; and there are even ſome which ſerve indifferently for either uſe; corn being ground, and cloths fulled, by the motion of the ſame wheel; whence, in ſome places, particularly France, the fullers are called millers; as grinding corn, and milling ſtuffs, at the ſame time.

FULLING-*mill*. See *Mill*.

FUMITORY. A medicinal plant, found commonly in gardens and fields; which, when pounded and infuſed into milk, is of great efficacy for driving out the meaſles and ſmall pox.

FUNCHALL. The capital of the Madeira iſlands in the Atlantic ocean, ſituated in 16 deg. of W. lon. and 32 deg. 3 min. of N. lat. See *Madeira* iſlands.

FUND, in commerce, is uſed for the capital, or ſtock, of a merchant, company, or corporation, or the ſum of money they put into trade: but the term is more particularly applied to the public ſecurity that is given to the people for money borrowed of them by the ſtate; which is, either by appointing a bank to repay the ſums borrowed, or appropriating certain taxes for the diſcharge thereof.

Theſe funds were a matter entirely unknown in England, till after the revolution; when the government exceeded the parliamentary proviſions, and ran the nation in

into debt by taking up loans, which they were obliged to ſatisfy by mortgaging ſeveral branches of the revenue as an eſtabliſhment, or fund of ſecurity, for the repayment of what had been advanced to the government, when the demands, or, as they were called, the neceſſities of the government, firſt began to riſe ſo high, that the miniſters, who made thoſe demands, did not think it ſafe for themſelves to raiſe ſuch ſupplies within the year as were ſufficient to anſwer them, but rather choſe to double that burthen gradually, and imperceptibly, by a proceſs of mortgage and anticipation; ſo little were the people in general aware of the conſequences of a national debt, that the riſe and progreſs of it were ſcarce attended to then, and ſince have ſcarce been touched upon by any general hiſtorian. In like manner, ſo little were they aware of the inconveniencies which might ariſe, either to trade, or to the conſtitution, from companies trading, or pretending to trade, on joint ſtocks, under the authority of an excluſive charter, that, alike during the great conteſt which held through ſo many years in the reign of King William, to take the Eaſt India trade out of the direction of one party, and transfer it to the other; and during that which the project of eſtabliſhing a national bank gave riſe to, they rather attended to the iſſue, as a matter of curioſity and amuſement, than as to what fundamentally affected the intereſt or prejudice of the kingdom. But ſoon became notorious, that, inſtead of cultivating the affections of the people, it was the great effort of the new government ſo to intertwiſt itſelf with the property of the people, that it ſhould be impoſſible to hurt one without hurting the other: and it became alſo notorious, that, in virtue of this alliance between power and money, thoſe who had the driving of the bargain, and their confederates, were enabled to carve out of the national ſtock almoſt what proportion for themſelves they pleaſed. To be more explicit: at the time when this great, but inſenſible, change was made in the habit of the body politic, there were but two ways of employing money, namely, in trade, and uſury: of theſe, the former, as it deſervedly ought, was held honourable; and the latter, if extended beyond the pale of the law, as deſervedly infamous: however, great ſums were withdrawn from trade, and placed in the funds; by which it appeared, that all the meaſures which had been taken to connect the whole moneyed intereſt with that of the court, not only in oppoſition to the landed intereſt, but thereby alſo to diſarm the city of London of the importance it began to derive from the frequent diſtreſſes of the crown; and the frequent applications made to the merchants for loans, ſerved at this time to veſt that importance in the miniſtry only; and that whoſoever had the management of it, might employ it, like a two-edged ſword, either againſt the crown or the people: but, from that time to this, the ſame maxims have been obſerved; and, in conſequence of them, the moneyed intereſt has been held in the ſame ſubſerviency to that of the adminiſtration. See National *Debt*.

Theſe funds are now increaſed to the ſix following: the *Aggregate* fund, the *General* fund, the *South-ſea* fund, the *Sinking* fund, the *Bank* fund, and the *Eaſt India* fund; as alſo the *Civil liſt* fund, appropriated to the private uſes of the crown.

The *Aggregate* FUND originally aroſe out of the ſubſidies of tonnage and poundage, called the two-third ſubſidies; and the duties, and additional duties, upon coffee, cocoa-nuts, chocolate, cocoa-paſte, tea, nutmegs, cinnamon, cloves, mace, and pictures; as alſo the duty upon bouſes, and muſlins, and the further rates impoſed upon white calicoes; porcelain, called China wares; and drugs; half the old ſubſidy, and all monies ariſing from the other half ſubſidies, over and above the annuities charged thereon: but afterwards a moiety of the inland duty on coffee, and all the duty on chocolate, were appropriated to this fund; which was eſtabliſhed, by an act of parliament in the 7th year of Queen Anne, for paying all ſuch monies as ſhould be due for intereſt on the Exchequer-bills, the premium of 3 *per cent. per annum*, and for raiſing the yearly ſum of 200,000 l. for paying off the ſaid bills. This fund was augmented, by the ſtatute of the 1ſt of George I. with the one half of the old ſubſidy upon import; the additional duties on French wines, French vinegar, and all other goods of the product or manufacture of France; the plantation-duties; and the duties upon hops: to which were added, all the ſurplus monies in the exchequer upon the one-third ſubſidy, the additional exciſe, the duties on low wines, and the ſtamp-duties; beſides the duties on hawkers and pedlars; the overplus monies of the five-ſeventh parts, and two ſeſeventh parts of the exciſe on beer, ale, mum, cyder, perry, ſpirituous liquors, and metheglin, which were appropriated by the 5th of William and Mary, to make good a fund to the bank, and to pay annuities: all which were made perpetual; and all other public monies, which ſhould be brought into the Exchequer, not being appropriated, and not ariſing from any branch of the revenue appointed for the civil government, ſhould be ſet apart for the uſes of this fund; which, by the 3d of George I. were declared to be as follows: firſt, to pay the bank the yearly ſum of 100,000 l. and other annuities; then to pay the yearly ſum of 120,000 l. for the civil liſt to his Majeſty, to be iſſued weekly; and, after ſatisfying theſe payments, the deficiencies on the original fund of 100,000 l. a year, payable to the bank out of the five-ſevenths parts of the duties of exciſe above mentioned, ſhould be ſatisfied out of this fund; after which the yearly ſum of 4000 l. ſhould be iſſued to the ſheriffs; and the yearly produce of the ſurplus of this fund is generally about 682,600 l.

The General FUND was eſtabliſhed, by act of parliament, in the 3d year of King George I. for payment of annuities in lieu of lottery-orders, and in lieu of the annuities given for the bankers debt; being founded upon the funds of the four lottery acts, which were the cuſtoms of poundage upon export granted by the 12th of Charles II. and not taken away by ſubſequent ſtatutes; and the other duties granted or continued by the 9th of Queen Anne, which were the duty of 12 d. a hundred weight upon leather, ſheep-ſkins, or calve-ſkins, tanned, tawed, or dreſſed, exported; the duties upon coals exported; with the additional duties upon coals, culm, and cinders, ſhipped and waterborn, and of coals imported, if any; the additional duty on candles; the hereditary duty of 1 *per cent.* on goods exported from ports capable of a ſhip of 200 tons to any place of the Mediterranean beyond Malaga, in a ſhip not built and manned according to the act of the 13th and 14th of Charles II. the hereditary duty of 5 s. for every white woollen broad-cloth exported, and the yearly ſum of 135,000 l. appropriated out of the ſaid duties, and the ſurplus of the ſame duties; the weekly ſum of 700 l. payable out of the revenues of the poſt-office; the duties upon ſkins and hides, vellom, and parchment; the duties on hackney-coaches and chairs; on ſtamped vellom parchment, on bills of lading, almanacks, and licences for ſelling ale and wine; the duties on paper, cards, and dice; and on rock ſalt exported to Ireland; with the yearly fund of 186,670 l. appropriated out of theſe laſt mentioned duties; all granted in the 9th year of Queen Anne; the duties on the additional hackney-chairs; and the other duties granted on ſoap, paper, paſte-board, mild-board, and ſcale-board, imported; on books, prints, and maps, imported; on paper, paſte-board, mill-board, and ſcale-board, made in Great Britain; on linnens printed, painted, ſtained, or dyed, imported; on ſilk, calicoes, linens, and ſtuffs, printed, ſtained, painted, or dyed in Great Britain; on the ſtamp-duties on ſurrenders, transfers, pamphlets, and news-papers; all granted by the 10th of Queen Anne: and alſo the yearly fund of 168,003 l. thereby appropriated out of theſe duties; the duties granted by the 10th of Queen Anne, and the 10th of George I. on dreſſed ſkins and hides imported; on ſkins and hides tanned, tawed, or dreſſed in Great Britain; on vellom and parchment; on ſtarch; a moiety of the inland duties on coffee and tea; the duties on gilt and ſilver wire; the ſtamp duties on policies of inſurance; and the yearly fund of 168,003 l. appropriated out of theſe duties by the 10th of Queen Anne; and alſo certain annual ſums, amounting to 39,855 l. 15 s. 7½ d. charged upon the hereditary exciſe by the 12th of William III. and the 2d of Queen Anne, in lieu of the bankers debt: all which duties were continued for ever, for the ſupply of this fund, but ſubject to ſuch redemption as in the act

was contained. It was alſo thereby enacted, That the ſaid yearly ſums of 135,000 l. 186,670 l. 168,003 l. 168,003 l. and 39,155 l. 15 s. 7⅕ d. adding thereto the above mentioned ſurplus of the duties granted by the 9th of Queen Anne, being generally about 27,317 l. a year, amounting in the whole to 724,849 l. 6 s. 10⅕ d. *per annum*, ſhould be this general fund: and if all the monies ariſing out of the ſaid duties, ſhould not amount to that ſum, then the monies ſo ariſing ſhould be part of the ſaid general fund for paying the annuities thereby chargeable thereupon; and, in caſe any deficiency ſhould happen, the ſame ſhould be ſupplied out of the firſt aid to be granted in parliament.

The South-ſea FUND was eſtabliſhed, by act of parliament in the 9th year of Queen Anne, to make a proviſion for the debts and deficiencies therein mentioned; which amounted to 9,471,325 l. and for paying the intereſt thereof: for which purpoſe, all the duties upon wines, vinegar, and tobacco; upon India goods, and wrought ſilks; upon whale-fin; upon wax and tallow candles imported, and the ſeveral rates upon monies given with clerks, apprentices, and ſervants, were made perpetual, and to be paid weekly into the receipt of the Exchequer for the ſupplies of this fund: but, if theſe were deficient, ſuch deficiency was to be made good out of the next aids to be granted by parliament; or, in caſe there ſhould be any ſurplus, it was to be applied towards diſcharging the principal of the capital ſtock belonging to the company; and this fund was to be iſſued at the exchequer, as an annuity for the intereſt of the 9,471,325 l. and the payment thereof to be made weekly to the company.

By the ſtatute of the 1ſt of George I. the capital ſtock of the company was increaſed to 10,000,000 l. which was the ſum then due from the government to the company, and for which the above mentioned revenues were applied, for making good the payments on the increaſed fund. If there ſhould be any deficiency, the treaſurer of the navy was to make it good out of any money in his hands, or firſt coming into his hands, for the ſervice of the navy, with preference to all other payments; or, in default of money, the treaſurer of the navy was to diſpoſe of any tallies, orders, or other parliamentary ſecurities, as ſhould be in his hands, for the ſervice of the navy, to diſcharge the deficiency due to the company, and within 20 days after demand to pay the ſame in money. And there was annually, within 20 days after the 25th of December, an eſtimate in writing to be made by the treaſury, by a medium of three preceding years, of how much the revenues ſettled for payment of this fund, would produce, from the 25th of December preceding ſuch account, and ending the 25th of December ſucceeding the ſame; as alſo how much it was like to fall ſhort; and the treaſury were to cauſe ſuch eſtimate to be laid before the commons in parliament, if ſitting, otherwiſe at their next ſeſſion, that ſufficient proviſion might be made for the navy for that year.

By the ſtatute of the 3d of George I. it was enacted, That if the produce of theſe duties ſhould be deficient to pay the yearly fund chargeable upon them, ſuch deficiences ſhould be made good out of the general fund, or out of money to be raiſed at the exchequer, for purchaſing annuities at 5 *per cent.* for every ſuch deficiency; which annuities ſhould be charged on the ſeveral funds, and be payable and transferable at the bank of England, till redemption by parliament: but, if there ſhould be any ſurplus of the duties, it ſhould attend the diſpoſition of parliament; and, after redemption, theſe duties ſhould not be applied without authority of parliament.

By the ſtatute of the 5th of George I. part of the duties on coals, culm, and cinders, and the window-tax, were made perpetual, as a fund for ſecuring to the company an annuity of 87,342 l. 4 s. 5 d.

By the ſtatute of the 6th of George I. the duties of exciſe upon beer, ale, cyder, and other liquors, granted by the 8th of Queen Anne; and the new duties upon pepper, raiſins, nutmegs, cinnamon, cloves, and mace, were made perpetual; the yearly ſum of 35,000 l. appropriated by letters-patent of Queen Anne, out of the exciſe, was continued for ever; the additional duties upon ſoap, paper, paſte boards, mill-boards, and ſcale-boards, and upon chequered and ſtriped linens, and upon linens printed, painted, ſtained, or dyed, after the manufacture, or in the thread or yarn before, in foreign parts; and upon ſilks, calicoes, linens, and ſtuffs, printed, painted, ſtained, or dyed, after the manufacture, in Great Britain; and upon ſtarch, coals exported, and ſeveral things engroſſed upon ſtamps; and the impoſitions which by the 5th of George I. were granted upon coals brought into the river Thames, within the liberty of the city, were made perpetual, as a fund for ſecuring to the South ſea company ſeveral annuities for the remainder of the terms of 96, 89, and 99 years, and ſeveral other annuities; as alſo the principal ſums whereon theſe annuities were due, amounting to 16,546,482 l. 7 s. 1¼ d. which the company were empowered to purchaſe, or take in by ſubſcription.

By the ſtatute of the 9th of George I. one moiety of the ſtock of the South ſea company, amounting to 16,901,241 l. 17 s. 0¼ d. was converted into a joint ſtock, attended with annuities payable out of the above funds, to be called *The joint ſtock of South ſea annuities*; and the other moiety of the capital ſtock was to remain in the company as a joint ſtock, attended with the reſidue of the yearly funds; but, if any deficiency ſhould happen in the produce of the duties, the company ſhould bear half of ſuch deficiency, till it was provided for by parliament.

By the ſtatute of the 3d of George II. it was enacted, That if, at the end of any quarter, the ſeveral duties appropriated to diſcharge the annuity, to the South ſea company, in reſpect of their original capital ſtock of ten millions, ſhould not be ſufficient, the ſame ſhould be made good out of the aggregate fund.

By the ſtatute of the 6th of George II. the capital ſtock of the South ſea company was to be divided into four equal parts; three-fourth parts whereof, amounting to 10,988,327 l. were to be converted into a joint ſtock, attended with annuities payable out of the above funds, to be called the *New joint ſtock of South ſea annuities*; and the other fourth part, amounting to 3,662,775 l. was to remain in the company as a trading or capital ſtock, attended with the reſidue of the annuities or funds. The new South ſea annuities were to be payable half yearly; and the trading capital was charged with the payment of the new annuities, as alſo for the payment of the former joint ſtock of South ſea annuities: but, if any deficiency ſhould happen in the funds of the company, the new South ſea annuities ſhould bear a proportional part of ſuch deficiency. And it was alſo thereby enacted, That the fund of the trading ſtock ſhould not, without the conſent of the company, be liable to be redeemed by parliament, until the new South ſea annuities ſhould be reduced, by parliamentary redemption, to 3,500,000 l. See South ſea company.

The ſinking FUND, was erected out of the ſurpluſſes ariſing from the aggregate fund, the general fund, and the South ſea fund; which generally produced, one year with another, 1,229,343 l. whereof the firſt produced 682,621 l. the ſecond 508,345 l. and the third 38,375 l. This fund was eſtabliſhed by Sir Robert Walpole, in the year 17[illegible], with an intention to reduce the national debt, retrieve the public credit, and exonerate the people from thoſe heavy taxes they were groaning under. And, by the ſtatute of the 9th of George I. it was enacted, That all the monies of the ſurpluſſes, called the ſinking fund, ſhould be appropriated for diſcharging the principal and intereſt of ſuch national debts as were incurred before the 25th of December 1716, and were declared to be ſuch national debts as might be redeemed in ſuch manner as ſhould be directed by future acts of parliament. However, this fund has ſince been made the general reſource of the miniſtry to ſupply any extraordinary expences of government, and make good the deficiencies of any appropriated duties; for the former of which a million was annually granted during the late wars, and ſeveral other large ſums were granted for the latter.

The Bank FUND was eſtabliſhed by act of parliament in the 5th and 6th years of William and Mary; whereby 100,000 l. out of the monies to ariſe by duties of tonnage, and the exciſe on beer and ale, was to be annually appropriated as a fund for the annuities therein mentioned

ioned, to be payable to the ſubſcribers of a loan of ,200,000 l. which occaſioned the incorporation of the overnor and company of the bank of England. See *Bank* of England.

By the ſtatute of the 8th and 9th of William III. the governor and company of the bank were empowered to enarge their ſtock by new ſubſcriptions; for which the appropriated funds were the duties of tonnage and poundage; thoſe on wine and vinegar; as alſo on tobacco and ſugar, granted by the 1ſt of James II. the additional impoſitions on goods and merchandiſe by the 2d of William and Mary; the ſtamp-act, and the duty on houſes.

By the ſtatute of the 3d of George I. the bank, in conſideration of delivering up exchequer-bills to the amount of 2,000,000 l. were allowed an annuity of 100,000 l. payable out of the aggregate fund, and duties on houſes: this annuity was to be preferred in payment before the yearly ſum of 120,000 l. to the civil liſt: but, after theſe were ſatisfied, the deficiencies on the original fund of 100,000 l. a year were to be ſatisfied out of the monies appropriated by this act; after which, the yearly ſum of 4000 l. was to be iſſued to the ſheriffs; and the ſurplus of theſe duties were to attend the diſpoſition of parliament: and for encouragement of ſuch perſons as were willing to advance monies for paying off 8,762,625 l. upon the lottery-acts of the 9th and 10th of Queen Anne, for redeeming annuities on an act of the 12th and 13th of William III. to patentees out of the weekly ſum of 3700 l. out of the exciſe, for which the perſons advancing the ſame were to have annuities of 5 l. *per cent.* redeemable by parliament, it was enacted, That, till they were redeemed, they ſhould be paid into the bank; and that all the monies ſo advanced ſhould be one capital or joint ſtock, on which the annuity ſhould be attending.

By the ſtatute of the 1ſt of George II. the bank had an annuity granted of 70,000 l. on paying 1,750,000 l. into the exchequer; which annuity was to be payable out of the duties on coals and culm; and, if there was any deficiency, it was to be ſupplied out of the ſinking fund; but the ſurplus was to be reſerved for the diſpoſition of parliament.

By the ſtatute of the 2d of King George II. the bank alſo purchaſed an annuity of 50,000 l. for 1,250,000 l. which was chargeable on the overplus monies ariſing out of the additional duties on ſoap and paper, and on certain linens, ſilks, calicoes, and ſtuffs; upon ſtarch, and exported coals; and upon the ſtamp-duties, after payment of what ſhould be due to the South ſea company on their annuity granted by the 6th of George I.

By the ſtatute of the 15th of King George II. the bank was to advance 1,600,000 l. more to the government; for which 3 *per cent.* was to be paid out of the duties on exciſe.

By the ſtatute of the 19th of King George II. the bank was granted an annuity of 39,472 l. for delivering up exchequer-bills to the amount of 986,800 l. which was chargeable on the duties on ſpirituous liquors: beſides, they advanced the further ſum of 1,000,000 l. to the government; for which they had 4 *per cent.* payable out of the malt and land tax.

ſt India FUND. This fund was originally eſtabliſhed by act of parliament, in the 9th year of the reign of King William III. whereby the Eaſt India company was incorporated for lending 2,000,000 l. to the government; for which an annuity of 160,000 l. was made payable out of the duties on ſalt, and the additional ſtamp-duties, by weekly payments. But, by the ſtatute of the 3d of George II. this annuity was reduced to 128,000 l. and transferred from the above duties to be charged on the aggregate fund. See *Eaſt* India company.

By the ſtatute of the 17th of King George II. the Eaſt India company were to advance 1,000,000 l. to the government; for which they were to receive an annuity of 30,000 l. payable out of the ſurplus duties on ſpirituous liquors: but, in caſe of any deficiency, the ſame was to be ſupplied out of the ſinking fund.

vil Liſt FUND. This was firſt granted to King Charles II. on his reſtoration to the throne; conſiſting of the duties ariſing from the poſt-office, the wine-licences, the hereditary and temporary exciſe, together with thoſe called the ſmall branches of the crown-revenue; which have been continued to his ſucceſſors, and amount generally to 8 or 900,000 l. a year; out of which the tradeſmen of the crown ſhould be paid their debts: but, though this fund has certain duties appropriated to it, the public is obliged to make good all deficiencies.

But it is to be obſerved, that all theſe funds appropriated to the South ſea company, the Bank, and the Eaſt India company, were, on the reduction of intereſt, by the ſtatute of the 23d of King George II. chargeable with only 3½ *per cent.* till 1757, and with only 3 *per cent.* afterwards, for all ſums due from the government; which, in the public debt of 57,703,475 l. was the annual ſaving of intereſt of 288,517 l. till 1757; and after that time, till redemption, 577,034 l. yearly; to be applied for the ſame purpoſe as the ſinking fund, to pay off the national debt; whereby the ſinking fund amounts annually to about 1,600,000 l. being an increaſe of 170,000 l. a year, which ought to be applied only towards redeeming the capital of the ſeveral public trading companies; and then the government might venture to annihilate the one half of it, as alſo of the aggregate and general funds, by freeing the people from the taxes upon coals, candles, ſoap, leather, and ſuch other taxes as lie heavy upon the poor labourers and manufacturers, and thereby enhance their wages in every part of the kingdom, but eſpecially in the city of London; by which the prime coſt of all the Britiſh manufactures is ſo much increaſed, that it is impoſſible for the merchants to ſell them in foreign markets ſo cheap as manufactures of the ſame kind and goodneſs are ſold by the merchants, even of thoſe countries where the intereſt of money is as high as it is in Great Britain. The remaining part of the ſinking fund might afterwards be applied towards paying off thoſe annuities, and public debts, which only bore an intereſt of 3 *per cent.* before the reduction; and, after that, towards diminiſhing the capitals of the ſeveral trading companies, when the ſinking fund would again amount to above a a million yearly, which would be ſufficient for paying them off, and of freeing the nation entirely of all its public debts, in the lifetimes of the preſent generation, or at leaſt of the next.

The national debt is, at this time, about 80,000,000 l. which was originally contracted in the reign of King William III. and augmented during that of Queen Anne, when Great Britain ſo far exceeded her proportion in the war againſt France, and being burthened above her natural ſtrength, was fallen under an immenſe debt; which, inſtead of being diminiſhed, was rather augmented in the ſucceeding years of peace; and was ſo amazingly increaſed during the laſt war againſt France and Spain, that, notwithſtanding the reduction, the intereſt amounts to 2,400,000 l. a year; for payment whereof the nation labours under an extenſive exciſe: the duties applied, in former times, to the ſupport of the government, and many others ſince impoſed, are alienated, for the payment of this intereſt; ſo that the taxes on land and malt, which every body underſtood to be for extraordinary uſes, are now to be applied to the maintenance of ſuch ſhips and guards as ſhall be neceſſary, even in time of peace, and are therefore in effect perpetual.

Some people affirm, that it is a vain hope, to imagine that the government can buy off, and redeem, in any moderate length of time, theſe long funds, or perpetuities: but this may be laid down as a certain truth, That England will never greatly flouriſh in trade and manufactures till the greateſt part of them are cleared, and till affairs are brought to ſuch a poſture, that the public may not pay to the government, either for the ſupport of the crown, or on account of funds, where the principal is ſunk, above 2,300,000 l. a year, or about a twentieth part of the general income of the nation; which was abſolutely the caſe before the revolution. And, unleſs this be compaſſed, it will be found, that, in no long courſe of time, the Britiſh nation will languiſh and decay every year, by ſteps evident enough to be perceived by ſuch people as take theſe matters into conſideration; gold and ſilver will be carried off by degrees, rents will fall, the purchaſe of land will decreaſe, wool will ſink in its price, the ſtock of ſhipping will be diminiſhed, farm-houſes will

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go to ruin, induſtry will decay, and Britons will have upon them all the viſible marks of a declining people. See National *Debt*, *Bank*, *Eaſt* India, and *South* ſea companies.

FUNDI *Bay*, is a bay ſituated between New England and Nova Scotia; in which there is an excellent fiſhery for cod.

FUNEN. The ſecond iſland for magnitude, which belongs to Denmark, ſituated at the entrance of the Baltic ſea; being ſeparated from Jutland by the ſtraight called the Leſſer Belt, and from the iſland of Zealand by the ſtraight called the Great Belt, the chief town being Odenſee. See *Denmark*.

FUR. See *Furr*.

FURBELOE. An ornament of ruffled, or plaited ſilk, ſtuff, or other manufacture, ſewn on womens garments, ſometimes of the ſame colour with the garment, and ſometimes of different colours.

FURBISH. To cleanſe, poliſh, or fit a thing up for uſe; particularly ſpoken of the gunſmith's art.

FURBISHER. A perſon who furbiſhes or poliſhes arms, by giving them a brightneſs and luſtre; which is principally performed with emery: the term, in the general ſenſe, including armorers and ſword-cutlers; but, in a more reſtrained ſenſe, it is appropriated to thoſe who clean, and ſcour up, old ſwords, guns, and halberds, and put them in order; as is done at the Tower of London, and moſt other armories in England.

FURL. A ſea-term, ſignifying to roll, wrap, or bind up a ſail cloſe to the yard.

FURLING *lines*, in a ſhip, are ſmall lines made faſt to the top-ſails, top-gallant ſails, and the mizen-yard arms, ſerving to furl up thoſe ſails; though the mizen has only one furling-line, and all the reſt have two, having one at each end.

FURLONG. An Engliſh long meaſure, containing the eighth part of a mile; being equal to 40 poles or perches; and the perch to 16½ feet. See *Mile*, and *Meaſure*.

FURLONG, is alſo uſed for the 8th part of an acre, or half a rood. See *Rood*.

FURNACE. An utenſil, or veſſel, proper to contain fire; or to raiſe, and maintain, a vehement fire in; whether of coal, or wood: of which there are ſeveral kinds, of various forms, and for different uſes; the domeſtic furnace, uſed in making confections, and ſuch ſort of things, being uſually of iron, or earth; and thoſe uſed by the goldſmiths, refiners, and ſuch kind of artizans, being much larger, and of a different ſtructure.

FURNACE, is particularly uſed for a kind of oven, wherein the ores of metals, after beating, waſhing, and other preparations, are melted down by a ſtrong coal or wood fire: but the ſtructure and application of theſe furnaces, are ſomewhat different for the different metals. See *Gold*, *Silver*, *Copper*, *Tin*, and *Lead*.

FURNACE, is more ſtrictly applied to thoſe uſed in the melting of iron; which are frequently confounded with iron-forges, though there is a conſiderable difference between them. See *Iron*.

Coinage-FURNACES, are of two kinds; the one called the bellows-furnace; and the other, the wind-furnace; being both uſed in the fuſion of metals; though gold is uſually melted in the former, and copper in the latter: See *Coinage*.

Founders FURNACE, is of ſeveral kinds, according to the different kinds of work to be caſt.

Glaſs-houſe FURNACE, is the place wherein the ingredients, or materials, of glaſs, are fuſed and vitrified; of which there are three kinds: the firſt, called the *calcar*, ſerves to prepare or calcine the frit in; the ſecond, is *the working furnace*, ſerving to melt the metal in, or make the glaſs; and the third, is the *green glaſs furnace*, which is a kind of compound of the former. See *Glaſs*.

Hatters FURNACES, are of three kinds; a little one under the mould, where they form their hats; a larger, in in the ſcouring room, under a little copper full of water and lees; and a very large one, under the great copper, which they dye their hats in. See *Hats*.

Plumber's FURNACE, is of three kinds: in the firſt, they melt the lead, whereof ſheets are to be caſt; in the ſecond, they melt the lead to be caſt in moulds for pipes, which are not to be ſoldered; and the third, is the tinning-furnace, which ſerves them for the applying of thin tin leaves on their works. See *Lead*, and *Plumbery*.

FURNITURE. Any goods, neceſſaries, or materials whatever, that are proper or convenient to render a houſe, place, or thing, fit to do the office it is appointed for; and, in a maritime ſenſe, it is the equipage of a ſhip.

FURR. The ſkins of ſeveral kinds of wild beaſts, dreſſed with hair on; to be uſed as a lining, or doubling of garments, or robes; either for warmth, ornament, or diſtinction of rank and dignity: for the robes of kings, and noblemen, are lined with ſeveral kinds of furs, particularly ermine, to render them more magnificent; and the ſame may be obſerved of ſeveral chief magiſtrates, judges, and doctors of different faculties in the univerſities.

The kinds of furrs, or ſkins chiefly dreſſed in alum, and with the hair on, are thoſe of the ermine, ſable, marten, ſquirrel, coney, caſtor, otter, dog, fox, wolf, tyger, leopard, and bear. See *Skin*.

FURR *Company*. See *Hudſon*'s bay company.

FURRIER. A perſon who trades or works in furr, or lines robes therewith. See *Skinner*.

FURY. A ſatin, or Indian and Chineſe taffety, painted in the country, or imitated in Europe, particularly in France, Holland, and Flanders.

Theſe ſatins have been called *furies*, becauſe the firſt brought into Europe had ſuch extravagant deſigns interſperſed throughout the work, with ſo little order and proportion, that they might be well ſuppoſed the manufactures of furies.

The extravagance of the Chineſe deſigns were firſt imitated in Europe with ſucceſs; but the French inconſtancy having repreſented birds, flowers, and other things on the ſatins, or taffeties, the cuſtom of calling them furies continued their name, though not agreeable to the beauty of the deſigns of this new manufacture.

FUSTIAN. A kind of cotton ſtuff, which ſeems quilted or whaled on one ſide, chiefly made for frocks, or outer coats of men or boys.

Right fuſtians ſhould be made entirely of cotton thread, both woof and warp: but there are fuſtians of ſeveral kinds, wide, narrow, coarſe, fine, with ſhag or nap, and without it: there are alſo a great many made, whoſe warp is of flax or hemp.

By the ſtatute of the 11th of Henry VII. it was enacted, That no iron inſtruments, or other untrue ſlight, ſhould be uſed, but only the broad ſhears, upon forfeiture of 20 s. And, by the ſtatute of the 39th of Queen Elizabeth, it was made lawful for the Lord Mayor of London, or his deputy, and for the maſter and wardens of the clothworkers company, or ſuch perſons as they ſhould appoint, to enter and ſearch the workmanſhip of all perſons occupying the broad ſhear, as well fuſtians as cloth; and the perſons making reſiſtance ſhould forfeit 20 s.

FUSTIC, or *Fuſtock*. A yellow wood, uſed by dyers, yielding a fine golden yellow; but there ſhould be ſome other ingredients mixed to make it permanent.

The tree that yields it, grows in all the Caribbee iſlands, particularly Barbadoes and Tobago; where it riſes to a great height.

Dyers uſe it chiefly for black; but ſome of the ableſt and moſt honeſt among them, who would dye none but the beſt and moſt durable colours, have been of opinion it ſhould be excluded all kinds of dying.

There is another kind, of the growth of Italy and Provence, uſed for dying a coffee-colour.

FUTTOCKS, or *Foothooks*, in ſhip-building, are thoſe compaſſing timbers, which give the breadth and bearing to the ſhip, being ſcarfed to the ground timbers: but becauſe no timbers of that compaſs can be found long enough to go up through all the ſide of the ſhip, the compaſſing timbers are ſcarfed one into the other; and thoſe next the keel are called the tower, or ground futtocks; the other, the upper futtocks.

G.

GABEL, or *Gabelle*, in the French cuſtoms, ſignified formerly all ſorts of impoſts upon diverſe kinds of merchandiſe and commodities; but it was not then a royal duty, ſeveral of the nobility having impoſed it upon their vaſſals. At preſent the ſignification of the word is reſtrained to the ſalt-duty; and, by the Gabelle farm is underſtood a royal privilege of ſelling ſalt in the greater part of the provinces of France, which the King grants to ſome particular perſon, with an injunction of refunding to his Majeſty a certain number of millions of livres annually, purſuant to the conditions ſtipulated in the arret, and the contract.

Before the reign of Philip the fair, in 1286, the ſalt trade was free in France. This monarch being the firſt who laid an impoſt on that commodity, ſeveral of his ſucceſſors uſed the ſame reſource in the exigencies of the ſtate; till at laſt the whole ſalt-trade for the inland conſumption of the kingdom came into the hands of the King, who ſells, and diſtributes it by his farmers: the annual product of this farm being ſo conſiderable, that it is computed to make a fourth part of the royal revenue, or about 3,349,050 l. ſterling.

GABLOCKS, or *Gaffets*, falſe ſpurs made of ſteel, ſilver, or other mixed metal, and put over the natural ones, of game, or fighting cocks, at the time of fighting matches.

GAGE, or *Gauge*, is to find out the meaſure, or contents, of any veſſel of capacity. See *Gauging*.

GAGE, in the ancient cuſtoms of England, ſignified a pledge, or pawn, given by way of ſecurity; which was only properly uſed in ſpeaking of moveables; for hypotheca was always applied in reſpect of immoveables. See *Hypotheca*.

GAGE, in the ſea-language; if one ſhip is to windward of another, ſhe is ſaid to have the weather-gage of her. The ſeamen call trying how much water a ſhip draws gaging, or rather gauging of her; which is done by driving a nail into a pike, near the end, and putting it down by the rudder, till the nail catches hold under it; and then as many feet as the pike is under water is the ſhip's gage, or depth of water ſhe draws.

GAGE, in joinery, is an inſtrument made to ſtrike a line truly parallel to the ſtreight ſide of any board, or piece of ſtuff; its principal uſe being for an exact gaging of tenons, to fit into mortiſſes; and for gaging ſtuff of an equal thickneſs. It is made of an oval piece of wood, fitted upon a ſquare ſtick, to ſlide up and down ſtiffly thereon, and with a tooth at the end of a ſtaff, to ſcore or ſtriking a line upon the ſtuff at any diſtance, according to the diſtance of the oval from it.

GAGER. See *Gauger*.

GAIETA. A ſtrong maritime city of Italy, in the province of Lavoro, in the kingdom of Naples, being 35 miles N. W. of the city of Naples, ſituated in 14 deg. and 30 min. of E. lon. and in 41 deg. and 20 min. of lat. See *Italy*.

GAIN. The profit, or lucre, a perſon reaps from his commerce, trade, employment, or induſtry, which may be either honourable or infamous, lawful or illicit; therefore the gain they produce has alſo the ſame qualities; the moſt infamous gain, and leaſt allowed of, being that which proceeds from a uſurary commerce; and, on the contrary, the ſafeſt and moſt honourable is that of a lawful commerce, particularly by wholeſale, and when carried on by long voyages. See *Commerce*.

But the gain of a merchant and the gain of a nation are ſometimes different: for a merchant may have a diſtinct intereſt from that of his country; and may thrive by a trade which may prove its ruin. For example, ſuppoſe a hundred French merchants were to export annually the value of a million ſterling from Great Britain in bullion, for French wines, brandy, linens, ſilk, paper, and other manufactures of France, all for the conſumption of Great Britain; or, which is the ſame thing, ſuppoſe they ſhould pay for ſuch a value of goods by bills of exchange, whereby the receipt of ſo great a balance from other countries would be prevented; it cannot be denied that ſuch a trade as this would be very ruinous; that it muſt exhauſt the Britiſh treaſure, and leſſen the value of its native commodities and manufactures. And yet even by ſuch a trade the merchants themſelves may grow very rich; they may ſell the manufactures they import for 100,000 l. more than they coſt, which they may ſhare among themſelves: but from whom do they gain this ſum? Not from France, but from their own countrymen, who buy their goods: let their gain be what it will; yet ſtill, by this ſuppoſition, Britain loſes a million yearly to the French nation, and their manufactures of ſo great a value are imported into Britain, and ſold at the ſame markets with Britiſh manufactures; which muſt diminiſh to the like value the product of the Britiſh lands, and the manufactures of the Britiſh people.

The caſe will be the ſame in a greater or leſs degree, as the quantities of bullion exported, or the ſums remitted abroad, are greater or leſs, and as the manufactures imported for Britiſh conſumption are more or leſs. The nation in every ſuch caſe loſes all the balance that is paid abroad. The merchants who remit the money, or export the bullion, may perhaps gain the tenth part of that ſum; but they do not gain it from the country with which they trade in this manner. Their whole gain is ſhuffled to them out of the pockets of their own countrymen, from the landholders and the labourers, who in the mean while may loſe ten times as great a value of their own product and manufactures, by the payment of ſo great a balance to a foreign nation. See *Balance* of trade.

The Britiſh legiſlators therefore have had the wiſdom in every age to guard the nation from this detrimental gain of the merchants. The many prohibitions and high duties laid upon Eaſt India manufactures, are ſo many evidences of this matter. There can be no doubt but the Britiſh merchants have gained incredible ſums formerly for themſelves, by ſending bullion to the Eaſt Indies, and returning ſuch manufactures thence as were thought to interfere with thoſe of Great Britain. But the particular gain of thoſe merchants was no invitation to the Britiſh legiſlators to let them go on; and therefore from time to time they made laws to leſſen the conſumption of Eaſt India manufactures in Great Britain: ſome they totally prohibited; others they charged with ſuch duties as rendered them very little cheaper than Britiſh manufactures: ſo that now the Eaſt India company muſt derive a great part of their gain from the manufactures which are re-exported, and conſumed by foreign nations; very little being got by the conſumption of any of them in the Britiſh dominions.

Therefore, if the Britiſh merchants pay France a balance, ſo much of the Britiſh treaſure is exhauſted: they may gain eſtates to themſelves, but it muſt be by carrying on a trade that is detrimental to their country: the eſtates they gain are gained from their own countrymen; but the nation muſt pay very dear for the gain of thoſe merchants, and perhaps ten times as much as the whole value of their gain.

Further, all that the labour of the people, the product of the lands, and the gain of the merchants in one nation, exceed in value thoſe of another, is ſo much gain to the firſt, and ſo much loſs to the ſecond. If one ſells more goods than it buys, the balance muſt be coming to it in money, and that is ſo much gain: or if it buys more

goods than it ſells, it muſt pay the balace in money, which is ſo much leſs.

The only and certain ſcale of riches ariſing from trade in a nation, is the proportion of what is exported for the conſumption of others, to what is imported for their own; or in ſtating the balance between two countries, the prime coſt only in the ſaid reſpective countries ſhould be calculated; for it is no conſtant rule, that trade makes riches; becauſe there may be a trade that impoveriſhes a nation: as it is not often going to market that enriches the countryman; but on the contrary, if every time he comes there he buys to a greater value than he ſells, he grows the poorer the oftener he goes.

The vulgar miſtake, that importation of foreign merchandiſe, if purchaſed with native commodities, and not with money, does not make a nation poorer, is but what every man, ſays Sir William Temple, that gives himſelf leiſure to think, muſt immediately rectify, by finding out, that upon the end of an accompt between a nation, and all they deal with abroad, whatever the exportation wants in value to balance that of the importation, muſt of neceſſity be made up with ready money.

By this we find out the foundation of the riches of Holland, as of their trade; for never any country traded ſo much, and conſumed ſo little. The Dutch buy infinitely; but it is to ſell again, either upon improvement of the commodity, or at a better market. They are the great maſters of the Indian ſpices, and of the Perſian ſilks; but wear plain woollen, and feed upon their own fiſh and roots: nay, they ſell the fineſt of their own cloth to France, and buy coarſe out of England for their own wear. They ſend abroad the beſt of their own butter into all parts; and buy the cheapeſt out of Ireland, or the north of England: in ſhort, they furniſh infinite luxury which they never practiſe, and traffic in pleaſures which they never taſte; whereby they acquire a gain in their trade with all nations.

But in regard to the private gain of the merchant, it is all that part of the price of his goods in which his ſale exceeds his purchaſe; and this difference of the price is paid by the conſumer. If England is the conſumer, the merchant gains this difference in England; but England gets nothing by her conſumption. Though if a foreign nation, for inſtance Portugal, is the conſumer of the goods exported by the Engliſh merchant, he gains the whole difference from Portugal: and ſo in like manner does the Portugueſe merchant gain from England the whole difference of the price upon all goods which he buys in Portugal, and ſells to England. Suppoſe then, that the Engliſh merchants buy up ſo much of the product of their own lands, manufactured by the labour of their own people, at the coſt of 1,200,000 l. a year, and ſell the ſame to Portugal for 1,300,000 l. a year, the Engliſh merchants gain from that country 100,000 l. a year. On the other hand, if the merchants in Portugal buy there their wine, wine, oil, fruit, and other goods, at the coſt of 300,000 l. a year, and ſell the ſame to England for 325,000 l. a year, their gain from England is only 25,000 l. a year: ſo that in this very article of the merchant's gain, England would gain 75,000 l. a year from Portugal, and ſo much would be yearly loſt to that nation.

But a merchant ſhould be well acquainted with the difference of the price in the manufacturing of goods in each country, and with the neceſſity there is for any commodity: for the merchant in one county aſks and takes advice from his correſpondent in the other, what goods are likely to come to the beſt market; and accordingly receives orders to buy for him, or ſend to him, ſuch goods as are moſt demanded. But if this ſhould not be reciprocally obſerved on both ſides, if any merchant ſhould venture over his goods without ſuch previous advice; inſtead of gaining any thing upon the ſale of them in the other country, he may ſend them to a market where they are a drug, and loſe a very great part of his principal.

GALACTITIS. A ſtone ſaid to be found in Tuſcany, Saxony, and other parts, which has been recommended as good in defluxions of the eyes, and for ulcers: it is alſo ſuppoſed to make the milk more copious in nurſes; and when hung on the necks of children it promotes ſalivation.

The ſtone is of an aſh-colour, pretty ſoft, and ſweet to the taſte; yielding a white liquor like milk, when broke on the ground, from whence it receives its denomination.

GALANGA, or *Galangal*. A medicinal root, brought from the Eaſt Indies, being the produce of a tree of the ſame name; of which there are two kinds, the ſmall and the great.

The ſmall is a rough knotty root, of a ruddy colour, both within and without, and of a very pungent aromatic taſte and ſmell; which is brought from China, and is uſed with good ſucceſs in all diſorders of the ſtomach, bowels and womb, ariſing from the weakneſs of the nerves.

The greater galangal inclines more to the aſh-colour, and grows chiefly in Java and Malabar; its qualities being of the ſame kind with thoſe of the other, only leſs efficacious, though more common and eaſily come at: but both of them are uſed by the vinegar-makers. See *Acetum*.

GALATA. A great ſuburb belonging to Conſtantinople, oppoſite to the Seraglio, on the other ſide of the harbour, where the Greeks, Armenians, Franks, Chriſtians, and Jews inhabit, and have the liberty of their reſpective forms of worſhip. See *Turky*.

GALBANUM, in pharmacy, a gum iſſuing from an inciſion in the root of a ferulaceous plant, called in Latin *ferula galbanifera*, which grows in Arabia, Syria, and other eaſtern countries: but there are two kinds, the one in grains, or tears, and the other in maſs.

The former ſhould be choſen of a golden yellow without ſide, but much paler within; of a bitter taſte, with a ſtrong diſagreeable ſmell: and the latter is beſt when fulleſt of white tears, very dry, clear, and not ſlinking; which is eaſily ſophiſticated with broken beans, roſin, and gum armoniac.

GALE. A ſea phraſe, for the blowing of the wind; and when it does not blow ſo hard, but a ſhip can carry her top ſails a-trip, that is, hoiſted up to the higheſt, it is called a *loom gale*: when it blows very ſtrong it is called a *ſtiff gale*, or at leaſt a *freſh gale*; but when it blows hard, and violently, that a ſhip cannot bear any ſail, the ſeamen ſay, it blows a *ſtorm*: alſo, when two ſhips are near one another at ſea, and there being but little wind blowing, one feels more of it than the other; they ſay the ſhip *gales* away from the other.

GALE is alſo a term in Ireland, particularly in Dublin, for ſuch ſums of money as are paid in different payments, or diſcharge of any contract, or debt.

GALEASSE. A large, low built, heavy veſſel, uſing both ſails and oars, being the biggeſt of all the veſſels that go with the latter, which were anciently in uſe among the French; but are now only uſed by the Venetians: it may carry 20 guns; with a ſtern, capable of lodging a great number of muſqueteers: it has three maſts; the main, mizzen, and bowſprit, which are never to be taken down, or lowered, as they may be in galleys: it has 32 benches of rowers, and to each bench 5 or 6 ſlaves: and it has 3 tire of guns in the head, one over the other, of 2 guns each, bearing balls of 36, 24, and 10 pounds; though it has but two in the ſtern, each containing 3 guns, carrying balls of 18 pounds.

GALEGA. A plant which grows in rank and moiſt ſoil, cultivated alſo in gardens, and uſed ſucceſsfully for the cure of blotches, peſtilential diſorders, the meaſles, and falling ſickneſs in young perſons under twenty-five, when infuſed into white wine; or by way of decoction in water for the biting of ſerpents, or vermin.

GALEON, *Galleon*, *Gallion*, or *Galloon*, formerly denoted a large veſſel, or ſhip of war, of three decks; but is now only uſed in ſpeaking of the Spaniſh fleet; the galleons being a part of the ſhips employed in the commerce of the West Indies, where the Spaniſh annually ſend two fleets; the one for Mexico, which they call the flota; and the other for Peru, which they call the galleons. See *Fleta*.

The galleons are eight in number; the principal whereof are the Capitano, the Amirante, il Governo, the Patache and Marguarita, of 50 pieces of braſs cannon; by which there is a Patache of advice. Theſe are all ſhips of war, and go on the King's account; but are ſo loaded and embarraſſed with merchandiſes, that, in caſe of attack, they would find it difficult to render themſelves defen-

defenſible: however, beſides the royal galeons, there are uſually 12 or 16 merchant-ſhips, called *regiſter-ſhips*, belonging to private perſons, who obtain leave for the ſame, or rather purchaſe it; there being no Weſt India company in Spain. See *Regiſter-ſhips*.

The galeons are loaded at Cadiz, from whence they may put out at any time; and they are about two years in completing their voyage. Their departure is uſually ſome months before that of the flota, which cannot put out before Auguſt on account of the wind: but when they put out together, they ſeparate about the Antilles iſlands; the galeons for Carthagena, and Porto Bello; and the flota for Vera Cruz; though, on their return, they rejoin at the Havanna, in the iſle of Cuba.

The loading of the galeons is always the richeſt; which is evident from the following eſtimate of the yearly returns, or cargoes, both of the flota and galeons.

Of gold, the galeons bring yearly about 2 or 3 millions of crowns, and the flota about one. Of ſilver, the galeons bring 18 or 20 thouſand crowns, and the flota 10 or 12. Of precious ſtones, the galeons bring as follow; to the value of 200,000 crowns in pearls; of 2 or 300,000 crowns in emeralds; and of 20 or 30,000 crowns in bezoards, amythiſts, and other ſtones of inferior value: but the flota brings none at all. Of wools, the galeons bring to the value of 40 or 50,000 crowns, and the flota none. Of quinquina, the galeons bring to the value of 20,000 crowns; the flota none. Of ſkins and leathers, the galeons bring to the value of 70,000 crowns; the flota as much. Of Campeche wood, the galeons bring to the value of 60,000 crowns; the flota none. Of ſkins and leathers from Buenos-Ayres, the regiſter ſhips bring to the value of about 200,000 crowns; of cochineel, about a million of crowns; and of indigo about 600,000 crowns: the whole commerce of the Indies generally amounting to the value of about 6,070,000 crowns a year, or 1,517,500 l. ſterling. See *Regiſter-ſhips*.

This trade is under the regulation of the council of commerce for the Indies, who have provided excellent laws for its ſecurity; among which are the following.

1. No ſhips are permitted to go to any of the Spaniſh dominions in America, without a ſpecial licence granted by the King; which licences are iſſued by the council of commerce at Seville.

2. No foreigner can be permitted to go to the Spaniſh dominions in America in any licenſed ſhip, on any terms whatever, either to ſettle or trade there, Iriſhmen only excepted, and they muſt be all Roman catholics.

3. No perſon, not even a native Spaniard, is allowed to go to the Spaniſh Weſt Indies without ſpecial licence from the council of commerce.

This council regulates the time the ſeveral fleets of ſhips are to ſail, to what places, and when they ſhall be obliged to come away: they alſo limit the number of ſhips, and the quantity of goods, as the latter ſhould not exceed the demand, and glut the markets. See *Spain*.

GALEOT, or *Galliot*, is a ſmall galley, or a ſort of brigantine, built very ſlightly, and deſigned for chaſe, having but one maſt, with 16 or 20 oars; ſo that theſe veſſels can both ſail and row: they uſually carry 2 or 3 pedreroes, and are employed in the Spaniſh ſervice, to cruiſe againſt the piratical rovers of Barbary; each ſeaman acting as a ſoldier, having a muſket lying by him, to uſe upon quitting his oar.

GALET, is a French term for a cryſtal, found in ſome pebbles on the coaſt of Normandy; particularly near Harfleur.

GALL, or *St. Gall*, a town of Switzerland, in the territory of Turgow, 5 miles W. of the lake of Conſtance, and adjoining to the Abbey; but has now no dependance on it, the town having purchaſed the ſovereignty of the abbot: ſo that it is at preſent a republic, though no territory belongs to it, becauſe the abbot is ſovereign of the adjacent country.

The legiſlative power of this city is lodged in two councils; and it is computed that the inhabitants amount to 10,000 ſouls, who are moſt of them employed in the linen manufacture; the neighbouring country furniſhing them with great quantities of the beſt flax, out of which they annually make upwards of 40,000 pieces of linen, of 200 ells each, and are ſo much enriched by exporting it, that the town is reputed one of the moſt opulent places in Switzerland: but, for a further deſcription of their trading intereſt, ſee the general article of *Switzerland*.

GALL, that yellow bitter humour, commonly called bile, ſecreted from the blood in the glands of the liver, depoſited in a peculiar reſervoir, called the gall-bladder, or by way of emphaſis, the gall, which of many creatures, ſerves for various uſes; eſpecially ſheep and ox galls, for waſhing, and cleanſing the greaſe out of woollen cloths, or ſtuffs.

GALLERY, in a ſhip, is a kind of balcony, made upon the ſtern, without board, into which there is a paſſage out of the great cabbin: but thoſe galleries are for ornament, and the captain's pleaſure, rather than any other benefit; for in ſhips of war, all open galleries of this kind are to be avoided; in regard of the facility an enemy would have for entrance, and boarding of the ſhip that way.

GALLEY. A low built veſſel, going both with oars and ſails, chiefly uſed by the ſtates bordering on the Mediterranean: having uſually from 25 to 30 benches of oars, on each ſide, and 4 or 5 galley-ſlaves to each bench.

The galley carries a large gun, called the courſer; two baſtard pieces, and two ſmall pieces; being generally from 20 to 22 fathoms long, three broad, and one deep; having a main-maſt, and a fore-maſt, with two latin or ſquare ſails, which may be ſtruck or lowered at pleaſure.

All the galleys, both ancient and modern, are of a finer and ſlenderer make than ſhips: they were formerly of ſeveral kinds; but at preſent they are all alike: all the difference between them is only as to ſize, and nothing as to figure; their general uſe being for cruizing along the coaſts; though ſometimes they croſs the ſea.

The French monarch keeps up 40 galleys for the uſe of the Mediterranean, the arſenal thereof being at Marſeilles: and the general of the galleys bears a double anchor, placed in pale, behind the eſcutcheon of his arms, as a mark of his authority. The Spaniards have ſix galleys, which are ſtationed at Carthagena: the King of Sardinia has ſome galleys at Villa Franca: his Sicilian Majeſty has ſome at Naples: the Grand Duke of Tuſcany keeps ſome at Leghorn: there are ſome at Malta: and there are alſo a few at Genoa; all of which are principally maintained to prevent the depredations of the corſairs of Barbary.

Captain GALLEY, is the principal galley of a ſtate, commanded by the captain-general of the galleys: but, in France the royal galley is the firſt.

Patroon-GALLEY, denotes the ſecond galley, both of France, Tuſcany, and Malta; the ſecond general of the galleys being on board the royal galley, and the lieutenant on the patroon: but the terms peculiar to galleys are very numerous, and make a new ſyſtem of ſea-language, different from that uſed in ſhips.

Condemnation to the GALLEYS, is a penalty impoſed on criminals and delinquents, particularly in France, whereby they are adjudged to ſerve the King, or ſtate, as ſlaves, on board the galleys, either during life, or for a limited time; and if the former, the ſentence imports confiſcation of lands and goods: for, in France, he that confiſcates the perſon confiſcates the goods: ſo that a man condemned to the galleys for perpetuity is dead in a civil ſenſe; he cannot diſpoſe of any of his effects, nor can he inherit; and if he is married, the marriage is null, nor can his widow have any of her dower out of his effects.

By an ordinance of Charles IX. King of France, in 1564, the judges were enjoined not to condemn a criminal to the galleys for leſs than ten years: and Henry III. by another of 1579, enjoins the captains not to detain their galley-ſlaves after their time is expired: but both theſe laws are now entirely diſregarded.

The galley-ſlaves at Marſeilles are employed in the manufacture of rigging and ſail-cloth, under proper precautions to keep them ſafe while they are at work; for which they have a trifling gratification, over and above their ordinary allowance, as an encouragement for them to bear the fatigue.

GALLIPAGO *Iſlands*, are ſituated in the Pacific ocean, on both

both ſides of the equator, between 85 and 90 degrees of weſtern longitude, about 400 miles W. of Cape Lorenzo on the coaſt of Peru. They are eleven in number; thoſe on the north-ſide the line being called Lord Culpeper's iſland, Lord Wamman's iſland, Abington's iſland, Bindloes's iſland, and Eure's iſland; and thoſe on the ſouth-ſide the line are called Narborough iſland, Redondo iſland, Daſſigney's iſland, Duke of Norfolk's iſland, King Charles's iſland, and the iſland of St. Maria de la Aguada: they are frequently viſited by ſuch ſhipping as want refitment, water, or freſh proviſions; but the Spaniards have neglected to ſend any colonies hither, and they are too remotely ſituated from any other nation to turn to any account.

GALLIPOLI. A port-town of European Turky, in the province of Romania, or Thrace, ſituated at the entrance of the Propontis, or ſea of Marmora, 25 miles N. E. of the ſtreights of the Helleſpont, or Dardanels, and 100 miles S. W. of Conſtantinople, lying in 28 deg. of E. lon. and 40 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. There are two harbours for the reception of galleys, but they will not admit of large ſhips: it is computed that the inhabitants conſiſt of 10,000 Turks, and 4000 Chriſtians, beſides a conſiderable number of Jews; and this was the firſt town the Turks poſſeſſed themſelves of in Europe.

GALLIPOLI, is alſo a port town of Italy, in the province of Otranto, within the kingdom of Naples, ſituated on the gulph of Otranto, and 23 miles W. of the city of Otranto; lying in 19 deg. of E. lon. and 40 deg. 25 min. of N. lat.

GALLIUM. A plant, both white and yellow, growing in meadows and about hedges, reputed good for ſtopping the bleeding of the noſe, by blowing into it ſome of its powder; both kinds are alſo eſteemed excellent againſt the falling ſickneſs, either infuſed over night in good white wine, or the quantity of a drachm being taken in powder; or by way of decoction, by putting a handful in a pint of water.

GALLO. A ſilver coin of the kingdom of Cambodia, in the Eaſt Indies, worth about 10 d. ſterling.

GALLO. An iſland in the Pacific ocean, near the coaſt of Peru, 200 miles W. of Popayan, ſituated in 80 deg. of W. lon. and in 2 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. which was the firſt place the Spaniards poſſeſſed themſelves of when they attempted the conqueſt of Peru; and, as there are ſome good harbours in the iſland, with wood and water, the buccaneers uſed to put in here to refit.

GALLO, or *Punto Gallo*, is a ſea-port town and fort, on the S. W. part of the iſland of Ceylon, in the Eaſt Indies, ſubject to the Dutch; and ſituated in 78 deg. of E. lon. and 6 deg. of N. lat. See *Ceylon*.

GALLOCHES. A ſort of leather clogs that cover good part of the ſhoes, particularly at and about the toes.

GALLON. An Engliſh meaſure, for things both liquid and dry, containing 2 pottles, or 4 quarts, or 8 pints: but thoſe quarts, and pints, and conſequently the gallon itſelf, are different, according to the quality of things meaſured: the wine gallon, for inſtance, contains 231 cubic inches, and holds 8 lb. avoirdupoiſe, of pure water, purſuant to acts of parliament made in the 5th, 6th, and 7th years of the reign of Queen Anne. The beer and ale gallon contains 282 ſolid inches; and the gallon for grain, meals, and ſuch things, 272 inches, holding 9 lb. 13 oz. of pure water. The gallon of wheat is to contain 8 lb. troy weight, by 31ſt Edw. I. 11th Hen. VII. and 12th Hen. VII.

GALLON is alſo, in ſome parts of France, particularly in Normandy, a liquid meaſure containing 2 pots, or the half of a ſeptier. This gallon is not much different from that of England, and in all probability it paſſed from Normandy with William the Conqueror.

GALLOON, in commerce, a thick, narrow kind of ferret, ribband, or lace, uſed to edge or border cloths; the term being commonly underſtood of that made of woollen; ſometimes that of thread, or even gold, or ſilver.

GALLOWAY. The capital of the county of Galloway, and province of Connaught, in Ireland, ſituated on the bay of Galloway, in the weſtern ocean, 110 miles W. of Dublin; a good port, advantageouſly ſituated for a foreign trade, and lying in 9 deg. 12 min. of W. lon. and 53 deg. 12 min. of N. lat.

GALLS, or *Gall nuts*, in natural hiſtory, a kind of morbid tumours, or excreſcences, found on ſeveral maſt-bearing vegetables, as the oak and willow, in form of balls, cones, or little apples, ſometimes ſolid, and ſometimes perforated; which are occaſioned by the eggs of inſects hatched therein.

Aleppo GALLS, are a particular kind, uſed in dying, making of ink, and other things, which are produced on the hardeſt ſpecies of oak, called *quercus gallam ferens*; thoſe on the other oaks being leſs fit for that purpoſe. They are hard as ſhells; and yet are no other than the cafes of the inſects hatched there, which, when come to maturity, gnaw their way out: but there are three ſorts of thoſe galls; the firſt being blackiſh; the ſecond bordering upon green; and the third whitiſh: the dyers uſing them all according to their reſpective qualities; the green and black ſerving to dye in black; and the white for linens; though the black and green are thoſe only uſed in making of ink. The Engliſh and Dutch import annually from Aleppo 10,000 quintals of galls: but the Turks have likewiſe a kind of ruddy gall, of the ſize of a ſmall nut, which they mix with cochineel, and tartar, for the dying of ſcarlet.

GAMBIA. A great river of Africa, which, running from eaſt to weſt, falls into the Atlantic ocean in 14 deg. of N. lat. and 15 deg. of W. lon. ſuppoſed to be a branch of the river Niger; and is navigable for ſloops above 600 miles, according to the account of ſome Engliſh factors, who have ineffectually gone up it ſo far in hopes of a diſcovery of gold mines. See *Niger*.

James iſland, once the principal ſettlement of the Engliſh African company, lies 10 leagues up this river, almoſt in the middle of it, being 3 miles from the neareſt ſhore: nor is the iſland leſs than a mile in circumference; where the company have a fort mounted with cannon, and a ſmall garriſon, which preſerves their right of trading in the river, where they have alſo factors on either ſhore for ſeveral hundred miles up the river. See *African* company, and *Guinea*.

GAMBOGE, or *Gum-gutta*, is a reſinous gum brought from the kingdom of Siam, in large pieces faſhioned like ſauſages, hard, brittle, and very yellow: it oozes from inciſions made in a kind of prickly ſhrub, which climbs up the neighbouring trees. In medicine it purges violently both upwards and downwards: it is particularly uſed in dropſies, and the itch; but is dangerous. It ſerves alſo to make a yellow colour for painting in miniature.

GAMELO. A name whereby the Indians call the copivi balſam. See *Copivi*.

GAMMON. The thigh, or ham, particularly of a hog, which is a conſiderable article in commerce. See *Ham*.

GAMUTO. A kind of hemp, extracted from the heart of ſome palm trees in the Eaſt Indies, and ſerving for cordage; but it is not durable in the water. It is found chiefly in the Philippines, where the cords manufactured of it make a part of the commerce of the iſlanders, either with the Spaniards who poſſeſs ſeveral of theſe iſlands; or with other Europeans who frequent ſome of the more diſtant; particularly the Dutch, who export great quantities of them from Mindanao.

GANDIA. A port-town of the province of Valencia in Spain, lying on the coaſt of the Mediterranean, 25 miles S. of Valencia, ſituated in 20 min. of W. lon. and 38 deg. 5 min. of N. lat. See *Spain*.

GANG, in the ſea-language, ſignifies a crew; and to man a boat, is called to put a gang of men, which is a company, into her: but they are commonly called the coxſwain's gang, who has charge of the boat.

GANG-*way*, is applied to all the ſeveral entrances, ways or paſſages, from one part of the ſhip to the other; and whatſoever is put in one of theſe paſſages, is ſaid to be laid, or put in the gang-way.

GANGES. A river of the Hither India in Aſia, riſing in the mountains which ſeparate India from Tartary, and running from the N. W. to the S. W. for the ſpace of near

1500 miles through the dominions of the Great Mogul, discharging itself, by several channels, into the bay of Bengal.

This river is in great esteem in India, not only on account of the long course it runs, the depth of its several channels, and the pureness of its stream, but from the sanctity which the natives believe to be in the waters. It is visited annually by several hundred thousands of pilgrims, who pay their devotions to this river as a god; carrying their dying friends from distant countries, to expire on its banks; and, as soon as they die, heave them into the middle of the river. The water is lowest in April, or May; but, the rains beginning to fall soon after, the flat country is overflowed for several miles before the end of September, when the waters begin to retire, but leave a prolific mud behind, which makes Bengal the most fruitful province of India, for all kinds of grain. These waters keep better at sea than any other, except the Thames. The spring tides rise usually about ten feet here; but there have been terrible inundations and storms of late years, in which the towns near the shore suffered much, and the ships in the river were some of them cast away; for there are no safe harbours upon the east coast of India; therefore, when the monsoons, or stormy season, is expected, which is about the autumnal equinox, the shipping on the coast sail up the Ganges for their security. The Europeans use the most westerly branch of the Ganges, where the English have some settlements, particularly at Fort William and Huegly.

ANTAN, or *Grantan*. A weight used at Bantam, one of the capitals of the island of Java, and in some other parts of the East Indies, being about three pounds avoirdupois.

ANZAS. A coin of tin and copper, struck in the kingdom of Pegu; but not in a royal mint, each person being at full liberty to coin them, on paying the King's duties. There are some profits to be made by this coin, by staying for some time in Pegu, where the payments of gold, silver, spice, pearls, and other rich merchandise, are usually made in ganzas, which raises their price in the time of these payments. Their value is not fixed, but usually they are worth about 1 d. or $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. sterling: there are also half and quarter ganzas rated in proportion.

ARAS. A coarse white cotton cloth, brought from the East Indies, particularly Surat; the pieces being from 9 ells $\frac{2}{3}$, to 14 ells and a half long, and $\frac{7}{8}$ broad.

ARBLE, or *Garbling*, of spices, drugs, and other groceries, is the cleansing them from the dross and dust mixed therewith, and separating the good from the bad, according to the qualities of the several commodities.

ARBLER *of spices*, is an officer of great antiquity in the city of London, who is empowered to enter any shop, or warehouse, to view and search the drugs, spices, and other commodities; as also to garble, and cleanse them; which was an office granted by King Henry VI. to the Lord Mayor, Aldermen, and commonalty of London, with the advice of the merchants, as well as the grocers, for the conceiving and creating of such ordinances therein, as might be most conducive to the benefit of the merchant, the uttering and sale of the grocer, and the goodness of the commodity garbled, for the health of the people in general.

The garbler, after sorting and dividing the good from the bad commodities, was to seal them up, and to tare all such casks, hogsheads, barrels, bags, and other measures, wherein such spices, drugs, and merchandises were brought, truly, justly, and indifferently, between buyer and seller; and therefore, the workmen and labourers belonging to the garbler, were formerly swore to a faithful and honest discharge of their duty.

The garbler was also to keep all wet and defective commodities apart, without any mixture of good and bad; and, after they were sufficiently garbled, he was to seal them with a cross-bar; thereby to distinguish the good and merchantable commodities from such as were defective and unmarketable, which the buyer might readily observe by looking upon the seal. The garbler was likewise to give licence to any person to buy spices garbleable: but to licence one and not another, or to carry the same from place to place ungarbled, was unlawful; so it was to take money of merchants before their goods were garbled, or to take more money of one than another, or to take more for his fees than was limited by the acts of the common council: for the rates of the office of garbling were established by several acts of common council, at the first institution of the office; and the table of fees hung up in Guildhall, in public view, that all persons concerned might take notice thereof; which accustomed rates of all spices and drugs garbleable were as follow.

	s.	d.	
Pepper, not exceeding 200 and three quarters	2	0	*per* bag.
Ditto, exceeding 300	2	6	
Cloves	0	2	*per* lb.
Wormseed	0	2	
Tobacco	0	4	
Mace	4	0	*per* 100 wt.
Nutmegs	3	6	
Cinnamon	2	8	
Ginger	1	0	
Annifeeds	0	8	
Cummin seeds	0	8	
Coriander seeds	0	8	
Carroway seeds	0	8	
Fennell seeds	0	8	
Almonds	0	8	
Rice	0	8	
Dates	0	8	
Onion seeds	0	8	
French barley	0	8	
Galls	0	8	
Indigo	0	4	
Argal	0	6	
Licorice	0	3	
Saunders	0	3	
Long pepper	2	8	
Spignal	2	0	
Gallingal	0	8	
Turmerick	1	4	
Setwel	1	0	
Cassia fistula	2	8	
Guinea pepper	4	0	
Senna	4	0	
Bayberries	0	8	
Erius	1	0	
Stavesacre	0	8	
Calamus	1	6	
Fenugreek	0	8	
Cassia lignum	2	8	
Grains	0	8	
Mastic	1	6	
Frankincense	1	0	
Gum arabic	1	0	
Rhubarb	1	0	
Scamony	1	0	
Olibanum	1	0	
Hermidacles	1	6	
Gum-lack	1	0	
Sal armoniac	1	6	

GARBLES. The dust, soil, or filth, separated from good spice, drugs, or other groceries.

GARBOARD-*plank*. The first plank of a ship that is fastened to her keel on the outside.

GARBOARD-*strake*. That seam in a ship which is next her keel.

GARDENER. A person employed in gardening; which is a healthful, laborious, ingenious, and profitable business; particularly about London, where the skill lies in bringing the best and earliest garden products to market.

GARDENERS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 14th of James I. dated the 9th of November 1616, by the title of The master, wardens, assistants, and commonalty of the company of gardeners of London; who are governed by a master, two wardens, and 18 assistants; but have neither hall or livery.

GARI. A kind of money of accompt used in several parts of the East Indies, particularly in the Mogul's territories: a gari of rupees being 4000, or about 500 l. sterl. See *Rupee*.

GARLAND, in a ſhip, denotes a collar of ropes, wound about the head of the main-maſt, to keep the ſhrouds from galling.

GARLICK. A ſtrong ſcented hot plant, like an onion, but ſtronger; uſed in ſauces, and on other occaſions.

GARNET. See *Granate.*

GARNET. The tackle with which goods are hoiſted into and out of a ſhip.

GARONNE. A river of France, which riſes in the Pyrenean mountains, and, running north-weſt, paſſes by the city of Tholouſe; then, continuing the ſame courſe, divides the provinces of Guienne and Gaſcony; and, after viſiting Bourdeaux, diſcharges itſelf into the bay of Biſcay, about 60 miles below that city; having received the river Dordonne, and ſeveral others in its paſſage. The uſual tides come up the Garonne, 20 miles above Bourdeaux; and this river has alſo a communication with the Mediterranean ſea by the royal canal made by Lewis XIV.

GAUDIVIS. A white cotton cloth brought from the Eaſt Indies, being a kind of baffeta, but narrower, and not ſo fine. See *Baffetas.*

GAUGER. An officer of the exciſe, appointed by the commiſſioners to gauge, or meaſure all caſks, tuns, pipes, barrels, hogſheads of beer, wine, oil, or exciſeable commodities; and to give them a mark of allowance, which is a circle burnt with an iron, before they are ſold in any place within the extent of this office. See *Exciſe.*

GAUGING, is the art or act of meaſuring the capacities, or contents of all kinds of veſſels; and determining the quantity of fluids, or other matters contained therein; which is properly the art of reducing the unknown capacity of veſſels of ſeveral forms, cubical, parallelepepedal, cylindrical, ſpheroidal, or conical, to ſome known cubic meaſure; and of computing, for inſtance, how many gallons, quarts, pints, or the like, of ale, beer, wine, brandy, or any other liquor, are contained therein: this being a branch of ſtereometry; and the principal veſſels that come under its operation are pipes, barrels, rundlets, and other caſks; as alſo backs, coolers, fats, and other large veſſels. All the varieties whereof caſks are capable lie between the $\frac{5}{10}$ and $\frac{7}{10}$ of the difference between the bung and the head diameters; ſo that all the gauger has to do, is to take ſuch a part of the difference between theſe two diameters as he thinks beſt for the curvature of the caſk; which added to the head diameter, gives the diameter of the mean cylinder. However, the buſineſs of gauging is very uncertain: though it comes near enough the truth for the purpoſes of common life. In Spain there are officers for gauging of ſhips, who are to take their dimenſions for calculating their tonnage and freight.

The laws of England relating to gauging are thoſe of the 27th and 31ſt of Edward III. the 4th of Richard II. the 18th of Henry VI. the 4th of Richard III. the 28th of Henry VIII. and the 31ſt of Elizabeth; whereby all wines imported for ſale are to be gauged, upon forfeiture of the goods; the contents of the veſſels are aſcertained; as alſo what other liquors are ſubject to gauge, and how it is to be taken. See *Meaſure.*

GAURIES. A people diſperſed all over India and Perſia, who pretend to be deſcended from the ancient Perſians, tho' they differ from the modern in ſeveral material articles: but, as their employment is only huſbandry, they are no ways conſiderable, either as promoters of trade, or members of ſociety.

GAUS. A kind of copper drums made in China, being a part of the cargoes of ſuch ſhips as go from Canton to Siam.

GAUT. A kind of buſhel, uſed by the Moors in ſome places of the coaſts of Barbary, particularly among the Anledalis, a tribe of Moors, not far diſtant from the Baſtion of France; thirty of which are about 20 buſhels Wincheſter meaſure.

GAUZE, in commerce, a very thin, ſlight, tranſparent kind of ſtuff, wove ſometimes of ſilk, and ſometimes only of thread: but there are alſo figured gauzes; and ſome of them with flowers of gold and ſilver, on a ſilk ground, which are principally brought from China, and ſeveral parts of the Eaſt Indies. The pieces are uſually 19 or 20 ells long; and thoſe from China ſometimes 11 ells long and $\frac{2}{3}$ broad: their chief uſe being for women's ornaments.

GAYOC. See *Guaiacum.*

GAZANA, or *Gaſava.* A term for one of the different kinds of rupees current in the Mogul's territories, particularly at Amadabat, being worth about 2 s. 6 d. ſterling.

GAZE. A ſmall copper coin, current in Perſia, worth about $\frac{1}{6}$ d. ſterling.

GAZUL. An Egyptian weed, uſed as the principal ingredient in making the fineſt glaſſes.

GE, or *Je.* A long indian meaſure uſed in the Mogul's territories; which is not a real meaſure, but a meaſure of accompt, making about 40 Engliſh ells.

GEAILOYE. A ſort of liquid meaſure uſed in ſome provinces of France; but different according to the place. The largeſt contains 16 pints, the middleſt 12, and the ſmalleſt 8.

GEDENG. An Indian meaſure for pepper, containing about 4 lb. avoirdupois.

GEET. A river of the Auſtrian Netherlands, which riſes in the S. E. part of Brabant, and runs north near the confines of Liege; after which, paſſing by Lande and Leaw, it falls into the Demer a little below Halen.

GELLY. See *Size.*

GEM, or *Gemm.* A common name for all precious ſtones, or jewels; among which the principal are the diamond, ruby, ſapphire, jacinth, emerald, topaz, amethyſt, granate, jaſper, onyx, turcoiſe, opal, agate, cryſtal, porphyry, and marble.

Pearls are alſo ranked among gems, though not ſtones: for a deſcription whereof, ſee each under its proper article; as alſo the article of *Precious ſtones.*

Several authors, both ancient and modern, relate wonders of the virtues and medicinal properties of gems: but their reputation, in this reſpect, is greatly diminiſhed, and many even deny them any virtue at all; which occaſioned Mr. Boyle to write a treatiſe on the origin and virtues of gems, the purport whereof is to make appear, that ſuch ſtones were originally in a fluid ſtate, or made up of ſuch ſubſtances as were formerly fluid; and that many of their general virtues are probably derived from the mixture of metalline, and other mineral ſubſtances uſually incorporated with them, while the great variety, and the particular efficacy of their virtues ariſe from ſome happy concurrent circumſtances of the peculiar nature of the impregnating liquor, and the proportion wherein it is mixed with the petreſcent juice.

The knowledge of gems depends upon two principal things; their hardneſs and their colour: the diamond is the hardeſt of all; and in point of colour the diamond is valued for its tranſparency, the ruby for its purple, the ſapphire for its blue, the emerald for its green, the jacinth for its orange, the amethyſt for its carnation, the onyx for its tawny; the jaſper, agate, and porphyry, for their vermillion, green, and variegated colours, and the granate for its blood-red: all of which, by the ſtatute of the 5th of Geo. II. are to paſs inwards and outwards, without warrant or fee; and may be imported or exported in any ſhip or veſſel.

Mr. Boyle ſays, that upon knowing the different methods of producing the adventitious colours of metals and minerals in bodies capable of vitrification, depends the art of making counterfeit gems: for whilſt pure ſand, or calcined cryſtal, gives the body in their preparation, it is for the moſt part, ſome metalline or mineral calx, mixed in a ſmall proportion with it, that gives the colour.

GEMMÆ, *Sal-Gem*, or *Sal Gemmæ*, is a term for the rock ſalt, extracted from pits, and mines of ſalt, being derived from the Latin word *gemma*, which ſignifies a precious ſtone; becauſe this kind of rock-ſalt is uſually tranſparent and brilliant, like rock cryſtal, which is ranked among precious ſtones.

The mines where the greateſt quantity and beſt kind of ſal-gem is found, are thoſe of Wiliſca in Poland, Eperies in Upper Hungary, and Cardonna in the principality of Catalonia in Spain.

The greateſt uſe of this ſalt is for pickling, in thoſe places where there is no other kind of ſalt; but dyers alſo conſume great quantities of it. See *Salt.*

NEQUIN, or *Cotton Genequin*, is a kind of ſpun cotton, eſteemed but little, as having no conſiderable vent.

NERAL, in one ſenſe, ſignifies common, frequent, nd univerſal; in which light is to be underſtood a general ourt among trading companies: but general, in another enſe, implies various, of all ſorts or kinds; in which ght is to be underſtood what is called the general fund. ee General *Court*, and General *Fund*.

NEVA. A republic in alliance with Switzerland, con- ining a ſmall territory divided into eleven pariſhes, ex- luſive of the city of Geneva, the capital of the re- ublic, ſituated near the confines of France, Savoy, and witzerland, on the river Rhone, at the weſt end of the Leman lake, or lake of Geneva, 70 miles S. W. of Bern, 45 N. of Chamberry, and 60 N. W. of Lyons; ying in 6 deg. of E. lon. and 46 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. This city is ſurrounded with a wall, and other fortifica- ions, about 2 miles in circumference; being tolerably ell built, but moſt admired for its ſituation on the lake nd river. The inhabitants are computed to amount to 0,000; but they are not in the greateſt ſecurity from heir potent neighbours of France and Savoy, whoſe erritories come up to their very walls, and whoſe princes nake ſome pretenſions to the dominions of this republic, which is protected by its allies, the cantons of Friburg, Bern, and Zurich, againſt the attacks of both.

This city was the reſidence of Calvin, and is now the reat reſort of the calviniſts from France, and other na- ons, for education: for the ſake of which religion the Geneveſe expelled their biſhop, in the year 1553, who as their ſovereign at that time, and erected a republic, lacing the legiſlative authority in a council of 200, and ſenate of 25, who have the executive power or admi- iſtration of the government.

The language of the common people is the Savoyard, or very bad dialect of the French tongue; though people f condition ſpeak French in greater purity: they have an niverſity, and carry on a conſiderable foreign trade; heir principal manufactures being gold and ſilver lace, lks, books, piſtols, watches, and ſhammy leather; for more particular account whereof, ſee the general article f *Switzerland*.

NEVA, is alſo a popular name for a compounded water, rocured from the berries of the juniper-tree, diſtilled ith brandy or malt-ſpirits, which is more commonly alled gin.

The foundation, or principal ingredient of this liquor, is ure malt ſpirit, which is made by the malt-diſtillers; han which no liquor of equal ſtrength is reputed to be more wholeſome: ſuch ſpirits they ſell to the rectifiers or ompound diſtillers, and ſeldom or ever trade with any ther people: thoſe rectifiers infuſe the juniper-berry, nd the other ingredients, that conſtitute gin for common le, which they diſpoſe of to the retailers. See *Diſtiller*.

The Britiſh diſtillery annually conſumes ſeveral hundred houſand quarters of corn in this branch of buſineſs, to the reat benefit of the landed intereſt, and to the ſupport of he government, by the duties laid upon the liquor: but he frequent uſe of it among the inferior people was ſo rejudicial to the general part of the community, as to all for the interpoſition of the legiſlature, who paſſed ſe- eral acts of parliament to prevent the pernicious conſe- uences reſulting from the unlimited exerciſe of this in- reaſing evil; which are mentioned, together with ſeve- l other material circumſtances relating to this trade, nder the articles of *Spirituous* Liquors, and *Diſtillery*.

of GENEVA. See *Leman* lake.

NOA. An Italian republic, and the capital city be- nging to it; to which the iſland and the kingdom of orſica is ſubject. See *Italy*.

NOUIN. A ſilver coin of Genoa, worth 6 s. 6 d. ſterl.

NTIAN. A medicinal root, the product of a plant of e ſame name; the root being of a yellowiſh colour, and tolerably bitter; ſometimes as thick as the arm, but ore commonly divided into branches no bigger than the umb of a man.

This root is held excellent againſt poiſons, and even gainſt the plague: it ſtands at the head of the ſtomachics, arming and ſtrengthening the ſtomach, and helping digeſtion: it is ſudorific, and uſed with ſucceſs in inter- mitting fevers, whence ſome call it the European quina- quina: it is alſo an ingredient in treacle: and is externally app'ied to wounds.

The plant affects moſt places, being found commonly enough in Burgundy, the Alps, and Pyreneans, where it is called by botaniſts, *gentiana vulgaris major*, *ellebori albi folio*; but the gentians growing in England are rather gentianellæ.

The root ſhould be choſen dry, new, of a moderate thick- neſs, free from earth, and furniſhed with five little branches or fibres: but that which is dried by the air ought to be held as far preferable to that dried in the oven, which are eaſily diſtinguiſhed by the colour; the former being of a golden yellow within ſide, and the latter ſomewhat blackiſh.

GENTIAN-*water*. See the general article of *Water*.

GEOGRAPHY. The deſcription of the ſurface of the natural terraqueous globe, conſiſting of earth and water, which is repreſented by the artificial globe. See *Globe* and *Earth*, *Sea* and *Ocean*.

General, or univerſal GEOGRAPHY, is that which conſiders the earth in general, without any regard to particular countries.

Special, or particular GEOGRAPHY, is that which conſiders the conſtitution of the ſeveral regions or countries; their bounds, figure, &c. with the mountains, foreſts, mines, waters, plants, animals, &c. therein; as alſo their climates, ſeaſons, weather, diſtance from the equator, &c. their inhabitants, arts, foods, commodities, cuſtoms, language, religion, policy, cities, &c.

Nera, King of Egypt, ordered the Phænicians to make a ſurvey of the whole coaſt of Africa, which they ac- compliſhed in three years: Darius procured the Ethiopic ſea, and the mouth of the Indies to be ſurveyed. And Pliny relates, that Alexander, in his expedition into Aſia, took two geographers, Diognetus and Bœton, to meaſure and deſcribe the roads; and that from their itineraries the writers of the following ages took many particulars: but the art was very defective among the ancients.

By means of geography, the ſituation of kingdoms, pro- vinces, cities, ſeas, &c. and their reſpective diſtances are known: therefore, this ſcience is abſolutely neceſſary to be known by all merchants, eſpecially thoſe who trade by ſea. If a merchant trades to the Levant, he ought to know exactly the ſituation of all the port-towns of the Mediter- ranean; their diſtance from each other; the ſituation of iſlands, gulphs, ſtreights, and capes; the knowledge of their different ſovereigns, their intereſts, religion, forces, and manners; without all which he is in great danger of taking falſe meaſures.

If a merchant undertakes the commerce of the North, he muſt be acquainted with all the ports of the Northern ocean, and thoſe of the Baltic ſea; the intereſts of the princes to whom they belong; the merchandiſe and ma- nufactures of the country; the weights and meaſures which are uſed; beſides an infinity of other circumſtances. Such examples may ſuffice; and it may be ſaid, with ſome foundation, that geography is indiſpenſibly neceſſary for a merchant to underſtand, as well for the knowledge of trading places, as making aſſurances; as alſo for carrying on the cod, whale, and coral fiſhery; for without this knowledge a merchant is often liable to be deceived by the perſons he confides in; beſides, it is ſhameful for a trader not to ſpeak pertinently of his buſineſs.

ST. GEORGE's *Channel*, is that which ſets from the At- lantic ocean into the Iriſh ſea, ſeparating Pembrokeſhire, and the whole weſtern coaſt of Wales, from the county of Waterford, and the eaſtern part of Ireland as far as Drogheda.

ST. GEORGE *del Mina*. The capital of the Dutch ſettle- ments on the gold coaſt of Guinea, in Africa, lying in 5 deg. of W. lon. and 5 deg. of N. lat. See *Guinea*.

Fort ST. GEORGE. The preſidency of the Engliſh Eaſt India company, on the coaſt of Coromandel, in the Hither India, which is ſituated in 80 deg. of E. lon. and 13 deg. of N. lat. See *India*, and *Madraſs*.

ST. GEORGE's. The largeſt of the Bermuda, or ſummer- iſlands, lying in 65 deg. of W. lon. and 32 deg. 30 min.

of

of N. lat. See *Britiſh* America, under the article of Great *Britain*.

GEORGIA, in Aſia. See *Perſia*, and *Turky*.

GEORGIA, in America. See *Britiſh* America, under the article of Great *Britain*.

GERGENTUM. The antient Agrigentum, a town of Sicily, ſituated in the province of Mazara, on the ſouth ſhore, 55 miles ſouth-eaſt of Palermo, in 13 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 37 deg. 20 min. of N. lat.

GERMANY. The bounds of modern Germany, including Bohemia and Sileſia, are the Baltic ſea, Denmark, and the German ocean, towards the north; Poland and Hungary, on the eaſt; the gulph of Venice, and the Alps, which divide it from Italy, towards the ſouth; and France, and the Low Countries, towards the weſt; extending from 5 deg. to 19 deg. of E. lon. and from 45 to 55 deg. of N. lat. being about 600 miles long from north to ſouth, and 500 broad from eaſt to weſt. The air in the ſouthern provinces is temperate and healthful, and the ſoil extremely fruitful: but towards the north, the cold is very ſevere in winter; the land producing neither wine nor oil, and but moderate crops of grain. The ſeas of Germany are the Baltic, and the German ocean; but the gulph of Venice may alſo now come into the number of the German ſeas, the Empreſs-Queen being in poſſeſſion of the port of Trieſte, and ſome other towns on that ſide, where ſhe has lately attempted to eſtabliſh a trade. The ſea waſhes but a ſmall part of the German ſhores at preſent, though Germany gives name to that ſea; indeed the ſeventeen provinces of the Low Countries were made part of the empire by Charles V. by the name of The circle of Burgundy, and then Germany might be ſaid to have had a pretty large ſea-coaſt; but theſe provinces are now eſteemed no part of the empire.

The principal rivers in Germany are, firſt, the Danube, which is augmented by the Iſer, the Lech, the Regen, the Iſar, the Inn, the Ens, the Rab, the Drave, the Save, and the Teyſſe: beſides theſe, there are ſeveral conſiderable rivers in the Turkiſh provinces, as the Morava, the Alauta, and the Pruth, all which fall into the Danube.

The ſecond great river is the Rhine, which riſes from two ſprings in the Alps, receiving the Neckar, the Maine, and the Moſelle. The third is the Elbe, which riſes near Hirchburg in Sileſia, from eleven ſeveral heads, which, after they are united, run northward between Miſnia and Luſatia into Saxony, receiving the Moldau, Egra, and other rivers. The fourth is the Weſer, which riſes in the mountains of Thuringia.

The Emperors, like other ſovereigns, are the fountains of honour in their dominions; and not only conſtitute Dukes, Marquiſſes, Counts, and the like, but have frequently taken upon them to make Kings. They have not, indeed, the power of making peace and war, or of levying taxes, without the conſent of the electors, and other princes of the empire; neither can they make laws, or ſuſpend them, without the conſent of the diet, or aſſembly of the ſtates: but the hereditary dominions of the houſe of Auſtria are now ſo much enlarged, this family has ſuch a number of profitable poſts and honours at its diſpoſal, that the princes or the empire are very much devoted to it, and ſeldom oppoſe any thing which his Imperial Majeſty propoſes: for, ſince the late acquiſitions in Hungary, the Low Countries, and Italy, the Emperors have made a figure equal almoſt to their greateſt anceſtors.

The next perſon to the Emperor is the King of the Romans, who has little authority but what he derives from the Emperor. In the Emperor's abſence, indeed, he uſually takes upon him the adminiſtration of the government; and, after the Emperor's death, ſucceeds without any further election. The firſt occaſion of electing a King of the Romans, proceeded from a contrivance of ſome Emperors to ſecure the Imperial crown to their own families; they made uſe of their authority while they were in poſſeſſion of the throne, and eaſily influenced the electors to chuſe a ſon, a brother, or ſome other near relation, to be King of the Romans; which is now grown ſo cuſtomary, that the empire ſeems to be entailed on the males of the Auſtrian family, it being much the ſame thing to elect a King of the Romans, or to chuſe an Emperor.

The principal members of the empire, after the King of the Romans, are the nine electors; of whom the three firſt are eccleſiaſtical, namely, the electors of Mentz, Triers, and Cologne, who are alſo arch-chancellors of the empire; the King or Queen of Bohemia, the Duke of Bavaria, the Duke of Saxony, the Marquis of Brandenburgh, the Prince Palatine of the Rhine, and the Duke of Brunſwick.

The right of election is annexed to their electoral principalities and eſtates; and as long as there is any male iſſue in any of the electoral families, the power of electing the Emperor cannot be taken from them, but by the ban of the empire, or a decree of eſtates.

Every elector is ſovereign in his dominions; they make laws, eſtabliſh courts of juſtice, coin money, levy taxes, and make alliances with other princes of the empire, or foreigners, raiſe fortifications, and make war or peace under ſome reſtrictions; but they cannot alter the value of money, or lay new tolls or cuſtoms in their reſpective territories, without the conſent of the diet; neither can they enter into ſuch confederacies as tend to the prejudice of the empire, or are contrary to the fealty they have ſworn to the Emperor; and, if they do, the ſtates of the empire may proceed againſt and diveſt them of their inheritances, and the privileges of electors.

When a general diet, or an aſſembly of the ſtates of the empire, is to be held, the Emperor iſſues out his ſummons to the ſeveral princes, and other members of the diet, acquainting them with the time and place of their ſitting; and they are bound by their allegiance to appear at the day appointed, either in perſon, or by way of proxy. But as the princes of the empire took advantage of the neceſſities, or indulgence of the German Emperors to erect the governments they held in the capacity of viceroys, or governors, into independent principalities; ſo did the cities now called free and imperial. The Emperors frequently wanting ſupplies of money to carry on their wars, and for other occaſions, borrowed large ſums of the wealthy trading towns, and paid them again by munificent grants and privileges; making them free ſtates, and independent of the governors of the province where they ſtood. Accordingly theſe cities exerciſe all kinds of ſovereign power; they make laws, conſtitute courts of juſtice, coin money, raiſe forces, and enter into alliances and confederacies for their defence. They have alſo their ſeats in the diet, only acknowledging the Emperor for their ſupreme lord, and contributing their ſhare towards the common defence of their country.

There are alſo ſeveral cities, which have obtained the name of Hans town, being cities remarkable for their commerce. They were formerly 72 cities; but now are reduced only to Hamburg, Bremen, Lubeck, and Dantzic. See *Hans* towns.

Hamburg, is an imperial city, or ſovereign ſtate, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and duchy of Holſtein. It is built partly on iſlands, and partly on the continent, on the north-ſide of the river Elbe; being ſituated in 9 deg. min. of E. lon. and 54 deg. of N. lat. 40 miles S. W. of Lubeck, 55 N. E. of Bremen, and about 73 S. E. of the German ocean, where it receives the Elbe. The territory ſubject to it is ſmall: but there are ſeveral large villages, and noblemen's ſeats in it; beſides, there are ſeveral little iſlands in the Elbe ſubject to the Hamburghers. This city is large and populous; but lies ſo low, that in ſome ſpring-tides they receive great damage in their houſes, to whoſe doors the ſhips can come up, to deliver or take in their lading; the tide flows 16 miles above the city; but there is a ſand-bank about four miles below it, which ſomewhat impedes the navigation of large ſhips, who are obliged to come to anchor at a place called New Mills, and unlade their merchandiſe into ſmaller veſſels. They have plenty of all kinds of proviſions, which are either brought down their rivers from the interior parts of Germany, or imported from abroad; their markets being well ſtored with ſea and river fiſh, as alſo with garden-ſtuff. There are five churches in the city, and ſeveral well-endowed hoſpitals and

e foundations, particularly one for diſabled ſeamen their families. The eſtabliſhed religion is Luthe-iſm; and they were formerly ſo much bigotted to ir religious opinions, as to tolerate no other ſect, ether Popiſh or Proteſtant, except in the chapels of eign miniſters; but the Engliſh being firſt indulged the exerciſe of their public worſhip, the Dutch and er nations have been favoured in like manner.

e magiſtrates of Hamburg are, 4 burgomaſters, 20 epins or aldermen, choſen out of the moſt conſider-e merchants or tradeſmen; 12 common council men, enators, who not only conſtantly attend the ſervice the city, but upon extraordinary occaſions aſſemble more of the principal citizens, called burger alten, or ers of the city; and if the caſe is very important, the ole body of freemen are aſſembled, in whom ſeems to the laſt reſort. But this has been frequently diſputed; ſenate pretending, that though the freemen are called advise with upon extraordinary occaſions, their ſupe-rs only have the power of determining what ought to done; and theſe controverſies have ſometimes roſe high, that the Emperor has been obliged to take cogni-ce of them, and command the forces of the circle to rch into the city, and preſerve its tranquillity.

owever, the King of Denmark, as Duke of Holſtein, ſometimes laid claim to the dominion of this city; rticularly in the year 1724, when his Daniſh Majeſty ived this claim, and called Hamburg his hereditary y; which the Hamburghers denied. Indeed the Danes once pretenſions to this city; but now they have none. oldemar, Duke of Sleſwick, by the aſſiſtance of his other Canutus VI. King of Denmark, took this city from e Emperor Otho IV. and Woldemar being afterwards anced to the Daniſh crown, transferred the ſovereignty Hamburgh to Albrecht Earl of Ortemund, who aſ-ned his right to the citizens in conſideration of 1500 arks of ſilver, or 112l. 10s. ſterling; whereby the y became a free and independent ſtate. Adolph IV. arl of Holſtein, confirmed their rights and privileges, his ſucceſſors alſo did down to Adolph XIV. the laſt arl of Holſtein and Scawenburg of that family, who ed in 1459; when the province of Holſtein put them-lves under the protection of Chriſtian I. King of Den-ark, whom they elected their ſovereign, under the title Duke of Holſtein; and the citizens of Hamburg en-red into an alliance with the King of Denmark, en-ging to maintain the ſame friendſhip and correſpon-nce with him they had done with the Earls of Hol-ein and Scawenburg his predeceſſors, if he would con-rm their rights and privileges; which he did accordingly. ut his ſucceſſors were perpetually reviving their claim the ſovereignty of this city; and ſome of them com-elled the citizens to pay large ſums to purchaſe a con-rmation of their liberties; ſometimes appearing before e city with a numerous army, and at other times block-g up the mouth of the river Elbe, by means of the for-reſs of Gluckſtaſt, taking their ſhips, and obſtructing eir traffic: but the imperial diet in 1510 declared Ham-urg a free imperial city; and the powers intereſted in reſerving the liberties of this city have hitherto inter-poſed, and preſerved them from being ſwallowed up by Denmark.

eſides the Elbe, the Hamburghers have a channel opened the river Trave, for the ſake of a communication with ubeck, and the Baltic ſea, to avoid toll and other diffi-culties of the Sound; veſſels lying in the Trave being within 40 miles of the Baltic; whereas it is upwards of 00 round the coaſt of Jutland by the Daniſh ſound.

By the Havel and Spree they have a trade with the elec-orate of Brandenburg; and by a canal from the Spree the Oder, their trade is extended to Sileſia, Moravia, nd Poland, almoſt to Hungary; while the Elbe, and ther rivers, carry its commerce on to Auſtria, Bohemia, nd Saxony.

The merchandiſes proper for Hamburg, are French, cotch, and Lunenburg ſalts; white wine, brandy, and inegar; woollen cloths, ſilks, ſpice, drugs, haberdaſhery ares, prunes, and other dry fruits; laſtly, paper, which ells at a conſiderable advantage.

The merchandiſes brought from Hamburg are, linens of ſeveral countries and ſorts, linen yarn, corn, tin plates, braſs, ſteel, and iron wire made in Saxony; all ſorts of Braziery ware, carpenters timber, clap-boards, and kid-ſkins in great quantities from Brandenburg; beſides al-moſt all the merchandiſe of the north and the Baltic, are to be met with there, but not ſo cheap, as they are had only at the ſecond hand.

Hamburg principally exports its linens to Great Britain, from whence it receives moſt of its woollen cloths and ſtuffs: from Hull in Yorkſhire they generally have woollen goods to the value of 100 000 l. a year; they pay about 20,000 l. yearly for Engliſh worſted ſtockings, and have a great demand for tobacco, ſugar, ginger, Eaſt India goods, tin, and lead; all the Engliſh goods ſold there amounting to ſeveral hundred thouſand pounds a year.

The Engliſh merchants make a great figure at Ham-burg; having extraordinary privileges granted them in preference to other nations: they appear as a body, with particular juriſdiction and powers among themſelves; and as they are called in London the Hamburg company, ſo they are called at Hamburg the Engliſh houſe or ſo-ciety; upon which account the Engliſh are pretty nume-rous here; this being really, as it was anciently called, the ſtaple of the Engliſh trade for this part of the world.

The Hamburghers alſo carry on a great trade with Ruſſia and Livonia, receiving their commodities in ex-change. They likewiſe ſupply moſt parts of Germany with merchandiſe; receiving from the north part of the empire, and Poland, linen yarn and fine flax, honey, wax, anniſeed, linſeed, and drugs. They have generally about 400 ſhips employed; of which 30 are kept in the trade to and from London, about 40 are kept trading to and from Bourdeaux in France, 50 or 60 are in the Green-land trade, ſome navigate the Baltic, and others are ſent into the Mediterranean.

The Hamburghers are fond of trade; and, ſenſible that na-tional manufactures are the life of it every where, they have lately erected ſeveral; particularly the weaving of damaſks, brocades, velvets, and the richeſt kind of ſilks, ſugar-baking, callico-printing, and the making of gold and ſilver wire: they have alſo begun to print linens, and brew great quantities of beer for exportation, which ſtands the heat of the warmer climates; by which means the city of Hamburg carries on the moſt extenſive inland trade of any city in Europe, except London and Amſterdam.

The Britiſh factory, which is removed from Flanders to Hamburg, is incorporated into a company, conſiſting of 13 members, a governor, and deputy-governor; who are poſſeſſed of particular privileges granted by the regency in 1610. Till 1688 they had an excluſive privilege of im-porting cloth; but this liberty is now free to any of the inhabitants of the city. The Britiſh merchants decide all diſputes among themſelves by a majority of voices: they alſo judge with regard to their demands on burghers; but in this caſe a deputation of two ſenators is required, to act in concert with them; though the deciſions of the Britiſh merchants are ſo juſt and ſummary, that the burghers generally make application to them, when they have demands upon any of the Britiſh factors, preferring their determinations to any other court in the juriſdiction of the city. See *Hamburg* company, under *North* com-panies, and Merchant *Adventurers*.

The trade of Hamburg is not ſo conſiderable at preſent as it was formerly; becauſe Peterſburg, and other places in the Baltic, have become remarkable for traffic: but Al-tena has done it the moſt prejudice; for this town was built, by the King of Denmark, upon the Elbe, within two miles of Hamburg, to rival it in trade. It has been made the mart for the ſale of the merchandiſe brought from the Eaſt Indies by the Dutch Eaſt India company; and it has obtained a great part of the commiſſion-buſineſs out of the hands of the Hamburghers: beſides, the King of Denmark hurt the Hamburghers by coining money of a baſer alloy than uſual, which the citizens have re-moved by coining a ſufficient quantity of money them-ſelves, and fixing it at an invariable value, whereby their exchange is certain.

For the coins, monies of accompt and exchange, cuſtoms, meaſures, and weights, of Hamburg, ſee *Coin*, *Money*, *Exchange*, *Cuſtoms*, *Meaſures*, and *Weight:* alſo for the bank of Hamburg, ſee *Bank* of Hamburg.

Bremen is a flouriſhing and populous town of trade; being the third in rank among the hans towns, and a free imperial city. It is the capital of the duchy of Bremen, in the lower circle of Saxony; being ſituated in 8 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 53 deg. 25 min of N. lat. on the river Weſer, 70 miles N. W. of Zell, and as many S. W. of Hamburg. The city is ſtrong by nature, as well as art; the whole country round it being eaſily laid under water by cutting the banks of the Weſer, which annually overflows, and enriches the land. It has ſeveral privileges granted it by the Emperor Wencelaus about the year 1400; particularly, that no goods ſhould be allowed to go down the Weſer, without being firſt landed here. The citizens are generally Calviniſts; being governed by 4 burgomaſters, and 24 ratſheri or ſenators. The city is well ſupplied with fiſh, both from its rivers and the ſea; particularly ſalmon and lampreys, which are caught in great quantities within the walls of the town; the former are dried and ſmoaked, the latter pickled, and ſent throughout all Germany, where they are in great eſteem. The Weſer is navigable about 30 miles from the ſea; though not for ſhips of burden any higher than Fegeſack, 6 miles below the city, where is a cuſtom-houſe, and where all ſhips load and unload; for above this place, the floods throw up great banks of ſand, which render the navigation dangerous; ſo that all goods are brought up from thence in flat-bottomed veſſels.

The commodities exported from Bremen are timber, wool, and minerals: they have alſo an excellent way of dreſſing cloth and leather, which are ſent from other countries to be manufactured here. It ſends great quantities of Weſtphalia linens every year to England; for which it receives Engliſh woollen manufactures in exchange, and diſperſes them into other parts of Germany. The Bremeners alſo receive large quantities of calicoes and ſugar in exchange for their linens; they print and refine theſe goods, which they ſend to the great fairs and marts of Germany. They ſend annually five ſhips to the whale-fiſhery in Greenland; and their harponeers are eſteemed ſo expert, that they are frequently hired both by the Engliſh and Dutch. They alſo ſend ſeveral ſhips to France, Spain, Portugal, and Italy, chiefly with linens, ſome corn, and wool; for which they receive ſilks, ribbands, woods for dying, brandy, and ſtrong wines, particularly thoſe of Anjou, Cogniac, and the upper country of Guyenne in France. The duties of importation and exportation are very low, which gives the Bremeners an advantage over the Dutch: they have a council of trade; they coin a piece of money called a groat, which is worth about a halfpenny; and their city is eſteemed the next port to Hamburg in the whole empire for commerce.

Lubeck is an imperial city, and was formerly the principal of all the hans towns; it is ſituated in 10 deg. 35 min. of E. lon. and 54 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. in the circle of Lower Saxony, and duchy of Holſtein; lying on the river Trave, 10 miles S. W. of the Baltic ſea, 40 miles N. E. of Hamburg, and 36 W. of Wiſmar. The city is rich and populous, pleaſantly ſituated, and elegantly built, containing 20 parochial churches, beſides the cathedral; though it was an inconſiderable borough, till enlarged and beautified by Adolph, the ſecond Earl of Holſtein, in 1140; from whom it was taken by Henry Duke of Saxony and Bavaria: Woldemar Duke of Sleſwick afterwards made himſelf maſter of it; but the citizens being unkindly treated by him, they put themſelves under the protection of the Emperor Frederic II. who confirmed and enlarged their antient privileges and immunities; ſince which time Lubeck has continued a free imperial city; its territories being about about 60 miles in circumference, containing ſeveral ſmall towns and villages.

The preſent government is in the hands of 12 burgomaſters, elected out of the nobility and civil lawyers; and the ſenate or council conſiſts of ſixteen members, half noblemen and lawyers, and the other half merchants: but two brothers, or a father and ſon, cannot be admitted at the ſame time into the ſenate; nor is any handicraft or mechanic permitted to ſit among them; the latter of which perhaps has contributed to their great declenſion in trade to what it was formerly, when they could fit out upwards of 200 ſhips of war, and hold the balance of power among the northern nations.

The biſhopric of Lubeck has been enjoyed by Proteſtant princes ever ſince the year 1561, when the Lutheran religion was introduced here, and devolves as an appanage, or inheritance, on the younger ſons of the Duke of Holſtein-Gottorp, who are ſtiled Dukes of Holſtein-Eutin, from a town where the palace of this prelate ſtands about 4 miles from the city; this being perhaps the only Proteſtant biſhopric in Germany which has not been ſtripped of the revenues and privileges belonging to it; for the other Lutheran biſhops are rather ſuperintendants, having little to diſtinguiſh them from the inferior clergy, but the point of precedence.

Travemund, at the mouth of the river Trave, is a port-town to Lubeck, which is about 3 leagues from it, and eſteemed a very good harbour; from whence the goods are conveyed in flat-bottomed veſſels, or lighters, carrying 8 feet of water.

The commodities exported from Lubeck are hemp, flax, iron, anchors for ſhips, carpenters timber, corn, wax, and moſt of the goods to be found at Hamburg. The commodities imported there are Engliſh and Dutch woollen cloths, drugs for dying, pepper, Dutch ſpices, and Engliſh ſugar: paper is a profitable article, which the Lubeckers re-export to Ruſſia: the French alſo ſupply them with ſugar, haberdaſhery ware, and ſome ſilk ſtuffs, beſides ſalt, wine, brandy, and vinegar.

The duties of importation and exportation are very low, which are paid equally by burghers and ſtrangers; neither of them amounting to 1 *per cent.* but ſtrangers are allowed to ſell their goods only to burghers: however, they find burghers ready enough to permit them to make uſe of their names for a very ſmall commiſſion, which prevents any prejudice this privilege might occaſion among ſtrangers.

For the trade of Dantzic. See *Poland*.

It is proper to treat of the other principal trading towns in Germany, under their reſpective circles, as they ſtand in the following order.

The circles of

1. Auſtria.
2. Bavaria.
3. Franconia.
4. Upper Saxony.
5. Lower Saxony.
6. Suabia.
7. The Upper Rhine.
8. The Lower Rhine.
9. Weſtphalia.
10. Burgundy.

1. *The circle of Auſtria.*

Within the circle of Auſtria are comprehended, not only the archdukedom of Auſtria, but the duchies of Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, the counties of Gorz, Cilley, and Tyrol, and the biſhopries of Brixen and Trent; which territories are bounded by Bohemia and Moravia on the north, by the kingdom of Hungary on the eaſt, by the dominions of the republic of Venice towards the ſouth, and by Bavaria towards the weſt; being in length from eaſt to weſt near 300 miles, and about 200 broad from north to ſouth. It received the name of Auſtria, or Oſtria, on account of its eaſtern ſituation, with regard to other parts of the empire, and was antiently called Pannonia Superior. After the Romans quitted it, the Boiarii poſſeſſed themſelves of the country; and it became part of the great dukedom of Bavaria. The Emperor Otho firſt erected it into a ſeparate marquiſate; and the Emperor Rodolph I. made his ſon Albert, the firſt archduke of Auſtria, a title which was never given to any other principality. From this time Auſtria was erected into an archduchy, it increaſed in grandeur every day; for not only the counties of Carinthia, Styria, Tyrol, and Alſatia, were added to it, but, by the marriage of Maximilian of Auſtria with Mary of Burgundy, the ſeventeen provinces of the Low Countries, with the Franche Comte, were added to the dominions; and, by the marriage of Philip, ſon of the ſaid Maximilian, with Jane of Spain, great part of Spain with Naples, Sicily, and the Spaniſh dominions in A-

rica, devolved on the Auſtrian family; but that branch became extinct by the death of Charles II. King of Spain, in 1700, who appointed Philip Duke of Anjou to ſucceed him, whereby the Spaniſh monarchy came into the poſſeſſion of the houſe of Bourbon.

Auſtria Proper is divided into the Upper and Lower Auſtria; the Lower Auſtria being ſo called from being ſituated lower down the Danube than the other, and is ſeparated from the higher by the river Ens, which falls into the Danube near a city of the ſame name.

The chief towns in Lower Auſtria are, 1. Vienna, or Wien, the capital of the province, and the metropolis of the empire, ſituated in 16 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 48 deg. 28 min. of N. lat. on the ſouth ſide of the Danube, on a branch of that river, which here divides itſelf into many ſtreams, forming ſeveral ſmall iſlands. The river Wien, which gives its name to the place, flows on the eaſt part of the city, falling into the Danube a little below it.

Vienna lies 130 miles S. E. of Prague, 200 miles E. of Munich, 600 S. E. of London, 550 E. of Paris, 300 N. W. of Belgrade, and 700 N. W. of Conſtantinople. The city, within the walls, is not above 3 miles in circumference; but the ſuburbs are much larger than the city; which though it is ſo far within land, has in ſome parts of it the appearance of a ſea-port; for here are magazines of naval ſtores, and ſhips of war built and fitted out, which ſerve upon the Danube againſt the Turks in time of war, and carry on a trade in time of peace.

The country about Vienna is very fruitful in corn and ſaffron; and the city is alſo well ſupplied with fiſh by the Danube. They have wines of their own growth, though they import great quantities from France and Italy: they receive ſheep and oxen from Hungary, and the frontiers of Turky, for the ſupply of the city; becauſe Auſtria itſelf is not very well ſtocked with cattle. They have not only ſalt enough for their own uſe; but the Empreſs-Queen draws a good revenue from the ſalt-works of Halſtadt in Auſtria.

Baden, about 18 miles from Vienna, is greatly reſorted to by the nobility, on account of its natural baths.

Haynburg, or Haimburg, ſituated on the utmoſt limits of Auſtria towards Hungary, ſouth of the Danube, and about 30 miles eaſtward of Vienna, is now reduced to a declining condition; but ſtill they have plenty of corn and wine, which they tranſport to other countries.

Krembs, ſituated on the river Krembs, on the north-ſide of the Danube, 40 miles W. of Vienna, is a large well-built town, and has a good trade, particularly at the two annual fairs, which laſt 14 days each, when their ſtreets are crouded with merchants from all parts of Germany, Hungary, and Poland.

The chief towns of Upper Auſtria are, 1. Lintz, the capital of the province, lying on the ſouth-ſide of the Danube, 100 miles eaſt of Vienna; and very pleaſantly ſituated; having a good manufacture of gun-barrels, a tolerable trade in linen cloth, and large plantations of hops in its neighbourhood. 2. Ens, ſituated on a river of the ſame name, which falls into the Danube two miles below it, and is about 80 miles weſtward of Vienna. There are ſeveral other towns in Upper and Lower Auſtria, but no ways conſiderable for trade.

The duchy of Styria, including the county of Cilley, is bounded by Auſtria, on the north; by Hungary and Sclavonia, on the eaſt; by Saltzburg, on the weſt; and by Carinthia and Carniola, on the ſouth; extending in length 108 miles from eaſt to weſt; in breadth, in ſome places 80, and in other places not 40 miles, from north to ſouth; being divided into the Upper and Lower Styria, in regard to the courſe of the river Muer.

In Lower Styria, the chief towns are, 1. Gratz, the capital of the dukedom, ſituated on the banks of the river Muer, in a pleaſant fruitful country, 80 miles ſouth of Vienna. It is a ſmall well built city, regularly fortified, and defended by a caſtle, which ſtands on a high hill, and is the archduke's palace. 2. Rakerſburg, a ſtrong fortreſs on the banks of the Muer, 28 miles to the eaſtward of Gratz, being the place where the duties are paid for the goods that come from and are ſent to Hungary. 3. Pettaw, ſituated on the river Drave, 30 miles S. E. of Gratz. 4. Marksburg, ſituated on the Drave, 20 miles W. of Pettaw, formerly the capital of a county, till purchaſed by the Auſtrian family.

In the earldom of Cilley, which lies ſouth of the river Drave, extending to the banks of the Save, the chief town is Cilley, a place of conſiderable ſtrength, once the capital of a territory, governed by its own earls; but now under the dominion of the houſe of Auſtria, and united to Styria; being ſituated on the river Soana.

In the Upper Styria the chief towns are, 1. Judenburgh, ſituated in a pleaſant fruitful country, on the river Muer, 50 miles W. of Gratz; a fair well built town, having two fairs yearly for cattle and merchandiſe. 2. Iſenartz, ſo called from its mines and forges of iron, ſaid by a Styrian writer to afford ſteel enough for all Germany. The mines are really very conſiderable, and were diſcovered in the year 712, having been wrought in ever ſince without any ſenſible decay. The other towns in Upper Styria are not worth a particular deſcription.

In Lower Styria there is plenty of corn, wine, fruits, fiſh, and veniſon. Upper Styria is more mountainous, where the natives feed large flocks of ſheep, which afford good wool. Their valleys are rich, and ſtocked with herds of black cattle; the air being much more healthful than in Lower Styria, where the Hungarian fever and peſtilence is too common. There are no vineyards in this part of the country; but they import the little wine they uſe from abroad.

The dukedom of Carinthia is bounded by Styria and Saltſburg on the north, by Styria on the eaſt, by Carniola on the ſouth, and by Tyrol on the weſt; extending 100 miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and about 30 from north to ſouth. The country is mountainous and barren, but plentifully watered with lakes and rivers; the Drave particularly runs croſs the province, receiving many other leſſer ſtreams into it. The chief towns are St. Veit, Villach, Clagenfurt, Gurck, Lavanmud, St. Andrews, and Freyſac; at which laſt place were formerly mines of gold, that have been exhauſted.

The duchy of Carniola, with Windeſmarch, or the marquiſate of Windes, is bounded on the north by Carinthia and Cilley; on the eaſt, by Croatia; and by a ridge of mountains, which ſeparate it from the territories of Venice, on the ſouth; extending 110 miles from eaſt to weſt, and about 40 from north to ſouth.

This province is divided into the Upper and Lower Carniola, the Windeſmarch, and the county of Goritia. The chief towns of Upper Carniola are, Laubach, Crainburg, and Biſchoffslack: in the Lower are Oberlaubach and Zirknitz: in Windeſmarch the chief towns are Metling and Rudolphſworth; and the principal town of Goritia is of the ſame name.

Laubach, the capital of Carinthia, is ſituated on the banks of a little river of the ſame name, which diſcharges itſelf into the Save 10 miles lower, and lies 30 miles to the northward of Trieſte. 2. Crainburg is ſituated on the Save, 20 miles northward of Laubach. 3. Lack, or Biſchoffslack, a well built town, 10 miles ſouth of Crainburg. 4. Oberlaubach, a town about 16 miles to the weſtward of Laubach, conſiderable for its trade in Italian goods, which from hence are diſperſed all over Germany. 5. Rudolphſworth, or Newſtat, ſituated on the river Gurk, 12 miles N. W. of Metling, an antient town, honoured with great privileges, and famous for the beſt wine in the country.

Goritia is a ſmall diſtrict, being a part of Friuli, but ſubject to the Emperor, which occaſions its being introduced here; for the reſt of Friuli is under the Venetians, and is deſcribed under the article of *Italy*. The chief town of Goritia, is Goritz, or Gortz, ſituated on the river Lizono, 20 miles from the gulph of Venice, and 50 weſtward of Laubach, conjectured to be the Roman Noricia. It was taken by the Venetians in 1608, and recovered by the Emperor the year after, in whoſe poſſeſſion it now remains.

The Emperor having made himſelf maſter of Trieſte, in the province of Karſtia, or, as ſome ſay, Friuli, this town alſo muſt be taken notice of here. Trieſte lies at the bottom of a bay, in the gulph of Venice, to which it gives name. It is a ſmall town, but has the honour

of

of being a biſhop's ſee, under the patriarch of Aquileia. The Emperor was very deſirous of making it a free port, and turning the trade of the Levant that way, which would be a great detriment to the Venetians; but could not ſucceed in this ſcheme: however, he made it a free port, and ſome merchants ſettled there from Venice, who carried on a little trade to the Levant and the Black ſea. The harbour is large, but very unſafe, and perhaps may coſt a great deal of time and labour before it is fit to receive veſſels of any burthen. Proſeg is a town about 7 miles N. W. of Trieſte, where great quantities of rich wine are made.

St. Viet-am Flaum, though it is in Iſtria, a province of the Venetians, and accounted part of Italy, is at this time ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria, and united to their German dominions; ſituated at the mouth of the river Flaum, which diſcharges itſelf into the gulph of Venice, and ſtands 30 miles S. W. of Metling. It is a place of ſome ſtrength, ſurrounded by a wall and ditch, and defended by a caſtle; being another port, whereby the Imperialiſts propoſed to eſtabliſh a trade with the countries in the Mediterranean.

The country of Carniola is mountainous, but agreeably diverſified by a mixture of large pleaſant valleys, affording plenty of corn and wine: it is well watered by abundance of good rivers, particularly the Save, the Layback, and the Gurk; the Save riſing in the weſt, and running the whole length of the province.

The preſent inhabitants of Carniola are a mixture of Germans, Italians, and Sclavonians; they generally ſpeak the High Dutch in towns, except Laubach, where the Italian prevails; but neither of them are ſpoken with any purity; and in the villages, the peaſants ſpeak a kind of Sclavonian, or Wendiſh; but their acts of ſtate, law-proceedings, and inſtruments, are all in the High Dutch or German tongue.

Tyrol, ſuppoſed to be the antient Rhætia Superior, is bounded by Bavaria, and part of Swabia, to the north; by Carinthia and Friuli, towards the eaſt; by the Griſons, and Trent, towards the ſouth; and by Switzerland, on the weſt; extending 120 miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and 60 from north to ſouth. The chief rivers are the Eiſeck, the Inn, and the Etſch, or Adige; which laſt river riſes in this province, and flows through the territories of Venice.

The county of Tyrol is uſually ſubdivided into Tyrol Proper, the biſhopric of Brixen, and the diſtricts of Meran, Pludentz, Bregentz, Feldkirk, and Monfort. The chief town in Tyrol Proper is Inſpruck, the metropolis, and uſual reſidence of the Counts of Tyrol, and of the preſent governor, ſituated in a pleaſant valley, on the banks of the river Inn, from whence it takes its name, being 70 miles north of Trent, and about 80 S. W. of Saltſburg. The town is generally well built, eſpecially the ſuburbs, which are ſeparated from the city by a river. 2. Hall, called Inithall, to diſtinguiſh it from Hall in Saxony, has its name from the ſalt-works here, and is ſituated on the river Inn, 10 miles N. E. of Inſpruck. 3. Tyrol, an antient caſtle, which gave name to the whole country; but is of no conſequence at preſent.

This province has mines of ſilver, iron, and copper; the latter of which formerly employed 30,000 people; though now not above 2000: the ſalt-works are alſo conſiderable, and bring in a good revenue to the government.

Brixen, the chief town of the biſhopric of that name, is ſituated on the river Eiſeck, about 30 miles S. E. of Inſpruck. The city is ſmall, and not very populous, yet is pretty much reſorted to on account of the mineral waters near it; and it is alſo remarkable for excellent wine, being the ſtation of ſome merchants between Germany and Italy for this commodity.

The other diſtricts have each of them a town of the ſame name, but no ways conſiderable for trade.

The territory of *Trent* is ſometimes eſteemed part of Italy: but as the biſhop is a prince of the empire, it is by the Germans accounted part of the circle of Auſtria. The country is ſituated among the Alps; having Tyrol on the north, the territories of the ſtate of Venice on the eaſt and ſouth, and the country of the Griſons on the weſt; extending 70 miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and 50 from north to ſouth, the river Adige running quite through it, and receiving ſeveral other ſmall rivers into it, which fall from the mountains on each ſide. The chief towns are, 1. Trent, ſituated in a pleaſant valley, on the banks of the river Adige, about 70 miles S. of Inſpruck, but encompaſſed with mountains on every ſide. It is a ſmall city, ſurrounded by a ſingle wall; but pretty well built of a kind of red and white marble, ſuch as the rock is whereon it ſtands. The ſecond town in the biſhopric of Trent, is Pozen, or Bolzano, ſituated on the Adige, 25 miles north of Trent; a place of good trade, where the German and Italian merchants traffic and exchange their merchandiſe, eſpecially at the four fairs, which are held every year, on account whereof great privileges have been granted to the place. 3. Noveredo, a little city, famous for its trade in ſilk, and its ſpinning-houſe for that manufacture, where raw ſilk is ſpun by a water-engine. As to the country of Trent in general, it produces good wine and oil, cattle, and fruits: their wine is well taſted and ſtrong; but they have very little corn or grain of any kind.

Though Auſtria is enumerated among the circles of the empire, it is ſubject only to its own prince, and does not come within any of the rules or orders by which the other circles are governed. The general laws of the empire, or acts of the diet, do not affect Auſtria; neither is it obliged to contribute to any charge for the defence of the empire: for the Emperors of this houſe ſeeing that their male-line might fail, or at leaſt another family might be elected to the imperial dignity, were continually heaping new favours on this and their other hereditary countries, that, if ever they ſhould come to be ſeparated from the empire, they might be formed into a great body, and be able to ſubſiſt independently of any other power.

As to the commerce of the hereditary ſtates of the houſe of Auſtria, it was not regarded till the treaties of Utrecht and Raſtadt were concluded, which ratified for the Emperor Charles VI. a great part of the ſucceſſion of Spain in Italy and the Low Countries; upon which the court of Vienna intereſted itſelf much in commercial matters; for ſince theſe treaties were made, in 1713 and 1714, it may be ſaid, that the principal application of this court was to aſſure, and extend the trade of its ſubjects, either by a free port eſtabliſhed on the Adriatic, or by companies of commerce projected in the Low Countries; or, laſtly, by invitations made, and privileges granted, by virtue of ſeveral Imperial decrees, to the merchants and traders of the ſeveral ſtates of the Emperor, to animate them to mercantile enterpriſes.

Among the commercial views of the Emperor, and his miniſters, the treaty concluded between the Imperial plenipotentiaries, and thoſe of the Porte, at Paſſarowitz, in 1718, may be taken notice of; wherein, among other things, are the following ſtipulations.

That the ſubjects of the Emperor, in whoſe number are comprehended, not only the Hungarians and Germans, but alſo the Italians, and the people of the Low Countries, of what religion ſoever, ſhall freely trade to the ſtates of the Ottoman empire.

That as to the commerce carried on by the Danube, the ſhips bearing the Imperial flag ſhall not navigate lower than Vidin; from whence the Imperialiſts ſhall make use of Turkiſh ſaicks, to tranſport their merchandiſes through the Black ſea, either to Conſtantinople, Tartary, Trebiſond, or Sinope.

That the ſhips bearing the Imperial flag, and trading in the Mediterranean, may arrive at, and import merchandiſes not contraband, into all the ports of Turky, paying only 3 *per cent.* of their value, as well for importation as exportation, without any exaction of other duties from the cuſtom-houſe officers, commandants of towns, ports, and caſtles, belonging to the Grand Signior.

That the Emperor ſhall be allowed to eſtabliſh conſuls, agents, interpreters, and factors, in all the places, where other nations allied to the Porte have already ſuch, wherein they ſhall enjoy the ſame privileges, liberties, and protections granted to theſe foreign nations.

That in caſe of the death of the Imperial merchant

eir goods and effects ſhall not be ſubject to confiſ-
ation.
That no ſubject of the Emperor ſhall be brought to juſtice
efore the Ottoman judges; but before the Imperial con-
l, who alone ſhall have the power of puniſhing them.
That the ſubjects of his Imperial Majeſty ſhall not be
able to any repriſals, for the damages ſuſtained by the
urks from the Malteſe, or other Chriſtian nations.
That the Imperial merchants, in order to promote their
ade, ſhall go with a paſſport through all the lands, towns,
nd ſtates of the Grand Signior, without being obliged
the payment of any tribute, and without any moleſta-
on, as to their perſons, goods, and merchandiſes.
aſtly, that the advantages granted to the Imperial mer-
hants ſhall be common to all the Ottoman merchants
roughout the extent of the Auſtrian dominions.

emia, including Sileſia and Moravia, is bounded by Sax-
ny and Luſatia, on the north; by Poland and Hun-
ary, towards the eaſt; by Bavaria and Auſtria, towards
e ſouth; and by the palatinate of Bavaria, and electo-
te of Saxony, towards the weſt; lying between 12 and
7 deg. of E. lon. and between 48 and 52 deg. of N. lat.
xtending 300 miles in length from north to ſouth, and
50 in breadth from eaſt to weſt. The country is
ountainous towards the ſouth and eaſt, but lies more
pen on the north and weſt; and there are alſo great
ountains between Moravia and Bohemia.
The principal rivers of this country are the Elbe, the
Oder, the Muldaw, the Moraw, the Teya or Teyſſa,
nd the Igla.
The three grand diviſions of the kingdom of Bohemia are,
ohemia Proper, the duchy of Sileſia, and the marquiſate
f Moravia.

mia Proper is bounded by Luſatia on the north, by
leſia and Moravia towards the eaſt, by Auſtria on the
outh, and by Miſnia and Bavaria towards the weſt.
The capital of this province, and of the whole kingdom,
the city of Prague, ſituated on the river Muldaw, in
4 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 50 deg. of N. lat. about
40 miles N. W. of Vienna, and 70 S. of Dreſden. The
ty is one of the largeſt in this part of the world, and
ompoſed of three towns, Old Prague, New Prague,
nd the Leſſer Prague. Beſides theſe three quarters, there
a ſuburb called the Jews town, where great numbers
f thoſe people reſided, who trafficked chiefly in jewels,
recious ſtones, particularly topazes, and ſuch other
ones as are dug in the Bohemian mines; but they were
aniſhed the kingdom for aſſiſting the French during the
te war, on their invaſion of Bohemia.
gra is a large town, ſituated on the river Eger, about
0 miles W. of Prague. Without the city are large ſub-
rbs, inhabited by a great number of tanners, who ſend
eir ſkins all over Hungary and Auſtria. The city was
rmerly remarkable for making excellent mead; and in
s neighbourhood there are now mines of ſilver and
opper.
The Eger is broad and deep, and bears large veſſels up
the city.
oningratz is ſituated on the Elbe, 50 miles E. of Prague;
ing a large town, but of no trade.
latz is the capital of a rich diſtrict, ſituated at the foot
f the hills which divide Sileſia from Bohemia, 100 miles
aſt of Prague: it has ſome trade in ſilver ore, iron,
mber, coals, cattle, butter, and cheeſe; it has alſo the
rivilege of coining money, in the name of the magiſtrates;
ut they ſeldom coin any above the value of a farthing
a halfpenny.
arelſbadt is remarkable for its baths and mineral wa-
rs, which are much frequented; but the town is chiefly
habited by armourers, and other artificers in iron,
ho work neat and cheap.
uttenberg has about 30 mines in its neighbourhood,
ontaining ſilver and copper; and Kadan is a town
r excellent beer.
marquiſate of *Moravia* is bounded by Sileſia on the
orth and eaſt, by Auſtria on the ſouth, and by Bohemia
the weſt; the chief towns being Olmutz, Brin, and
glaw.
lmutz is ſituated in 16 deg. 45 min. of E. lon. and
9 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. on the river Moravia, 75
miles N. of Vienna, and 94 S. of Breſlau: it is ſmall
but ſtrong, and well inhabited; having ſome trade with
Hungary, Poland, Sileſia, and Auſtria.
Brin is a large town, 30 miles S. W. of Olmutz; and
Iglau is 38 miles S.W. of Brin; the former has little trade;
but the latter has a manufactory of coarſe woollen cloth.
Sileſia is now ſubject to the King of Pruſſia, Elector of
Brandenburg, and is therefore deſcribed under the circle
of *Upper Saxony*.
The hills, which take up a great part of Bohemia, are
generally rocky and barren; but the valleys produce
both corn and wine, not in ſo great quantities however as
to export either; on the contrary, they import wine and
fruit from Hungary. The wines of Bohemia, though
tolerably good, will not keep, but ſoon turn ſour, as they
do in all other countries which lie ſo far north: to make
amends for which, as the ſoil produces plenty of barley
and hops, they make and export a great deal of ſtrong
beer. Their ſoil alſo is proper for flax and hemp; they
have a coarſe ſort of wool, and make both linen and
woollen cloth; but tranſport part of their wool and flax
unwrought to other countries. A good ſort of ſaffron
grows in great plenty here; and their foreſts abound
with ſerviceable timber, as their gardens do with fruit-
trees, herbs, and roots; but their greateſt riches are in
their mines of ſilver, copper, lead, tin, and iron. In
their mountains alſo are found precious ſtones, particu-
larly topazes, carbuncles, amethyſts, jaſper, ſaphires, and
others, which are bought up by the Jews, and ſent
abroad: ſulphur and ſaltpetre alſo are found here, but
they have ſo little common ſalt, that they are obliged to
import that commodity; they make very good glaſs, and
they export ſome of their own commodities; but their
foreign trade does not ſeem to be very conſiderable.
The north and weſt parts of Moravia are woody and
mountainous; but the reſt is fair and champain good ſoil,
yielding plenty of corn, and ſome wine. The paſtures
are filled with horſes, black cattle, ſheep, and goats: the
woods are full of hares, foxes, wolves, and beavers;
and the rivers abound with many ſorts of fiſh.
The revenues of this kingdom and province brought in
about a million ſterling to the Imperial treaſury, before
Sileſia was diſmembered from it; but the inhabitants are
little inclined, either to arts, arms, or trade: however,
they have a good breed of horſes, which are frequently
bought up to remount the French cavalry.
The eſtabliſhed religion is Popery; but there are a parti-
cular ſect of Proteſtants in Moravia, who have received
great encouragement in England.
The government was formerly elective, but is now he-
reditary in the Auſtrian family. The kingdom is gene-
rally deſcribed as a part of Germany; though it is not
included in any of the circles; neither does it contribute
any thing towards the forces or revenues of the empire,
or is ſubject to any of its laws. What gives colour to this
miſtake, is, that the King of Bohemia is the firſt ſecular
elector of the empire, and their monarchs have been Em-
perors of Germany for many years.

The circle of Bavaria.

This circle does not only contain the proper dominions of
the Duke and Elector of that name; but alſo the terri-
tories of the Archbiſhop of Saltſburg, and thoſe of the
biſhops of Paſſau, Ratiſbon, Freiſinghen, and the lands
of ſeveral abbeys and convents which have little or no
dependance on the elector.
The circle of Bavaria is uſually divided into three parts,
1. The Upper; 2. The Lower Bavaria; 3. The Upper
Palatinate. The Upper Bavaria lies between the country
of Tyrol and the Danube, and is generally a mountainous
barrel ſoil; the chief towns whereof are Munich, Frei-
ſing, Ingolſtat, Donawert, Rain, Landſperg, Oetten-
gen, Fegernſee, Scheyren, Waſſerburg, Hay, Muldarf,
Burkhauſen, Branaw, and Sharding.
The Lower Bavaria ſtretches along the Danube, to the
confines of Auſtria; being as fruitful a province as moſt
in the empire; the chief towns whereof are Ratiſbon,
Straubingen, Landſhut, Paſſau, Moſpurg, and Abach.
The Upper Palatinate of Bavaria, ſo called from its nor-
thern ſituation, in reſpect of the Elector's other dominions,
is bounded by Voitland on the north, by Bohemia and Auſ-

tria towards the eaſt, on the ſouth by the Danube, and on the weſt by Suabia, and part of Franconia. This is generally a rocky, uneven country, though in ſome places there are valleys which afford good corn and paſture. They have alſo a pretty good ſhare of vineyards, but their wine has a ſharp unpleaſant taſte. Their greateſt riches lie in the bowels of the earth, in the mines of copper and iron, of which they forge and vend a great deal. The chief towns in the Upper Palatinate of Bavaria are Amberg, Sultſbach, Cham, Waldaſſen, Caſtel, Newburg, Lutchenburg, and Averbach.

The chief rivers are, the Danube, the Lech, the Inn, the Amber, the Iller, the Saltz, the Nab, and the Iſar. Munich, or Munichen, the capital of Bavaria, is pleaſantly ſituated on the river Iſar, in 11 deg. 32 min. of E. lon. and 48 deg. 5 min. of N. lat. 200 miles W. of Vienna. The town is large and well built, the ſtreets broad; and it is the opinion of ſome travellers, that this is the faireſt, though not the largeſt city in Germany. The ſplendour and beauty of its buildings, both public and private, eſpecially the electoral palace, which may compare with any in Europe, and the magnificence of its churches and convents, are ſuch as ſurpaſs any thing in Germany for the bigneſs. It is walled round, and fortified in the modern way; but is a town of no conſiderable trade, except what is occaſioned by their prince's reſidence among them; moſt of the mechanics being glaziers and ſilk-weavers.

Donawert is a great thorough-fare, both by land and water; but the entertainment of travellers ſeems to be the moſt beneficial employment of its inhabitants.

Newmark, once an imperial city, but now ſubject to the Duke of Bavaria, ſtands on the banks of the river Saltz; and its trade conſiſts chiefly in iron.

Ratiſbon, ſituated at the confluence of the Danube and the Regen, is the only free imperial city within the limits of the Elector's dominions; being governed by its own magiſtrates, and plentifully ſupplied with proviſions: wine is made in the neighbourhood not inferior to Rheniſh; their fields produce all manner of grain, nor do they want good paſture for their cattle. The advantage of their ſituation upon and near ſo many navigable rivers, creates a briſk trade; and the concourſe of people which the diet occaſions, by being held here, is a great addition to it.

Newburg, a pretty, neat city, the capital of a country of the ſame name, ſubject to its own prince the Duke of Newburg, ſtands on the ſouth-bank of the Danube, and the town has a good trade in wine.

Amberg is ſituated very conveniently for trade, lying in the centre between Ratiſbon, Ingolſtat, and Nuremberg. It is remarkable for its iron mines, and the munufactures thereof, which are ſent down the Nabe to Ratiſbon, and other cities.

Notwithſtanding Bavaria in general is a rich plentiful country, and lies exceeding well for trade, the Danube, and many other navigable rivers paſſing through it, the natives are generally poor; becauſe the Elector, who is an arbitrary prince, monopoliſes the ſale of ſalt, corn, tobacco, and beer; which, together with his other revenues, bring him in yearly about half a million ſterling, excluſive of his ſubſidies granted him by foreign powers for the maintenance of his troops in their pay.

The country ſubject to the archbiſhop of Saltſburg is accounted part of the circle of Bavaria; being bounded by the duchy of Bavaria on the north; by Styria, and the Upper Auſtria, towards the eaſt; by Carinthia, and part of Tyrol, on the ſouth; and by Tyrol towards the weſt. The chief towns whereof are,

1. Saltſburg, ſituated on the river Saltz, 60 miles eaſt of Munich, is eſteemed one of the fineſt cities of Germany; having a very good trade, eſpecially in ſalt, which the neighbouring pits produce.

Hallen is another town in this country, upon the banks of the river Saltz, about 8 miles ſouth of Saltſburg, where the ſalt pans continually employ great numbers of people.

The country of Saltſburg, of which the archbiſhop is ſovereign, extends 70 miles from eaſt to weſt, and 50 from north to ſouth: beſides the abundance of ſalt it produces, it has conſiderable mines of copper and iron, and ſome of ſilver. A little above the city of Saltſburg are the baths of Gaſtein, the waters whereof are very hot, and take ſtrong of ſeveral minerals, being ſaid to be a remedy for the ſtone, the cholic, and other malignant diſtempers, by bathing in them only, without drinking the water. There are alſo many excellent quarries, out of which are dug ſtones little inferior to jaſper. There are other towns in this country of pretty good note, as Lauffen, Titmoning, Radſtadt, and Muldorff; but not remarkable for trade.

Franconia.

The modern Franconia is bounded by Heſſe, and Thoringia, towards the north; by the palatinate of Bavaria on the eaſt, by Suabia on the ſouth, and by the palatinate of the Rhine towards the weſt. It extends about 130 miles from eaſt to weſt, and about 140 from north to ſouth; the principal rivers whereof are the Maine, the Sala, the Tauber, the Rednitz, the Altmutz, and the Pegnitz. It is prettily diverſified with hills and valleys, foreſts, and champain, being fruitful in corn and wine. It comprehends, 1. The biſhopric of Wurtzburg; the chief towns of which are Wurtzburg, Ochſenfurt, Konigſhoven, and Biſchofſheim. 2. The biſhopric of Bamburg, whoſe principal places are Bamburg, Cronach, Weiſman, and Forcheim. 3. The biſhopric of Aichſtat. 4. The diſtrict belonging to the maſter of the Teutonic order; the chief town whereof is Margentheim. 5. The marquiſates of Cullenbach and Obuſpach; the chief towns being Cullenbach, Weiſinſtat, Bertrut, and Kreyling. 6. The diſtricts of Coburg, Schwartzenburg, Caſſel, Hennerburg, Erpach, Wortheim, or Hohenloe. 7. The imperial or free cities of Francfort, Nuremburg, Rotemburg, Weiſſheim, Scheinfurt, and Weiſſemburg; but moſt of theſe places having no conſiderable trade, it is neceſſary only to give a deſcription of two of the free cities, namely, Francfort and Nuremburg.

Francfort upon the Maine, is ſituated upon both ſides of that river, in 7 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 50 deg. 10 min. of N. lat. 18 miles E. of Mentz, and 15 W. of Hanau. This city is famous for its commerce, and more particularly for that of its two fairs, which are deſerredly placed among the moſt conſiderable of all Germany. Foreigners trading to Francfort ſhould take care to arrive there with their goods the two or three firſt days of these two fairs; becauſe, as long as they continue, no duty is paid, all perſons indifferently being allowed to expoſe their merchandiſe to ſale; which is a privilege, at any other time, belonging ſolely to the citizens.

The principal commodities ſold at theſe fairs, are Rhenish and Franconia wines, potaſhes, wool, ſaffron, Italian ſilk, leaf tobacco, and large quantities of printed books in moſt languages.

There are alſo vaſt numbers of excellent horſes brought here from all parts of Germany, and ſold at theſe fairs.

The commodities brought there by ſtrangers, and chiefly by the Dutch, which ſell beſt, are all ſorts of gold, ſilver, and ſilk ſtuffs; draperies, and ſmall woollen ſtuffs of all kinds; gold, ſilver, ſilk and thread lace; ribbons, hats, gloves, pins, and needles; all kinds of jewellers work; hemp, linen and cotton cloths; painted cloths of all ſorts; all kinds of Chineſe and Indian merchandiſe; ſpice, medicinal drugs, and dying ſtuffs; tin, lead, and copper.

In the fair-time, the ell of Francfort is ſeldom uſed, unleſs agreed upon; foreigners being allowed to meaſure with the ells of their own country.

This city, with its diſtrict, is governed by its own magiſtrates; which conſiſt of a prætor, 12 burgomaſters, 14 aldermen, and 42 counſellors, in the choice of which every company of tradeſmen have their votes. They have alſo a ſenate, which is divided into three benches, on the firſt the aldermen are ſeated, on the ſecond the counſellors, and on the third the tradeſmen.

The magiſtrates, and moſt of the inhabitants, are Lutherans; there are alſo ſome Calviniſts and Papiſts: Francfort is remarkable for being generally the place where the Emperor is elected; and in the town-house where the electors aſſemble before they proceed to the choice of an Emperor, the original golden bull, or magna charta of the empire, is preſerved.

The Jews are alſo pretty numerous at Francfort,

have a ſynagogue allowed them: however, they cannot live here in that ſplendour and opulence as they do in England; being frequently put to the vileſt drudgeries, and are particularly employed to extinguiſh fires, when any happen in the city.

Nuremberg, or *Nurenberg*, is ſituated in 11 deg. of E. lon. and 49 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. near the confluence of the rivers Regnits and Pegnits, 50 miles N. W. of Ratiſbon, and 40 S. of Bamberg; being one of the greateſt places of trade in all Germany, and the moſt famous for mercerics and toys.

The ſeveral kinds of merchandiſe brought from Nuremberg are very numerous.

The chief of which are copper-plates, and all utenſils made of this metal, either for ornament or uſe.

Iron of different ſorts unmanufactured: among the manufactured iron, ſtrong money-cheſts; and all goods that ſerve either for buildings, as hinges, locks, bolts, *&c.* or arts and trades, as files, ſaws, ſciſſars, compaſſes, hammers, *&c.* or houſe-furniture, as tongs, fire ſhovels, pokers, *&c.*

All ſorts of turners work, made of ivory or wood, in ſuch taſte as ſcarce to be imitated by other nations.

Automatons, or moving machines; and an infinity of dolls and other curious toys.

Beſides all theſe common merchandiſes, Nuremberg alſo furniſhes ſome made of the moſt precious metals, particularly gold and ſilver filagree work.

The Dutch, eſpecially the Amſterdam merchants, carry on a great trade with Nuremberg; from whence they have that incredible number of haberdaſhery ware and toys, which they afterwards vend in all parts of the world, ſo very cheap, that it is ſcarce imaginable how they can be made and tranſported into Holland at ſo low a price.

The merchandiſes ſent by the Dutch there, are pepper, and all kinds of groceries; ginger, indigo, and dying ſtuffs; refined ſugar and molaſſes; elephants teeth, Ruſſia leather; Leyden camblets, and other ſlight woollen ſtuffs; cloths, ſerges, and flannels; fine Hollands, painted Indian cloths, muſlins, and cambrics.

Beſides the inconſiderable duty of exportation paid for the commodities brought from Nuremberg, all goods are exempted from duty during the time of the fair, which laſts three weeks; for which reaſon the greater part of the merchants wait for this time to import the goods that come from abroad; this exemption commencing on Eaſter-day.

This city has a very rich bank; which is much upon the ſame regulation with that of Amſterdam.

Nothing but the genius and induſtry of this people could procure them their flouriſhing trade; for it is a barren country, producing ſcarce any thing to traffic with, but what receives the greateſt part of the value from their art and induſtry.

The territories of this city are about 30 miles long, and 20 broad; in which they have a great many good towns and villages; the whole being governed by magiſtrates elected out of the nobility; and the burgher-maſter, or chief magiſtrate, is changed every month; but the legiſlative authority is in the council or diet, conſiſting of 400 of the principal burghers.

The eſtabliſhed religion is the Lutheran; though there are alſo Calviniſts and Papiſts in the city.

Upper Saxony.

In the circle of Upper Saxony are included the duchy of Saxony, the marquiſate of Miſnia and Voigtland, the marquiſate of Luſatia, the duchies of Sax-Merſburg, Sax-Naumburg, and Sax-Altemburg, the principality of Anhalt, and county of Barby, and the province of Thuringia; moſt of which provinces are ſubject to the Elector of Saxony. But, beſides theſe, there are included in the circle of Upper Saxony, the marquiſate and electorate of Brandenburg, the duchy of Magdeburg, the principality of Halberſtat, and the duchy of Pomerania, moſt of which are under the dominions of the Elector of Brandenburg, the preſent King of Pruſſia.

The chief rivers in Upper Saxony are, the Elbe, the Sala, the Elſter, the Unſtruck, the Spree, the Havel, and the Neiſſe.

The duchy of Saxony properly ſo called, which gives the Elector the title of Duke, is of no great extent, and is bounded by the principality of Anhalt on the north; by Luſatia, and part of Brandenburg, on the eaſt; by Miſnia on the ſouth; and by the county of Mansfield, and the landgravate of Thuringia, on the weſt. The air of the country is cold, but healthful; the ſoil yields wheat, and ſome wine: there are alſo mines of ſilver, and other metals; but they want fuel to refine them.

The chief towns of the duchy of Saxony are, 1. Wittenburg, ſituated on the river Elbe, 40 miles north of Leipſic; but the town has nothing conſiderable in it beſides the univerſity; 2. Hall, ſituated on the river Sala, on the ſide of a pleaſant hill, covered with vines; the ſalt-pits near it yielding a good revenue to the Elector of Brandenburg.

The ſecond diviſion of the circle of Upper Saxony is the marquiſate of Miſnia, bounded by the duchy of Saxony on the north, by Luſatia on the eaſt, by Bohemia on the ſouth, and by Thuringia on the weſt: extending about 100 miles from north to ſouth, and 80 from eaſt to weſt. The chief rivers are, the Elbe, the Muldaw, the Pleiſs, and the Black and White Elſter. On the banks of the Elbe, near Dreſden and Meiſſen, are large vineyards, which produce indifferent wine. The whole country is very well furniſhed with wood, and their foreſts afford plenty of game and veniſon.

The chief towns of Miſnia are, Dreſden, the uſual reſidence of the Elector of Saxony, a large populous city, ſituated on the Elbe, in 13 deg. 36 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. of N. lat. 65 miles N. W. of Prague, and 85 S. of Berlin: it is a large, ſtrong, elegant, and populous city; but very inconſiderable with regard to trade, except its fine laces, and porcelain.

Leipſic is very famous for its commerce and fairs. It is ſituated in 12 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. on the river Pleiſs, 42 miles N. W. of Dreſden. The fairs are held every year, at Eaſter, Chriſtmas, and Michaelmas; when the ſtreets are crouded by foreign merchants.

The principal merchandiſes to be had here, are all ſorts of gold, ſilver, and ſilk ſtuffs; fine Engliſh, French, and Dutch cloths; great parcels of woollen ſtuffs of the ſame manufactures; gold, ſilver, and thread lace; jewellers trinkets, particularly from Paris; haberdaſhery wares of all kinds; painted Indian cottons, muſlins, and cambrics; great parcels of thread, and tinned iron.

Freiburg is ſituated 20 miles S. W. of Dreſden; and is remarkable for its ſilver mines, which bring in the elector annually 100,000 l. ſterling, clear of all charges; and ſince theſe mines were firſt opened, it is reported they have yielded above one hundred millions of ſilver ſterling. There is a mint at Freiburg, where rix-dollars are coined, and other money, which is moſt commonly ſterling, and looked upon to be the beſt coin in Germany.

Meiſſen was once the capital of Miſnia. Slawen is the capital of Voigtland, ſituated on the river Elſter, 60 miles S. W. of Dreſden. The other principal towns are Pirn, Mulberg, Chremnitz, Frawenſtein, Kenningſtein, Marienberg, Annaberg, Zucokaw, Sneburg, Werda, Weiſſenfels, Colditz, Leiſſneck, Lutzen, and Zeitz; none of which are remarkable for trade.

The third diviſion of Upper Saxony is the marquiſate of Luſatia, bounded on the north by Brandenburg, on the eaſt by Sileſia, on the ſouth by Bohemia, and on the weſt by the duchy of Saxony and Miſnia; extending about 90 miles in length from north to ſouth, and 60 from eaſt to weſt; the principal rivers being the Spree and the Neiſſe.

Luſatia is part of it a ſandy barren ſoil, and the remainder taken up with bogs and marſhes, there being ſcarce corn enough growing in the province to ſerve its inhabitants. Veniſon and fiſh, however, are extremely plentiful; nor is there any want of wood. The chief towns are, 1. Bautzen, ſituated on the river Spree; 2. Gorlitz, ſituated in a marſh on the river Neiſſe. The chief trade of the citizens lies in cloth, which they make and dye, and in beer, which they brew, and ſend abroad. The other towns are

Zittaw,

Zittaw, Leiba, Luben, Guben, Sorau, Colmes, Comitz, Friedland, Sperehenberg, and Zobelitz; but they have nothing remarkable.

The fourth diviſion of Upper Saxony, is the duchy of Sax-Merſburg, Sax-Naumburg, and Sax-Altemburg.

Sax-Merſburg, and Sax-Altemburg, have little in them worthy obſervation, eſpecially with regard to trade.

But the city of Naumburg, which is ſituated in 12 deg. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. at the confluence of the rivers Sala and Unſtruck, 60 miles W. of Miſſen, is famous for its market; the commerce carried on there being much upon the ſame footing with that of Leipſick, both for imports and exports; as alſo for its weights, meaſures, and monies. The fifth diviſion of Upper Saxony is, the principality of Anhalt, and the little county of Barby: the chief towns being Zerbet, Brenburg, and Deſſau, which are ſubject to the prince of Anhalt; but not at all remarkable for trade.

The ſixth diviſion of Upper Saxony is the landgravate of Thuringia, and the county of Mansfeldt. The chief rivers are the Sala, the Werra, the Anſtruck, the Jeva, and the Leina. The country yields plenty of corn, and ſome wine; and among the great variety of plants and herbs with which their fields abound, thoſe peculiar to this province are ſaffron, and woad, uſed by the dyers in their beſt blues. They have alſo ſome good ſalt-pits; but their mines of ſilver and copper are very indifferent.

The chief towns are Erford, or rather Jeraford, from the river whereon it ſtands; Weimar, Jena, Gotha, and Eiſenach.

Erford, or Erfurt, is ſituated in 11 deg. 6 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. of N. lat. 20 miles E. of Sax-Gotha, and ſubject to the Elector of Mentz; being remarkable for its trade in thread and ſaffron.

Weimar, the capital of a duchy, ſituated between Erford and Jena, has a great trade in wine. Jena is famous only for its univerſity. The people of Gotha are chiefly employed in the cultivating and preparing woad for the dyers; and Eiſenach has a conſiderable trade in iron.

The county of Mansfeldt is rich in minerals, among which there is a black kind of ſlate, that being melted down yields both copper and ſilver. The chief towns are, Eyeleben, the principal trade whereof is in iron work. Mansfeldt, remarkable only for a caſtle which ſtands near it, on the top of a hill. The other towns are Wipra, Aruſtein, and Querfort, which are of no conſequence.

The Elector of Saxony is now King of Poland; and the revenues from his electoral dominions amount to about 500,000 l. a year; for he has a tenth of all the corn, fruit, and other produce of the earth in his dominions; beſides a general exciſe upon beer, and almoſt all other kinds of proviſions.

Brandenburg. In the northern countries in the circle of Upper Saxony are comprehended the marquiſate of *Brandenburg*, *Madgeburg*, *Halberſtat*, and dukedom of *Pomerania*.

Brandenburg is bounded by Pomerania and Mecklenburg on the north; by Poland on the eaſt; by the other part of Upper Saxony on the ſouth; and by Brunſwick and Lunenburg towards the weſt; extending 200 miles in length from eaſt to weſt, but of very unequal breadth, in ſome places 100, in others not 50 miles. The chief rivers are the Elbe, the Oder, the Havel, the Spree, and the Wart. The air of this country is cold, the ſoil ſandy and barren; yet they have corn for their uſe for the moſt part, and when they want are ſupplied on eaſy terms from Poland.

Brandenburg is uſually divided into three parts: the Alt-marck, the New-marck, and the Middle-marck.

The chief towns in the Alt-marck are Stendal, Soltwedal, Gardeleben, Angermund, Oſterburg, and others of leſs note.

Stendal is the capital of Alt-mark, ſituated in a pleaſant plain, on the river Ucht; the trade whereof conſiſts chiefly in beer, which they export to Lunenburg and other provinces of Brandenburg. Gardeleben is ſaid to have its name from the pleaſant gardens about it. The beer brewed here is in great eſteem throughout Germany, as well as their hops, which are bought up by the Danes, and other foreigners. Angermund, ſituated at the confluence of the Anger and Elbe, has a great advantage by the navigation of the latter, upon which they tranſport their corn and other merchandiſe, as far as Hamburg, and from thence to foreign countries.

New-marck lies between the river Wart and Pomerania, being about 100 miles in circumference. The only conſiderable town in this territory is Kuſtrin, ſituated on the river Oder, a neat built town of great ſtrength, and has a ſpacious market-place.

Middle-marck is ſituated in the very heart of Germany, extending in length about 100 miles, between the Elbe and Oder; the chief towns whereof are Berlin, Brandenburg, and Francfort upon Oder.

Berlin, is the capital of the King of Pruſſia's dominions in Germany, ſituated on the river Spree, in 14 deg. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 90 miles N. of Dreſden, and 50 W. of Francfort. Its principal commerce is almoſt wholly carried on by the way of Hamburgh; from whence it receives the merchandiſe of France, England, Holland, and the other nations, which trade to Germany by ſea: but it has canals cut from the Spree to the Oder, and from thence to the Elbe: ſo that it has a communication both with the Baltic ſea and the German ocean.

The merchandiſes proper for Berlin are all kinds of gold, ſilver, and ſilk manufactures; ribbons of all ſorts, eſpecially thoſe of England and France; cloths, and woollen ſtuffs; ſpice; medicinal and dying drugs; muſlins and cambricks; printed cotton cloths; lace of gold, ſilver, ſilk, and thread.

The merchandiſes exported are ſeveral works of ſteel; looking-glaſſes, and ſeveral other curious works, the manufacture of which was introduced into the ſtates of the King of Pruſſia by ſome French refugees.

The city is divided into two parts by the river: the largeſt towards the north is properly Berlin: the other ſouth of the river is called Coln, where the electoral palace ſtands. The town is generally well built, the ſtreets wide, and the ſquares and public places ſpacious; the whole encompaſſed with a wall, and regular fortifications.

The town of Brandenburg is ſituated in the middle of a moraſs, on the river Hamel; but the inhabitants are in ſo wretched a condition at preſent, that were it not for a neighbouring lake, which affords them fiſh, they would find it difficult to ſubſiſt.

Francfort on the Oder, uſually ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from Francfort on the Maine, is a town divided into two parts by the river Oder, and joined together by a wooden bridge. The ſtreets are wide, the houſes well built, and they have a tolerable good trade, eſpecially at their annual fairs, in linen cloth and fells.

The other towns in this marquiſate are, Spandaw, Oranienberg, Rotenaw, Lebus, Havelberg, Newſtat, Wiſtock, Dalmin, Rupin, Premiſlaw, Potzdam, and Templin; the moſt of which are manufactures of linen cloth, ſome coarſe woollens, and toys: ſome of them have a good trade in corn, hops, and beer; beſides, at Potzdam, all ſorts of arms for the forces and arſenals are made, which were formerly manufactured at Liege.

The duchy of *Madgeburg* is bounded by Mecklenburg on the north; and Upper Saxony on the eaſt; by the principality of Halberſtat on the ſouth; and by Brunſwick on the weſt; extending 60 miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and about 30 in breadth from north to ſouth; the river Elbe running acroſs the territory. That part which lies to the eaſtward of the river conſiſts chiefly of foreſts; but to the weſtward they have plenty of grain, tho' a great ſcarcity of wood. Their chief city is Madgeburg, ſituated on the banks of the Elbe, 70 miles weſtward of Berlin. The next is Borch; but neither of them have any conſiderable trade.

The principality of *Halberſtat* is bounded by the duchy of Brunſwick and Magdeburg on the north; by the duchy of Saxony on the eaſt; by the principality of Anhalt on the ſouth; and by the biſhoprick of Hildeſhein towards the weſt; being 36 miles in length from E. to W. and 25 in breadth from N. to S. Halberſtat and Gruninge are its principal towns. The territory is generally fru

l in corn, and excels any of the neighbouring countries plenty of all ſorts of veniſon.

The ancient Pomerania was of much larger extent than e preſent: the modern Pomerania being only a narrow act of land, about 200 miles long, and 60 broad. It well watered by lakes and rivers; the chief of which e, the Oder, the Pen, the Rega, the Perſant, the Wiper, e Stolp, and the Barte.

The county is uſually divided into the eaſtern and weſtern: he chief town of weſtern Pomerania is Stetin, formerly ne of the Hans towns, and the capital of Pomerania, tuated upon the river Oder, in 14 deg. 50 min. of E. n. and 53 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 66 miles N. of erlin.

The King of Pruſſia by a late treaty procured a ceſſion be made of this city by the Swede, with the territory ereto belonging, and now remains ſovereign of it; hich is of prodigious advantage to his country, as it rocures him a free communication with the Baltic, and this town is very conſiderable for trade.

The King of Pruſſia is alſo in poſſeſſion of the iſles of Vollin and Uſedom; both of which are ſituated in the altic, at the mouth of the river Oder; the former aving a town of the ſame name; and the paſſage be- ween both iſlands is called the Swin, which commands he navigation of the Oder.

The reſt of weſtern Pomerania is ſubject to Sweden; but aſtern Pomerania belongs to the Elector of Brandenburg: is divided into three diſtricts, called Pomerania proper, Caſubin, and Vendoſin; whoſe chief towns are, 1. Cam- nin, ſituated on the eaſt branch of the Oder, called Di- eno, 5 miles S. of the Baltic ſea, and 35 N. of Stetin. 2. Colberg, ſituated at the mouth of the river Perſant, ear the Baltic, about 20 miles N. E. of Cammin, re- arkable for the ſalt-pits in its neighbourhood, which ield the Elector a good revenue. The other towns in aſtern Pomerania are Treptow, Coſlin, Stargard, Dam, uttow, Bublits, Griffenberg, Bellgarden, Rugen, Stolp, nd Regeſnorld; none of which are conſiderable for trade: or is the country fruitful in corn, being covered with oods; but well ſtocked with game, and wild beaſts: they ave plenty of fiſh and fowl, and have a few mines of iron.

His Pruſſian Majeſty is now alſo in poſſeſſion of the pro- ince of *Sileſia*, which is bounded by Brandenburg on he north; by Poland on the eaſt; by the mountains alled Riſſenbergen, which ſeparate it from Moravia, to- ards the ſouth; and by Bohemia on the weſt; being pwards of 200 miles long, and 70 broad. The chief owns are Breſlaw, Croſſen, Glogaw, Lignitz, and agendorf.

Breſlaw, the capital of Sileſia, is ſituated upon the Oder, n 16 deg. 50 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. 120 miles N. E. of Prague, being famous for s commerce with Amſterdam, Hamburg, Berlin, and everal other towns of the north and Baltic ſea. The erchandiſes which arrive there are unloaded, and ſold nder three great covered halls, containing ſeveral ware- houſes for wholeſale, and ſeveral ſhops for retail; where he commerce of Sileſia lawns is carried on, which makes conſiderable branch of the European, and more eſpe- ially of the Dutch trade.

The other towns are ſtrong fortified places, but of no con- equence in trade. The country is very fruitful, and ell inhabited; the people are chiefly employed in the inen manufacture; and, during the late war, were obliged o receive the King of Pruſſia for their ſovereign, who ompelled the Queen of Hungary to give him the whole f this country, to part of which he had juſt hereditary retenſions.

There are ſeveral rich ſilver mines in Sileſia, which were ortgaged for 95,000 l. to ſome Engliſh merchants, by he Emperor Charles VI.; and when the King of Pruſſia ook poſſeſſion of the country, he agreed to pay off this ortgage; part of which he has ſince detained in his hands, n the pretence of obliging the Britiſh miniſtry to make ome of his ſubjects ſatisfaction whoſe ſhips were ſtopped, nd their trade moleſted, by Engliſh privateers during he late war.

His Pruſſian Majeſty has alſo taken poſſeſſion of the prin- cipality of *Eaſt Frieſland*, on the death of its laſt prince: which is a province of Germany, in the circle of Weſt- phalia; being the N. W. part of Germany, bordering on Groningen, a province of the United Netherlands, and remarkable for the port of Embden, which is an impe- rial city. He alſo enjoys the duchy of Cleve, with the counties of Marck and Ravenſburg; all which, together with his poſſeſſions in the province of Pruſſia in Poland, from whence he takes his royal title, render him a very formidable prince. His dominions are the largeſt of any of the German powers, except thoſe of the houſe of Auſtria: they bring in a revenue of about 2 millions ſter- ling yearly, and ſupport a ſtanding army of 85,000 men. Though they are not the moſt populous and fruitful, yet his preſent Majeſty, as well as his father, has given ſuch encouragement to foreign trade, ſet up many pro- fitable manufactures, and invited ſo many mechanics and artiſts from all parts to ſettle in the country, that his do- minions ſeem now to be the moſt flouriſhing of any in Germany. They already furniſh the large empire of Ruſſia with woollen cloth, which was formerly done by the Engliſh merchants; and with many other valuable commodities. We may expect to ſee them a conſider- able naval power in the Baltic, ſince they have ſo much enlarged their ſea-coaſts, and ſecured the navigation of the river Oder entirely to themſelves. Beſides, his Pruſ- ſian Majeſty has erected an Eaſt India company at Em- den; and is giving all poſſible encouragement on that ſide to trade. See *Eaſt* India company.

Lower Saxony.

Within the circle of Lower Saxony are comprehended the duchies of Mecklenburg, Lawenburg, Holſtein, Lu- nenburg, Brunſwic, Hanover, and Bremen, the princi- pality of Verden, and the biſhopric of Hildeſheim: it is bounded by the German ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic on the north; by Pomerania and the marquiſate of Brandenburg on the eaſt; by the territories of the landgrave of Heſſe on the ſouth; and by the circle of Weſtphalia towards the weſt; extending in length from E. to W. 200 miles; and about as far in breadth from N. to S. The chief rivers being the Elbe, the Weſer, the Alter, the Hamma, the Hemon, the Leme, the Ocker, and the Eldt.

1. The duchy of *Mecklenburg* is bounded by the Baltic, ſea on the north; by Pomerania on the eaſt; by Branden- burg on the ſouth; and by the duchies of Lunenburg and Sax-Lawenburg on the weſt; being ſaid to derive its name from the high Dutch word Mecklen, and burg, ſignifying a town of merchants and brokers.

Mecklenburg is chiefly divided into ſix parts, the moſt conſiderable trading towns in each being as follows: 1. Roſtock, an imperial city, and one of the Hans towns, but famous only for its univerſity; though it is ſituated on a bay of the ſea, near the mouth of the river Warna. 2. Warnemund, ſituated on the ſea, being the port-town to Roſtock. 3. Wiſmar, a hanſe town, formerly very conſiderable; it being here where all the men of war be- longing to this body were laid up.

2. The chief town of the duchy of *Lawenburg*, is called *Lawenburg*, a ſmall but populous town, with a good trade, being ſituated at the conflux of the Elbe and the Steignitz, about 40 miles S. E. of Hamburg, and 30 S. of Lubeck.

3. In the province of *Holſtein*, the principal cities are Ham- burg and Lubeck, which have been already deſcribed as belonging to the Hans towns.

4. The dukedom of *Lunenburg*, *in which Zell is comprehended*, is bounded by the river Elbe on the north; by Branden- burg and Madgeburg on the eaſt; by the dukedom of Brunſwick on the ſouth; and by Bremen and part of Weſtphalia on the weſt. The principal rivers are the Elbe, the Ilmenou, or Clive, and the Jetz. The chief towns are, 1. Lunenburg, ſituated on the river Ilmenow, in 10 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 53 deg. 35 min. of N. lat. 45 miles N. of Zell, and 30 S. E. of Hamburg; being tolerably well built, and about 2 miles in circumference: remarkable for making great quantities of ſalt, which is the principal employment of the inhabitants, and brings a good revenue to the ſovereign. 2. Zell, the uſual re- ſidence of the late Dukes of Lunenburg, is ſituated in a

ſandy plain at the conflux of the two little rivers Aller and Fuhſe, about 40 miles S. of Lunenburg, and 30 N. of Hanover. 3. Harburg, conveniently ſituated for trade on the Elbe, 30 miles W. of Lunenburg, and oppoſite to Hamburg. There are ſome other towns in this duchy; but they are ſo far from being remarkable for trade, that the ſoil is very barren, and the people eſteemed the greateſt churls in Germany: but as it is covered with woods and foreſts, abounding with wild hogs, deer, and other game, the German nobility frequently come here to hunt in the ſeaſon; and the country is now ſubject to the Elector of Hanover.

5. *Brunſwick, including the duchy of Hanover, or Calenburg, Grubenhagen, Blankenburg, and Reinſtien*, is bounded by Lunenburg on the north; by Madgeburg and Halderſtat on the eaſt; by Heſſe Caſſel on the ſouth; and by the river Weſer on the weſt. The principal rivers are the Weſer, the Leina, the Junerſte, and the Ocker. The chief towns of Brunſwick, are Brunſwick and Hanover.

The city of Brunſwick is ſituated in 10 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the river Ocker, 35 miles E. of Hanover, and 30 S. E. of Zell, being the reſidence of the Duke of Brunſwick-Wolfenbuttle, to whom it is ſubject. It was formerly an imperial city, and a rich and powerful hans-town: but after Duke Rodolph Auguſtus took poſſeſſion of it by right of conqueſt, moſt of the merchants and tradeſmen forſook it: ſo that it is now in a declining condition, their chief trade being in tanning leather, brewing mum, and making butter. Their mum is remarkable, being made of barley with a ſmall mixture of wheat, well hopped: but there are two ſorts; the one thin and weak, which is the ordinary drink of the inhabitants; and the other, called ſhip-mum, is imported into England, and other parts of Europe, being excellent liquor, and fit for keeping, after it has purged itſelf at ſea.

Hanover, the capital of the dukedom of Calenburg, is ſituated on the river Leina, in 9 deg. 45 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 32 min. of N. lat. 35 miles W. of Brunſwick. This town, being the reſidence of the electoral family, is very populous and well fortified. It was once a free imperial city, and one of the hans-towns, when it had a conſiderable trade: but now the only merchandiſe they export is a kind of muddy ſweet beer, which goes by the name of bruhane, and is bought by the inhabitants of the neighbouring villages. There is alſo the town of Helmſtadt; but it has no trade.

Grubenhagen lies on the S. W. of the dukedom of Brunſwick, and its capital town is Eimbeck, which has ſome trade in beer: but this country is moſt conſiderable for mines of ſilver, copper, and lead; beſides many other minerals, as grey vitriol, and inkſtone, out of which two the ordinary green vitriol is made. Gedien vitriol, which grows like icicles out of the rocks. Blue vitriol, commonly made out of the copper ore. White vitriol made of lead ore. Miſy, a mineral of the ſame colour and nature as the ordinary yellow brimſtone; and brimſtone made out of a peculiar ore, from whence drop the *flores ſulphuris*, which uſually coagulate like icicles. The chief of all the mine-towns belonging to the prince of Brunſwick is at Zellerfield, where the overſeer of the mines keeps his court, and pays his workmen: the other towns in this principality are all inhabited by miners; being Clonſthal, Attenan, Andeoaſburg, Oſterode, and ſome others. Theſe mines and towns lie upon the great mountain of Hartz, between Brunſwick, Goſlar, and Thuringia, belonging in common to the families of Hanover and Brunſwick Wolfenbuttle, but chiefly to the former: there being above a hundred capital mines, ſeveral of which have ſmaller ones belonging to them.

The little counties of *Blankenburg* and *Reinſtein* are uſually conſidered as one province: but they have no towns of trade. However, the imperial city of Goſlar, though independent of the dukes of Brunſwick, is generally included in the county of Blankenburg: it is ſituated on the river Goſe, in 10 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. of N. lat. being conſiderable for its mines of ſilver, and lead: the inhabitants are chiefly miners, and employed in digging, cleaning, tempering, or vending their metals and manufactures of hard-ware: they are governed by their own magiſtrates, and enjoy many privileges.

6. The duchy of *Bremen*, and the principality of *Verden*, are bounded by the river Elbe towards the north; by the river Weſer on the ſouth-weſt, and by the German ocean on the weſt: the country is either a barren ſand, or a moraſs: though there are ſome fruitful meadows on the banks of the Weſer and the Elbe. It was anciently ſubject to the Archbiſhop of Bremen; but being conquered by Sweden, was confirmed to that crown by the treaty of Weſtphalia in 1648, when the archbiſhopric was converted into a dukedom. The Danes took this country from the Swedes in 1712, and afterwards mortgaged it to the Elector of Hanover, who, in 1715, as King of Great Britain, had 250,000 l. granted him by his parliament, to enable his Majeſty to purchaſe it, which he accordingly did, and thereby became maſter of the key which opens the Elbe and the Weſer, on which rivers a great trade is carried to many parts of Germany: the chief towns being Bremen, Verden, and Stade: but Bremen has been already particularly deſcribed as one of the hans-towns.

Verden, or Ferden, is ſituated in 9 deg. of E. lon. and 53 deg. 24 min. of N. lat. upon the river Aller, 26 miles S. E. of Bremen; but has no conſiderable trade.

Stade, formerly one of the hans-towns, is ſituated on the W. ſide of the Elbe, in 9 deg. of E. lon. and 50 deg. 38 min. of N. lat. 17 miles N. of Hamburg, having a fine at the conjunction of the two rivers Zwinga and Elbe, which form a good harbour, and will admit of larger ſhips than that of Hamburg; on which account it is reputed to ſtand more convenient for the German trade; and ſince Great Britain and Bremen are under one ſovereign, ſome projectors have propoſed the eſtabliſhing a trade between them, which would certainly be an advantage to his Britannic Majeſty's German dominions, if it could be effected, whatever it may be to Britain. But it might be difficult to turn the current of trade from Hamburg, and the Engliſh might give an advantage to their rivals in commerce by attempting it.

Hildeſheim is about 50 miles in length, ſurrounded by the territory of Brunſwick; but ſubject to its own biſhop, who is now elector of Cologne. Its principal town is of the ſame name, ſituated 30 miles S. E. of Brunſwick, and 17 S. E. of Hanover: being an imperial city, having a mixture of Lutherans and Papiſts for its inhabitants, who carry on a good trade in corn. There are alſo Peine, Marienburg, Papenburg, Daſſel, Bokenem, Woldenburg, Eltz, and ſome other towns; but of no reputation for trade. There alſo the towns of Buxtehude, ſituated on the river Eſſe, near the Elbe, 15 miles W. of Hamburg, and many from Stade, in one of the moſt pleaſant and fruitful countries of Germany, ſupplying Hamburg with great part of its proviſions. Rottenberg, a little city on the river Wien, 15 miles N. of Verden, a place of ſome trade and well inhabited. Rutzenbuttle, a ſtrong fortreſs at the mouth of the Elbe, belonging to the Hamburgers, and a few other places, of no conſideration with regard to trade.

The extent of the particular dominions belonging to the elector of Hanover, are as follows.

	miles long.	miles broad
The duchy of Lunenberg -	80	50
The duchy of Hanover, or Calenberg	40	12
The principality of Grubenhagen -	40	40
The duchy of Saxe-Lawenberg -	30	15
Bremen and Verden - -	60	40
The county of Hoya -	30	15
——— Diepholt - -	30	10

The eſtabliſhed religion is the Lutheran: the electoral revenues amount to about 400,000 l. a year; and the elector is capable of raiſing 30,000 men in all his territories: but the inhabitants, though well ſituated for trade, apply themſelves little to commerce.

Suabia.

The circle of Suabia is bounded by Franconia on the north; the duchy of Bavaria on the eaſt; the county of Tyrol, and the mountains of Switzerland on the ſouth; and by Alſace on the weſt; extending about 130 miles from E. to W. and 110 from north to ſouth; where the duchy of Wirtemburg, the marquiſate of Baden,

e imperial cities of Augſburg and Ulm are comprehended
the dutchy of *Wirtemburg* are 64 cities, 150 great
owns, and 640 villages; but none of any conſiderable
ade: though Stutgard is remarkable for its hot baths.
The marquiſate of *Baden* is a populous fruitful country,
bounding with corn, wine, veniſon, and wild fowl, of
hich Baden is the capital, ſituated in 7 deg. 30 min. of
. lon. and 47 deg. 35 min. of N. lat. famous only for its
ths, which are ſcalding hot; but there are no towns of
ade; though the country produces great quantities of
emp and flax.

ugſburg is a large imperial city, the capital of the circle
f Suabia, ſituated in 11 deg. of E. lon. and 48 deg.
0 min. of N. lat. on the rivers Lech and Wardour,
6 miles E. of Ulm, and 220 S. W. of Vienna. The
habitants are half proteſtants, and half papiſts, who are
overned by their own magiſtrates, and have an equal
ght in electing them.

his city is very mercantile, and particularly remarkable
r the curioſities manufactured by its goldſmiths and
wellers.

carries on a great trade with France, Italy, and the low
ountries. France ſends there ſeveral rich ſtuffs; as alſo
prodigious quantity of ſuch novelties whoſe modes are
f the Paris invention, and eagerly ſought after in the
ourts of German princes.

aly furniſhes Augſburg with ſeveral ſorts of ſilks; the
ow-countries and Holland ſupply it with cloths and
oollen ſtuffs, ſpices, and drugs for the dying of painted
ottons, muſlins, and cambrics.

hese merchandiſes arrive there in ſuch great abundance
hat ſcarce a day happens without the entrance of 40 or
0 large waggons into the cuſtom-houſe, which after-
ards unload their merchandiſe in the warehouſes built
hiefly in the principal ſtreet, at the end of which the
uſtom-houſe is placed.

he next moſt conſiderable town in Suabia is *Ulm*, an im-
erial city, ſituated on the Danube, where it unites with
he Iller, in 10 deg. of E. lon. and 48 deg. 24 min. of
. lat. The town is populous, and regularly fortified,
herein are abundance of exquiſite mechanics, eſpecially
clock-work and iron and ſteel manufactures. They
ave a briſk trade with Bavaria and Auſtria, from whence
ey receive corn, ſalt, and iron, by the Danube, export-
g linen-cloth, and cotton in return. They are go-
erned by their own magiſtrates, who are all Lutherans,
alſo are moſt of the inhabitants.

ibrach is another imperial city, 20 miles S. of Ulm,
emarkable for its hot bath.

emminghen is a large city, 15 miles S. E. of Bibrach,
hoſe principal trade is in linen, cotton, and paper.

eutkirk, a little neat imperial city, has a conſiderable
ood trade in linen cloth, corn, and flax, and the citizens
ave the privilege of digging the mines near the place.

empten, one of the moſt ancient cities of Germany, has
good trade in linen-cloth, and ſalt, which is brought
ither from Tyrol and Switzerland, and vended in Ger-
nany.

endaw is an imperial city, ſtanding partly on the conti-
ent, and partly on an iſland in the lake of Conſtance,
a pleaſant healthful ſituation; having, by the lake and
he Rhine, which runs thro' it, an opportunity of ex-
orting merchandiſe at very eaſy rates.

Wangen, a ſmall imperial city, has a conſiderable trade
flax and paper.

Conſtance, or Coſtnitz, is ſituated on the S. W. part of
he lake of the ſame name, in 9 deg. 12 min. of E. lon.
nd 47 deg. 37 min. of N. lat. It is well built, populous,
nd finely ſituated, having a briſk trade from the con-
eniency of water-carriage along the lake and the Rhine:
ut it is ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria; as alſo are ſe-
eral other places in the circle of Suabia.

Buchorn is a ſmall city, but has a good trade, by means
f the lake; veſſels continually paſſing and repaſſing with
erchandiſe between Suabia and Switzerland.

Uberlingen, a city near the lake of Conſtance, has at
reſent a very briſk trade, and is alſo famous for its mi-
eral waters, which cure the ſtone and other diſtempers.

Briſgow, ſubject alſo the houſe of Auſtria, lies near the Rhine; the chief town whereof is Friburg, ſituated at the end of the Black foreſt. It is eſteemed a ſtrong place, and very populous; the inhabitants are very expert in poliſhing precious ſtones found in Lorrain, and the adjacent countries, of which they make conſiderable advantage. There alſo ſeveral other inferior diviſions in Suabia; but they have no place of trade worthy of notice.

Upper Rhine.

The circle of the Upper Rhine is divided into three parts: the landgravate of Heſſe, and the Wetterau; the landgravate of Alſatia, and the duchy of Lorrain.

Heſſe is bounded by Brunſwick on the north; by Thuringia on the weſt; by the river Maine, and Franconia on the ſouth; and by the Palatinate of the Rhine on the weſt; being about 100 miles from E. to W. and near as far from N. to S. The air is cold but healthful, and in ſome parts of the country abounds with corn and wine; beſides, in their mountains are found mines of copper and lead, which yield conſiderable profit.

Heſſe is divided into Heſſe-proper, and Wetterau; in Heſſe proper the chief towns are, Caſſel, the capital of Heſſe, and ſeat of the Landgrave. It is ſituated on the river Fulda, an the citizens have a good trade, eſpecially of wood and woollen manufactures. Smalcald, ſituated on a river of the ſame name, is conſiderable for its iron mines, which employ vaſt numbers of ſmiths, and artificers, in the town; and the iron ware made here is vended all over the empire. In the county of Waldeck, and territories of the abbey of Fuld, which geographers make a part of Heſſe, there are no towns of any note for trade.

That part of Heſſe called *Wetterau*, yields both corn and wine, and by ſome is eſteemed one of the moſt fruitful countries in Germany; the counties of Hanau and Naſſau take up the greateſt part of it. The country of Hanau is about 15 miles in breadth, and 40 in length, extending along the river Maine.

The chief town is Hanau, ſituated in 8 deg. 45 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 32 min. of N. lat. 13 miles E. of Francfort. Its commerce conſiſts in great parcels of leaf tobacco, camblets, and corn. The Dutch chiefly trade there, the camblets and corn ſerving them to ſend to Spain, from whence they paſs into the Spaniſh Weſt Indies: but the tobacco of Hanau is ſent into ſeveral places.

Dillenburg has ſome trade in cattle, and its woollen manufactures. Siegen has a good iron mine in its neighbourhood: but the other towns belonging to the four families of Heſſe-Caſſel, Heſſe-Darmſtadt, Heſſe-Rhinfield, and Heſſe-Homberg, are no ways remarkable for trade. The landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel is the head of this illuſtrious houſe: his ſubjects are Calviniſts; his revenues are about 120,000 l. a year; and he has generally a large body of forces in foreign pay.

Alſatia, or *Alſace*, is bounded by the county palatine of the Rhine on the north; by the circle of Suabia, from which it is ſeparated by the Rhine, on the eaſt; by Switzerland on the ſouth; and by Lorrain on the weſt; its extent being about 100 miles from N. to S. and the breadth at a medium about 25; though in ſome places leſs; and in others it is more than 30. The ſoil is exceeding rich, producing plenty of corn and wine: the hills are covered with cheſnut-groves; affording great quantities of copper, lead, and other minerals: the paſtures are excellent; and the country well-watered by the Rhine.

It is divided into Upper and Lower Alſace. In Upper Alſace are the towns of Colmar, New Briſac, and ſeveral others; but none of them remarkable for trade. In Lower Alſace are Straſburg, and ſeveral other towns. Straſburg is ſituated in 7 deg. 35 min. of E lon. and 48 deg. 38 min. of N. lat. near the W. bank of the Rhine, 55 miles W. of Stutgart; being formerly an imperial city, with a flouriſhing trade: but it was treacherouſly ſurpriſed by the French in 1712, who are now maſters of all Alſace. See *France*.

Lorrain is bounded by the duchy of Luxemberg towards the north; by Alſace, the duchy of Deux-ponts, and the Palatinate on the eaſt; by Franche-Compte on the ſouth; and by Champagne on the weſt; extending upwards of 100 miles in length, and as many in breadth. It is di-

vided

vided into three parts; Lorrain-proper; the duchy of Bar; and French Lorrain and Bar, which conſiſts chiefly in the biſhoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun. It was governed by its own dukes till 1735, when it was given to King Staniſlaus for his life, and afterwards to be united to France: in conſideration of which the Duke of Lorrain has been conſtituted Grand Duke of Tuſcany. But as Lorrain is now divided from Germany, and as it is treated of under its own proper head, ſee *Lorrain*.

Lower Rhine.

The circle of the Lower Rhine comprehends the Palatinate of the Rhine, and the Archbiſhopricks of Mentz, Triers, and Cologne.

The Palatinate of the Rhine, including the biſhoprics of Spire and Worms; as alſo the duchy of Deux-ponts, or Zweiebruggen, is bounded by the archbiſhopric of Mentz and Triers on the north; by Franconia and Suabia on the eaſt; and by Alſace and Lorrain on the ſouth and weſt; being upwards of 100 miles long, and from 50 to 70 broad. The air, the ſoil, and noble rivers which water this country, all contribute to render it one of the richeſt and pleaſanteſt provinces of the empire, which have ſeveral times made it a prey to the French. The hills are covered with vines, which yield that noble liquor known in other parts of Europe by the name of Rheniſh wine. The vallies afford plenty of all manner of grain and fruits. The foreſts abound in deer and other game. And the Rhine and Neckar not only yield fiſh in abundance, but afford a very convenient water-carriage for merchandiſe.

The chief town in the palatinate is Heidelburg, ſituated in a fruitful plain on the Neckar, 40 miles S. of Frankfort. It is neither large nor populous; and is chiefly famous for a large wine-fat, generally called the Heidelburg-tun, containing 200 tuns Engliſh meaſure: but this is not the only town in Germany where there are wine-fats of an uncommon ſize, carved and gilded; which ſeem to be built more for ornament than uſe; and to ſhew this is one of the moſt profitable branches of their trade near the Rhine and the Danube. Manheim, ſituated in 7 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 49 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. at the confluence of the Rhine and Neckar, 14 miles N. W. of Heidelburg, is the uſual reſidence of the Elector Palatine. There are alſo the towns of Frankendal, Altſheim, and others: but none of them remarkable for any other trade than the produce of their vineyards.

The biſhopric of Worms lies on both ſides the Rhine; the chief town whereof is Worms, an imperial city, in which are large ſpaces of ground planted with vines, yielding two or three thouſand hogſheads of excellent wine annually.

The biſhopric of Spire lies alſo on both ſides the Rhine; the chief town being Spire, an imperial city, large and populous; about 12 miles S. W. of Heidelburg. There are alſo the towns of Philipſburg, Spierbach, and ſome others; but of no conſequence in trade.

The duchy of Deux-ponts, and the duchy of Pomeren, afford no materials for trade. But theſe two biſhoprics and duchies are not ſubject to the Elector.

The Archbiſhopric of Mentz, lies on the banks of the river Maine; being bounded by Weterau on the north; by Franconia on the eaſt; by the Palatinate on the ſouth; and by the electorate of Triers on the weſt; extending about 50 miles in length, and about 20 in breadth; though there are other territories belonging to this archbiſhopric in Heſſe, Thuringia, and other places. The archbiſhop of Mentz is the firſt ſpiritual Elector, to whom all foreign princes and ſtates addreſs themſelves, who have any propoſitions to make to the empire; to him the princes and ſtates apply for a redreſs of their grievances; and he is elected to the archbiſhoprick by 24 capitulary canons of the church of Mentz, of noble extraction.

The chief city belonging to the archbiſhopric of Mentz, is Mentz, or Mayence, ſituated in 8 deg. of E. lon. and 50 deg. of N. lat. at the confluence of the Rhine and Maine, 20 miles W. of Frankfort, and 25 N. of Worms. It is a large populous city, but meanly built, and weakly fortified. Proteſtants are permitted to live and trade there; though they are not allowed the public profeſſion of their religion: The inhabitants claim a right to the

invention of printing, and the art of making gun-powder. The beſt vineyards for Rheniſh wines are in the neighbourhood of Mentz, which occaſions it to have a flouriſhing trade in that commodity, particularly old hock, which is the beſt kind of Rheniſh wine, and grows at Hockheim, near Mentz.

Bingen is pleaſantly ſituated at the confluence of the Rhine and Nahe, 16 miles W. of Mentz, and is alſo remarkable for its wine.

In the Rhingaw, a narrow tract of land, extending about 20 miles in length, along the banks of the Rhine, are ſeveral fine towns, particularly Rodeſheim, which is famous for the growth of the beſt vines; though the whole country of the Rhingaw abounds in the choiceſt vines, ſeeming but one entire city, interſperſed with gardens and vineyards within its walls.

A conſiderable part of the electoral revenue ariſes from the toll on the Rhine and the Maine, and from the tax on wines; the whole revenue amounting to upwards of 100,000 l. a year.

The electorate of Triers, or *Treves*, is bounded by the diocese of Cologne and the duchy of Juliers on the north; by Mentz and Weterau on the eaſt; by Lorrain and the Palatinate on the ſouth; and by the Netherlands on the weſt; being 80 miles long, and from 20 to 50 broad. The archbiſhop is the ſecond elector of the empire; but has no other ſuffragans than the biſhops of Mentz, Toul, and Verdun, who are under the dominion of France. The face of the country, and the nature of the ſoil, are very different in one part from what they are in another: the ſouth and weſtern parts of the country being mountainous and barren, encumbered with woods and foreſts; having but few towns and people, or indeed of any thing except wild beaſts, deer, and other game, which uſually abound in ſuch deſert places: though near the Rhine and the Moſelle the country is very pleaſant, abounding with corn and wine, and crouded with people.

The capital of this electorate is Triers or Treves, ſituated on the Moſelle, in 6 deg. 10 min. of E. lon. and 49 deg. 55 min. of N. lat. 60 miles W. of Mentz: but the city is neither large nor populous; and, having been the ſeat of war of late years, its trade is not in a flouriſhing condition. Coblentz is very pleaſantly ſituated at the conflux of the Rhine and the Moſelle, 60 miles N. of Triers; being ſurrounded with vineyards; and the convenience of its ſituation has rendered it a town of good trade, particularly in corn, wine, wood, and iron; which are chiefly ſent to Cologne, and from thence into Holland.

At Boppart, 10 miles S. of Coblentz, all veſſels paſſing the Rhine pay a toll to the Elector, whoſe revenues amount to about 100,000 l. a year. Berncaſtle is pleaſantly ſituated on the Moſelle, having a good trade in wine. Beſides, there are Mein, Cochein, Saffich, Engers, Cell, St. Vendt, Limburg, and other towns; though of no conſequence in trade.

The electorate of Cologne lies on the weſtern ſide of the Rhine; being bounded by the duchy of Cleves on the north; by the duchy of Bergen on the eaſt; by the electorate of Triers on the ſouth; and by the duchy of Juliers and the Netherlands on the weſt; extending about 70 miles in length; though not above 7 or 8 in breadth. The elector is much the moſt powerful of all the ſpiritual electors, his revenue amounting to about 250,000 l. a year; for the country is very fruitful, abounding in corn, wine, paſture, and all neceſſaries of life.

The capital city is Cologne, ſituated on the river Rhine, in 6 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 50 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. 45 miles E. of Maeſtricht, 62 N. of Triers, and 400 N. W. of Vienna. It is one of the largeſt and moſt elegant cities of Germany, having a great trade, eſpecially in wines, and ſtill remains a free imperial city, under ſome limitations. The elector has two palaces in the city; but uſually reſides at Bon: for the government of the city of Cologne is lodged in the magiſtrates and burghers, conſiſting of ſix burgo-maſters, ſeven aldermen, and 150 common-council men, who continue for life, and two of the burgo-maſters are regents annually by turns: but the aldermen are appointed by the elector without whoſe concurrence no law can be made;

alſo claims the command of the militia, and the defence of the city; ſo that it appears to be a mixed government. The inhabitants are for the moſt part Roman catholics; but many of the principal merchants and tradeſmen are proteſtants, of whom the Lutherans have a church allowed them in the city; though the Calviniſts are obliged to go as far as Mulheim, two miles on the other ſide of the Rhine, to their public worſhip. This city was formerly ſo remarkable for its commerce, as to be reckoned one of the four capitals of the hans-towns; and it is now a place of good trade. The principal commodities from this city are conſiderable quantities of Rheniſh and Moſelle wines, iron cannons, bullets, and other ſorts of arms ſerving for the attack and the defence of towns: all kinds of iron works, carpenters timber, earthen ware, ſlates, and tiles. The imported commodities are ſpice, medicinal and dying drugs, ſugar; dry and ſalt fiſh, eſpecially herrings; oil of olives, all kinds of ſilk and woollen ſtuffs, ribbands; gold, ſilver, ſilk and thread lace; jewellers work, cottons, muſlins and cambricks, ſoap, dry fruits, cheeſe, butter, and other proviſions, porcelain, coffee, tea, and chocolate.

All the merchandiſes which paſs by Cologne in going up the Rhine, and which are deſigned for Frankfort and other towns of Germany, are to be unladen here, and put aboard other barges to continue their voyage; after having paid the duty of paſſage, which is likewiſe paid for the merchandiſes left in the boats that brought them.

Bonn, where the elector reſides, is ſituated on the Rhine, 10 miles S. of Cologne. The vineyards in its neighbourhood afford plenty of good Rheniſh wines, and the foreſts variety of game.

At Andernacht, 8 miles N. of Coblentz, the elector has a cuſtom houſe. Zous ſupplies the neighbouring countries with corn; and Rhinberg affords plenty of wine. There are alſo Lintz, Nuys, Meurs, Keyſerwaert, Kempen, and other towns; though of no conſideration in trade. But the elector of Cologne is alſo biſhop of Hildeſheim; which has been before deſcribed under the diviſion of Lower Saxony.

The proteſtant religion prevails in the Palatinate among the generality of the natives: but the elector is now a Roman catholic, and the Romiſh prieſts have ſuch power, that the proteſtants are ſcarcely tolerated; and the other countries of this circle are almoſt all of the popiſh faith.

Weſtphalia.

In the circle of Weſtphalia are comprehended the duchy of Weſtphalia; the biſhoprics of Liege, Munſter, Paderborn, and Oſnabrug; the duchies of Juliers, Cleves, and Berg; the principality of Minden; the counties of Marck, Ravenſburg, Lippe, Schawenburg, Lingen, Steinfort, Corbey-abbey, &c.

This circle is bounded by the German ocean on the north; by the circle of Lower Saxony on the eaſt; by Heſſe on the ſouth; and by the Netherlands towards the weſt; extending in length 200 miles from N. to S. and 200 broad in ſome places from E. to W. The principal rivers are the Weſer, the Ems, the Lippe, the Roer, the Aa, and the Hunt.

The *duchy of Weſtphalia* is bounded by the biſhopricks of Munſter and Paderborn on the north; by the landgrave of Heſſe on the eaſt; by Wetterau on the ſouth; and by the county of Mark, and duchy of Berg towards the weſt; being about 50 miles long, and about 40 broad. The country is generally mountainous and woody, except towards Lipſtadt, where the ſoil is tolerably fruitful; nor is there any want of corn or paſturage in the vallies among the hills; at leaſt there is enough to ſupply the inhabitants, who are not very numerous. Their rivers run from the mountains with an impetuous torrent: and though they have mines of ſilver, copper, and lead, in ſeveral places, they can make but little advantage of them, becauſe they are ſo liable to be flooded by the rivulets which fall from all ſides of the mountains.

The chief town of this duchy is Arnſburg, ſituated on the river Roer, about 50 miles N. E. of Cologne. There are alſo the towns of Werle, Geſeck, and Brilon; but none of them have any trade worthy of notice.

The *biſhopric of Leige*, or *Luyick*, is bounded by Flanders and Brabant towards the north and weſt; by the duchy of Limburg on the eaſt; by Luxemberg and part of France on the ſouth; being about 70 miles long, and from 25 to 50 broad. It is in general a pleaſant fruitful country; having plenty of good arable and paſture lands. They have alſo ſome mines of lead and iron, and quarries of marble: but what it is moſt particularly remarkable for, are the great quantities of vitriol and brimſtone which are made in this country.

The capital of the biſhopric is Liege, ſituated on the river Maes, in 5 deg. 36 min. of E. lon. and 50 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. 30 miles N. E. of Namur, 12 S. of Maeſtricht, and 50 E. of Bruſſels; being about 4 miles in circumference. It is a populous and wealthy city, two branches of the Maes, and other rivulets or canals running through ſeveral of the ſtreets, and forming little iſlands. There are about 100 churches of all ſorts, beſides monaſteries, with a very numerous clergy. The chapter of Liege conſiſts of ſixty major canons, who are moſt of them of noble extraction, and have the power of electing the biſhop, whoſe ſovereignty extends over the city and dioceſe, though the citizens would have it an imperial city, but they have ſuffered ſeverely for diſputing the biſhop's authority.

Their commerce conſiſts chiefly in all kinds of offenſive and defenſive arms, of which they have good manufactories: as alſo in iron, nails, and moſt kinds of hardware. They have likewiſe ſome manufactures of coarſe woollen cloths, called piliakins; of ſerges, ribbonds, white and coloured thread, and hair-buttons. Beſides, the coal and alum mines found in the neighbourhood of Liege, and in ſeveral other parts of its ſmall territories, make no ſmall object of its commerce; and great numbers of ſlates are alſo ſold there.

Wine, brandy; Engliſh, French, and Dutch woollen cloths; ſilk ſtuffs of Lyons, Tours, Italy, Amſterdam, and Leyden; cottons, muſlins, ſpices, and all ſorts of medicinal and dying drugs, are the principal merchandiſes ſent there by ſtrangers.

Tongres, or Tongren, is the next town of conſequence, being ſituated on the river Jecker, 10 miles N. W. of Liege; but it has no trade.

Huy, ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the Maes, 12 miles S. W. of Liege, has good iron mines in its neighbourhood, which employ moſt of its inhabitants.

Dinant, 35 miles S. W. of Liege, is a place of ſome trade; particularly in the manufactures of braſs and iron. Franchemont has lead mines in its neighbourhood.

The Spaw, or Spa, is a town about 17 miles S. E. of Liege, lying in a bottom ſurrounded with hills, celebrated for its mineral waters ever ſince the times of the Romans: for Pliny ſays, that they taſted of iron, and were purgative; that they cured tertian agues, and the ſtone; that when boiled they grew turbid, and at laſt of a reddiſh colour. At preſent there are four mineral fountains much in eſteem, in and near this place, called Geronſter, Saviniere, Tonnelet, and Pohunt; the latter of which is in the middle of the town, and ſupplies moſt of the waters ſent into foreign parts, being beautified with a fine ſtone building, with an inſcription, importing that theſe waters remove obſtructions, diſſolve hard ſwellings, dry up a ſuperfluity of moiſture, and ſtrengthen debilitated limbs. There are great quantities of theſe waters ſent to all countries in Europe: the ſeaſon for filling bottles with it being either in the heat of ſummer when it is very dry; or in the hardeſt froſts of winter, when the waters are briſker, ſtronger, and more ſparkling than at other times.

There are Buillon, Borchloen, Bilſen, Haſſelt, Mayeſick, Horn, Couvin, Verviers, and other towns; but none of them remarkable for trade.

The biſhop of Liege is one of the moſt conſiderable eccleſiaſtical princes of Germany, having within his dioceſe 52 baronies, 18 walled towns, and 400 villages full of people, with a large revenue; being able to maintain a body of 8000 men, without oppreſſing his ſubjects, who are generally Roman Catholics.

The Biſhopric of Munſter, lies on both ſides the river Ems; being bounded by the counties of Bentheim and Steinfurt on the north; by the biſhopric of Oſnabrug and Paderborn towards the eaſt; by the county of Marck on the ſouth; and by the duchy of Cleves and ſome part of

Zutphen towards the weſt; extending 100 miles in length, and from 20 to 60 in breadth. It is a barren country, producing little corn: but no part of Weſtphalia produces better bacon, or hams, which they export all over Europe, being ſo much admired that they bear double the price of any other. The biſhop of this dioceſe is a count of the empire, and abſolute ſovereign of the territories belonging to the dioceſe; being elected by the dean and chapter of the cathedral church.

The chief city is Munſter, ſituated in the moſt fruitful plain in the country, on the river Aa, in 7 deg. 10 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. of N. lat. 70 miles N. of Cologne, and 35 S. W. of Oſnabrug. There are alſo Meppen, Haſlunen, Kloppenberg, Warenberg, Stromberg, Coeſfeldt, Ahuſen, Tillight, Rheyne, and ſome other towns of no conſequence in trade. The Roman Catholic is the eſtabliſhed religion: the biſhop's revenue is about 150,000l. a year, and he can maintain a conſiderable body of forces.

The Biſhopric of Paderborn is bounded by the county of Lippe towards the north; by the duchy of Brunſwick on the eaſt; by the county of Waldeck on the ſouth; and by the duchy of Weſtphalia on the weſt; being about 40 miles long, and 20 broad; containing 20 caſtles, 24 market-towns, 54 other pariſhes, and 16 monaſteries, ſubject to its own biſhop: but the territory is very barren, affording little beſides hogs-fleſh, deer, and other veniſon; though it has a variety of ſalt-mines. The principal town is Paderborn, ſituated in 8 deg. 25 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. 50 miles S. E. of Munſter; but neither this, or any of the other towns, are reſpectable for any kind of trade, except Warburg, which is conſiderable for the iron and lead mines in its neighbourhood, as alſo for its ſtrong and palatable beer.

The Biſhopric and principality of Oſnabrug has the county of Diepholt on the north; the counties of Minden and Ravenſberg on the eaſt, with Munſter, Steinfurt, and Bentheim, on the ſouth and weſt; being 40 miles long and 30 broad; eſteemed one of the moſt fruitful parts of Weſtphalia, and ſubject to its biſhop, who is a count of the empire. The principal town is Oſnabrug, ſituated on the river Oſe, in 7 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 31 min. of N. lat. 75 miles W. of Hanover. Its linens are in great eſteem, of which they ſell great quantities unbleached, particularly to the Dutch, who bleach them at Haerlem; and the inhabitants have alſo a conſiderable trade in hams and bacon.

There are alſo Ibourg, Mello, and ſome other towns, which have no trade. The inhabitants are both papiſts and proteſtants; ſo that the biſhopric is held alternately by a proteſtant and a papiſt; the proteſtant being always a prince of the houſe of Brunſwick.

The Duchies of Juliers, Cleves, and Berg, were formerly ſubject to the ſame ſovereign; but the two former are now enjoyed by the Elector Palatine, and the latter by the King of Pruſſia.

The duchy of Juliers is ſituated between the Maes and Rhine, being bounded by Guelderland on the north; by the duchy of Berg, and part of the electorate of Cologne on the eaſt; by Limberg on the ſouth; and the Netherlands on the weſt; extending 60 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. It is a plentiful country, abounding in corn and cattle, rich paſtures, and wood: but it is moſt remarkable for a fine breed of horſes, and woad for dyeing, which is gathered here in large quantities.

The chief town is Juliers, ſituated on the river Roer, in 6 deg. of E. lon. and 50 deg. 55 min. of N. lat. 20 miles W. of Cologne.

There are alſo Duren, Munſter-Eifel, Bedbur, Enſkirchen, and other towns, which are no ways remarkable for trade.

Aix la-Chapelle, or Aken, is alſo ſituated in this duchy, in 5 deg. 50 min. of E. lon. and 50 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. 18 miles N. E. of the city of Liege, and 30 W. of Cologne; being an imperial city, or ſovereign ſtate, governed by its own magiſtrates, whoſe territories contain 200 villages. It is large and populous; being much frequented by foreigners, as well as Germans, on account of its hot baths. There are ſeveral mines of lead, coal, vitriol, and lapis calaminaris, near this city. Popery is the eſtabliſhed religion; though proteſtants are permitted to reſide there, but not to celebrate divine worſhip. The greateſt part of the trade of Aix-la-Chapelle is carried on by the way of Liege, where it ſends moſt kinds of braziery goods, and ſtrong leather. The commodities received in exchange being copper, ſpice, drugs, and wool, particularly Spaniſh wool.

The Duchy of Cleves, or *Cleef*, lies on both ſides the Rhine; being bounded by part of the United Provinces towards the north; by Munſter on the eaſt; by Juliers on the ſouth; by Guelderland and Brabant on the weſt; extending upwards of 40 miles in length, and about 25 in breadth. The country is generally mountainous and woody; though it has plenty of corn and cattle, being watered by the Rhine, Roer, Lippe, and Nierſe.

The chief place is Cleve, ſituated near the W. ſhore of the Rhine, in 5 deg. 36 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. 10 miles S. W. of Nimeguen, and 60 N. W. of Cologne. There are alſo Embric, Gennep, Weſel, Rees, Roerort, Duiſberg, and ſome other towns; but none of them have any trade.

The Duchy of Berg, is bounded by the county of Marck on the north; by the duchy of Weſtphalia on the eaſt; by Cologne on the ſouth; and by the Rhine, which divides it from the duchy of Juliers, on the weſt; extending about 50 miles in length upon the banks of the Rhine, and about 20 in breadth: the country being chiefly rocky and mountainous, affording very little arable or paſture land, and conſequently poorly inhabited.

The principal town is Duſſeldorp, ſituated on the eaſt ſhore of the Rhine, in 6 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. 20 miles north of Cologne. Its chief trade conſiſts in corn, which the inhabitants get from the Low countries, and tranſport to Cologne and other parts.

Eſſen, 15 miles N. E. of Duſſeldorp, is remarkable for its excellent artificers in iron, and fire-arms. But Bentberg, Solingen, and other towns, are no ways conſiderable for trade.

The Principality of Minden alſo belongs to the King of Pruſſia; it lies between the county of Hoy on the north, and the county of Lippe on the ſouth; being 25 miles long and 20 broad; having great quantities of corn. The chief towns are Minden, and Peterſhagen; but they have no other trade than the exportation of corn.

The county of Marck lies between the rivers Lippe and Roer; being about 40 miles in length, and the ſame in breadth; ſubject alſo to the King of Pruſſia. Its chief town is Hamm, 25 miles S. of Munſter, which has plenty of corn and flax. Werden, 10 miles N. E. of Duſſeldorp, makes vaſt quantities of hams and bacon. But Unna, though formerly one of the hans-towns, Altena, and other towns, are no ways remarkable for trade.

The county of Ravenſberg is likewiſe ſubject to the King of Pruſſia, being bounded by the biſhopric of Oſnabrug on the north; by the county of Lippe on the eaſt and ſouth; and by Munſter on the weſt. It is a rocky mountainous country, having for its chief town Bilevelt, which, as well as the reſt of the towns, has little or no trade.

The county of Lippe is about 30 miles long, and 10 broad; being governed by its own count, whoſe chief towns are, Diethmold, 12 miles N. E. of Paderborn. Lippe, 20 miles W. of Paderborn, having a trade in timber and planks, for building barges and other veſſels on the Rhine. Lemgow, 15 miles N. of Paderborn, abounding in corn: and Uflen, conſiderable for its ſalt ſpring and manufacture of cloth. The counties of Pyrmont and Ritberg are alſo ſubject to the Count of Lippe: the chief town of the former being of the ſame name, ſituated 16 miles E. of Lemgow, and remarkable for its mineral waters, which are ſent to the moſt diſtant countries of Europe in great quanties: but the latter has no trade.

The county of Schawenberg, is part of it ſubject to the Count of Lippe, and the other to the landgrave of Heſſe: being 30 miles long and 16 broad. Its chief places are Schawenberg and Buckenberg. It has good paſture, and plenty of corn: it has alſo ſalt, timber, coal, allum, chalk, and veniſon; beſides, the free-ſtone in their quarries is ſo good, that great quantities of it are exported to Holland and Flanders.

The counties of Hoy and Diepholt are ſubject to the Elector of Han-

Hanover. *The counties of Delmonhurſt and Oldenberg*, are ſubject to the King of Denmark: but none of them, as well as ſome other little diſtricts of this circle, have any remarkable trade.

Eaſt Frieſland, or the county of Embden, or Emmerland, is bounded by the German ocean on the north; by Oldenburg on the eaſt; and by Groningen on the weſt, extending about 50 miles in length, and 30 in breadth, ſubject to the King of Pruſſia. The ſoil is generally marſhy, and the natives are remarkable for their ruſticity. The chief towns are Norden, pleaſantly ſituated on the ſea, 10 miles N. of Embden, formerly a good harbour, but not capable of receiving ſhips of burthen at preſent. Aurich, 10 miles N. E. of Embden, conſiderable for ſeven great fairs of cattle held here annually: but the other towns are of no importance.

Though in this diſtrict the city of Embden is ſituated near the mouth of the river Ems, on the Dollart bay, in 6 deg. 45 min. of E. lon. and 53 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. 25 m. E. of Groningen, and 60 W. of Bremen; being an imperial city, under the protection of the King of Pruſſia. The Engliſh had formerly a mart here for their woollen manufacture: but, ſince they removed it to Hamburg, Embden has been upon the decline: however, the King of Pruſſia has lately granted it ſeveral privileges, and ſeems aſſiduouſly bent to make it a conſiderable place of trade, having eſtabliſhed an Eaſt India company here, and given the merchants many ſigns of his royal favour.

Burgundy.

The circle of Burgundy, which makes the tenth circle of the empire, conſiſted of the 17 provinces of the Netherlands, and the Franche Compte; but they are now divided from, and independent of the empire. See *Netherlands* and *France*.

Upon the whole, there are in Germany upwards of 300 ſovereign princes and ſtates, moſt of them arbitrary in their reſpective territories; and they are able to raiſe and pay 500,000 men. The empire is pretty equally divided between papiſts and proteſtants: moſt of the proteſtants are Lutherans, as in Pomerania, Mecklenburg, Holſtein, Brandenburg, and Saxony: Auſtria and Bavaria are generally papiſts: in Heſſe and Franconia the people are Calviniſts; and in Suabia, Weſtphalia, and the Lower Rhine, there is a mixture of all theſe religions: but the Lutherans and Calviniſts ſeldom allow a toleration to one another, where they are in power; and the papiſts tolerate neither.

Though the goods and merchandiſes of Germany are permitted to be imported and conſumed in Great Britain; yet this is no diſadvantage, becauſe Great Britain, in return for the linens, linen-yarn, and other commodities of Germany, exports there great quantities of woollen cloth, tin, tobacco, ſugars, with other home products, and other plantation commodities, whereby the Britiſh nation, according to Doctor Davenant, gained a balance of 160,000 l. a year from Germany. See *Hans*-towns.

GEROUIN. A term given at Grand Cairo in Egypt, to the heavieſt quintal uſed for the weighing of merchandiſes of great bulk and weight: the quintal gerouin being about 117 Cairo rotols, 110 of which make about 98 lb. of London avoirdupois. See *Quintal*.

GHAN. A Muſcovite term for what is called a Caravanſera in the Eaſt.

GHENT, or *Gaunt*, a city of the Auſtrian Netherlands, and capital of the province of Flanders, ſituated 30 miles N. W. of Bruſſels, in 3 deg. 36 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. of N. lat. See Auſtrian *Netherlands*.

GHERKINS. A foreign pickle, reſembling Engliſh cucumbers.

GHILAMS. Silk ſtuffs manufactured in China, and fit for the trade of Japan; being bought up and ſent there by the Dutch in great quantities, whereby they make conſiderable profits.

GIBRALTAR. A port-town of the province of Andaluſia, in Spain, ſituated in 6 deg. of W. lon. and 36 deg. of N. lat. on the ſtreight, between the ocean and the Mediterranean, to which it gives its name. It ſtands at the foot of Mount Calpe, one of Hercules's pillars, about 16 miles N. of Ceuta, in Africa, 40 miles S. W. of Cadiz, and 80 S. of Seville. It is built on a rock in a peninſula, and can only be approached on the land ſide, by a very narrow paſſage between the mountain and the ſea, acroſs which the Spaniards have drawn a line, and fortified it, to prevent the garriſon having any communication with the country. It was taken by the confederate fleet, commanded by Sir George Rook, in two days, in 1704. The ſtreight, to which this town gives name, is about 24 miles long, and 15 broad; a ſtrong current ſetting through it from the ocean to the Mediterranean, which requires a briſk gale to ſtem. The garriſon of Gibraltar is cooped up in very narrow limits, and the little ground they have produces things in ſuch ſcarcity, that they are obliged to have all their proviſions from Spain, England, and the coaſt of Barbary. The road is very unſafe either againſt enemies or ſtorms; and though it is made a free port, merchants have been invited to ſettle there to little purpoſe; becauſe it is ſtill under a military government: its garriſon conſiſting of four regiments of foot.

However, it is become conſiderable for its trade with Barbary; the Engliſh merchants at Gibraltar having great warehouſes of all kinds of goods of the growth of that part of Africa; whereby they furniſh the merchants of London on as good terms as they uſually had them in Barbary; and, by the convenience of ſhipping, can ſend them to England in ſmaller quantities than by loading veſſels wholly, as they were obliged to do when Gibraltar belonged to the Spaniards. They likewiſe have a conſiderable trade, by barcolongo's, with the empire of Morocco; ſo that the trade is ſeldom ſhut up; and Gibraltar is now the market for the wax, copper, almonds, drugs, and other products of Barbary.

The retention of Gibraltar in the hands of the Britiſh nation, has been always conſidered as a thorn in the ſide of Spain: but as a naval power; as a commercial nation, it is requiſite for Great Britain to retain maritime fortreſſes, for the protection of trade, wherever it extends: for this reaſon Calais and Dunkirk were formerly held ſo eſtimable to the Engliſh, while they were in poſſeſſion of thoſe places, which made them more abſolute maſters of the channel and ſtreight. During the wars of Queen Anne, the Engliſh became ſenſible that Gibraltar commanded the whole trade to the Levant, and would therefore be a conſiderable compenſation for the trouble and expences they ſuſtained in endeavouring to promote the Archduke Charles of Auſtria to the Spaniſh throne: accordingly, after Sir George Rook had conveyed that prince over to Portugal in the year 1704, this gallant admiral ſailed to Gibraltar; which he vigorouſly attacked by ſea, while a body of ſoldiers took poſſeſſion of the narrow iſthmus behind the town, whereby they cut off all communication between the garriſon and the Spaniards on the continent, which obliged the town to ſurrender. The court of Madrid was under the greateſt anxiety to recover Gibraltar: accordingly, the enſuing year, the French and Spaniards beſieged it by ſea and land; but the prince of Heſſe Darmſtadt, who commanded there, and Sir John Leake the Engliſh admiral, obliged Marſhal Teſſe and Admiral De Pointi, to raiſe the ſiege, after they had been upwards of five months expoſing themſelves to the cannon of the garriſon. The Archduke Charles received the homage of Gibraltar; and, in the year 1708, Sir John Leake reduced Sardinia to his obedience; which was followed by the reduction of Port-Mahon, with the whole iſland of Minorca. Theſe places were retained in the name of the archduke; but the death of his brother, the Emperor Joſeph, in April 1711, alarmed the Britiſh miniſtry, who ſeemed to have no other view in this war than the preſervation of the ballance of power: therefore, the court of London, apprehending that Charles would become too formidable, by poſſeſſing, at the ſame time, the Auſtrian ſucceſſion, and Spaniſh monarchy, with the imperial dignity, grew cool to the intereſt of the court of Vienna. This diſpoſition being laid hold of by Lewis XIV. who inſinuated to the new miniſtry in England, the neceſſity, as well as expediency, of putting an end to ſo long a war, upon terms agreeable to the firſt ſcheme of the grand alliance; it became productive of the peace concluded by the treaty of

of Utrecht in 1713, by which the court of Madrid ceded to Great Britain the town and caſtle of Gibraltar, with the iſland of Minorca, for ever; and alſo agreed that the Britiſh ſubjects, in trading to Spain and the Weſt Indies, ſhould have all advantages granted by Spain to any other nation: in return for which the court of London procured the confederates to acknowledge Philip V. as King of Spain and the Indies.

The poſſeſſion of Gibraltar and Minorca, in the hands of Great Britain, contributes to the common benefit of all the independent powers of Europe, during any ſcene of military contentions: but this was diſregarded by the courts of France and Spain, who were equally ſenſible what advantages it would convey to the Britiſh commerce, and what an obſtacle it would be to their ambitious hopes in reducing all Italy to the obedience of the Bourbonian line. The duke of Orleans, then regent of France, actually undertook to procure the reſtitution of Gibraltar from the Engliſh miniſtry, who were then devoted to his ſervice; but, in this the Spaniards were diſappointed by the conduct of cardinal Alberoni, their prime miniſter, who had concerted a ſcheme with Prince Cellamare, the Spaniſh ambaſſador at the French court, and ſome of the French nobility, to remove the Duke of Orleans from his regency; which deſign being diſcovered, by letters found on the Abbot Porto Carrero, Prince Cellamare was ſent home guarded, and the regent was ſo much diſguſted as to publiſh an immediate declaration of war againſt Spain. The French actually attacked Biſcay; but negociations were entered into at the Hague, under the mediation of the Dutch, the ſucceſs of which may be principally imputed to the diſgrace of Cardinal Alberoni in 1719, occaſioned by his prevailing on the King to baniſh his queen from the council, and afterwards from the kingdom, where his Majeſty ſoon perceived how neceſſary her preſence was; ſo that having recalled his royal conſort, and diſgraced the Cardinal, he was prevailed on, by his true friends, to accede, in February 1720, to the quadruple alliance, and thereby terminate a war which would ſpeedily have involved all Europe in its misfortunes: however, he was deſirous of adding ſome conditions to what had been agreed upon by the contracting parties; one of which was the reſtitution of Gibraltar; but this was left to be ſettled at a congreſs for a general peace, to be held immediately at Cambray. The Spaniſh monarch had great expectations of procuring this reſtitution through the intereſt of France, on account of the double marriage agreed on by the two crowns; the firſt between Lewis XV. and Maria infanta of Spain, then but three years old; and the ſecond between the prince of Aſturias, and Mademoiſelle de Montpenſier, daughter to the Duke of Orleans: the regent of France ſollicited the Britiſh miniſtry on this occaſion; the reſtitution alarmed the Britiſh nation; every honeſt Engliſhman proteſted againſt delivering up Gibraltar and Minorca, which had coſt ſo dear, and were of ſuch great importance to their trade in the Mediterranean; nor could theſe difficulties be adjuſted before the death of the regent, in December 1723, which produced an entire change in the French miniſtry. The Duke of Bourbon, who ſucceeded to the regency of France, did not look upon himſelf bound, by the engagement of his predeceſſor, that Gibraltar ſhould be reſtored; eſpecially as he found it was entirely contradictory to the ſentiments of the Britiſh parliament: but Spain inſiſted ſtrongly upon this promiſe, without which ſhe had never acceded to the quadruple alliance. The two courts were further embroiled, by the reſentment which the Spaniſh monarch took at the return of the Infanta from France, whence ſhe was ſent home by the regent, becauſe Lewis XV. was ſo infirm, and his ſpouſe ſo young, as to make it apprehended he would not live long enough to have any children by her; which ſo provoked the court of Spain, that her plenipotentiaries were recalled, and thereby an end was put to the ineffectual congreſs of Cambray.

During the late war, which continued nine years within ſixteen days, the Spaniards never attempted to beſiege Gibraltar, which they now looked upon as impregnable, and for the reduction of it they had but two ways, by treachery, or by ſtarving. From the firſt they were abſolutely precluded by the vigilance of the Britiſh parliament over the conduct of the miniſtry; and againſt the laſt there was an eaſy remedy, while the Britiſh fleet was ready to convey a ſufficient quantity of proviſions to the garriſon.

Soon after the conferences were opened at Aix-la-Chapelle, a report was revived of the reſtoration of Gibraltar to his moſt Catholic Majeſty, who, as an equivalent, was to deliver up Ceuta, a ſtrong fortreſs in the kingdom of Fez, on the ſouth-ſide of the ſtreights, and almoſt oppoſite to Gibraltar: but this report was contradicted by the third article of the definitive treaty of peace, concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle, on the 7th of October, 1748, wherein the treaty of Utrecht, among other treaties, is renewed and confirmed, without the leaſt derogation: ſo that, purſuant to the tenth article of the treaty of Utrecht, the full property of the town and caſtle of Gibraltar, with the port, fortifications, and forts, are veſted in the crown of Great Britain, to be enjoyed for ever, without exception, or impediment. Notwithſtanding the definitive treaty of peace, the articles of commerce between their Britannic and moſt Catholic Majeſties, and the claims of the Aſſiento company, were not finally adjuſted till the 24th of November 1750, when the treaty of Madrid was concluded: during which time, it was apprehended that Gibraltar was to be ſacrificed in exchange for Porto Rico, a large iſland in the Weſt Indies, conquered by the Earl of Cumberland in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, who abandoned it on account of the mortality among his men; though this ſuſpicion has ſince appeared to be without any manner of foundation; and that we may have no farther occaſion for entertaining ſuch apprehenſions, ought to be the ardent wiſh of every honeſt Engliſhman. For, in the year 1720, when a report was current that Gibraltar was to be reſtored, it occaſioned a general concern among the ſubjects of his Britannic Majeſty, who did not fail to expreſs their juſt ſenſe of the great importance of that place to the trade and ſecurity of England: they conſidered the ſtrength of it and Mort-Mahon, the eaſe of keeping them, the difficulty of regaining them, with their advantageous and almoſt neceſſary ſituation for commanding the trade of the Levant. In the year 1729, upon a ſimilar occaſion, every Engliſhman manifeſted a ſteady, warm, and unanimous ſpirit, for the preſervation of Gibraltar; nor were they even ſatisfied by a declaration that it would never be given up, but expected that the miniſtry would purge themſelves from the imputation of ever having entertained ſo criminal an intention.

What advantage would the poſſeſſion of either Ceuta or Oran be to the Britiſh crown? No more than Tangier was in 1683, when the charge in keeping up the fortifications, and maintaining a numerous garriſon againſt the attack of the Moors, induced King Charles II. to order the demolition of the works, and the garriſon to be withdrawn. Gibraltar and Mincorca coſt an immenſe quantity of Britiſh blood, and treaſure; they were won by the law of arms; they have been confirmed by the moſt ſolemn treaties: if the Spaniards ſhould ſtill ſeek for their reſtitution, that alone is a ſufficient reaſon for their retention; for if it ſhould unhappily fall into their hands, it muſt naturally become a neſt for the French and Spaniſh privateers, and they will never conſent to diſmantle it, like Dunkirk. Gibraltar is one of the brighteſt jewels in the Britiſh crown, and was it once exempted from a military government; was it to be placed under a judicial authority, it would appear with a more conſpicuous luſtre: the advantages reſulting from it to Great Britain would be innumerable; for might it not be the grand mart of commerce? A mart that by its happy ſituation might engroſs the general trade of Europe, and at laſt ſupplant the Dutch, by turning out a more commodious ſtorehouſe than all the United Provinces can amaſs together.

GIGLIO. An iſland on the coaſt of Tuſcany, in Italy, 15 miles weſt of Porto Heriole, being ſituated in 11 deg. 45 min. of E. lon. and 42 deg. 25 min. of N. lat. See *Italian* iſlands, after *Italy*.

GILD. See *Guild*.

GILDER. A perſon whoſe buſineſs is either gilding of wood or metals.

LDING, or *Guilding*. The art, or act, of ſpreading or covering a thing over with gold, either in leaf or liquid; which was an art not unknown among the antients, though it never arrived among them at the perfection to which the moderns have carried it.

The modern gilders make uſe of gold leaves of ſeveral thickneſſes; but there are ſome ſo fine, that a thouſand do not exceed 4 or 5 drachms in weight; the thickeſt of which are uſed for gilding on iron, and other metals, and the thinneſt on wood. Gilding of plate is performed with an amalgama of gold and quickſilver. But there are ſeveral methods of gilding now in uſe; as gilding on an oily ſize; gilding on a water-ſize; gilding by the fire, which is peculiar to metals; gilding of books, and other things.

ILEAD, balm of Gilead, or balſam of the Levant. See *Balſam*.

ILL. An Engliſh liquid meaſure, containing a quarter of a pint, uſed for meaſuring ſmall quantities of wine, or ſpirituous liquors.

ILL. Ground-ivy, a medicinal plant, which gives the denomination to a ſort of medicated ale or drink, called *gill*, or *gill-ale*, made by infuſing the dried leaves of the plant therein; when it is abſterſive and vulnerary, being preſcribed in diſorders of the lungs and breaſt; and alſo eſteemed in obſtructions of the viſcera.

ILLA, in chemiſtry and pharmacy, is an Arabic term for ſalt, peculiarly uſed in England for the emetic ſalt of vitriol; being prepared from that mineral, and uſed in tertians, and all fevers ariſing from a corruption of humours in the firſt paſſages.

ILOLO. An iſland of the Pacific ocean, ſituated in 125 deg. of E. lon. and 40 min. of N. lat. See *Celebes*.

IMP. A kind of lace, made either of ſilk or thread, uſed for trimming of women's gowns, and ſold for about 2 d. a yard.

IN. See *Geneva*.

INGER, *Gingiber*, or *Zinziber*. An aromatic root, of conſiderable uſe, both as a ſpice and a medicine; which formerly was chiefly brought from Calicut in the Eaſt Indies; though of late it has been cultivated with good ſucceſs in the Weſt Indies.

The beſt ſort is that which is new, dry, well filled, hard to break, of a ruddy brown colour without, reſinous within, and of a hot pungent taſte.

The root is candied when green, with ſugar and honey; being firſt ſteeped ſome time in water, to take away part of its acrimony, and diſpoſe it to let go the outer ſkin: a marmelade is alſo made of it, and dry cakes. The northern people make great uſe of this confection, as holding it ſovereign againſt the ſcurvy: and the Indians eat the root, when green, by way of ſallet, firſt chipping it ſmall, mixing it with herbs, and ſeaſoning it with oil and vinegar. See *Spice*.

As to its medicinal uſe, it is thought proper for fortifying the ſtomach, and quickening the appetite; it alſo helps digeſtion, and reſiſts putrefaction, and the malignity of humours.

There is a kind of wild ginger, which grows likewiſe in the Eaſt Indies; as alſo in the iſland of Madagaſcar, whoſe leaves and roots have ſome reſemblance to the real ginger; but the roots are of different kinds; their rounder part being called zerumbeth, and the longer zedoair, which is a very excellent cordial; but the zerumbeth is of no uſe in medicine.

INGIRAS. A ſilk ſtuff manufactured in the Eaſt Indies, whoſe length is 9 ells and a half, and breadth 2-3ds.

IN-SENG. An admirable plant, till now little known in Europe. See *Zin-Seng*.

IOVENAZZO. A little city and port of Naples, in the Terra de Barri, on the gulph of Venice, 12 miles weſt of Barri; being ſituated in 17 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 41 deg. 15 min. of N. lat.

IRACE. A city and port of Naples, in the further Calabria, ſituated 36 miles N. E. of Reggio, in 16 deg. 35 min. of E. lon. and 38 deg. 35 min. of N. lat.

IRASOL. A precious ſtone, of ſome reſemblance to the opal; and therefore called the falſe opal. The antients called it aſteria, and eſteemed it much; but its value is now diminiſhed, either becauſe the taſte of perſons is altered, or that the giraſol is not ſo rare. It is found in the ſame countries with the opal, and is perhaps extracted from the ſame mines. See *Opal*.

GIRDING *Girt*, in the ſea-language, is the cable ſtrained tight, to prevent the ſhip's going over it with her ſtern port, and ſo lie a-croſs the tide.

GIRDLER. An artificer, that makes bridles, girdles, and the like, for horſes: but, by the ſtatute of the 1ſt of Richard III. girdles, or harneſs wrought for girdles, are not to be imported by ſtrangers to be ſold, upon forfeiture, or the value.

GIRDLERS *company of London* was incorporated by letters-patent of the 27th of Henry VI. dated the 6th of Auguſt 1449, which were confirmed by Queen Elizabeth the 12th of October 1568; when the pinners and wire-drawers were incorporated with them, by the appellation of The maſter and wardens, or keepers, of the art or myſtery of the girdlers of London: the company conſiſting of a maſter, 3 wardens, 24 aſſiſtants, and 77 liverymen; whoſe fine of admittance is 10 l. having a handſome and convenient hall in Baſinghall-ſtreet, wherein they tranſact their affairs.

GIRIB, is a geometrical meaſure in Perſia, uſed only for meaſuring land; containing 1066 gueuſes, or Perſian ſquare ells; the gueuſe computed at 35 inches, or rather 2 feet, 10 inches, and 11 lines.

GIRTH. A broad girdle, which buckles under the horſe's belly, generally made of ſacking or very ſtrong linen.

GLAIR. See *Varniſh*.

GLARIS. One of the cantons of Switzerland. See *Switzerland*.

GLASGOW. A large city and port of Scotland, in the ſhire of Clydeſdale, ſituated on the river Clyde, 20 miles N. W. of Lanerk, and 40 miles weſt of Edinburgh; which has a conſiderable foreign trade, and is one of the moſt elegant towns in Scotland; ſituated in 4 deg. 8 min. of W. lon. and 55 deg. 50 min. of N. lat.

GLASS. A tranſparent, brittle, factitious body, produced of ſalt, and ſand or ſtone, by the action of fire; which makes it an artificial concrete.

The diſcovery of glaſs, according to Pliny, was by accident in Syria, at the mouth of the river Belus, by certain merchants driven thither by the fortune of the ſea; who were obliged to live there, and dreſs their victuals, by making a fire on the ground, where there happened to be a ſtore of the plant kali; which being burnt to aſhes, and the ſand or ſtones of the place accidentally mixed with it, a vitrification was undeſignedly made; from whence the hint was taken, and eaſily improved. But how old ſoever glaſs may be, the art of making and working it does not appear of ſuch great antiquity; the firſt place mentioned for the making thereof being Sidon in Syria, which, as obſerved by Pliny, was famous for glaſs and glaſs-houſes.

The firſt time we hear of glaſs among the Romans, was in the time of Tiberius; when, as Pliny relates, an artiſt had his houſe demoliſhed for making glaſs malleable, or rather flexible: though Petronius Arbiter, and ſome others, aſſure us, that the Emperor ordered the artiſt to be beheaded for his invention.

Venice, for many years, excelled all Europe in the fineneſs of its glaſſes; their great glaſs-works, which furniſhed all Europe with the fineſt and largeſt glaſſes, being at Muran, or Mouran, a village near the city. But, within this laſt century, the French and Engliſh have not only come up to, but even ſurpaſſed the Venetians.

The French made a conſiderable improvement in the art of glaſs, by the invention of a method to caſt very large plates, till then unknown, and ſcarce practiſed yet by any but themſelves and the Engliſh. For the court of France applied itſelf with ſuch laudable induſtry to cultivate and improve the glaſs-manufacture, that a company of glaſsmen was eſtabliſhed by letters patent; and it was provided by an arret, that not only the working in glaſs ſhould be no derogation from nobility, but even that none except nobles ſhould be allowed to undertake ſuch works.

The ſalt made uſe of in the compoſition of glaſs, is of the fixed kind, being ſuch as will not evaporate with the

moſt intenſe heat; and the ſand or ſtone muſt be ſuch as will not eaſily melt, which is what gives firmneſs and conſiſtence to the glaſs.

This ſalt is chiefly procured from a kind of aſhes, called polveraine, or rochetta, brought from the Levant; particularly from Alexandria and Tripoli; which are produced from a vegetable, frequent in the country, commonly called kali: though Banhin mentions ten ſpecies of this plant; whereof there are four uſed by the Alexandrians for the making of polveraine and ſoap; called kali geniculatum, kali ſecunda ſpecies, kali ægyptiacum, and kali ſpinoſum. The Britiſh coaſts afford the firſt and laſt, where they are called frog-graſs, and ſea-graſs; but they are of no uſe in making of glaſs; for, being laid on a hot iron, they fly off almoſt wholly in fumes, leaving no aſhes at all; whereas the kali brought from the Levant, applied on the ſame iron, is ſoon converted almoſt entirely into polveraine, or very ſaline aſhes, of a dark colour; which is properly prepared, and laid by to make frit: though, inſtead of the aſhes of the plant kali, thoſe of fern will alſo yield a ſalt, which makes excellent glaſs, nothing inferior to that of polveraine: beſides, the aſhes of the cods and ſtalks of beans, as alſo thoſe of coleworts, bramble-buſh, millet-ſtalk, ruſhes, and ſeveral other plants, may be uſed for the like purpoſe; but more eſpecially the kali of Languedoc in France, and the barilla of Spain.

For ſtone, the ſecond ingredient in glaſs, the beſt is that which will melt, is white, and tranſparent; being a ſort of marble, called tarſo, principally found in Italy: the next is puocoli, or cuogolo, a ſort of pebbles found at the bottoms of rivers: but nothing makes finer and clearer glaſs than flint; though the charge of preparing it deters the glaſs-men from uſing it. However, Antony Neri obſerves, that all white, tranſparent ſtones, which will not burn to lime, are fit to make glaſs; and that all ſtones which will ſtrike fire with ſteel, are capable of being employed in making of glaſs; but this latter rule Dr. Merret obſerves does not hold univerſally.

Where proper ſtone cannot be had, ſand is uſed; the beſt for the purpoſe being that which is white and ſmall; but for green glaſs, that which is harder and more gritty; though Engliſh glaſs-houſes are furniſhed with white ſand for their cryſtal glaſſes from Maidſtone; and with the coarſer, for green glaſs, from Woolwich.

Manganeſe, or ſiderea, is alſo reputed a third ingredient in glaſs; which is a kind of pſeudo loadſtone, dug up in Germany, Italy, and even in Mendip hills in Somerſetſhire: but the proportion hereof to the reſt is very inconſiderable; beſide, that it is not uſed in all glaſs.

There are two kinds of glaſs; being white, or cryſtal glaſs, and green glaſs; from which there are made three principal kinds of glaſſes, diſtinguiſhed by the form or manner of working them, as round glaſs, table or window-glaſs, and plate-glaſs or looking-glaſs.

Round glaſs is underſtood of thoſe veſſels, bottles, phials, and drinking-glaſſes, which are made of both cryſtal and green glaſs. Window-glaſs conſiſts of ſeveral ſorts of glaſs, made in different places, for the uſe of building; as, 1. Crown-glaſs, of which there are two kinds, diſtinguiſhed by the places where they are wrought; the former being Ratcliffe crown-glaſs, which is the beſt and cleareſt, and was firſt made in England, at the Bear-garden, on the bank-ſide, in Southwark, but ſince at Ratcliffe in Middleſex; of which there are 24 tables to the caſe, the tables being of a circular form, about 3 feet 6 inches in diameter: and the latter being Lambeth crown-glaſs, which is of a darker colour than the former, and more inclining to green. 2. French glaſs, alſo called Normandy glaſs, and formerly Lorrain glaſs, becauſe made in thoſe provinces; which at preſent is made wholly in the eſtabliſhed glaſs-works; five whereof are in the foreſt of Lyons, four in the county of Eu, and the laſt at Beaumont near Rouen; but this is of a thinner kind than the Engliſh crown-glaſs; and, when laid on a piece of white paper, appears of a dirtyiſh green colour; and there are 25 tables to the caſe. 3. German glaſs, which is both white and green; the former being of a whitiſh colour, but ſubject to thoſe ſmall, curved ſtreaks, obſerved in the Engliſh Newcaſtle glaſs, though free from the ſpots and blemiſhes thereof: the latter, beſide its colour, is liable to the ſame ſtreaks as the white; but both of them are ſtraighter, and leſs warped than the Newcaſtle. 4. Dutch glaſs, which is not much unlike Newcaſtle glaſs, either in colour or in price; being, like it, frequently much warped; and the tables are but ſmall. 5. Newcaſtle glaſs, which is that moſt uſed in England, being of an aſh colour, ſubject to ſpecks, ſtreaks, and other blemiſhes; beſide that it is frequently warped: of which Leybourn ſays, there are 45 tables to the caſe, each containing 5 ſuperficial feet; though others ſay there are but 35 tables, and 6 feet in each table; which is 15 feet leſs than the other.

There are alſo ſome manufactures of glaſs at Briſtol, at Stourbridge; as alſo ſome in Dublin.

The plate or looking glaſs is made of much the ſame materials as thoſe of other works of glaſs; that is, an alkali ſalt, and ſand: the ſalt, however, it is to be obſerved, ſhould not be that extracted from polveraine, or the aſhes of the Syrian kali; but the aſhes of the barilia, a plant of the genus of kalies, growing about Alicant in Spain; though it is very rare that the barillia can be had pure, becauſe the Spaniards, in burning the herb, make a practice of mixing another herb along with it, which abates its quality, or of adding ſand to it, to increaſe the weight; which is eaſily diſcovered, if the addition be only made after the boiling of the aſhes; but next to impoſſible, if made in the boiler: and it is from this alteration that thoſe threads, and other defects, in plate-glaſs ariſe. There are two different ways of manufacturing plate-glaſs; the one by blowing, and the other by caſting or running: but the looking-glaſſes which are blown, ſhould never exceed 45, or at moſt 50 inches, in length, and of a breadth proportionable; for thoſe exceeding theſe dimenſions, as are frequently found among the Venetian glaſſes, cannot have the thickneſs ſufficient to bear the grinding; and beſide, are ſubject to waves, which prevents them from reflecting objects with a proper regularity. The art of caſting, or running, large looking glaſs plates, was invented by the Sieur Abraham Thevart, who firſt propoſed it to the court of France, in the year 1688; which is performed much like the caſting of ſheet-lead among the plumbers: by means whereof the manufacturers are not only enabled to make glaſſes of more than double the dimenſions of any made by the Venetian way of blowing; but alſo to caſt all kinds of borders, mouldings, and other ornaments: though the manufactories are of ſo extraordinary a nature, that the French glaſs-houſe in the caſtle of St. Gobin, in the foreſt of Fere, in the Soiſſonois, appears more like a little city than a manufactory: for it is computed that a furnace before it is fit to run glaſs, coſts above 3 500l. that at leaſt ſix months are required for the building it anew, and three months for the refitting it; as alſo, that when a pot of matter burſts in the furnace, the loſs of matter at that time amounts to above 250 l.

GLASSES are diſtinguiſhed, with regard to their form and uſe, into two kinds; as drinking glaſſes, and optic glaſſes; the former being ſimple veſſels of common glaſs or cryſtal, uſually in form of an inverted cone; of which thoſe chiefly uſed in England are made of the aſhes of fern, cryſtal glaſſes being grown into diſeſteem: and the latter are thoſe made uſe of to ſtrengthen, improve, and preſerve the ſight; to which claſs belong

Convex glaſſes,	Teleſcope glaſſes,
Concave glaſſes,	Object glaſs,
Lenticular glaſſes,	Eye glaſs,
Meniſcus glaſſes,	Magnifying glaſſes,
Plain glaſſes,	Multiplying glaſs, and
Planoconcave glaſs,	Perſpective glaſs.
Planoconvex glaſs,	

The glaſs-trade is very conſiderable in France, whence great quantities are exported, not only to moſt countries of Europe, but alſo to China, India, and America. In the year 1746, a bill was brought into the Britiſh parliament for raiſing an additional duty upon glaſs, and ſubjecting that commodity to the laws of exciſe; which univer-

univerſally held, not only as unſalutary to that particular branch of trade, but prejudicial to the general intereſt of the whole community; whereupon a great number of men and women, occupiers of the glaſs-trade, attended the houſe of commons with printed caſes againſt the bill; containing, in ſubſtance, that it would occaſion ſome thouſands of artiſans, then employed in the following trades, as grinders, poliſhers, ſcallopers, file-beaters, ſilverers, frame-makers, carvers, gilders, and gold-beaters, to be out of employment: but, notwithſtanding ſuch remonſtrances, the bill paſſed into a law; whereby it was enacted, That there ſhould be paid upon all crown, plate, and flint glaſs, imported into Great Britain, an additional duty of 8 d. for every pound weight; and 2 d. *per* pound upon all green or other glaſs imported, and ſo in proportion for a greater or leſs quantity: alſo upon all quart bottles and flaſks, the additional duty of 2 s. *per* dozen; and upon bottles and flaſks containing more or leſs than a quart, 2 s. for every dozen quarts, be the quantity of bottles containing the ſame greater or leſſer; all which duties were to be paid by the reſpective importers, over and above all other cuſtoms and duties.

That there ſhould be paid the additional duty of 9 s. 4 d. for every hundred weight, upon all the materials, or metal, or other preparations whatſoever, by whatever name they then were or might be called, that ſhould thereafter be made uſe of in the making of crown, plate, flint, and white glaſs, and after that rate for a greater or leſſer quantity: as alſo the additional duty of 2 s. 4 d. for every hundred weight, upon all the materials in the making of common bottles, and all other green glaſs; which duties were to be paid by the makers of glaſs.

That if any crown, plate, flint, or other glaſs, or bottles or flaſks, imported, ſhould be put on ſhore out of any veſſel, before entry made at the cuſtom-houſe where the ſame ſhould be imported, and theſe additional duties paid or ſecured, or without a warrant for landing the ſame, firſt ſigned by the proper officer of the cuſtoms, the ſame, or the value thereof, ſhould be forfeited; and might be ſeized or recovered of the importer, or proprietor thereof.

That theſe additional duties on importation ſhould be levied and paid in the ſame manner as the former duties on imported manufactures of glaſs by an act of the 2d of William and Mary, were to be paid; and ſuch of the duties upon imported glaſs as ſhould ariſe in South Britain, ſhould be under the management of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in England; and ſuch of the duties as ſhould ariſe in Scotland, ſhould be under the management of the like officers in Scotland; all which ſhould be paid into the exchequer at Weſtminſter, diſtinctly from all other branches of the public revenues, for the purpoſes after mentioned; and the duties upon the materials to be made uſe of in the making of crown, plate, flint, and all white glaſs; as alſo of all common bottles, and other green glaſs; ſhould be under the ſame management, and paid and kept in the ſame manner.

By this act all the glaſs-makers were put under the laws of exciſe; and it was alſo enacted, That every maker of glaſs in London, or within the bills of mortality, ſhould within four weeks, and makers of glaſs in any other part of Great Britain, ſhould within ſix weeks after entry, pay off all the exciſe-duties due from them for glaſs, on forfeiture of double the ſum for every ſuch neglect and offence: but, upon exportation, a drawback is to be allowed of this additional duty.

It was likewiſe enacted, That no perſon ſhould import into Ireland, any crown, plate, flint, or white glaſs, or any common bottles, or other green glaſs, or glaſs of any kind or denomination whatſoever, other than the manufacture of Great Britain; and if any kind of glaſs whatſoever, other than the manufacture of Great Britain, ſhould be landed out of any veſſel in Ireland, it ſhould be forfeited, and deſtroyed within ten days after condemnation thereof; and the veſſel alſo with her tackle and furniture, in which the glaſs was imported, ſhould be forfeited; and the maſter of the veſſel, and every other perſon concerned in importing, or aſſiſting in landing the ſame, ſhould forfeit 10 s. for every pound weight thereof, and ſo in proportion for any greater or leſs quantity.

That the maſter of every ſhip which ſhould carry any crown, plate, flint, or white glaſs, or common bottles, or other green glaſs, or glaſs of any denomination whatſoever, to Ireland, ſhould take from the collector or comptroller of the port of Great Britain, where he ſhould lade ſuch glaſs, a duplicate of his contents in writing, under ſuch officers hand, of all the glaſs laden on board his veſſel, before he be permitted to ſail; which duplicate ſhould be given him without fee; and every maſter of ſuch veſſel ſhould deliver ſuch duplicate upon oath to the collector or other officer of the cuſtoms in ſuch port in Ireland where he ſhould arrive, and intends to unlade, before he be permitted to unlade the glaſs. And if any glaſs ſhould be unladen in any part of Ireland, before ſuch duplicate is produced to the officer as aforeſaid, it ſhould be forfeited, and deſtroyed within ten days after condemnation: the ſhip alſo, with her tackle, ſhould be forfeited; and the maſter of the veſſel, and every other perſon concerned in importing, or aſſiſting in landing the ſame, ſhould forfeit 10 s. for every pound weight thereof, and ſo in proportion for any greater or leſs quantity.

That if any perſon ſhould directly or indirectly export, tranſport, ſhip off, carry, or convey out of Ireland, or cauſe to be ſo done, or be aſſiſting towards the ſame, any glaſs of what denomination ſoever, or ſhould directly or indirectly load, or cauſe to be ſo done, any horſe, cart, or other carriage, or any veſſel within or belonging to Ireland, with any glaſs, with intent to export the ſame from Ireland, or any port thereof, or with intent that any perſon or perſons whatſoever ſhould ſo export or carry off the ſame out of Ireland, every offender, for every ſuch offence ſhould forfeit 10 s. for every pound weight ſo exported; and the glaſs ſhould be forfeited, and deſtroyed within ten days after condemnation; and the veſſel, or other bottom whatſoever carrying the ſame contrary to the meaning of this act, ſhould be forfeited, with her tackle and furniture.

That all the powers relating to exciſe ſhould be put in execution, for the managing the duties upon glaſs.

That the monies ariſing by this act on the duties upon glaſs, and alſo upon ſpirituous liquors, ſhould be entered ſeparate from all other, in a book to be kept in the auditor of exchequer's office; which ſhould be a yearly fund, charged with the annuities upon a loan of 3,000,000 l. till redemption thereof by parliament, 2,500,000 l. whereof ſhould be chargeable with 4 *per cent.* and made tranſferable in the books of the bank, to be kept in the office of the accomptant-general of that company for that purpoſe; and the remaining 500,000 l. ſhould be raiſed by lottery, for purchaſe of annuities at 4 *per cent.* to be placed to the ſame account, tranſferable in the ſame manner with the other annuities.

That all the money advanced towards the ſaid ſum of 3 000,000 l. ſhould be deemed one capital ſtock, on which the ſaid annuities ſhould be attending: but if there ſhould be any deficiency in theſe additional duties, to pay ſuch annuities, the deficiency ſhould be ſupplied out of the ſinking fund; and, if there ſhould be any ſurplus, it ſhould be reſerved for the diſpoſition of parliament. See *Exciſe*, and *Fund*.

This act has been very prejudicial to the glaſs-trade; but it is ſtill exiſting: the conſequence of which appears to be the decline of the Britiſh manufacture, and the conſumption of the French; for it is well known that great quantities of French looking-glaſſes are clandeſtinely imported into England.

GLASS *Frame-maker*, *Carver*, and *Gilder*, are particular people, who frame, carve, and gild looking-glaſſes.

GLASS-*grinder*, is a perſon who furniſhes the cabinet-maker, or upholder, with looking-glaſſes and ſconces: he buys the plate-glaſs from the glaſs-houſe rough; after which, it is his buſineſs to grind it even, and poliſh it, which is done by ſand and water.

GLASS *ſellers company, and looking-glaſs makers, of London*, were incorporated by letters-patent of the 16th of Charles II. dated the 25th of July 1664; by the name of The maſter, wardens, aſſiſtants, and commonalty of glaſs-ſellers of the city of London.

There

There are, beſides the commonalty, a maſter, 2 wardens, 24 aſſiſtants, and 44 liverymen, whoſe fine is 5 l. but having no hall, they treat of their public buſineſs where they conveniently can.

GLASS *wort.* See *Kali.*

GLAZIER. A workman, who makes and fits panes and plates of glaſs, to the ſaſhes and window-frames of houſes, pictures, and the like.

GLAZIERS *company of London*, was incorporated with that of glaſs-painters, by charter of the 13th of Charles I. dated the 6th of November 1637, by the appellation of The maſter, wardens, and commonalty of the art or myſtery of glaziers, and painters of glaſs, of the city of London; which is a fraternity conſiſting of a maſter, 2 wardens, 21 aſſiſtants, and 91 liverymen, whoſe fine is 3 l. but their hall being conſumed in the great general conflagration in 1666, and the ſite converted to another uſe, they meet elſewhere to treat of their affairs.

GLOBE, in geometry, a round or ſpherical body, more uſually called a *ſphere:* but the terraqueous globe is more peculiarly ſo denominated, in a geographical ſenſe; conſiſting of land and water; whereof 1-4th of the ſurface only is land; the land being divided into the two great eaſtern and weſtern continents, beſides iſlands; and the waters being divided into the three extenſive oceans, called the Atlantic, the Pacific, and the Indian ocean, beſides leſſer ſeas. See *Continent*, *Ocean*, and *Sea.*

GLOBE is more particularly uſed for an artificial ſphere of metal, plaiſter, paper, or other matter; on whoſe convex ſurface is drawn a map, or repreſentation, either of the earth or heavens, with the ſeveral circles conceived thereon; which are ſold by the mathematical inſtrument-makers: theſe globes being of two kinds, the celeſtial and terreſtrial; each of very conſiderable uſe; the one in aſtronomy, and the other in geography; to perform many of the operations thereof in an eaſy, ſenſible manner, ſo as to be conceived without any knowledge of the mathematical grounds of thoſe arts. The fundamental parts, common to both globes, are an axis, repreſenting that of the world; and a ſpherical ſhell, or cover, which makes the body of the globe, on whoſe external ſurface the repreſentation is drawn: but though globes are made of ſilver and braſs, thoſe commonly uſed are of plaiſter and paper.

The things common to both globes are either delineated on the ſurface, or added as appendages without it. Without the ſurface are, 1. The two poles, whereon the globe is turned, repreſenting thoſe of the world. 2. The brazen meridian, which is divided into degrees, and paſſes through the poles. 3. The wooden horizon, whoſe upper ſide repreſents the horizon, and is divided into ſeveral circles; the innermoſt whereof contains the twelve ſigns of the zodiac, ſubdivided into their degrees; the next, the Julian; and the third, the Gregorian kalendar; and, without ſide of all theſe, are drawn the points of the winds. 4. A braſs quadrant of altitude, divided into 90 degrees, to be faſtened on the meridian at the diſtance of 90 degrees from the horizon. 5. The hour-circles, divided into twice twelve hours, and fitted on the meridian, round the poles, which carry an index pointing to the hour; and a mariner's compaſs is ſometimes added to the bottom of the frame, and ſometimes a ſemicirle of poſition. On the ſurface are delineated, 1. The equinoctial line, divided into 360 degrees, commencing from the vernal interſection; 2. The ecliptic, divided into twelve ſigns, and theſe ſubdivided into degrees; 3. The zodiac; 4. The two tropics; and, 5. The polar circles. But for an explanation of theſe technical terms, reference muſt be had to their reſpective articles; and what elſe belongs to globes, either as to conſtruction, or deſcription, is different, as the globe is either celeſtial or terreſtrial.

The celeſtial globe is an artificial ſphere, on whoſe convex ſurface the fixed ſtars are laid down, at proportionable diſtances, together with the principal circles of the ſphere; the uſe of it being to exhibit the phænomena of the motions of the ſun and ſtars, in an eaſy and obvious manner; which, though ſomewhat inaccurate, is yet exact enough for the common uſes of life, and may ſave the trouble of trigonometrical calculation.

The terreſtrial globe is alſo an artificial ſphere, on whoſe ſurface are delineated the principal places of the earth, in their proper ſituations and diſtances, together with the circles imagined on the ſurface of the terreſtial ſphere. The circumference of this globe is divided into 360 parts or degrees, every degree containing 60 geographical miles; conſequently the globe is 21,600 geographical miles round; and the diameter, or thickneſs of it, near a third part of the circumference, or 7200 miles. The uſe of this globe is to exhibit the ſeveral affections and phænomena of the different places of the earth, depending on magnitude, or diſtance, in an eaſy, obvious manner, without the trouble of trigonometrical calculation.

GLOBULAR *Chart.* See Globular *Chart.*

GLOBULAR *ſailing.* See Great circle *Sailing.*

GLOSS is uſed, in matters of trade, for the luſtre of a ſilk, ſtuff, or the like. See *Luſtre.*

GLOVE. A habit, or covering, for the hand and wriſt, uſed both for warmth, decency, and as a ſhelter from the weather.

Gloves are diſtinguiſhed, with reſpect to commerce, into leathern gloves, ſilk gloves, thread gloves, cotton gloves, and worſted gloves.

There are alſo gloves of velvet, ſattin, taffety, &c. leather gloves are made of ſhammy, kid, lamb, doe, elk, and buff ſkins. There are likewiſe perfumed gloves, waſhed, glazed, waxed gloves; white, black, ſnuff, and other coloured gloves; ſingle, lined, topped, laced, fringed with gold, ſilver, ſilk, fur, and other things. It is a proverb, That for a glove to be good, and well made, three kingdoms muſt contribute to it; Spain to dreſs the leather, France to cut it, and England to ſew it. But of late the French ſeem to have appropriated the functions of the other two; the gloves of the French manufacture being now ſaid to have the advantage in point of dreſſing and ſewing, as much as of cutting.

The ſhops of London are chiefly ſupplied with gloves from the country; of which the beſt are from Scotland. The Iriſh excel in kid-ſkin; but the duty makes them come dear.

Great quantities of French, and other foreign made gloves, have of late been clandeſtinely brought into Great Britain, and ſold contrary to law, to the prejudice of his Majeſty's revenue, and to the exceeding great detriment of the glovers, and all others concerned in the manufacture of gloves in this kingdom; which it is apprehended has been inadvertently encouraged by perſons not knowing, or not conſidering the penalties they incur, by being any way acceſſary to ſuch illegal practices; though every perſon offering ſuch gloves to ſale, forfeits the ſame, with treble the value, and the gloves may be ſeized by the perſon to whom they are offered: every perſon buying ſuch gloves forfeits the ſame, with treble the value, and the gloves may be ſeized by the ſeller; and either buyer or ſeller may proſecute the other, and the firſt proſecutor be acquitted: every perſon harbouring or concealing ſuch gloves, forfeits the ſame, with treble the value: every perſon receiving or buying ſuch gloves, upon conviction before any juſtice of peace, on the oath of one witneſs, is liable to forfeit 20 l. one half to the poor of the pariſh, and the other half to the informer, or to ſuffer three months impriſonment. And whereas many ſuch gloves are ſold, under a pretence that they have been ſeized and condemned at the court of exchequer, and there legally ſold; it is neceſſary to inform the public, that all ſuch gloves as are really condemned and ſold in the court of exchequer, are ſtamped at the cuſtom-houſe before they are delivered, with an oval ſtamp between the letters G. R. in which is a crown, above theſe words in capital letters, CUSTOM-HOUSE, and below it, SEIZED, as a mark to diſtinguiſh them as having been condemned and ſold in the ſaid court; and conſequently ſuch gloves, which are not ſo ſtamped, cannot be legally bought or ſold. See *Manufacture.*

GLOVER. A perſon whoſe trade conſiſts in making gloves; but gloves are chiefly ſold by haberdaſhers and milliners in London.

GLOVERS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters patent, dated the 5th of September 1638, by the title of The maſter, wardens, and fellowſhip of the company of glo-

lovers of the city of London; who are governed by a naſter, 4 wardens, and 30 aſſiſtants, with a livery of 30 members; their fine upon their admiſſion is 5 l. 13 s. d. and they have a hall in Beech-lane, wherein they nanage their affairs.

UE, *Gluten.* A viſcid, tenacious matter, ſerving as a ement to bind or connect ſeveral things together. There re divers kinds of glues made uſe of in the different arts; s the common glue, glove-glue, and parchment-glue; he two laſt are more properly called *ſize*.

The common, or ſtrong glue, is a commodity uſed by umerous kinds of artificers; as joiners, cabinet-makers, afe-makers, hatters, bookbinders, and others; the conmption whereof is very conſiderable: but the beſt is hat made in England, in ſquare pieces, of a ruddy, rown colour; and Flanders glue is held the next after he Engliſh.

Glue is made of the ſkins of all kinds of beaſts; as oxen, ows, calves, ſheep, and others. The older the beaſt is, he better is the glue made of its hide. Indeed it is rare ney uſe whole ſkins for this purpoſe, thoſe being applied better uſe; but they make uſe of the ſhavings, parings, r ſcraps thereof; ſometimes they make it of the feet, news, and nerves, of beaſts.

hat made of whole ſkins is the beſt, and that of ſinews, c. the worſt: hence chiefly ariſes the difference of lues, and the advantage of the Engliſh and Flemiſh lues; for as Engliſh tanners generally make the glue emſelves, they are not ſparing of the parings of the ins, which they never ſell: whereas, in France, the ue-makers being a peculiar kind of manufacturers, and ving no parings but what they buy, make uſe chiefly ſinews, feet, &c.

he beſt glue is that which is oldeſt: the ſureſt teſt of odneſs, is to lay a piece to ſteep three or four days in ater; if it ſwell conſiderably without melting, and, hen taken out, reſume its antient dryneſs, it is excelnt.

GLUE, is a ſort of the glue made of a nervous and muaginous parts of a large fiſh, found chiefly in the Ruſan ſeas.

heſe parts being boiled, bear a near reſemblance to that ſcid matter found on the ſkins of cod-fiſh: when boiled the conſiſtence of a gelly, they ſpread it on a leaf of per, and form it into cakes; in which ſtate it is ſent to ngland.

iſh glue is of conſiderable uſe in medicine, and ſeveral her arts; where it is better known under the names of ng glaſs, and ichthyocolla. See *Ichthyocolla*.

YCYRRHIZA. See *Liquorice*.

OMON, in aſtronomy, denotes an inſtrument, or apratus, for meaſuring the meridian altitudes and declinaons of the ſun and ſtars.

hoſe converſant in obſervations prefer the gnomon, by me called the aſtronomical gnomon, to the ſmaller quaants; both as more accurate, eaſier made, and more ſily applied. See *Quadrant*.

ccordingly, both antients and moderns have made uſe gnomons for the making of their conſiderable obſervaons. Ulugh Beigh, King of Parthia, uſed a gnomon, the year 1437, which was 180 Roman feet high: that ected by Ignatius Dantes, in the church of St. Petrous at Bologna, in the year 1576, was 67 feet high; d M. Caſſini erected another 20 feet high in the ſame urch, in the year 1655.

A. A great city and ſea-port of the Hither India, in ia, ſituated in 73 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 15 deg. min. of N. lat. on the Malabar coaſt, in the kingdom Decan, or Viſiapour, the capital of the Portugueſe ſetments in India. See *India*.

AT. An animal ſo well known as to need no deſcripon.

he goats of Barbary, and the Indies, are eſteemed the oſt beautiful of thoſe called common goats; and the ce of the beautiful goats ſeen in Europe, particularly England and Holland, comes from thence.

ſides the fleſh, milk, and cheeſe, afforded by this ani-, there are alſo three pretty conſiderable articles in trade belonging to it, which are its ſkin, its tallow, and its hair.

The ſkin ſerves for Morocco leather, and ſometimes for parchment, by which the real chamoiſis is frequently counterfeited. Its tallow may be uſed for candles, as alſo by curriers for the dreſſing of their leather; and its hair for the manufacture of ſeveral ſtuffs, ſuch as camblets, pluſhes, and others; as alſo for making of perukes.

The greater part of goats-hair met with in Europe, is brought from the Levant. The Engliſh, Dutch, and French trade conſiderably in it; and the Flemmings, particularly thoſe of Bruſſels, employ great quantities of it for the making of camblets, which undoubtedly are the moſt beautiful in Europe.

The ſpun-goat hair of Angora is moſt in eſteem; though that of Beibazar is much more white, becauſe ſoaped on the ſpot, to give it that white luſtre which otherwiſe gives no augmentation to its quality.

There is not a merchandiſe more difficult to be known than ſpun goat-hair, either upon account of its different qualities or price; that of Angora being at leaſt of twelve ſorts, and that of Beibazar of ſeven or eight; which always augment in fineneſs and price, from the coarſeſt to the fineſt. See *Hair*.

GOBELINS. A celebrated manufactory, eſtabliſhed at Paris, in the Fauxburg St. Marcel, for the making of tapeſtry, and other furniture, for the uſe of the crown. See *Tapeſtry*.

The houſe where this manufacture is carried on, was built by two brothers, Giles and John Gobelins, both excellent dyers, and the firſt who brought to Paris the ſecret of dying that beautiful ſcarlet colour ſtill known by their name, as well as the little river Bievre, on whoſe banks they fixed their dye-houſe, and which is now known by no other name than that of the river of the Gobelins: though, before the year 1667, it was called *Gobelin's folly*, and then changed its name into that of Hotel Royal des Gobelins, in conſequence of an edict of Lewis XIV. Monſieur Colbert having re-eſtabliſhed, and with new magnificence enriched and completed the King's palaces, particularly the Louvre and Tuilleries, began to think of making furniture ſuitable to the grandeur of thoſe buildings. With this view he called together all the ableſt workmen in the ſeveral arts and manufactures throughout the kingdom; particularly painters, tapeſtry-makers, ſculptors, goldſmiths, and eboniſts, by ſplendid offers, penſions, and privileges: he alſo called others from foreign nations; and, to render the intended eſtabliſhment more firm and durable, brought the King to purchaſe the Gobelins for them to work in; and drew up a ſyſtem of laws, or policy, in ſeventeen articles.

By theſe it was provided, that the new manufactory ſhould be under the adminiſtration of the ſuperintendant of arts, and the King's buildings: that the ordinary maſters thereof ſhould take cogniſance of all actions, or proceſſes, brought againſt any of the perſons in the ſaid manufactory, their ſervants, and dependants; and that no other tapeſtry-work ſhould be imported from any other country.

The Gobelins has ever ſince remained the firſt manufactory of this kind in the world; the quantity of the fineſt and nobleſt works that have been produced by it, and the number of the beſt workmen bred up therein, being incredible: ſo that, in effect, the preſent flouriſhing condition of the arts and manufactures of France, is in a great meaſure owing thereto.

Tapeſtry-work in particular is their glory. During the ſuperintendance of M. Colbert, and his ſucceſſor M. de Louvois, the making of tapeſtry is ſaid to have been practiſed to a degree of perfection, ſcarce inferior to what was antiently done by the Engliſh and Flemiſh: the battles of Alexander, the four ſeaſons, the four elements, the King's palaces, and a ſeries of the principal actions of the life of Lewis XIV. from the time of his marriage to the firſt conqueſt of Franche Comte, done from the deſigns of M. le Brun, director of the manufactory of Gobelins, being maſter-pieces in their kind.

GOESMON, or *Gouemon*. A kind of ſea-herb, otherwiſe called varech. See *Varech*.

GOES. A port-town of the United Provinces, capital of the iſland of S. Beveland, in the province of Zealand, ſituated in 3 deg. 45 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 10 miles E. of Middleburg, and 13 miles W. of Bergen-op-Zoom.

GOLD. A yellow metal; the heavieſt, pureſt, moſt ductile, and ſhining, and on thoſe accounts the moſt valuable of all metals. See *Metal*.

The chemiſts call gold *ſol*, the ſun, to denote its pre-eminence over other metals, which are called by the names of the planets: its ſymbol or character is ☉, which in their hieroglyphical way of writing denotes perfection, ſimplicity, and ſolidity.

The weight of gold is to that of water, as 19636 to 1000. A cubic inch of pure gold, weighs 12 oz. 2 dr. 52 gr. and the cubic inch of ſilver 6 oz. 5 dr. 28 gr. the pound weight, or 12 oz. Troy, of gold, being divided into 24 caracts.

The value of gold is to that of ſilver, as 14 to 1; but antiently it was only as 12 to 1. Indeed this proportion varies, as gold is more or leſs plentiful: for Suetonius relates, that Cæſar brought ſuch a quantity of gold to Rome, that the pound of gold was only worth ſeven pounds and a half of ſilver. Standard gold is worth 44 l. 10 s. ſterling the pound weight; ſtandard ſilver is worth 3 l. the pound, or 5 s. the ounce. See *Coin*, and *Money*.

The firſt characteriſtic, or property of gold, is, that it is the heavieſt of all bodies: ſo that whoever would make gold, muſt be able to add to the weight of other matters, and make them equiponderate with gold.

In every maſs of matter, therefore, heavier than mercury, there muſt of neceſſity be a ſhare of gold; there being no body in nature of intermediate gravity, that is, no body whoſe gravity is to that of gold, more than 14 to 19. See *Mercury*.

Its ſecond character is, that of all known bodies it is the moſt ductile and malleable; and of all bodies its parts have the greateſt degree of attraction, or cohere with the greateſt force. Gold-beaters and wire-drawers furniſh proofs of this property; for they reduce gold into leaves, or lamella, inconceivably thin, yet without leaving the leaſt aperture or chaſm viſible to the beſt microſcope, or even pervious to the light.

This tenacity, or coheſive force of gold, depends altogether on its being free from ſulphur; for mix but a ſingle grain of common ſulphur with one thouſand times the weight of gold, and the maſs ceaſes to be malleable. See *Sulphur*.

The third character of gold is its fixedneſs in the fire; in which it exceeds all other bodies. This property ſeems to reſult from the homogeneity and equality of its parts, which equally aid and ſupport each other, and have equal pores or interſtices through which the fiery corpuſcles find an eaſy paſſage. The Prince of Mirandola, Mr. Boyle, and other chemiſts, furniſh divers experiments to illuſtrate this wonderful fixity; for, after laying a quantity of gold two months in the intenſeſt heat imaginable, it is taken out without any diminution of weight.

Its fourth character is, not to be diſſoluble by any menſtruum in nature, except aqua regia and mercury. The baſis of aqua regia is ſea-ſalt, which is the only known ſalt that has any effect on gold; but this ſalt has its effect, in what form or manner ſoever applied, whether as a fluid or a ſolid, in ſubſtance or in ſpirit.

The fifth character is, that it readily and ſpontaneouſly, as by ſome magnetic virtue, attracts and abſorbs mercury. It may be added, that as ſoon as the mercury enters the gold, the metal becomes ſoft, like a paſte.

The ſixth character is, that it withſtands the violence both of lead and antimony; that is, being fuſed in the coppel along with either of thoſe matters, it does not diſſipate, and fly off with them in fume, but remains fixed and unchanged. All other metals, except gold, and ſilver melted with lead, periſh with it, and evaporate by fire; and in antimony, all other metals, except gold, even ſilver itſelf, undergo the ſame fate. Thus, if a maſs, conſiſting of gold, ſilver, ſtones, and copper, be fuſed together with antimony, the ſeveral matters become ſeparated, and all but the gold riſes to the ſurface in form of a ſcoria, and is blown off with bellows; but the gold remains behind, much purified, as having loſt all its heterogeneous parts along with the other metals: and hence antimony is uſed as the teſt of gold.

The ſeventh character is, that of all bodies it is the ſimpleſt, the primary elements being here excepted. By ſimple is meant, that whoſe minuteſt part has all the phyſical properties of the whole maſs. Thus, if a grain of gold be diſſolved in aqua regia, and a ſingle drop of the ſolution be taken, a quantity of gold may be ſeparated therefrom, which ſhall only be the millionth part of the grain, and yet have all the characters of gold; or, if a grain of gold is fuſed with a large maſs of ſilver, and mixed together, ſo that the gold becomes equally diffuſed through the whole maſs, there will be found in every particle of the maſs a particle of perfect gold. Accordingly, diſſolve any part of the mixture in aqua fortis, and a quantity of gold will precipitate to the bottom, bearing the ſame proportion to the grain, that the part diſſolved did to the whole maſs; on which principle depends the art of aſſaying. See *Aſſay*.

All the known parts of the earth afford this precious metal, though with a deal of difference in point of purity and abundance. Europe, ſo fertile in other reſpects, comes ſhort of all other quarters in gold. America furniſhes the moſt, particularly the mines of Peru and Chili. That of Aſia is eſteemed the fineſt, particularly that of Menaricabo in the Eaſt Indies: though the Spaniards affirm, that they get gold out of ſome of their Peruvian mines 23 caracts fine before it is purified; and the gold of Axima, on the coaſt of Africa, is found from 22 to 23 caracts.

Glauber, an eminent chemiſt, holds that there is no any ſand, or ſtone, but gold may be procured from lime-ſtone only excepted: the misfortune is, that the expence of ſeparating it much ſurmounts the profits.

Gold is chiefly found in mines: though there is ſome alſo found in the ſand, and mud of rivers and torrents, particularly in Guinea; which laſt is in form of a fine duſt, and called gold-duſt. Glauber ſays, that there is a third ſort of gold, ſcarce found any where but in the drains of the mountains of Chili; which is ſeparated from the earth by waſhing; whence the places where it is found, or ſeparated, are called lavaderos.

This earth is uſually reddiſh, and very fine; at about 20 feet deep, it is mixed with grains of large duſt; and from hence commences the ſtratum, or bed of gold. Between are banks of ſoft blueiſh ſtone, mixed with yellow threads, which yet are not gold, but only pyrites or marcaſite of gold. When the miners have diſcovered any of this earth, they endeavour to bring rivulets to it, which in thoſe mountains are very frequent; in order, by force thereof, to tear off the upper earth, and lay the ſtratum bare. This they forward by digging with ſpades, and, as ſoon as the golden earth is uncovered, they turn off the water; when they dig up the ſoil by force of arms, and, loading it on mules, carry it to the lavaderos, which are a ſort of baſons of water; where the earth undergoes divers repeated lotions, in different waters, the earthy and impure part is all ſeparated and carried off with the ſtream, and the gold left at bottom. This method of getting gold is immenſely gainful; the expence being but trifling, compared with thoſe accruing in the common way, by machines, fire, and quickſilver. The richeſt of theſe lavaderos, is that of De l'Eſtancia del Rey, 12 leagues from the Conception, a port of the South Sea. But Thuringia, and ſome other places about the Rhine, are the only places in Europe where gold is got in this manner.

The gold of mines is of two kinds; the one in pieces, or grains, of various forms and weights. Of this ſort, among the ſpecimens ſent by Columbus to Spain, to let them ſee the richneſs of his diſcovery, there were ſome of 18 oz. weight; and the relations of those days aſſure us, that in 1502 there were others found of 32 lb. weight.

The other kind of gold is dug up in ſtoney glebes,

s what they call the mineral, or ore of gold. Theſe lebes are of various colours, and uſually 150 or 160 athom deep. Along with the gold they uſually contain ome other mineral matter, as antimony, vitriol, ſulphur, opper, or ſilver, particularly the laſt; without ſome f which it is ſcarce ever found.

Manner of ſeparating gold. They firſt break the metal- ine ſtone with iron mallets, pretty ſmall; then carry it o the mills, where it is ground into a very fine powder, nd laſtly paſs it through ſeveral braſs-wire ſieves, one af- er another, the laſt as fine as any ſilk ſieve.

The powder, thus prepared, is laid in wooden troughs, with a proper quantity of mercury and water, and there eft to knead and ſaturate in the ſun and air for twice 24 hours. After this the water, with the recrementitious earth, is drove out of the tub by means of other hot waters poured thereon. This done, there remains nothing but maſs of mercury, with all the gold that was in the ore. The mercury is ſeparated from it by diſtillation in large alembics. The gold, in this ſtate, is called *virgin gold*; as well as that found in the ſand of the rivers, or that in grains in the mines, in regard none of them have paſſed the fire. After this, they uſually fuſe it in crucibles, and caſt it into plates or ingots.

Manner of refining gold. There are three principal man- ners of refining gold; the firſt with antimony, the ſecond with ſublimate, and the third with aqua fortis. See *Re- fining*.

Beſides theſe three, there are other methods of refining gold; particularly that called cupellation, which is per- formed with lead and aſhes; and that called cæmenta- tion, by means of a compoſition of brick-duſt, common ſalt, ſal ammoniac, ſal gemma, and urine.

The aſſaying of gold is performed with the touchſtone, but more ſecurely by fire. See *Aſſaying*.

By the ſtatute of the 15th of Charles II. it was enacted, That it ſhould be lawful to export out of any port of England or Wales, in which there is a cuſtomer or col- lector, or out of Berwick, all foreign coin, or bullion, of gold or ſilver, firſt making entry thereof in the cuſtom- houſe, without paying duty. See *Bullion*.

And, by the ſtatute of the 1ſt of William and Mary, it was alſo enacted, That all the gold and ſilver that ſhould be extracted by the art of melting and refining of metals, and otherwiſe improving of them and their ores, ſhould be employed for no other uſe but the increaſe of monies; and the place for the diſpoſal thereof ſhould be their Ma- jeſties mint within the Tower of London, where they were to receive the full value for their gold and ſilver ſo extracted. See *Coinage*.

When gold and ſilver aſſumed the character and form of money, both theſe metals had affixed to them a diſtinct and determinate value: and though, in former ages, the proportion between gold and ſilver was ſo ſettled, that every ounce of gold was nearly equivalent to 12 of ſilver; yet afterwards, when America was diſcovered, gold quickly came to be in ſo great eſteem, that the ounce was reckoned nearly equal in value to 15 ounces of ſilver. This, we muſt certainly be convinced, could be owing to nothing, but that the ſilver mines at that time yielded great quantities of ore. But as this regulation was founded merely on the greater or leſſer ſcarcity of one of theſe two metals, the preſent proportion of 1 ounce to 15, does not ſeem altogether ſo well adjuſted as might be wiſhed; becauſe, conſidering the preſent ſcarcity of ſilver, which is owing to the vaſt ſums of that coin carried to the Eaſt Indies, the prevailing cuſtom lately introduced, of work- ing ſuch great quantities of ſilver into plate, and to the failing of the mines, which yield it not now in ſuch plenty as they did at firſt, the price of gold ſeems to be raiſed too high; and it were to be wiſhed it might gradually be brought back to its juſt proportion.

And becauſe the equality between gold and ſilver being once exactly adjuſted, according to this proportion, all other inferior ſorts of money, reduced to the ſame ſtan- dard, would be ſubjected to the ſame rule: therefore, by bringing down the price of gold to its juſt compara- tive value, many inconveniencies would be avoided; for it is moſt evident, that it is not poſſible to neglect this proportion, but the certain and ſudden loſs of the one or other of the two ſpecies will be the conſequence; ſince it is plain, that either raiſed in the extrinſic value, the other will be converted into plate, or carried out of the king- dom.

Moreover, whether the diſproportion ſuppoſed to be in- troduced into the ſyſtem of money affect the gold or ſil- ver coin, in either caſe the kingdom will ſuffer alike: to avoid which theſe two metals ſhould be regulated in their proportion, according to that ſyſtem which ought to ſerve as a conſtant and univerſal rule to all, and is the general practice of the kingdoms of Europe; that is, to fix un- alterably the proportion between gold and ſilver, taking the meaſure thereof with reſpect to more or leſs from the moſt conſiderable parts of Europe; and indeed ſeveral kingdoms have already taken thoſe proper methods to pre- vent the ſcarcity of ſilver.

In Europe the principal gold mines are at Chremnitz, and ſome other places, in Hungary; the former of which has been worked 900 years, being ſeveral miles long, and 160 fathoms deep.

In Aſia, the chief places where gold is found in any quan- tities, are Achem, the capital city of Sumatra; which is uſed as a commodity, inſtead of money or coin; it being the chief return of goods carried thither for ſale: Pegu, from whence it is brought, and ſold to the merchants of Achem: Cochinchina, China, and Japan; but the Chi- neſe ſell it for ſilver: the Philippine iſlands, particularly near Manilla; and the iſland of Borneo, where they ſift it out of the ſands of the rivers, in ſearching for diamonds.

In Africa, the principal gold mines are along the coaſt of Guinea; which are very rich and numerous. See *Guinea*.

In America, the chief mines of gold are in the ſouth part of Peru, near the frontiers of Chili; where the gold- miners pay only 1-20th part to the King; though the ſilver-miners pay 1-5th, becauſe the adventure of the former is much more precarious than the latter. But the richeſt of theſe gold mines are in Brazil, and belong to the King of Portugal. See *Portugal*, and *Spain*.

All gold and ſilver is properly a commodity, particularly in Holland: for as all bills of exchange above ſuch a ſum are payable in bank, where the ſpecie is ſuppoſed to lie, to anſwer the whole demand; and there is money of a baſe alloy, with which all ſmall ſums are payable, and the neceſſaries for human life bought, as alſo moſt of the commodities bought and ſold; therefore people make it a trade to buy gold and ſilver, and keep it for a market; ſo that it has ſeldom any determinate price.

Upon the whole; the importation of gold and ſilver is no longer an advantage to Great Britain, unleſs ſhe can have an over-ballance in the general trade of the world to anſwer it; and, notwithſtanding all laws that can be made, if the Britiſh nation owes a ballance in its general trade, the gold and ſilver of the nation muſt go to pay the ballance: ſo that it ſignifies nothing to import it in foreign ſpecie, if ſhe muſt pay for it in her own coin to the man who will run the riſk of her laws; for, in Spain and Portugal, it is death by the law to ſhip off gold or ſilver; and yet they are daily exported, particularly to England, where, in three years time, there have been coined at the Tower of London 23,719 lb. 9 oz. of gold; the value of which in tale was 1,055,528 l. 17 s. 6 d. ex- cluſive of what gold was re-exported to China, and other countries.

Burniſhed GOLD, is that ſmoothened, or poliſhed with a ſteel inſtrument, called a burniſher, if it be wrought gold, or gilding on metal; or with a wolf's tooth, if it be gild- ing in water.

Gold Coin, or *Species of* GOLD. See *Coin*.

Cloth of GOLD. See *Cloth*.

Fine or *pure* GOLD, is that purged by fire of all its impuri- ties, and all alloy. The moderns frequently call it gold of 24 carats; but, in reality, there is no ſuch thing as gold ſo very pure; and there is always wanting at leaſt a quarter of a carat. Gold of 22 carats has one part of ſilver, and another of copper; that of 23 carats has half a part, that is, a 24th of each. See *Carat*, and *Alloy*.

Bouteroue maintains, that the electrum of the antients was gold of 19 carats, or four parts gold, and a fifth ſil-

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This tenacity, or coheſive force of gold, depends altogether on its being free from ſulphur; for mix but a ſingle grain of common ſulphur with one thouſand times the weight of gold, and the maſs ceaſes to be malleable. See *Sulphur*.

The third character of gold is its fixedneſs in the fire; in which it exceeds all other bodies. This property ſeems to reſult from the homogeneity and equality of its parts, which equally aid and ſupport each other, and have equal pores or interſtices through which the fiery corpuſcles find an eaſy paſſage. The Prince of Mirandola, Mr. Boyle, and other chemiſts, furniſh divers experiments to illuſtrate this wonderful fixity; for, after laying a quantity of gold two months in the intenſeſt heat imaginable, it is taken out without any diminution of weight.

Its fourth character is, not to be diſſoluble by any menſtruum in nature, except aqua regia and mercury. The baſis of aqua regia is ſea-ſalt, which is the only known ſalt that has any effect on gold; but this ſalt has its effect, in what form or manner ſoever applied, whether as a fluid or a ſolid, in ſubſtance or in ſpirit.

The fifth character is, that it readily and ſpontaneouſly, as by ſome magnetic virtue, attracts and abſorbs mercury. It may be added, that as ſoon as the mercury enters the gold, the metal becomes ſoft, like a paſte.

The ſixth character is, that it withſtands the violence both of lead and antimony; that is, being fuſed in the coppel along with either of thoſe matters, it does not diſſipate, and fly off with them in fume, but remains fixed and unchanged. All other metals, except gold, and ſilver melted with lead, periſh with it, and evaporate by fire; and in antimony, all other metals, except gold, even ſilver itſelf, undergo the ſame fate. Thus, if a maſs, conſiſting of gold, ſilver, ſtones, and copper, be fuſed together with antimony, the ſeveral matters become ſeparated, and all but the gold riſes to the ſurface in form of a ſcoria, and is blown off with bellows; but the gold remains behind, much purified, as having loſt all its heterogeneous parts along with the other metals: and hence antimony is uſed as the teſt of gold.

The ſeventh character is, that of all bodies it is the ſimpleſt, the primary elements being here excepted. By ſimple is meant, that whoſe minuteſt part has all the phyſical properties of the whole maſs. Thus, if a grain of gold be diſſolved in aqua regia, and a ſingle drop of the ſolution be taken, a quantity of gold may be ſeparated therefrom, which ſhall only be the millionth part of the grain, and yet have all the characters of gold; or, if a grain of gold is fuſed with a large maſs of ſilver, and mixed together, ſo that the gold becomes equally diffuſed through the whole maſs, there will be found in every particle of the maſs a particle of perfect gold. Accordingly, diſſolve any part of the mixture in aqua fortis, and a quantity of gold will precipitate to the bottom, bearing the ſame proportion to the grain, that the part diſſolved did to the whole maſs; on which principle depends the art of aſſaying. See *Aſſay*.

All the known parts of the earth afford this precious metal, though with a deal of difference in point of purity and abundance. Europe, ſo fertile in other reſpects, comes ſhort of all other quarters in gold. America furniſhes the moſt, particularly the mines of Peru and Chili. That of Aſia is eſteemed the fineſt, particularly that of Menaricabo in the Eaſt Indies: though the Spaniards affirm, that they get gold out of ſome of their Peruvian mines 23 caracts fine before it is purified; and the gold of Axima, on the coaſt of Africa, is found from 22 to 23 caracts.

Glauber, an eminent chemiſt, holds that there is no any ſand, or ſtone, but gold may be procured from lime-ſtone only excepted: the misfortune is, that the expence of ſeparating it much ſurmounts the profits.

Gold is chiefly found in mines: though there is ſome alſo found in the ſand, and mud of rivers and torrents, particularly in Guinea; which laſt is in form of a fine duſt, and called gold-duſt. Glauber ſays, that there is a third ſort of gold, ſcarce found any where but in the drains of the mountains of Chili; which is ſeparated from the earth by waſhing; whence the places where it is found, or ſeparated, are called lavaderos.

This earth is uſually reddiſh, and very fine; at about 20 feet deep, it is mixed with grains of large duſt; and from hence commences the ſtratum, or bed of gold. Between are banks of ſoft blueiſh ſtone, mixed with yellow threads, which yet are not gold, but only pyrites or marcaſite of gold. When the miners have diſcovered any of this earth, they endeavour to bring rivulets to which in thoſe mountains are very frequent; in order, by force thereof, to tear off the upper earth, and lay the ſtratum bare. This they forward by digging with ſpades, and, as ſoon as the golden earth is uncovered, they turn off the water; when they dig up the ſoil by force of arms, and, loading it on mules, carry it to the lavaderos, or a ſort of baſons of water; where the earth undergoes divers repeated lotions, in different waters, the earthy and impure part is all ſeparated and carried off with the ſtream, and the gold left at bottom. This method of getting gold is immenſely gainful; the expence being but trifling, compared with thoſe accruing in the common way, by machines, fire, and quickſilver. The richeſt of theſe lavaderos, is that of De l'Eſtancia del Rey, 12 leagues from the Conception, a port of the South Sea. But Thuringia, and ſome other places about the Rhine, are the only places in Europe where gold is got in this manner.

The gold of mines is of two kinds; the one in pieces, or grains, of various forms and weights. Of this ſort, among the ſpecimens ſent by Columbus into Spain, to let them ſee the richneſs of his diſcovery, there were ſome of 18 oz. weight; and the relations of those days aſſure us, that in 1502 there were others found of 32 lb. weight.

The other kind of gold is dug up in ſtoney glebes,

s what they call the mineral, or ore of gold. Theſe glebes are of various colours, and uſually 150 or 160 fathom deep. Along with the gold they uſually contain ſome other mineral matter, as antimony, vitriol, ſulphur, copper, or ſilver, particularly the laſt; without ſome of which it is ſcarce ever found.

Manner of ſeparating gold. They firſt break the metalline ſtone with iron mallets, pretty ſmall; then carry it to the mills, where it is ground into a very fine powder, and laſtly paſs it through ſeveral braſs-wire ſieves, one after another, the laſt as fine as any ſilk ſieve.

The powder, thus prepared, is laid in wooden troughs, with a proper quantity of mercury and water, and there left to knead and ſaturate in the ſun and air for twice 24 hours. After this the water, with the recrementitious earth, is drove out of the tub by means of other hot waters poured thereon. This done, there remains nothing but a maſs of mercury, with all the gold that was in the ore. The mercury is ſeparated from it by diſtillation in large alembics. The gold, in this ſtate, is called *virgin gold*; as well as that found in the ſand of the rivers, or that in grains in the mines, in regard none of them have paſſed the fire. After this, they uſually fuſe it in crucibles, and caſt it into plates or ingots.

Manner of refining gold. There are three principal manners of refining gold; the firſt with antimony, the ſecond with ſublimate, and the third with aqua fortis. See *Refining*.

Beſides theſe three, there are other methods of refining gold; particularly that called cupellation, which is performed with lead and aſhes; and that called cæmentation, by means of a compoſition of brick-duſt, common ſalt, ſal ammoniac, ſal gemma, and urine.

The aſſaying of gold is performed with the touchſtone, but more ſecurely by fire. See *Aſſaying*.

By the ſtatute of the 15th of Charles II. it was enacted, That it ſhould be lawful to export out of any port of England or Wales, in which there is a cuſtomer or collector, or out of Berwick, all foreign coin, or bullion, of gold or ſilver, firſt making entry thereof in the cuſtom-houſe, without paying duty. See *Bullion*.

And, by the ſtatute of the 1ſt of William and Mary, it was alſo enacted, That all the gold and ſilver that ſhould be extracted by the art of melting and refining of metals, and otherwiſe improving of them and their ores, ſhould be employed for no other uſe but the increaſe of monies; and the place for the diſpoſal thereof ſhould be their Majeſties mint within the Tower of London, where they were to receive the full value for their gold and ſilver ſo extracted. See *Coinage*.

When gold and ſilver aſſumed the character and form of money, both theſe metals had affixed to them a diſtinct and determinate value: and though, in former ages, the proportion between gold and ſilver was ſo ſettled, that every ounce of gold was nearly equivalent to 12 of ſilver; yet afterwards, when America was diſcovered, gold quickly came to be in ſo great eſteem, that the ounce was reckoned nearly equal in value to 15 ounces of ſilver. This, we muſt certainly be convinced, could be owing to nothing, but that the ſilver mines at that time yielded great quantities of ore. But as this regulation was founded merely on the greater or leſſer ſcarcity of one of theſe two metals, the preſent proportion of 1 ounce to 15, does not ſeem altogether ſo well adjuſted as might be wiſhed; becauſe, conſidering the preſent ſcarcity of ſilver, which is owing to the vaſt ſums of that coin carried to the Eaſt Indies, the prevailing cuſtom lately introduced, of working ſuch great quantities of ſilver into plate, and to the failing of the mines, which yield it not now in ſuch plenty as they did at firſt, the price of gold ſeems to be raiſed too high; and it were to be wiſhed it might gradually be brought back to its juſt proportion.

And becauſe the equality between gold and ſilver being once exactly adjuſted, according to this proportion, all other inferior ſorts of money, reduced to the ſame ſtandard, would be ſubjected to the ſame rule: therefore, by bringing down the price of gold to its juſt comparative value, many inconveniencies would be avoided; for it is moſt evident, that it is not poſſible to neglect this proportion, but the certain and ſudden loſs of the one or other of the two ſpecies will be the conſequence; ſince it is plain, that either raiſed in the extrinſic value, the other will be converted into plate, or carried out of the kingdom.

Moreover, whether the diſproportion ſuppoſed to be introduced into the ſyſtem of money affect the gold or ſilver coin, in either caſe the kingdom will ſuffer alike: to avoid which theſe two metals ſhould be regulated in their proportion, according to that ſyſtem which ought to ſerve as a conſtant and univerſal rule to all, and is the general practice of the kingdoms of Europe; that is, to fix unalterably the proportion between gold and ſilver, taking the meaſure thereof with reſpect to more or leſs from the moſt conſiderable parts of Europe; and indeed ſeveral kingdoms have already taken thoſe proper methods to prevent the ſcarcity of ſilver.

In Europe the principal gold mines are at Chremnitz, and ſome other places, in Hungary; the former of which has been worked 900 years, being ſeveral miles long, and 160 fathoms deep.

In Aſia, the chief places where gold is found in any quantities, are Achem, the capital city of Sumatra; which is uſed as a commodity, inſtead of money or coin; it being the chief return of goods carried thither for ſale: Pegu, from whence it is brought, and ſold to the merchants of Achem: Cochinchina, China, and Japan; but the Chineſe ſell it for ſilver: the Philippine iſlands, particularly near Manilla; and the iſland of Borneo, where they ſift it out of the ſands of the rivers, in ſearching for diamonds.

In Africa, the principal gold mines are along the coaſt of Guinea; which are very rich and numerous. See *Guinea*.

In America, the chief mines of gold are in the ſouth part of Peru, near the frontiers of Chili; where the gold-miners pay only 1-20th part to the King; though the ſilver-miners pay 1-5th, becauſe the adventure of the former is much more precarious than the latter. But the richeſt of theſe gold mines are in Brazil, and belong to the King of Portugal. See *Portugal*, and *Spain*.

All gold and ſilver is properly a commodity, particularly in Holland: for as all bills of exchange above ſuch a ſum are payable in bank, where the ſpecie is ſuppoſed to lie, to anſwer the whole demand; and there is money of a baſe alloy, with which all ſmall ſums are payable, and the neceſſaries for human life bought, as alſo moſt of the commodities bought and ſold; therefore people make it a trade to buy gold and ſilver, and keep it for a market; ſo that it has ſeldom any determinate price.

Upon the whole; the importation of gold and ſilver is no longer an advantage to Great Britain, unleſs ſhe can have an over-ballance in the general trade of the world to anſwer it; and, notwithſtanding all laws that can be made, if the Britiſh nation owes a ballance in its general trade, the gold and ſilver of the nation muſt go to pay the ballance: ſo that it ſignifies nothing to import it in foreign ſpecie, if ſhe muſt pay for it in her own coin to the man who will run the riſk of her laws; for, in Spain and Portugal, it is death by the law to ſhip off gold or ſilver; and yet they are daily exported, particularly to England, where, in three years time, there have been coined at the Tower of London 23,719 lb. 9 oz. of gold; the value of which in tale was 1,055,528 l. 17 s. 6 d. excluſive of what gold was re-exported to China, and other countries.

Burniſhed GOLD, is that ſmoothened, or poliſhed with a ſteel inſtrument, called a burniſher, if it be wrought gold, or gilding on metal; or with a wolf's tooth, if it be gilding in water.

Gold Coin, or *Species of* GOLD. See *Coin*.

Cloth of GOLD. See *Cloth*.

Fine or *pure* GOLD, is that purged by fire of all its impurities, and all alloy. The moderns frequently call it gold of 24 carats; but, in reality, there is no ſuch thing as gold ſo very pure; and there is always wanting at leaſt a quarter of a carat. Gold of 22 carats has one part of ſilver, and another of copper; that of 23 carats has half a part, that is, a 24th of each. See *Carat*, and *Alloy*.

Bouteroue maintains, that the electrum of the antients was gold of 19 carats, or four parts gold, and a fifth ſil-

ver. From an ordinance of King John of France, it appears that the gold then ſtruck at Paris was of 19⅓ carats; and yet it is added, that it was the beſt and fineſt gold then known on earth. In England, at this time, the ſtandard of crown gold is 22 caracts.

GOLD *Lace*. See *Lace*.

Leaf GOLD, or *Beaten Gold*, is gold beaten with a hammer into exceeding thin leaves.

It is prodigious to ſee the fineneſs they will thus reduce a body of gold to; it being computed that an ounce may be beaten into 160 leaves, each three inches ſquare; in which ſtate it takes up more than 159,099 times its former ſpace.

This gold they beat on a block of marble, commonly black marble, about a foot ſquare, and uſually raiſed three feet high. They make uſe of three ſorts of hammers, formed like mallets, of poliſhed iron: the firſt, which weighs three or four pounds, ſerves to chaſe, or drive; the ſecond, of eleven or twelve pounds, to cloſe; and the third, which weighs fourteen or fifteen pounds, to ſtretch and finiſh.

They alſo make uſe of four moulds, of different ſizes; two of vellom, the ſmalleſt whereof conſiſts of 40 or 50 leaves, and the larger of 200; the other two, conſiſting each of 500 leaves, are made of bullocks guts, well ſcoured and prepared.

The leaves thus finiſhed, they take them out of the mould, and diſpoſe them in little paper-books, prepared with red bole, for the gold to ſtick to; each book ordinarily containing 25 gold leaves.

There are two ſizes of theſe books; 25 leaves of the ſmalleſt only weighs 5 or 6 grains, and the ſame number of the largeſt 9 or 10 grains.

It muſt be obſerved, that gold is beaten more or leſs, according to the kind or quality of the work it is intended for: that for the gold-wire drawers to gild their ingots with, is much thicker than that for gilding the frames of pictures. See *Gilding*.

Million of GOLD, is a phraſe uſed to ſignify a million of crowns. See *Crown*.

GOLD *Money*. See *Money*.

Moſaic GOLD, is gold applied in pannels on a proper ground, diſtributed into ſquares, lozenges, and other compartments; part whereof is ſhadowed to raiſe or heighten the reſt. See *Moſaic*.

Shell GOLD is that uſed by the illuminers, and to write gold letters. It is made of the parings of leaf gold, and even of the leaves themſelves, reduced into an impalpable powder, by grinding on a marble, with honey. After leaving it to infuſe for ſome time in aqua fortis, they put it in ſhells, where it ſticks: to uſe it, they dilute it with gum water, or ſoap-water.

Tun of GOLD, is a kind of money of accompt, uſed by the Dutch, and in ſome other countries, containing 100,000 florins. See *Florin*.

A hundred pounds ſterling of or in gold, is found to weigh 2 lb. 10 oz. the ſame ſum in ſilver weighs 26 lb. 4 oz. twenty-two pence, in copper farthings and halfpence, weigh 1 lb. avoirdupoiſe.

A tun of gold, at 4 l. the ounce, amounts to 96,000 l. a tun of ſilver, at 5 s. 2 d. to the ounce, to 6200 l. a pound weight of ſterling gold, is worth 48 l. an ounce is worth 4 l. the penny-weight 4 s. one grain 2 d. a pound weight of ſterling ſilver amounts to 3 l. 2 s. an ounce is worth 5 s. 2 d. the penny-weight 3 d. and ſomething more, one grain a halfpenny.

Virgin GOLD, is gold juſt as it is taken out of the mines, before it has undergone any action or preparation by fire. Such is the gold duſt, and that got by lotion in the lavaderos in Chili. It is added, that there are maſſes or lumps of pure gold found in the mines, particularly thoſe of Hungary. Accordingly, in the Emperor's collection, are ſtill preſerved ſeveral plates of gold ſaid to be thus found. Virgin gold is ſometimes very pale, and ſo ſoft that it may be moulded into any figure with the hand. It even takes an impreſſion from a ſeal, like the ſofteſt wax. To harden it, as alſo to heighten its colour, they mix emery with it.

GOLD *Wire* is a cylindrical ingot of ſilver, ſuperficially gilt, or covered with gold, at the fire, and afterwards drawn ſucceſſively through a great number of little round holes, of a wire-drawing iron, each leſs than the other, till it is ſometimes no bigger than a hair of the head.

It may be obſerved, that before the wire is reduced to this exceſſive fineneſs, it is drawn through above 140 different holes; and that each time they draw it, it is rubbed freſh over with new wax, both to facilitate its paſſage, and to prevent the ſilver's appearing through.

It is amazing to what degree of fineneſs the gold is here drawn; and yet it ſtill keeps firm together, and never ſhews the leaſt ſigns of the ſilver underneath it. See Gold *Wire*.

Gold wire flatted, is the former flatted between two rollers of poliſhed ſteel, to fit it to be ſpun on ſilk, or to be uſed as it is without ſpinning, in certain ſtuffs, lace, and embroideries.

GOLD, *in medicine and chemiſtry*. The chemiſts make ſeveral preparations of gold for medicinal uſes; as ſalts, mercuries, and tinctures of gold; but it is a point not yet well agreed on, whether gold has any real property whereby it may be of uſe in medicine.

Notwithſtanding the ſmall number of experiments wherein the medicinal efficacy of gold is founded, the alchymiſts will have it contain the radical balm of life, for the retrieving of health and youth, and the removal of all diſeaſes. Gold, according to them, contains a ſulphur friendly to nature, like that of the ſun, which animates the whole univerſe: and on this principle they have formed a thouſand airy projects for an univerſal remedy. See *Elixir*.

In effect, it is probable the Arabs and alchymiſts were only brought to attribute all theſe virtues to gold, from their perceiving certain qualities therein, which they ſuppoſed it muſt communicate to other bodies. Thus, gold being commonly ſaid to be incapable of being deſtroyed, it is hence concluded to be proper to preſerve animal matters, and defend them from putrefaction; which is juſt as reaſonable as ſome phyſicians preſcribing the blood of an aſs's ear as an appeaſing remedy, by reaſon the aſs is a very peaceable animal.

GOLD-BEATER, is a perſon who makes leaf gold, by purifying gold, and heating it when in thin plates, before he begins to hammer it, which is done between leaves made of gut, called *gold beaters leaf*.

GOLD-FINDER, is a perſon who purchaſes the ſweepings of goldſmiths ſhops, and refiners aſhes, or the rubbiſh wherein plate is ſuppoſed to have been melted. Theſe aſhes or duſt are waſhed with water from their impurities as much as poſſible; then put in a veſſel, into which quickſilver is poured, and, by conſtantly ſtirring it about, the mercury attracts whatever metal is in the duſt. When they think the quickſilver has done its office, it is taken out and waſhed, and then diſtilled from the other metals which remain at bottom: theſe are melted together in a lump, and carried to the refiner, who knows how to ſeparate them. There are but few maſters in this way, who take no apprentices, and uſe common labourers to do their work.

GOLDSMITH, or *Silverſmith*, is a perſon employed in making all manner of utenſils in thoſe rich metals, either for ornament or uſe. His work is either performed in the mould, or beat into figure by the hammer, or other engine. All works that have any ſort of ſculpture, or raiſed figures of any ſort, are caſt in moulds, and afterwards poliſhed and finiſhed. Plates or diſhes of ſilver are beat out from thin flat plates: but tankards, and other veſſels of that kind, are formed of thin plates ſoldered together; and their mouldings are beat, not caſt.

The goldſmiths of London employ ſeveral diſtinct workmen, almoſt as many as there are articles in their ſhops; for in this city there are hands that excel in every branch, and are conſtantly employed in their own way, which gives them an advantage over other nations, who employ the ſame hands in every branch of their trade. But the goldſmiths of London are generally bankers. See *Banker*.

Goldſmiths, and manufacturers in gold and ſilver. The goldſmiths of London were incorporated by King E

ward III. in the year 1327, by the name of The war-
dens and commonalty of the myſtery of goldſmiths of the
city of London; which was confirmed by Richard II.
in the year 1394; and King Edward IV. in the year
1462, not only confirmed the aforeſaid grants, but like-
wiſe conſtituted the ſociety a body politic and corporate,
to have perpetual ſucceſſion, and a common ſeal, for tran-
ſacting the company's buſineſs; and, by this grant, K. Ed-
ward inveſted the corporation with a privilege of inſpect-
ing, trying, and regulating all gold and ſilver wares, not
only in the city of London, but likewiſe in all other parts
of the kingdom; with a power to puniſh all offenders
concerned in working adulterated gold or ſilver, and a
privilege of making by-laws for their better government.
This company is governed by a prime, and three other
wardens, with 98 aſſiſtants, and a livery of 198 mem-
bers, whoſe fine on admiſſion is 20 l. They have a very
magnificent hall in Foſter-lane, to manage their affairs
in, with a very great eſtate; out of which, according to
the directions of the ſeveral benefactors, upwards of
1000 l. is annually paid to charitable uſes.

In the year 1405, a conteſt happened in the city of Lon-
don, between the companies of goldſmiths and cutlers,
concerning certain privileges challenged by the former,
of inſpecting all the gold and ſilver work made by the
latter; which, being ſtrenuouſly oppoſed by the cutlers,
occaſioned the goldſmiths to apply to parliament, to have
their right in that reſpect aſcertained: wherefore the mat-
ter in diſpute was referred by the King to the Mayor of
London; who having carefully examined into the affair,
made his report, that the cutlers had a right of working
in gold and ſilver; yet all ſuch things as were by them
made, were to be aſſayed by the goldſmiths, according
to their antient immunities.

In the year 1629, the appearance of goldmiths ſhops in
the ſouth row of Cheapſide was ſingularly beautiful, and
greatly ornamental to the Engliſh metropolis; for theſe
ſhops, in a continued courſe, extended from the old
change to Bucklerſbury, excluſive of four ſhops only of
other traders in all that ſpace, which occaſioned the privy
council to make the following order. "Foraſmuch as
his Majeſty hath received information of the unſeem-
lineſs and deformity appearing in Cheapſide, by reaſon
that divers men of mean trades have ſhops among the
goldſmiths, which diſorder it is his Majeſty's expreſs
pleaſure to have reformed; whereas, by occaſion that
Sir Heneage Finch, knight, and ſome aldermen, did
this day attend the board upon other buſineſs, and there
was the ſame time mention made alſo of the aforeſaid
deformity; it was thereupon thought fit, and accord-
ingly ordered, that the two Lord Chief Juſtices, with
ſuch other judges as they ſhould think meet to call unto
them, ſhould conſider what ſtatutes or laws there were
to inforce the goldſmiths to plant themſelves for the uſe
of their trade in Cheapſide and Lombard-ſtreet, and
the parts adjacent, and thereupon return certificate to
the board in writing, with all convenient expedition;
of which order the ſaid Lord Chief Juſtices were
thereby prayed and required to take notice, and to
perform the ſame accordingly."

However, this order has been ſo far neglected, that at
this time ſome of the principal goldſmiths of London are
notely ſcattered in ſeveral parts of the city; where they
ſeem to have incorporated the buſineſs of a banker with
the profeſſion of a goldſmith.

By the ſtatute of the 12th of William III. it was enacted,
that the cities of York, Exeter, Briſtol, Cheſter, and
Norwich, where the mints were then lately erected,
ſhould be appointed for the aſſaying and marking of
wrought plate. That in every one of thoſe cities, the gold-
ſmiths, ſilverſmiths, and plate-workers, who ſhould be free-
men of, and inhabiting within the ſaid cities, and having
ſerved an apprenticeſhip to the trade of a goldſmith, ſilver-
ſmith, and plate-worker, ſhould be incorporated a company
in each city, and ſhould be called the company of goldſmiths
in each city; which company ſhould be enabled annually to
chuſe two wardens, who ſhould continue one year; and
if any of the wardens ſhould die, or remove out of ſuch
company, the company ſhould within one month chuſe ano-
ther in his room. That no goldſmith, ſilverſmith, or
plate-worker, in the ſaid cities, ſhould make any manu-
facture of ſilver leſs in fineneſs than the ſtandard which
ſhould be appointed by law, nor ſhould put to ſale or ex-
change any plate of ſilver until ſuch plate ſhould be marked
with the worker's mark, to be expreſſed by the two firſt
letters of his ſurname, and alſo with the lion's head eraſed,
and the figure of Britannia, and with the arms of ſuch of
the cities aforeſaid wherein ſuch plate ſhould be aſſayed,
and alſo with a variable mark or letter in Roman character,
which ſhould be annually changed upon the election of
new wardens, to denote the year; upon pain that all ſuch
ſilver-plate, except ſuch things as, by reaſon of their ſmali-
neſs are not capable of receiving a touch, ſhould be for-
feited, or the value thereof; one moiety to the King, and
the other to ſuch as ſhould ſue for the ſame. That there
ſhould be an able man, experienced in aſſaying of gold
and ſilver, elected by the company of goldſmiths in each
of the ſaid cities, for whom it ſhould be lawful to detain
8 gr. from every pound troy of ſilver he ſhould aſſay,
4 gr. whereof ſhould be put into the box of diet, and the
other 4 gr. ſhould be allowed him towards his waſte and
ſpillings. That the boxes, wherein the diet of plate tried
by the aſſayer is put, ſhould be locked up with three locks,
and the keys ſhould be kept by the wardens and aſſayers;
which boxes ſhould be at the charge of each company
conveyed annually, if required by the Lord Chancellor, to
his Majeſty's royal mint at the Tower of London, and the
diet therein contained ſhould be tried as the pix of the
coin is tried; and if in any of the ſaid diets there ſhould
be found any deceit, ſuch company ſhould forfeit 50 l. to
be recovered as aforeſaid againſt ſuch company, or any
member thereof in his private capacity, to be diſpoſed of
as aforeſaid; and if any plate ſhould be touched, marked,
or allowed for good by the aſſayers, and in the ſame there
ſhould be found any deceit, ſuch aſſayer ſhould forfeit
double the value of the plate as aforeſaid.

That every perſon that ſhould be a goldſmith, ſilverſmith,
or plate-worker, and ſhould inhabit in any of the cities,
or in any other place where an aſſayer ſhould not be ap-
pointed, before he takes upon him to exerciſe any of the
ſaid trades, ſhould enter his name, mark, and place of
abode, with the wardens of ſuch company of that city
where an aſſayer is appointed; which ſhould be done by
the wardens without fee; and if any ſuch perſon ſhould
not enter his name, and mark, and place of abode, or
ſhould ſtrike any other mark, ſuch perſon ſhould forfeit
double the value of the plate ſo marked, to be recovered
and diſpoſed as aforeſaid.

That every goldſmith, ſilverſmith, and plate-worker, in-
habiting in any place where an aſſayer ſhould not be ap-
pointed, ſhould firſt fix his mark upon all his plate, ex-
cept ſuch things as, by reaſon of their ſmallneſs, are not
capable of receiving the touch, and ſhould then ſend the
ſame to ſome place where an aſſayer ſhould be appointed,
and the ſame ſhould be there aſſayed; and if it ſhould be
found to be of the fineneſs of ſtandard, it ſhould be
marked by the aſſayer, and he ſhould be paid by the
owners of ſuch plate a ſum not exceeding 6 d. for every
pound troy; and if any ſuch goldſmith ſhould work any
ſilver plate leſs in fineneſs than the ſtandard, or ſhould
put to ſale or exchange any ſilver plate, unleſs it be ſuch
things as, in reſpect of their ſmallneſs, are not capable of
receiving a touch, before ſuch plateſhould be aſſayed and
marked, every ſuch perſon ſhould forfeit the plate or the
value thereof as aforeſaid.

By the ſtatute of the 12th of George II. it was enacted,
That no goldſmith, or other perſon making or dealing in
gold or ſilver wares, in any part of England, ſhould make
any gold plate, or manufacture of gold, leſs in fineneſs than
22 carats of fine gold in every pound troy; nor any ſil-
ver plate, &c. leſs in fineneſs than 11 oz. 2 dwt. of fine
ſilver in every pound troy; nor ſell, exchange, expoſe to
ſale, or export any gold plate, &c. leſs in fineneſs than 22
carats, &c. nor any ſilver plate, &c. leſs in fineneſs than
11 oz. 2 dwt. &c. upon pain that every ſuch perſon ſhould
forfeit for every ſuch offence 10 l. and, for default of pay-
ment, the offender ſhould be commited by the court in
which judgment ſhould be given thereon, to the houſe of

correction, there to be kept to hard labour for any time not exceeding ſix months, or until payment be made of the ſaid forfeiture.

That nothing in this act ſhould extend to any jewellers works, of any gold or ſilver wherein any jewels or other ſtones were ſet, other than mourning-rings, nor to any jointed night ear-rings of gold, or ſprings of lockets.

That if any ſhopkeeper, or other perſon dealing in gold or ſilver wares, not being the maker, ſhould happen to export, ſell, or expoſe to ſale, any gold or ſilver wares worſe than the reſpective ſtandards, and ſhould diſcover the maker or perſon of whom he bought ſuch coarſe gold or ſilver wares; ſuch ſhopkeeper ſhould be exempted from any penalty for exporting, &c. ſuch coarſe gold or ſilver wares, and from any proſecution for the ſame.

That no goldſmith, &c. making or dealing in any gold or ſilver wares, ſhould ſell any gold or ſilver plate, until ſuch manufacture of gold or ſilver, being of the ſtandard aforeſaid, ſhould be marked with the mark of the maker, which ſhould be the firſt letters of his chriſtian and ſurname, and with theſe marks of the company of goldſmiths in London; the leopard's head, the lion paſſant, and a diſtinct variable mark or letter, to denote the year in which ſuch plate ſhould be made; or with the mark of the maker, and the marks appointed to be uſed by the aſſayers at York, Exeter, Briſtol, Cheſter, Norwich, or Newcaſtle upon Tyne, or plate of the ſame ſtandard, with the mark of the worker, which ſhould be the firſt letter of his chriſtian and ſurname as aforeſaid, and with theſe marks of the ſaid company; the lion's head eraſed, the figure of a woman, commonly called Britannia, and the ſaid mark or letter, to denote the year as aforeſaid; or with the mark of the worker, and the marks of one of the ſaid cities or towns; upon pain that every ſuch goldſmith, &c. ſhould forfeit the ſum of 10 l. and, for default of payment, ſhould be committed by the court in which judgment ſhould be given thereon, to the houſe of correction, to be kept to hard labour, not exceeding ſix months, or until payment of the ſaid forfeiture.

That this act ſhould not extend to oblige any of the following wares of gold or ſilver to be ſtamped by any of the companies of goldſmiths, that is to ſay, rings, collets for rings, or other jewels, chains, necklace-beads, lockets, hollow or raiſed buttons, ſleeve-buttons, thimbles, coral ſockets and bells, pipe-lighters, cranes for bottles, very ſmall book-claſps, any ſtock of garter, claſps jointed, very ſmall nutmeg-graters, rims of ſnuff-boxes, whereof tops or bottoms are made of ſtone, ſliding-pencils, toothpick-caſes, tweezer-caſes, pencil caſes, needle-caſes, any philligree-work, any ſorts of tippings or ſwages, or ſtone or ivory caſes, any mounts, ſcrews, or ſtoppers, to ſtone or glaſs bottles or phials; any ſmall or ſlight ornaments put to amber or other eggs or urns; any wrought ſeals with cornelian, or other ſtones ſet therein, or any gold or ſilver veſſel ſo richly carved or chaſed, or ſet with jewels or other ſtones, as not to admit of an aſſay to be taken of, or a mark ſtruck thereon, without damaging the ſame, or ſuch other things as, by reaſon of the ſmallneſs thereof, are not capable of receiving the marks before mentioned, and not weighing 10 dwt. of gold or ſilver each.

That if any goldſmith, &c. ſhould counterfeit any of the ſtamps of the ſaid company in London, or any of the ſtamps to be uſed in the places aforeſaid, or ſhould caſt any mark to reſemble any impreſſion to be made with a ſtamp by the ſaid company, or by the wardens or aſſayers at any of the places aforeſaid; or ſhould mark with any ſuch counterfeit ſtamp any wrought plate of gold or ſilver, or any wares of braſs, or other baſe metal, ſilvered or gilt over, and reſembling gold or ſilver; or ſhould remove from one piece of wrought plate to another, or to any veſſel of ſuch baſe metal as aforeſaid, any impreſſion made with any ſtamp of the ſaid company, or of the aſſayers at any of the places aforeſaid; or ſhould knowingly ſell or export any manufacture of gold or ſilver, with any ſuch counterfeit impreſſion thereon, or any impreſſion ſo removed as aforeſaid; every ſuch perſon ſhould forfeit 100 l. and, for default of payment, ſhould be committed to the houſe of correction, to be kept to hard labour for any time not exceeding two years, and until payment of the ſaid forfeiture.

That every manufacturer of gold or ſilver, who ſhould make any gold or ſilver plate, by this act required to be marked by the ſaid company of goldſmiths, or by the wardens or aſſayers, at the cities or places aforeſaid, ſhould ſend with every parcel of ſuch gold or ſilver, to the aſſay-office of the ſaid company, or to the ſaid wardens or aſſayers, a memorandum in writing, containing the day of the month and year, the Chriſtian and ſurname of the maker, and place of his abode, all the ſpecies in ſuch parcel of plate, and the number of each ſpecies, with the total weight of ſuch parcel; which memorandum ſhould be entered by ſome officer of the ſaid company, or by the ſaid wardens or aſſayers, in ſome of their books, and be afterwards filed; and the warden of the ſaid company, or ſuch warden or aſſayer who ſhould enter and file ſuch memorandums, ſhould monthly deliver on oath into the exciſe-office, all the memorandums by them received, or true copies thereof; and the commiſſioners of exciſe might monthly, or oftener, appoint any perſon to inſpect the books in the aſſay-offices, in order to check any account of plate chargeable with the duty; and, for every default of ſuch manufacturer of gold or ſilver, and for ſuch officer of the ſaid company, and of ſuch warden and aſſayer touching the premiſſes, he ſhould forfeit 5 l. and, for want of payment, ſhould be committed to the houſe of correction to be kept to hard labour for three months, or until payment of the ſaid forfeiture.

That no debenture ſhould be granted, nor any drawback allowed on exportation of plate or manufactures of ſilver out of the kingdom, in caſe the ſame was made ſeven years before entering the ſame for exportation.

That the ſaid wardens and commonalty, or ſuch perſon as the court of aſſiſtants ſhould appoint, might demand of every perſon bringing to the aſſay-office, belonging to the ſaid company, any parcel of wrought plate to be aſſayed and marked, ſuch prices as they ſhould think fit, ſo as the ſame did not exceed the ſeveral and reſpective prices following; for aſſaying and marking gold watch caſes or boxes, 10 d. a piece; for gold ſnuff-boxes, 15 d. a piece; for every other piece of wrought gold, weighing 3 oz. or under, 2 s. 6 d. for each piece of wrought gold weighing above 30 oz. to 50 oz. 3 s. 9 d. and ſo in proportion for greater parcels.

But if any piece of wrought plate ſhould be brought to be aſſayed, which, according to the rates above limited, ſhould not amount to 15 d. there ſhould be paid for aſſaying and marking ſuch piece of wrought gold a ſum not exceeding 15 d.

That the ſaid wardens and commonalty, &c. might demand of every perſon bringing to the ſaid aſſay-office, a piece of large ſilver, weighing 4 lb. weight troy or above, for aſſaying and marking every ſuch piece, a ſum not exceeding 5 d. and for every piece of ſuch plate weighing above 4 lb. troy, there ſhould be detained a diet not exceeding 10 gr. *per* pound troy; and that the ſaid wardens and commonalty, &c. might demand for aſſaying and marking the ſeveral ſmall wares of ſilver following; for every ſword-hilt 5 d. for every ſnuff box $3\frac{1}{2}$ d. for every watch-caſe or watch-box $2\frac{1}{2}$ d. for every knife or haft $1\frac{1}{4}$ d. for every pair of buckles $0\frac{1}{2}$ d. for every pair of tea-tongs $1\frac{1}{4}$ d. for every dozen of tea-ſpoons, or ſtainers, $3\frac{3}{4}$ d. for belt-buckles, belt-locks, runners, pendants, $2\frac{1}{2}$ d. a piece; for every orange-ſtrainer, or meg-grater, $1\frac{1}{4}$ d. for every dram-cup $0\frac{3}{4}$ d. for every zen of ſeals $3\frac{3}{4}$ d. for every pair of claſps $0\frac{3}{4}$ d. and every dozen of buttons $3\frac{3}{4}$ d.

But if any piece of ſilver ſhould be brought to the office to be aſſayed, which, according to the reſpective rates before limited, ſhould amount to the ſum of 5 d. there ſhould be paid for aſſaying and marking the ſame ſum not exceeding 5 d.

That if any perſon ſhould refuſe to pay ſuch prices as by this act required to be paid for the purpoſes aforeſaid, then any warden of the ſaid company might refuſe to ſtamp or mark all or any of the plate of ſuch perſon ſo refuſing, until ſuch prices ſhould be paid.

That the aſſayers at York, Exeter, Briſtol, Cheſter,

wich, and Newcaſtle upon Tyne, might demand the like rates for aſſaying and marking wrought plate of gold or ſilver, as the company of goldſmiths in London, and might refuſe to aſſay or mark plate for default of payment.

That in caſe the ſaid prices thereby allowed for the aſſaying and marking plate, ſhould raiſe more money than ſhould be ſufficient to defray the expences of the reſpective aſſay-offices, the overplus ſhould be applied in proſecuting offenders againſt the ſaid act; and if ſuch proſecutions ſhould not require the whole overplus, if any, the ſaid prices ſhould afterwards be leſſened in proportion by the ſaid reſpective companies of goldſmiths; and they ought to take ſo much leſs for aſſaying and marking wrought plate for the future, as would anſwer the purpoſes aforeſaid only, without bringing any profit to the ſaid companies.

That the aſſay-office of the companies of goldſmiths in London ſhould be kept open for taking in plate, from ſeven of the clock in the morning till nine the ſame morning, every working-day or hall-day; and the weigher ſhould take in the ſame, with the memorandums directed to be ſent therewith; and ſhould weigh and take an account thereof, before the ſame be aſſayed, and afterwards weigh the plate back, and deliver the ſame to the owner, or his order; and when the common aſſayers of the ſaid company, or their aſſiſtants, or any aſſayer at the cities and places above mentioned, ſhould diſcover any parcel of plate to be a coarſer allay than the ſaid reſpective ſtandards, and ſhould ſo report the ſame, after three aſſays made thereof; any warden of the company of goldſmiths in London, or any warden of the company at any of the cities or places aforeſaid, might break and deface the ſame, at any time after three days after the laſt aſſay made thereof, and not ſooner, unleſs the perſon who brought the ſame deſire it ſhould be broken, and delivered to him ſooner; and there ſhould nevertheleſs be paid for aſſaying of the ſame, ſuch rates as are before limited, as if ſuch plate ſhould have been really marked.

That all perſons who ſhould make any gold or ſilver plate in England, ſhould firſt enter their new marks, names, and places of abode, in the ſaid aſſay-office of the company of goldſmiths in London, or in the aſſay-office at the cities and places aforeſaid; which new marks ſhould be of a character different from their old marks; and their old marks ſhould be broken in the preſence of the aſſayer, on pain of forfeiting 10 l. and the further ſum of 10 l. for uſing any other mark; and, for default of payment, ſhould be committed by the court to the houſe of correction, for any time not exceeding ſix months, or until payment of the ſaid forfeitures. See *Plate*.

GOLD *and Silver Wire-drawer*, is a perſon who makes gold or ſilver wire, for ſpinning, for purle, making ſpangles, and other things, for the lace-man, who pays the drawers ſo much an ounce for their labour, and furniſhes them with the plate.

GOLD *and Silver Wire-drawers company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 21ſt of James I. the 14th of June 1623, by the ſtyle of The governor, aſſiſtants, and commonalty: but being reincorporated by charter of the 5th of William and Mary, the 16th of June 1693, the title was changed to that of The maſter, wardens, aſſiſtants, and commonalty of the art and myſtery of drawing and flatting of gold and ſilver wire, and making and ſpinning gold and ſilver thread and ſtuffs in the city of London; which fraternity conſiſts of a maſter, 2 wardens, and 18 aſſiſtants; but they have neither hall or livery.

By the ſtatute of the 10th of Queen Anne, all perſons who ſhould draw gold or ſilver into big wire were ſubjected to the laws of exciſe.

And it was enacted, That all perſons, by or for whom any wire ſhould be made, ſhould keep all the wire which ſhould not have been ſurveyed ſeparate from the wire which had been ſurveyed, for 24 hours after the making the ſame, unleſs ſuch wire ſhould be ſooner ſurveyed by the officer, on pain to forfeit 10 l.

That if any perſon, by or from whom ſuch big wire ſhould be made, ſhould fraudulently hide any wire chargeable by this act, or any bars of ſilver prepared for making the ſame, with intent to defraud her Majeſty, the offender ſhould forfeit 20 l.

That all gilt and ſilver wire, and all bars for making ſuch wire, which ſhould be found in any private workhouſe, and all private utenſils for barring or drawing of ſuch wire, of which no notice ſhould be given, ſhould be forfeited, and the ſame, or the value thereof, might be ſeized and recovered by any officer of the ſaid duties for her Majeſty's uſe.

That all gilt and ſilver wire, and all the materials and utenſils for the making of ſuch wire, in the cuſtody of any maker of wire, ſhould be liable to the debts and duties for gilt and ſilver wire owing by ſuch maker, and to all forfeitures incurred by ſuch perſon relating to the ſaid duties.

By the ſtatute of the 10th of Queen Anne, gold or ſilver thread, lace, fringe, or other work made thereof, imported, are to be forfeited, and 100 l. for every parcel. See *Lace*.

GOLD *Coaſt of Guinea*, is ſituated between 2 deg. of E. and 4 deg. of W. lon. and in 5 deg. of N. lat. See *Guinea*.

GOLDEN *Iſland*, an iſland ſituated in 79 deg. of W. lon. and 9 deg. of N. lat. at the mouth of the river or gulph of Darien, in the province of Terra Firma, in South America, where the Scots attempted to make a ſettlement in 1698; but finding it a barren ſpot of ground, they poſſeſſed themſelves of an iſthmus on the oppoſite ſhore, on the continent, in a good ſoil, and naturally ſo ſtrong, that the Spaniards could not have diſpoſſeſſed them, if the Engliſh had not contributed to their misfortune. See *Spaniſh* America.

GOLDEN *Rule*, in arithmetic, a rule or praxis of great uſe and extent in the art of numbers; whereby is found a fourth proportioned to three quantities given.

GOLETTA. A fortreſs and iſland in Africa, ſituated in 16 deg. of E. lon. and 36 deg. of N. lat. at the entrance of the bay of Tunis, and about 10 miles north of that city, taken by Charles V. when he attempted the ſiege of Tunis, and held by the Chriſtians ſeveral years after.

GOLTSCHUT. A kind of money, or rather ſmall golden ingot, brought from China; being looked upon there more as a merchandiſe than current ſpecie. The Dutch call it goltſchut: which, in their language, ſignifies a bar of gold, as having ſuch a figure; but other nations call them gold leaves.

As there are no gold or ſilver coins ſtruck throughout China and Tunquin, theſe two metals are cut into bits of ſeveral weights; thoſe of ſilver are called *tael*; and thoſe of gold, or goltſchuts, are uſed in large payments, when the taels and copper-money are not ſufficient.

There are two ſorts of them, ſome worth 100 l. ſterling, and others weighing only the half, valued in proportion.

When the Chineſe export them for the different parts of the Indies where they trade, the merchants with whom they treat, have them uſually cut in the middle; becauſe the Chineſe are ſuch cheats, that ſometimes above one third of copper or ſilver has been found in them.

The Japaneſe have alſo goltſchuts, but of ſilver only, of different weights, and conſequently of different value.

GOMBRON. The greateſt ſea-port town in Perſia, ſituated in 55 deg. of E. lon. and 27 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. in the province of Fars, or Fariſtan, on the ſtraight, at the entrance of the gulph of Perſia, oppoſite to the iſle of Ormus, on the ruin whereof this town roſe; and the Engliſh aſſiſting the Perſians in taking the iſle of Ormus from the Portugueſe, then one of the greateſt marts in the Eaſt, the government allowed the Engliſh ſome extraordinary privileges; as alſo half the cuſtoms of the port, and till very lately a great ſum in lieu of them. It ſtands about 30 miles N. E. of the Arabian coaſt, and about 300 miles S. E. of Schiras. Beſides the native Perſians, it is inhabited by Engliſh, Dutch, Portugueſe, Arabs, Jews, Armenians, Indians, Banians, and ſeveral other nations; of which the Armenians and Banians are much the greateſt traders. It is an unhealthful place, which occaſions moſt of the inhabitants to remove into the country during the hot ſeaſon, the winter being the time for traffic. The gains that are made by the Engliſh Eaſt India company, in carrying the merchandiſe of the Armenians,

nians, Moors, Banians, and others, from Gombron to Surat, is one great branch of the company's profit. They ſeldom ſend a ſhip from Gombron to Surat but ſhe is as deep loaden as ſhe can ſwim with their effects, beſides paſſengers, and a vaſt quantity of treaſure on board, ſometimes of the value of two or three hundred thouſand pounds: but this factory is ſubordinate to the government of Bombay. See *Perſia*.

GOMERA. One of the Canary iſlands, ſituated in 18 deg. of W. lon. and 28 deg. of N. lat. See *Canary* iſlands.

GOMORRA *Iſlands*. See *Comorra*.

GONDEZEL. A kind of ſpun cotton, of the middling ſort, and of no conſiderable vent.

GONDOLA. A little flat boat, very long and narrow; of which the middle ſized ones are upwards of 30 feet long, and 4 broad; always terminating at each end in a very ſharp point, which is raiſed perpendicularly the full height of a man.

The addreſs of the Venetian gondoliers, in paſſing their narrow canals, is very remarkable. There are uſually two to each gondola, and they row by puſhing before them. The fore-man reſts his oar on the left-ſide of the gondola; the hind-man is placed on the ſtern, that he may ſee the head over the tilt, or covering of the gondola, and reſts his oar, which is very long, on the right-ſide of the gondola.

GONDOZOLETTIS, is a term, at Aleppo, for the fineſt ſpun cotton.

GONE *out-a-head*. A ſea-term, ſpoken of one ſhip that out-ſails, or gets before the head of another under ſail.

GOOD HOPE *Cape*. See *Bon* Eſperance.

GOODS, in law, and particularly in the civil law, include all kinds of effects, riches, lands, and poſſeſſions; of which there are two kinds, moveable, and immoveable.

Goods, particularly underſtood in a mercantile ſenſe, include all ſaleable commodities, for importation, exportation, and home-conſumption; for the regulation of which the following laws have been enacted.

Goods inwards, by the ſtatute of the 13th and 14th Charles II. brought from beyond the ſeas, may not be taken up, or laid on land, out of any veſſel, lighter, or boat, being not in leak or wreck, except fiſh taken by Britiſh, beſtials, and ſalt, but at lawful hours, and only upon ſuch open places, keys, or wharfs, as ſhall be appointed by his Majeſty's commiſſion out of the court of exchequer, without ſpecial ſufferance and leave from the officers of the cuſtoms, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, and 100 l. by the maſter: offenders not revealing their offence within one month, are to forfeit 100 l.

Imported into the port of London, may be unladen or landed at any of the lawful keys between the Tower of London and London-bridge, and between ſun-riſing and ſun-ſetting, from the 10th day of September to the 10th day of March; and between the hours of ſix of the clock in the morning and ſix in the evening, from the 10th day of March to the 10th day of September, giving notice to the proper officers; who, on refuſing to be preſent, are to forfeit for every default 5 l.

If imported into other ports, they are not to be taken up, diſcharged, and laid on land, out of any ſhip, lighter, &c. being not in a leak or wreck, except fiſh taken by Britiſh, and ſalt, but only in the day-light, that is, from the 1ſt of March to the 30th of September, between ſun-riſing and ſun-ſetting; and from the 30th of September to the 1ſt of March, between the hours of ſeven in the morning and four in the afternoon.

Wharfingers, or their ſervants, landing, or knowingly ſuffering to be landed, any goods or merchandiſes, prohibited, or uncuſtomed, without the preſence of a proper officer, or at unlawful hours, except in the port of Hull, are to forfeit 100 l.

By the 12th of Charles II. all goods of the growth, production, or manufacture of Muſcovy or Ruſſia, or of any of the dominions of the Emperor thereof, all maſts, timber, boards, ſalt, pitch, tar, roſin, hemp, flax, raiſins, figs, prunes, olive-oil, corn, or grain, ſugar, pot-aſhes, wine, vinegar, aqua vitæ or brandy, muſt be imported only in ſhips belonging to Great Britain or Ireland, and currants, and all goods of the growth, product, or manufacture of Turky in ſhips Britiſh built; except ſuch ſhips as are of the built of the country whereof the ſaid goods are the growth, production, or manufacture, or of ſuch ſort where the ſaid goods can only, or have moſt uſually been firſt ſhipped for tranſportation, on forfeiture of ſhip and goods.

If of the growth, production, or manufacture of Aſia, Africa, or America, they may be imported only in Britiſh ſhips legally manned, or in ſhips belonging to his Majeſty's plantations there, on forfeiture of ſhip and goods.

If of foreign growth, production, or manufacture, that is, of Aſia, Africa, and America only, and not of Europe, they may be ſhipped, and brought from no other country, but that of their growth, production, or manufacture, or from ſuch ports where thoſe goods can only, or have moſt uſually been firſt ſhipped for tranſportation, and in Britiſh ſhips, or plantation ſhipping legally navigated, on forfeiture of ſhip and goods.

But not to extend to goods of the Streights and Levant ſeas, and Eaſt India goods, which may be brought from the uſual places of lading in Britiſh ſhips duly manned, though thoſe places be not the very places of their growth, except raw ſilk and mohair yarn of the product of Aſia, unleſs from thoſe ports in the Levant ſeas, which are not within the Grand Signior's dominions.

Nor, by the 14th of George II. to goods of Perſia brought through Ruſſia by perſons free of the Ruſſia company.

Nor, by the 17th of Geo. II. to goods of the growth of the Spaniſh or Portugueſe plantations; which may be brought by any perſons from Spain, Portugal, or weſtern iſlands, commonly called Azores, or Madeira or Canary iſlands, reſpectively, in Britiſh ſhips.

Nor to bullion, nor to goods taken as prize by any ſhips belonging to Great Britain; nor to cochineal, nor indico; nor to ſpice by licence.

By the 3d of George I. goods inwards, of the product or manufacture of Jerſey, Guernſey, Alderney, and Sark, may, upon certificate from the governor, lieutenant, or deputy-governor, or commander in chief, and oath before the magiſtrates of Jerſey and Guernſey, that they are of the growth, &c. of the ſaid iſlands, be imported into Great Britain duty free, except ſuch exciſe or other duties as are due upon the like goods of the product of Great Britain.

But goods of the product of any foreign country imported into thoſe iſlands, or foreign goods in part or fully manufactured there, are, upon importation into Great Britain, liable to the ſame duties as if imported directly from the place of their product.

Bulk may be broken in any lawful port, and cuſtom paid for no more goods than are entered and landed.

By the 13th and 14th of Charles II. ſmall parcels of ſilk goods, or other goods found in cabbins, cheſts, trunks, or other ſmall package, or in any private place; and all other ſorts of goods for which the duties are not paid or ſecured within 20 days after the ſhip's entry, may be brought on ſhore by the officers of the cuſtoms, and ſecured in his Majeſty's ſtorehouſes till the duties be ſatisfied, unleſs the ſaid officers have a juſt cauſe to allow longer time.

The officers may ſtay and remain on board till all the goods are delivered and diſcharged out of the ſaid ſhips.

Goods inwards permitted to be taken up by bills at ſight or view, muſt be landed at the moſt convenient keys, and there, or in his Majeſty's ſtorehouſe of the port, be meaſured, weighed, and numbered by the officers; who are to perfect the entry, and return the ſame under their hands, the next day, to the collector, &c. upon forfeiture of 100 l.

By the 2d of George II. not reported, and found concealed on board any ſhip, without payment of duty, after clearing the ſhip by the proper officers, and diſcharging the tideſmen or watchmen from their attendance, are forfeited, and 100 l. by the maſter.

By the 1ſt of Elizabeth, no perſon, denizen, or ſtranger, may enter any goods inwards, or outwards, in the name of any other perſon than the very owner, being ſold, bargained, or contracted for, to or with any per-

efore entry, or before the arrival of the goods in parts eyond the ſeas, upon forfeiture thereof, or their value; d the offender to ſuffer impriſonment, and make fine ereof at the King's pleaſure.

y the 8th of George I. goods inwards, liable to duties, im- rted into any port, place, or creek, of this realm, by way merchandiſe, unſhipped, with intent to be laid on land efore the ſaid duties are duly paid, or lawfully tendered to e collector thereof, or his deputy, with the conſent d agreement of the comptroller and ſurveyor there, or ne of them at leaſt, or agreed for in the cuſtom-houſe, e forfeited.

y the 8th of Queen Anne, not only goods liable to du- s, unſhipped with intent to be laid on land before the d duties are paid or ſecured, or prohibited goods im- rted, are forfeited; but likewiſe the boats, hoys, veſ- s, horſes, and carriages, employed in removing them; d the perſons aſſiſting, or otherwiſe concerned in the ſhipping of the ſaid goods, or to whoſe hands they ſhall owingly come, forfeit treble the value of the goods.

y the 6th of George I. goods cuſtomable or prohibited, und by an officer in the cuſtody of any perſon being in a at, &c. on the water, or coming directly from the wa- -ſide, without the preſence of an officer, or found upon edible information in any houſe, &c. may be ſent to his ajeſty's warehouſe, till proof be made by oath, before uſtice of the peace, or other proper perſon, or other- ſe, to the ſatisfaction of the commiſſioners in London, of the principal officers in the out ports, in order to forthwith tranſmitted to the commiſſioners for their di- ctions, of the payment of the duty, or that they were ught in a lawful way of trade, or compounded for, or ndemned in the court of exchequer.

the 11th of George I. goods inwards, prohibited or n-goods liable to cuſtoms, exciſe, or inland duty, owingly harboured or concealed, are forfeited, with ble the value.

the 2d of Geo. II. goods clandeſtinely run or imported, owingly received or bought, before legally condemned: offenders, upon conviction, upon the oath or oaths one or more credible witneſs or witneſſes, before one more juſtice or juſtices of peace, are to forfeit 20 l. half to the poor of the pariſh, and the other half to informer, or to ſuffer three months impriſonment.

hibited goods, or goods liable to duties, fraudulently clandeſtinely imported, inſured to be delivered; inſurers, their aiders, abetters, and aſſiſtants, and perſons inſured or receiving the ſaid goods, are for ry offence to forfeit 500 l. each, beſides all other pe- ties.

the 11th of George I. prohibited, or goods actually , or pretended to have been run, offered to ſale, are eited, with treble the value, and the package; and be ſeized by the perſon to whom offered, or by any cer of the cuſtoms or exciſe: the goods to be ſecured he next warehouſe of the cuſtoms, exciſe, or inland- , that they are particularly ſubject to; if within the of mortality, within 24 hours, or in any other place, hours after ſeizure.

h goods bought, are forfeited, with treble the value, the package; and may be ſeized by the ſeller, or any cer of the cuſtoms or exciſe; and muſt be ſecured in like manner as ſuch goods offered to ſale.

the 5th of George I. goods ſalved out of any ſtranded s, except wrecked goods, or jetſham, flotſham, or n; after the charges of ſalvage, &c. are paid, are le to the ſame duties, and intitled to the ſame draw- s, as if regularly imported.

the 12th of George I. goods inwards brought into his jeſty's ſtorehouſes for ſecurity of the duties, and re- ning there ſix months unentered, are to be ſold by the miſſioners of the cuſtoms, by public auction, or inch andle; the produce whereof is firſt to be applied to the ment of the freight, primage, and charges of ware- e-room, next the duties, and the overplus to be paid he proprietor, or his order.

the 9th of George II. goods taken in at ſea by any or veſſel, or put out of any ſhip or veſſel within four ues from the coaſt, without payment of the duty, unleſs in caſe of neceſſity, or other lawful reaſon, notice whereof muſt be given to the chief officer of the port where they firſt arrive, are forfeited; and the maſter or perſon having charge of the veſſel into which they are taken, and alſo of the veſſel out of which they are taken, and all perſons concerned, are to forfeit treble the value; and the veſſels into which the goods are unſhipped and taken in, are alſo forfeited, unleſs exceeding the burthen of 100 tons.

Goods outwards, by the 13th and 14th of Charles II. may not be laden, or put off from any key or wharf, into any veſſel, lighter, or boat, except fiſh taken by Britiſh, ſea-coal, ſtone, and beſtial, in order to be exported, but at lawful hours, and at ſuch open places, keys, or wharfs, as ſhall be appointed by his Majeſty's commiſſion out of the court of exchequer, without ſpecial ſufferance and leave from the officers of the cuſtoms; upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, and 100 l. by the maſter.

The lawful hours for exportation, the ſame as for importation.

If liable to duties, and ſhipped or put into any boat or veſſel, with intent to be exported, before the ſaid duties are duly paid, or lawfully tendered or agreed for in the cuſtomhouſe, are forfeited: ſo they are if ſhipped without a warrant, or without the preſence of a proper officer of the cuſtoms.

By the 13th and 14th of Charles II. goods liable to duties, ſhipped ſecretly, and before payment thereof, eſcaping the diſcovery of the officers, and exported to parts beyond the ſeas; the owner to forfeit double the value of ſuch goods, according to the book of rates, except for coals.

Wharfingers, or their ſervants ſhipping off, or ſuffering to be water-born at or from their wharfs, &c. any goods or merchandiſes prohibited or uncuſtomed, without the preſence of a proper officer, or at unlawful hours, except the port of Hull; or goods paſſing by certificate, waſte-cocket, or otherwiſe, without the preſence of or notice given to one or more officers, are to forfeit 100 l.

Goods outwards taken in from the ſhore into any bark, hoy, lighter, &c. in order to be carried on board any ſhip outward bound, without a warrant, and the preſence of one or more officers, ſuch bark, &c. is forfeited.

By the 12th of Charles II. goods being the property of any merchant born denizen, taken by enemies or pyrates, or periſhed at ſea; upon due proof before the treaſury, or chief baron of the exchequer, and certificate thereof, to the collector of the port, goods of the like value in cuſtom may be ſhipped off duty free.

By the 7th of George I. foreign goods having paid all duties at importation, may, upon due proof thereof, be exported, after three years are elapſed, without payment of any ſubſidy outwards.

By the 2d of George II. goods prohibited to be worn, and foreign goods, ſhipped for exportation, and afterwards unſhipped or relanded, unleſs in diſtreſs, or in the preſence of an officer, are forfeited; and the maſter permitting the ſame, forfeits the value thereof; and the perſons to whoſe hands they ſhall come, knowing of the relanding, are to forfeit double the value, unleſs they make diſcovery to the officers of the cuſtoms within ſix days.

By the 12th of George I. goods whereon there is a drawback, bounty, or premium, or goods prohibited to be uſed here, or pepper, after entry, and before or after ſhipping, the officers of the cuſtoms may open, and ſtrictly examine any bale, truſs, cheſt, or other package, to ſee if they are right entered.

If found to be right entered, the ſame muſt be repacked at the officer's charge, which the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms are to allow, if they think it reaſonable.

But if found to be leſs in quantity or value than expreſſed in the exporter's endorſement upon his entry, or entered under a wrong denomination, whereby the King would have been defrauded, are forfeited, with the benefit of the drawback or bounty, and the value thereof.

By the 8th of George I. *goods coaſtwiſe inwards*, foreign goods imported into, and entered at any port of Great Britain, afterwards carried to any other port, muſt be accompanied with a certificate under the cuſtomer's ſeal,

mentioning the natural colour, length, and value, if they are meaſurable goods; or the natural weight, content, or value, if they are goods uſed to be weighed or valued; which certificate muſt be delivered to the cuſtomer, that he may examine whether the goods agree therewith.

If diſcharged or unpacked before the certificate be delivered, and without the preſence of an officer, ſuch goods, or their value, are forfeited.

By the 2d of George II. no goods coming into any one port of Great Britain from any other, may be unſhipped before the coaſt-cocket, tranſire, let-paſs, or certificate, be delivered to the cuſtomer, or collector and comptroller, and their warrant or ſufferance granted for the landing, upon forfeiture of the value of the goods by the maſter, knowing and conſenting thereto.

Foreign goods, taken in at ſea, or out of any ſhip or veſſel, by any coaſter, in order to be landed, or put on board any other veſſel, within the limits of a port, without payment of duty, are forfeited, with treble the value by the maſter of both veſſels, unleſs in caſe of neceſſity.

By the 9th of George I. foreign goods, taken on board any coaſting veſſel in parts beyond the ſeas, or out of any ſhip at ſea, or in any port of this kingdom, other than the port from whence certified, are forfeited, with double the value, and the maſter of ſuch veſſel is to forfeit the value of the goods.

By the 9th of George II. any officer, upon producing his warrant or deputation, may go on board any coaſting-veſſel, within the limits of any port, and rummage for prohibited and uncuſtomed goods, and remain on board during the veſſel's ſtay in the port.

Any perſon obſtructing or moleſting the officer in ſo doing, ſhall forfeit 100l.

By the 12th of Charles II. *goods coaſtwiſe outwards* may not be laden and carried from one port or creek of Great Britain, Ireland, Guernſey, or Jerſey, to any other port or creek of the ſame, in any ſhip or veſſel, whereof any ſtranger born, unleſs ſuch as be denizens or naturaliz'd, are owners, part owners, or maſters, and whereof at leaſt 3-4ths of the mariners are not Britiſh, upon forfeiture of the ſhip and goods.

By the 13th and 14th of Charles II. goods ſhipped or put on board any ſhip to be carried forth to the open ſea, from any one port, member, or creek, in Great Britain, to be landed at any other place of this realm, without a ſufferance firſt obtained from the officers of the cuſtoms, are forfeited.

And before the departure of the ſhip out of port, the maſter muſt take out a cocket, and become bound to his Majeſty with good ſecurity in the value of the goods, for the delivery thereof in ſome port within Great Britain, and to return a certificate within ſix months, under the hands and ſeals of the officers of the port of diſcharge, upon forfeiture of the bond and ſecurity.

By the 1ſt and 9th of Queen Anne, the ſubſtance of ſuch certificate muſt be indorſed on the back of the bonds, and ſigned to by the officers tranſmitting them into the exchequer, upon penalty of treble damages, and coſts of ſuit.

Or if a ſhip be laden with coals only, and the maſter pays the cuſtom or over-ſea duty in any port of Great Britain, the cuſtomer and comptroller of ſuch port are to grant a certificate thereof; which being produced to the officers of the loading port, will diſcharge the coaſt-bond, in like manner as if the coals had been landed in Great Britain. See *Cuſtoms*.

Prohibited GOODS, are ſuch as are prohibited by law.

Allotting of GOODS. See *Allotting*.

Conſignment of GOODS. See *Conſignment*.

Running of GOODS. See *Running*.

GORAO. A ſilk ſtuff manufactured in China, uſually of a crimſon colour.

GOREE. A ſmall iſland, ſituated in 17 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 15 deg. of N. lat. near Cape Verd in Africa, in the poſſeſſion of the French.

GORGONA. A ſmall iſland in the Pacific ocean, in 79 deg. of W. lon. and 3 deg. 30 min. of S. lat. 12 miles W. of the coaſt of Peru, in South America; being a high woody iſland, with a good harbour, and good water; where the buccaneers, and other adventurers, reſorted to wait for prizes, and for wood and water; the Spaniards not having thought fit to plant a colony here, though they come hither ſometimes, after the rains, to ſearch the rivulets for gold.

GORGONELLES. A kind of linen manufactured in Holland and Hamburg, of different qualities and breadths, and proper for the trade of the Canary iſlands.

GOSE. A name given in Ruſſia to the principal merchants who trade for the Czar, and who are properly his factors. Beſides the employments of the goſes in commerce, they have alſo ſome in public ceremonies; for when foreign ambaſſadors have an audience of the Czar, the goſes are obliged to aſſiſt in magnificent veſts, and caps of ſable, which are a mark of their profeſſion and dignity, commerce being a very honourable profeſſion among the Muſcovites.

GOSLAR. A city of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and duchy of Brunſwick, ſituated in 10 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. of N. lat. 30 miles ſouth of Brunſwick, conſiderable for its ſilver and lead mines. See *Germany*.

GOTHLAND. The moſt ſouthern province of Sweden, being a peninſula, encompaſſed on three ſides by the Baltic ſea, or the channel at the entrance of it: the ſubdiviſions of it are Eaſt Gothland, and Weſt Gothland, Smaland, Halland, Bicking, and Schonen. See *Sweden*.

GOTHLAND. An iſland in the Baltic ſea, ſituated between the province of Gothland and Livonia, ſubject to Sweden.

GOTTENBURG. A port-town of Sweden, in the province of Weſt Gothland, ſituated in 11 deg. 30 min. E. lon. and 58 deg. of N. lat. on the coaſt of the Schagerack ſea, near the entrance of the Baltic, 200 miles S. W. of Stockholm, and 150 N. of Copenhagen; being a commodious harbour, and the beſt ſituated for a foreign trade, of any port of Sweden, lying without the Sound. See *Sweden*.

GOUD, or *Gaud*. See *Weld*.

GOUGE. An inſtrument uſed by divers artificers; being a ſort of round chiſſel, ſerving to cut holes, channels and grooves, in wood or ſtone.

GOULD, or *Gulden*. A ſilver coin ſtruck in Germany, but there are alſo Flemiſh goulds. See *Gulden*.

GOUTHIOU. A ſhrub which ſerves for dying black, growing in ſome parts of Spaniſh America, particularly Chili: it cannot be uſed alone, therefore muſt be mixed with maki and lanil; yet ſucceeds well when boiled with the root of pauke.

GRACE. Days of grace or reſpite are a certain number of days allowed for the payment of a bill of exchange, after the ſame becomes due. See *Day* of grace.

Act of GRACE, properly denotes an act of amneſty, oblivion; for the pardon of all offenders who are qualified, or come within the conditions of it.

The term is alſo ſometimes extended to an act for relief of inſolvent debtors in the ſeveral priſons, by ſetting at liberty who are qualified at liberty from their debts and confinement.

GRADATION, in chemiſtry, is a kind of proceſs belonging to metals, and conſiſts in gradually raiſing or exalting them to a higher degree of purity and goodneſs, as to encreaſe their weight, colour, and conſiſtence.

GRADO. An Italian iſland, ſituated in 13 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 46 deg. of N. lat. at the bottom of the gulph of Venice, 35 miles N. E. of Venice.

GRADUATION is uſed in mathematics, for the act of graduating, or dividing any thing into degrees. See *Degree*.

GRAIN, primarily denotes a fruit, or ſeed, growing in ſpica, or ear; in which ſenſe are comprehended all ſorts of corn, as wheat, rye, and barley, which are called *bread grain*; as alſo oats, beans, peaſe, and vetches, which are called *horſe grain*.

It has been computed, that the arable lands, ſown with wheat in England, annually produce thirty-four millions of buſhels of that grain; of which great quantities are exported in good years; and the reſt ſpent in the kingdom, where it is converted into excellent flour. England, according to Dr. Davenant, annually produces about the ſame quantity of barley; of which twenty-three millions of buſhels are converted firſt into malt, and after

into ale and beer; one million more of buſhels, made into malt, is converted into ſpirits and ſtrong waters; and ten millions, the reſidue of the ſaid thirty-four millions of buſhels of barley unaltered, is either made into bread, exported abroad, or uſed for ſeed at home: and, ſince Dr. Davenant wrote, great part of the light lands, which uſed to be ſown with rye, are ſown with barley, and, by late improvements, produce as good crops of that grain, as the richeſt lands in the kingdom; conſequently there are much greater quantities of barley annually ſown than when the Doctor made his calculations. Of rye the Engliſh have the leaſt ſown, at preſent, of any kind of grain; for the lands are generally too good for this grain, and the common people are uſually too dainty to eat the bread made of it. Of horſe grain, ſuch as peas, beans, vetches, and oats, there are as large quantities of land ſown annually, as there are with wheat, rye, and barley together; becauſe the very ſame land that is ſown one year with theſe kinds of grain, is ſown with horſe corn the next, and every third year the land lies fallow in the common fields; but in the incloſed grounds, where the huſbandman can improve his land as he pleaſes, he has uſually a crop every year. See *Corn*; as alſo *Wheat*, *Rye*, *Barley*, *Beans*, *Oats*, *Peas*, and *Vetches*.

Duties upon the exportation or importation of this claſs of eatables, ought to be proportioned and ſettled by rules very different from the plan propoſed for manufactures and materials imported and exported. In the article of proviſion, it is not proper for a nation to encourage an exportation uniformly, and at all times, as we ought to do in the caſe of manufactures; but only in years of plenty, and even then under certain reſtrictions, regulating the duties upon them, according as foreigners are under more or leſs neceſſity to have any of theſe things. To determine the duty upon ſuch imports, it is proper to conſider the degree of neceſſity a kingdom is under of being ſupplied with any ſort of theſe proviſions from abroad; always taking along with them, that even theſe rules and diſpoſitions, let them be ſettled with the utmoſt care and deliberation, cannot be permanent and unalterable. In certain articles they are ſo fluctuating, and liable to change, that accidents uſually happen which oblige a nation to vary them, and in ſuch extremes, that there are frequent emergencies which make it proper to advance, reduce, and take off the duties entirely; and as frequently juſtifiable motives to ſtop the exportation or importation by abſolute and rigorous prohibitions.

In order to ſhew that a variety and fluctuation is experienced in other countries, a Spaniſh author obſerves, that a very extraordinary meaſure is employed in England, and which at firſt ſight appears ſomewhat ſtrange; for they not only give leave to export grain in times of plenty, free of every tax, but a bounty is paid out of the treaſury upon every buſhel of wheat ſent abroad, at ſuch times as the price of it does not exceed a certain reaſonable ſum; that prince and his parliament apprehending, that this ſame liberty and encouraging bounty is the very thing that ſecures plenty to that kingdom for the enſuing years; and they ſupport their policy, both with arguments, that in all appearance are very well grounded, and with a repeated experience of having never felt a famine in that country for many years, ever ſince this law was firſt enacted, though it ſeem very ſtrange, and oppoſite to the conduct of other ſtates.

Notwithſtanding this example, and others, which he might produce, the ſame author ſays, that he will not preſume to decide it poſitively in this point, which he reckons one of the moſt weighty and delicate in civil policy, and in which the Spaniards are ſo much the more aſſured of a prudent deciſion, as it depends upon the mature deliberation and ſagacious judgment of the council of Caſtile; to whoſe penetration is referred the inquiry and direction of this intereſting affair, and in which it behoves them never to loſe ſight of a charge, which his Majeſty gave on this head, in his inſtructions to the intendants; which may be ſummed up in this, that whenever his Majeſty ſhall grant a licence to export grain, it is to be underſtood, that a previous inquiry be made, how much will be neceſſary for every one of the towns from whence the exportation is allowed, in order to leave them a ſufficiency for the conſumption of that year, and ſeed for the next ſeaſon.

That it might be ſeen of what great concern the intereſting affair of agriculture has been, both to the monarchs and the kingdom of Spain, the ſame author has recited the 83d article, under the 5th head of covenants, made between his Majeſty and the kingdom, July 18. 1650, at the time of granting a ſuſpenſion of the ſubſidy of the twenty-four millions, as follows.

" Having found by experience the many evils and inconveniences which reſult from the importation of foreign wheat, barley, and rye, into this kingdom, to the prejudice of its inhabitants, and of the proſperity and preſervation of this monarchy, on account of its being a detriment to health, and an occaſion to the plague; becauſe what they bring is in general very much damaged; and as by this means they have extracted, and do extract very large ſums of money in gold and ſilver, and there has been, and is an utter deſtruction of huſbandry in this kingdom, which is the main concern and ſupport of it; and the lands lie uncultivated, and the churches and convents loſe their tythes, and private perſons the rents they uſed to have in corn, and are liable to this misfortune, that in times of neceſſity, if foreign countries ſhall not think fit to ſupply us with wheat, this kingdom would be ruined; and, in order to prevent the aforeſaid, and many other inconveniences that are very evident, it is ſtipulated, that his Majeſty order, that no wheat, barley, or rye, come into theſe kingdoms by ſea from foreign countries, in order that huſbandry may be reſtored to its former ſtate, and in the years we have a middling harveſt there may be a ſurplus of wheat, that ſhall ſuffice to ſupply the wants we may ſuffer in years of ſcarcity, without being obliged to fetch it by ſea; ſince it is not reaſonable, that when there is wheat in this kingdom at a moderate price, we ſhould ſuffer it to be imported from abroad, to clog the ſale of that of the natives, deſtroy our own tillage, and enrich the enemies of this crown, that drain us of our money: and if at any time there ſhall be a want of wheat, barley, or rye, which cannot be ſupplied at a reaſonable price by any other province in this kingdom, that in ſuch caſe, and the province which ſhall labour under the ſaid difficulty ſhall apply for it, his Majeſty will be pleaſed to grant a licence, that for a limited time, and in ſuch places as there ſhall be a want of it, there may be imported the ſaid wheat, barley, and rye, by ſea, and in no other manner; excepting that nothing contained in this covenant be underſtood to extend to the kingdoms of Murcia, Galicia, the Aſturias, Biſcaya, Guipuzcoa, and Alaba: thus theſe kingdoms recovering by this means, the riches and wealth, which they formerly enjoyed, there will be a revival of their antient trade in all other ſorts of merchandiſe, and the revenues of the ports and cuſtomhouſes flouriſh as formerly."

However, the Spaniards have not yet been able to rear corn enough for themſelves, and are chiefly ſupplied from Great Britain. See *Corn*.

GRAIN is alſo applied to the fruits or ſeeds of divers plants, as a grain of muſtard-ſeed, millet, and pepper.

GRAIN is likewiſe extended to a minute body, or parcel of a body pulveriſed; in which ſenſe we ſay, a grain of ſand, a grain of ſalt, and a grain of gun-powder.

GRAIN alſo ſignifies a ſmall weight, uſed in eſtimating divers ſubſtances. See *Weight*.

The grain is the ſmalleſt of all the weights known in England, and taken from the weight of a grain of wheat, gathered out of the middle of the ear, and well dried; 24 grains make a pennyweight, and 20 pennyweights an ounce. The grain is troy weight, and uſed in the weighing of gold, ſilver, jewels, bread, and liquors.

The grain uſed by the apothecaries is the ſame with that of the goldſmiths; though they make a difference in the weights raiſed therefrom: thus, 20 grains with them make a ſcruple ℈, 3 ſcruples a drachm ʒ, 8 drachms an ounce ℥.

The

The caract uſed in eſtimating the fineſt of gold, as well as in weighing diamonds and precious ſtones, is alſo divided into 4 grains. See *Caract*.

GRAIN is alſo uſed for the figure or repreſentation of grains on ſtones, ſtuffs, and leathers. See *Morocco*, and *Shagreen*.

In ſome marbles the grain is very fine, in others coarſer. See *Marble*, and *Stone*.

Steel is known by its grain, which is much finer than that of iron. See *Steel*, and *Iron*.

GRAIN is alſo a money of accompt uſed at Meſſina and Palermo in Sicily, being 2-3ds of a penny ſterling.

GRAIN is alſo a coin at Malta, of which there are pieces of different value; among others, pieces of 15 grains, worth about $3\frac{1}{2}$d. ſterling; pieces of 10 grains, worth $2\frac{1}{2}$ d. ſterling; pieces of 5 grains, worth 1 d. ſterling, and pieces of 1 grain, worth a farthing.

GRAIN is likewiſe a copper coin of Tuſcany, worth 13-18ths of a penny.

Cochineal GRAIN. See *Cochineal*.

Scarlet GRAIN. See *Scarlet*.

GRAIN *of Paradiſe*, is that particular kind of cardamomum, denominated *maximum*, to diſtinguiſh it from the other two ſorts of the ſame medicinal ſeed. See *Cardamomum*.

GRAINARY. A place to lay or ſtore corn in, particularly for keeping. See *Corn*, and *Grain*.

Sir Henry Wotton adviſes to make it look towards the north as much as may be, that quarter being the moſt cool and temperate.

Mr. Worlidge obſerves, that the beſt grainaries are built of brick, with quarters of timber wrought in the inſide, whereto to nail the boards, with which the inſide of the grainary muſt be lined ſo cloſe to the bricks, that there be no room for vermin to ſhelter themſelves. There may be many ſtories one above another, and let them be near one to the other; for the ſhallower corn lies, the better. Some have had grainaries, the one above the other, and filled the upper with wheat, or other corn, having a ſmall hole in the floor, through which the corn deſcended into the lower one, like the ſand in an hour-glaſs; and when it was all come down into the lower grainaries, it was carried up again into the upper, and ſo kept continually in motion; which is a great preſervation to the corn. A large grainary, full of ſquare wooden pipes, may alſo kep corn from heating.

Public grainaries are common in ſeveral European cities on the continent; eſpecially at ſuch places where there is frequently a ſcarcity of corn: but the grainary at Dantzick is in the greateſt eſtimation; in imitation of which, a grainary was propoſed to be erected in Ireland; though the ſcheme has been ſince neglected.

The learned and reverend Dr. Stephen Hales, whoſe ſtudies are calculated for the good of mankind, has given an account of ſeveral methods to preſerve corn in grainaries by ventilation. But as many people may be at a loſs how to apply the different ſizes and forms of them to different quantities of corn, either in large grainaries, or leſſer parcels, he has communicated to the public a ſhort account of the cheapeſt and beſt methods that have hitherto been thought of, for preſerving corn ſweet, and free from heating, either in very large grainaries, or in ſmaller quantities, of only a few loads of corn; and, the better to explain theſe things, he has given a particular deſcription of theſe ventilators; which are of two kinds, the one called the larger double ventilator, and the other the leſſer ſingle ventilator.

This ingenious gentleman informs us, that falſe bottoms may be made to grainaries, by laying wooden bars on the floor, and nailing laths acroſs them, with a hair-cloth layed on them, as is done in malt and hop kilns. This may alſo be done in a cheaper manner, laying long poles at due diſtances on the floor, and covering them with hurdles. It may alſo be done by covering the floor of ſuch grainaries as are not very large, with faggot-ſticks unbound, laying firſt the larger ſticks ſingle, at proper diſtances acroſs the floor, then others acroſs them, with ſeveral ſuch layers acroſs and acroſs, laying the ſmalleſt bruſhwood uppermoſt; and leaving an air-channel next one of the walls in ſmall grainaries; but in large grainaries, the air-channel muſt paſs through the middle of the grainary, to be opened or ſhut, as occaſion requires.

The ſmall moveable ventilators will be ſufficient to keep corn from heating; but the larger double ones will be more extenſively uſeful to dry cold damp corn, or ſmutty corn that has been waſhed, alſo to ſweeten muſty corn.

But when grainaries are wanted purpoſely to lay up great ſtores of corn, in a comparatively much leſs quantity of building than is done in common grainaries, it may be done commodiouſly in the following manner. If grainaries ſtand on ſtone ſtaddles, or have their loweſt floor about three feet above the ground, then they may be joined together in one building, whereby three outer walls in eight will be ſaved.

Thus ſuppoſe four grainaries to be 40 feet long, and each 20 feet broad; the entrance into each of theſe grainaries may be at either end, or rather at both ends, with little inward porches, boarded up as high as the corn is to lay; but yet to have the front boards to run in grooves, ſo as eaſily to be put up or taken down, in proportion to the heighth of the corn, and for the greater convenience in filling and emptying the grainaries.

When cold, damp, or muſty corn, is at firſt laid in, it will be beſt not to lay it very thick, till it is well cured by ventilation, in a dry ſtate of the air: and in general, the more completely dry it is by ventilation or otherwiſe, ſo much the thicker it may be laid to any degree required.

But if the loweſt floor of four ſuch grainaries is on the ground, as the ſliding ſhutters in the air-trunk cannot then be come at, it will be requiſite to place the grainaries in a quadrangle, or like form, with the ventilators in the middle of the court, thence to convey air by trunks to the four granaries.

Now, theſe four granaries, being each 40 feet long, and 20 broad, will contain 3200 quarters of corn, at the rate of 10 cubic feet to each quarter, if it lay 10 feet deep: but if it lay 15 feet deep, then they will contain 4800 or 4000 quarters, allowing 800 quarters for the bulk, which the air-channels and the inner porches take up, at the end of each grainary.

Suppoſing wheat to lie 10 feet deep in one of theſe grainaries, then one half of that quantity will be equal to 4000 cubic feet; the ſeventh part of which, 571 cubic feet, will be equal to the quantity of air in the interſtices among the wheat; then ſuppoſing the ventilators with midriffs 8 feet long, and 4 feet wide, to blow out 26 cubic feet at each ſtroke, which, at the rate of 60 ſtrokes in a minute, will amount to 1560 cubic feet in a minute, which is more than double the quantity of air among the corn, that being no more than 571 cubic feet: this ſhews how very eaſy it is to prevent the heating of corn, by a little ventilation now and then: and it may be known whether, and in what proportion, air aſcends up through all parts of the corn, by turning a tub or caſk bottom upwards on the corn; and holding a lighted candle at the top or bung-hole, the motion of the flame will ſhew whether air paſs up through the corn.

A grainary thus filled up, will keep corn ſweet and dry, and conſequently free from weevels, with very little expence of ventilation, and that chiefly at the firſt laying the corn in. It will probably be beſt to ventilate when it firſt begins to ſweat a little; becauſe the moiſture being then afloat in the air among the corn, and alſo on the ſurface of the grains, it will be carried off with the leſs ventilation; and when it has been thus repeated a few times, the corn will effectually be freed from the greateſt part of the moiſture, which would endanger the ſpoiling of it, or the breeding of weevels: and when it, by this means, becomes completely dry, very little ventilation will afterwards be required, eſpecially if in this ſtate the windows and all inlets of air be kept cloſe ſhut in order to prevent the entrance of air in a damp ſtate. But, in a very dry ſtate of the air, it may be well to open them ſometimes, in the middle of the day, for a freſh air is better than a long confined dry air.

And in order to judge when the air is in a damp or dry ſtate, it may be well to have a whip-cord fixed in a p

per manner, by the lengthening and ſhortening of which the ſtate of the air may be pretty well known. Great care muſt be taken not to ventilate dry corn in a damp ſtate of the air; but in the caſe of corn that is ſo damp, that it will heat and ſpoil without ventilation, it muſt, if need, be ventilated in a damp ſtate of the air.

All kinds of corn, ſeeds, or whole oat-meal, may thus be kept ſweet by ventilation, and probably all coarſe ground oat-meal; for the air has been found to paſs upwards, through about 6 inches depth of fine ground oatmeal, and that in a ſmall degree when it was preſſed down; but it is uncertain whether it will go through a great depth of fine ground oat-meal, when it will be preſſed down by its great quantity; for oatmeal, ſomething finer than a hair-cloth muſt be uſed to lay it on. The air will not paſs through wheat-meal, but will through ground malt.

Small parcels, of a few loads of corn, may be eaſily kept ſweet in the following manner: by laying two rows of faggot ſticks acroſs and acroſs each other, leaving an air-channel about a foot wide, but 10, 15, or 20 feet in length, and covering the channel with a ſufficient quantity of faggot-ſticks laid acroſs over it; then laying a hair-cloth over all, on which corn may be heaped up as high as it can lie, taking care that all the faggots be covered therewith, both at the ſides and at each end.—A ſquare trunk of boards, about 5 inches wide within, and 3 or 4 feet long, muſt be put at one end of the heap of corn, through which air is to be blown by the moveable ventilators, the ſize of which muſt be proportioned to the quantity of corn intended to be thus ventilated. But in large grainaries, as ſuppoſe a malt-houſe, it may be well to have two, three, or more of theſe ſeparate heaps of corn, to be ventilated in their turns ſeparately. The faggots may be laid either in a long or round form, as ſhall beſt ſuit the ſhape or ſize of the grainary. The windows ſhould be open during this ventilation, to carry off the damp air as it riſes from the corn. Such heaps of corn, as alſo ſmall grainaries and bins full of corn, may be ventilated with a trunk full of paſſages for air on its ſides, covered with hair or ſacking; this trunk may have branches to it, according to the ſize or ſhape of the grainary. Theſe trunks may be made in ſeveral parts, to be taken off and put on at pleaſure, or with ſliding ſhutters to ſtop them at any deſired length.

GRAINING *Board*. A board uſed by the curriers to give the grain to their leather. See *Currier*.

GRAMONY. A term of trade uſed in ſome ports of the Levant, particularly at Smyrna, ſignifying, in the ſilk trade, a deduction of 2 s. 8 d. *per* bale, over and above all the tares eſtabliſhed by uſe.

GRANADA. The moſt ſouthern of the Caribbee iſlands, ſituated in 61 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 12 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. in the Atlantic ocean, 150 miles S. W. of Barbadoes.

GRANADILLOS. Some iſlands of the Caribbees, in the Atlantic ocean, ſituated in 61 deg. of W. lon. and between 12 and 13 deg. of N. lat. having the iſland of St. Vincent on the north, and Granada on the ſouth; ſo inconſiderable that no nation has thought them worth poſſeſſing.

GRANADO, or *Granada*, in the military art, a hollow ball or ſhell of iron, braſs, or even glaſs, or potter's earth, filled with gun powder, and fitted with a fuſe to give it fire. Of theſe there are two kinds, the one large the other ſmall: the firſt to be thrown at the enemy by a mortar, properly called bombs. The latter to be caſt with the hand, and thence denominated hand granados.

The common, or hand-granado, is a little hollow ball of iron, tin, wood, or paſteboard, filled with ſtrong powder, lighted with a fuzee, and thrown by hand into places where men ſtand thick; particularly into trenches and lodgments. Their compoſition is the ſame with that of bombs; and they are uſually about the bigneſs of an iron bullet, weighing about 3 pounds; they are commonly in thickneſs one eighth, ninth, or tenth of their diameter; their orifice about $\frac{2}{19}$ wide, as preſcribed by Caſimir.

Thuanus obſerves, that the firſt time granados were uſed, was at the ſiege of Wachlendonck, a town near Gueldres; and that the inventor was an inhabitant of Venlo, who, in making an experiment of the effect thereof, occaſioned two thirds of that city to be burnt; the fire being kindled by the fall of a granado.

GRANATE, popularly called *Garnet*, a gem, or precious ſtone, of a high red colour; thus called from the reſemblance it bears to that of the kernel of a pomegranate.

Granates are either oriental or occidental; the firſt are brought from divers parts of the Eaſt Indies; the ſecond from Spain, Bohemia, and Sileſia. Thoſe from the Eaſt are diſtinguiſhed by their colour into three kinds: the firſt of a deep browniſh red, like black clotted blood, of which there are ſome as big as a hen's egg; the ſecond are nearly of the colour of a hyacinth, with which it would be eaſy to confound them, but for their ſuperior redneſs: the laſt having a mixture of violet in their red, are called by the Italians *rubini della rocha*. See *Ruby*.

The occidental granates are of divers reds, according to the places they are found in. Thoſe of Spain imitate the colour of the kernel of a pomegranate; thoſe of Bohemia have a golden caſt with their red, and glitter like a live coal; thoſe of Sileſia are the darkeſt of all, and ſeldom thoroughly tranſparent. Thoſe of Bohemia are the moſt valued, and ſome prefer them to the oriental kind: they are found near Prague; not in any particular mines, but are picked up by the peaſants in the fields, from among the ſands and pebbles.

The powder of the granate is of uſe in medicine, and an ingredient in the cordial electuaries: the ancients held it excellent againſt heavineſs and melancholy.

GRANDE. A river of Brazil, in the province of Del Rey, in South America, which diſcharges itſelf into the Atlantic ocean, in 51 deg. of W. lon. and 32 deg. of S. lat.

GRANDE. The ſouth branch of the river Niger, in Africa, which diſcharges itſelf into the Atlantic ocean, in 15 deg. of W. lon. and 11 deg. of N. lat.

GRANITE, or *Granite*, a ſort of marble, extremely hard, rough, and incapable of taking a thorough poliſh; thus called from being ſprinkled over with a great number of little ſtains, reſembling grains of ſand. See *Marble*.

There are three ſorts of granite; that of Egypt, that of Italy, and that of Dauphiny: the firſt has browniſh or greeniſh ſpots, on a dirty white ground, found in very large pieces, and chiefly uſed by the Egyptians, in their obeliſks, and pyramids, on the tombs of their great men, where there are columns of this ſtone above 40 feet high. They have alſo a ſort of green granite, which is a ſpecies of ſerpentine, ſpotted with green and white ſpots.

The granite of Dauphiny, whereof a quarry has been found, is only a very hard ſort of flint.

GRANTAN. An Indian meaſure, particularly uſed in the iſland of Java for meaſuring pepper; being 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. avoirdupois. See *Baruth*.

GRANVILLE. A port-town of France, in the province of Normandy, ſituated in 1 deg. 35 min. of W. lon. and 48 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. on the Engliſh channel, 50 miles S. W. of Caen; from whence the noble family of Carteret take the title of Earl.

GRANULATION, in chemiſtry, an operation performed on metals, whereby they are reduced into ſmall grains or globules.

GRAPES. The fruit of the vine. See *Wine*.

GRAPNEL-*anchor*, an anchor for a ſmall ſhip, boat, or galley, without ſtocks, and having four hooks, or holdfaſts.

GRAPNELS. Large iron hooks, to be thrown into an enemy's ſhip, to take hold, and keep her cloſe, to board.

GRATIAS. A term in the Spaniſh cuſtoms, ſignifying a favour; being allowances made by the King of Spain on goods imported from Great Britain, in conſideration of the ſeveral alterations of the Spaniſh coin, which had raiſed the duties.

GRATIAS *à Dios*. A cape, or promontory in the province of Honduras, in Mexico, ſituated in 84 deg. of W. lon. and 14 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. to which Columbus gave this name, on finding the winds favourable.

GRATIOLA. A medicinal plant, of conſiderable virtues, called in Engliſh hedge-hyſſop, and God's-grace.

Its moſt noted effects are to evacuate hydropic waters, both upwards and downwards, taken either in infuſion, or decoction; to cleanſe wounds, and to kill worms. The bark of it taken in powder is ſaid to be little inferior in virtue to ipecacuanha for dyſenteries. It is of a very bitter taſte, whence probably its vermifugous power; and its root aſtringent, whence its uſe in the dyſentry.

GRATIOSA. One of the iſlands of the Azores, ſituated in 29 deg. of W. lon. and 39 deg. of N. lat. See *Azores*.

GRAVEL. A coarſer ſand, conſiſting of little pebbles and flints, chiefly uſed in laying yards, courts, and walks in gardens.

GRAVELIN. A port-town of the French Netherlands, ſituated in 2 deg. of E. lon. and 50 deg. 56 min. of N. lat. near the mouth of the river Aa, and the Engliſh channel, 12 miles S. W. of Dunkirk, and 8 miles Eaſt of Calais. See *France*.

GRAVER. A ſteel inſtrument, ſerving to engrave on metals. See *Engraving*.

GRAVESEND. A port town of Kent, ſituated on the ſouth ſhore of the river Thames, oppoſite to Tilbury fort, and 20 miles E. of London, where ſhips are cleared before they are put to ſea.

GRAVING. The art of cutting lines, figures, and other deſigns on metals, more properly called engraving.

GREASE. See *Tallow*.

GREECE. See *Turky*.

GREEN. One of the original colours of the rays of light. Artificial greens are rarely ſimple colours, but produced by the mixture of yellow and blue. See *Blue* and *Yellow*.

Two powders, the one blue, and the other yellow, well mixed, appear perfectly green; tho' when viewed with a microſcope, a chequer of blue and yellow is obſerved. The dyers make divers ſhades, or caſts of green; as light-green, yellow-green, graſs-green, laurel-green, ſea-green, dark-green, parrot-green, and celadon-green. All the greens are firſt dyed in blue, then taken down with woad, and verdegreaſe, and then greened with the weed; there being no one ingredient that will give green alone. See *Dying*.

Mountain green, or Hungary green, is a ſort of greeniſh powder, found in little grains like ſand, among the mountains of Kernauſent in Hungary, and thoſe of Moldavia: tho' ſome hold that this mountain green is factitious, and the ſame with what the ancients call *floſcæris*, prepared by caſting water, or rather wine, on copper, red hot from the furnace, and catching the fumes thereof on copper-plates laid over for the purpoſe, or by diſſolving copper-plates in wine, as in making verdegreaſe. The painters uſe this colour for a graſs-green, which is ſometimes counterfeited by grinding verdegreaſe with ceruſe.

GREEN-*hide*, is that not yet tanned, or dreſſed, but juſt taken off from the carcaſe. See *Hide*.

GREEN-*Iſlands*. See Cape-*Verd* Iſlands.

GREENLAND. See *Denmark*.

GREENLAND *Company, and Fiſhery*. See Whale-*Fiſhery*.

GREEN-*Cod*. See Cod *Fiſhery*.

GREENWICH. A pleaſant town in the county of Kent, ſituated on the ſouth-ſide of the river Thames, five miles eaſt of London, eminent for its royal and magnificent hoſpital, erected for decayed ſeamen who have ſerved their country. A good part of which was built in the reign of King Charles II. at the expence of 36000 l. It was much promoted by K. William; and finiſhed under Queen Anne and King George the firſt and ſecond. The number of penſioners contained in this hoſpital is three hundred; to each hundred of which are allowed ſix nurſes, being the widows of ſeamen. The victualing is according to the allowance of Chelſea-hoſpital, being four men to a meſs; each meſs to contain four pounds of fleſh, and a gallon of beer: it is adminiſtred by a governor, captain, lieutenant, chaplain, ſteward, and phyſician.

By the ſtatute of the 7th and 8th of William III. it was enacted, That every ſeaman, waterman, or ſeafareing-man, diſabled by age, wounds or accidents, ſhould, upon certificate thereof from the captain, maſter, ſurgeon, and purſer, or ſo many of them as were in the ſhip, unto the governors of the hoſpital of Greenwich, be admitted into the hoſpital, and ſhould have provided unto him during life, convenient lodging meat, drink, cloathing, and other neceſſaries; and the widows of ſuch ſeamen, watermen, &c. who ſhould be ſlain or drowned in the ſervice, and the children of ſuch not of ability to provide comfortably for themſelves, ſhould be received into the ſaid hoſpital, and provided for; and the ſaid children ſhould be educated till they were fit to be put out, or of ability to maintain themſelves, ſo far forth as the hoſpital ſhould be capable to receive ſuch diſabled ſeamen, and ſuch widows and children, and as the revenues thereof would extend.

That every ſeaman who ſhould ſerve in any of his Majeſty's ſhips, or in any ſhip belonging to any ſubjects of his Majeſty's dominions, ſhould allow out of the wages for ſuch ſervice 6 d. a month for ſupport of the ſaid hoſpital, for the purpoſes aforeſaid, which monthly allowance ſhould be collected, as ſhould be appointed by the commiſſioners for executing the office of Lord High Admiral. By the ſtatute of the 8th and 9th of William III. it was enacted, That for the better collecting of the duties of 6 d. *per* month, granted by the 7th of William III. it ſhould be lawful for the commiſſioners, or their deputies, by warrant to cauſe all maſters of ſhips, not in his Majeſty's ſervice, to appear before them, and ſuch maſters upon their oaths to examine as to the number, wages and times of ſervice, of every perſon belonging to ſuch ſhips: and if ſuch maſters ſhould refuſe to appear, or ſhould obſtinately refuſe to give a diſcovery of the matters aforeſaid, upon their oaths, ſuch offenders ſhould forfeit 10 l. to the uſes mentioned in the ſaid act.

That when any vacancies ſhould happen in Greenwich hoſpital, the commiſſioners executing the office of Lord High Admiral ſhould have power to nominate any diſabled ſeamen, their wives and children, and the widows and children of ſeamen ſlain, or drowned in ſea ſervice, to be provided for in the hoſpital.

By the ſtatute of the 10th of Queen Anne it was enacted, That to the intent that the 6 d. a month might be effectually collected, every perſon that ſhould ſerve her Majeſty, or any other, in any of her Majeſty's ſhips, or in any ſhips belonging to Great Britain or Ireland, or the dominions thereunto belonging, and every maſter workman in his own ſhip, whether employed upon the high ſeas, coaſts, or in any port, bay or creek, other than ſuch apprentices under the age of eighteen years, as are exempted from payment of 6 d. a month; and perſons employed in any boat upon the coaſts, in taking of fiſh which are brought freſh on ſhore into Great Britain or Ireland; and perſons employed in boats that trade from place to place within any river, or in open bays upon the coaſts, ſhould pay the ſaid 6 d. a month for ſupport of Greenwich hoſpital.

That the maſter of every ſhip, not in her Majeſty's ſervice, was required to deduct out of the wages accruing to ſuch ſeamen 6 d. a month, and pay the ſame to ſuch officers as ſhould be appointed by the commiſſioners executing the office of Lord High Admiral.

That it ſhould be lawful for the commiſſioners executing the office of Lord High Admiral to appoint receivers of the ſaid duty, and to authoriſe ſuch receivers to demand of the collectors, or other officers of cuſtoms for the outports, and of the ports of Ireland, and ſuch other as they ſhould think fit, to examine every ſuch maſter or owner, as to the number and times of ſervice of all perſons belonging to ſuch ſhips, who are chargeable with the ſaid 6 d. a month; and if ſuch maſters or owners ſhould refuſe, when ſummoned, not having a reaſonable excuſe to appear, or ſhould neglect to pay the monies due to the hoſpital within fourteen days after they ſhould be called inwards, ſuch offenders ſhould forfeit 20 l.

That no private contracts made by any ſeamen ſhould obſtruct or delay the payment of the duties appropriated to the ſaid hoſpital.

That nothing in this act ſhould oblige the payment of the 6 d. a month by any maſters or ſervants of the hoy veſſels belonging to the port of London, and employed within the north foreland, in bringing corn, fiſh, or proviſions for London.

That the commiſſioners of the admiralty ſhould con

as qualified for an admiſſion into the ſaid hoſpital, any ſeaman who ſhould offer himſelf to be admitted, and ſhould produce a certificate of his having been wounded or hurt in defending any ſhip belonging to the ſubjects of her Majeſty againſt enemies, or in taking any ſhip from the enemy, and thereby diſabled for ſea-ſervice.

By the ſtatute of the 8th of King George II. after reciting that there was payable out of the eſtate of the late Earl of Derwentwater in Northumberland the ſums therein mentioned, it was enacted, That the rents and profits of the premiſſes, ſubject to the ſaid incumbrances, ſhould be applied towards the finiſhing the building of the hoſpital at Greenwich, and for the better maintenance of the ſeamen.

That in caſe any ſeaman on board any merchant-ſhip, belonging to the ſubjects of his Majeſty, ſhould be maimed in fight againſt any enemy, ſuch ſeaman ſhould be admitted into the royal hoſpital of Greenwich, as any other ſeaman wounded in the ſervice of his Majeſty.

By the ſtatute of the 18th of King George II. after reciting the foregoing acts, it was further enacted, that if the commiſſioners for collecting the duty of the ſaid 6 d. a month, ſhould find it difficult to be collected from privateers who neither clear inwards or outwards; for remedy thereof, every officer or ſeaman, or other perſon whatſoever, that ſhould be employed in any privateer, or private ſhip of war, having a letter of marque, belonging to any of the ſubjects of Great Britain or Ireland, or dominions thereunto belonging; or in Jerſey, Guerney, Alderney, Sark, and Man, or in his Majeſty colonies, iſlands, and dominions in America, ſhould pay 6 d. *per* month, or proportionably for any leſſer time during the time they ſhould be employed in any ſuch ſhip or veſſel, for the better ſupport of Greenwich hoſpital, and augmenting the revenue thereof, for the purpoſes in there cited acts mentioned.

That the commander of every privateer, or letter of marque-ſhip, or veſſel, before he ſailed from any ports of the dominions aforeſaid, ſhould deliver to the collector of the cuſtoms of the port he ſailed from, a liſt in writing, ſign'd by him, of the names, ages, and deſcriptions of every ſeaman, or other perſon, belonging to ſuch ſhip or veſſel; and on the arrival, or return thereof into any of the ports aforeſaid, the commander of ſuch veſſel ſhould deliver to the collector of the port he arrives at, an authentic copy on oath, of the liſt he delivered in to the collector of the port whence he ſailed, and a particular account, whether all, or any of the men, which ſailed with him are returned; and if any are wanting, he ſhould give an account of what was become of them; and if any ſuch commander ſhould obſtinately refuſe, or neglect to deliver ſuch liſts and accounts, he ſhould forfeit 50 l. one moiety whereof ſhould be for the uſe of the hoſpital, and the other moiety to the perſon who ſhould ſue for the ſame.

By the ſtatute of the 20th of King George II. after reciting the former ſtatute, and that as ſome doubt might ariſe, whether the ſhares of prizes, belonging to men running from their ſhips, after condemnation of ſuch prizes ſhould be forfeited; by the ſaid clauſe in the ſaid recited act, it was enacted, That no perſon who ſhould belong to any ſhip of war, or merchant-ſhip in his Majeſty's pay and ſervice, and who ſhould withdraw from the veſſel by which any prize ſhould be taken, or otherwiſe, from his Majeſty's ſervice, before or after notification given by the agents of the day of payment of the ſhares to the captors, ſhould have any benefit of the ſaid ſhares, or bounty-money, but the ſame ſhould go and be paid to the uſe of Greenwich Hoſpital.

That if any perſon ſhould run away from any ſuch ſhip, after notification given as aforeſaid, he ſhould forfeit ſo much of the prize and bounty-money, as ſhould at the time of his running away, remain in the agents hands. See *Mariner*.

GREGORIAN *Calendar*, is that which ſhews the new and full moon, with the time of Eaſter, and the moveable feaſts depending thereon, by means of epacts diſpoſed through the ſeveral months of the Gregorian year.

The Gregorian calendar therefore differs from the Julian, both in the form of the year, and in that it uſes epacts, inſtead of golden numbers.

This reformation of the kalendar was made in 1582, by order of Pope Gregory XIII. and with the advice of Aloyſius Lilius, and other mathematicians: at the ſame time ten days were cut off from that year, and caſt away, to bring the equinoxes to their ancient ſeat, the 25th of March; and to keep them conſtantly there, the ſame Pope introduced a new form of year.

GREGORIAN *year*, is the Julian year corrected, or modelled, in ſuch manner, as that the three ſecular years, which in the Julian account are biſſextile, are here common years, and only every fourth ſecular year a biſſextile year.

The Gregorian year, tho' it comes nearer to nature and truth, than the Julian, is not ſtrictly juſt, as it gets an hour and twenty minutes in four hundred years, and conſequently in ſeven thouſand two hundred a whole day.

The Gregorian year is now uſed in moſt countries of Europe, moſt of the United Provinces excepted, where the Julian year ſtill obtains. See *Julian* year.

From this difference ariſes the diſtinction of old, or Julian, and new, or Gregorian ſtyle. See *Style*.

The old ſtyle is eleven days behind the new; ſo that the ſame day which in the Gregorian account is the 11th day of any month, is in the Julian the 1ſt only.

GREMIL, or *Pearl herb*, a plant growing in uncultivated places, and cultivated in gardens for its ſeed. It is uſed in medicine as a lithontriptic, and diuretic; its doſe being a drachm, or two, reduced into fine powder.

GRENOBLE. A city of France, capital of the province of Dauphine, ſituated in 5 deg. 28 min. of E. lon. and 45 deg. 12 min. of N. lat. on the river Iſere, 45 miles S. E. of Lyons, 36 miles S. W. of Chamberry, and 100 miles W. of Turin. See *France*.

GRENOCK. A port-town of Scotland, in the county of Renfrew, near the mouth of the river Clyde.

GRIEVNA. A ſilver coin of Ruſſia, worth 5 $\frac{2}{3}$ d. ſterling.

GRILLES, is a term at Genoa, for an aſſociation of merchants, for the Negro trade.

GRILLUS. See Salt of *Vitriol*.

GRIMELIN. A ſmall ſilver coin, of a low ſtandard, ſtruck and current at Tripoli in Barbary, being worth about 2 pence ſterling.

GRIMSBY. A borough, and port-town of Lincolnſhire, ſituated at the mouth of the Humber, 30 miles N. W. of Lincoln.

GRIPE *of a ſhip*, is the compaſs or ſharpneſs of her ſtern under water, chiefly towards the bottom. The deſign of ſhaping her ſo, is to make her gripe the more, and to keep a good wind; for which purpoſe they ſometimes put a falſe ſtem upon the true one.

GRIPE, is alſo a ſea-phraſe for a ſhip's being apt to run her head or noſe too much into the wind; in which caſe they ſay ſhe gripes, of which there are two cauſes: 1ſt, overloading her a-head, the weight of which preſſes her head ſo down, that it is not apt to fall off from the wind: 2d, the ſtaying, or ſetting her maſts too much aft; which will always be a fault in a ſmall ſhip that draws much water, and will cauſe her to be continually running into the wind; tho' in floaty ſhips, if the maſts be not ſtayed aſar aft, they will never keep a good wind.

GRISONS. Allies of Switzerland. See *Switzerland*.

GRIST, denotes corn ground, or ready for grinding; but ſometimes it means profit or advantage; as ſuch or ſuch a thing brings griſt, that is, profit or advantage to the mill.

GROAT. An Engliſh money of accompt, equal to four pence. Other nations, as the Dutch, Polanders, Saxons, Bohemians, and French, have alſo groats, called groots, groches, and gros. See *Money*, and *Coin*.

In the Saxon times, the Engliſh had no ſilver money bigger than a penny; nor, indeed, after the conqueſt, till Edward III. who, about the year 1351, coined groſſes, that is, groats, or great pieces, which went for four pence apiece; and ſo the currency ſtood till the reign of Henry VIII. who, in 1504, firſt coined ſhillings. See *Shilling*.

GROCER, anciently meant an engroſſer, or monopoliſer, as appears by the ſtatute of the 37th of Edward II. but it now implies a perſon whoſe trade conſiſts in grocery, or the buying of ſugars, ſpices, raiſins, figs, currants, prunes, and other dry goods; and, becauſe that trade has frequent occaſion for changing of money for ſmall par-

cels of goods, the braſs or copper money, ſuch as halfpence and farthings, ſometimes go by this denomination.

GROCERS *company of London*, anciently denominated pepperers, having changed their name to that of grocers, were, under that denomination, incorporated by letters-patent of Edward III. in 1345, by the name of The wardens and commonalty of the myſtery of the grocers of the city of London, which was confirmed by Henry VI. in 1429: and both theſe grants were confirmed by a new charter of Charles I. in 1640, with an additional power of ſearching and inſpecting the goods and weights of all grocers, within the city and ſuburbs of London, and three miles round the ſame. They had anciently the management of the King's beam in the city of London, with the right of appointing a maſter weigher, and four porters to attend it.

This company conſiſts of a prime, and three other wardens, fifty-two aſſiſtants, and one hundred and twenty-ſeven liverymen, whoſe fine upon admiſſion is 20 l. They have a ſpacious hall in Grocers-alley, wherein they treat of their affairs, with a great eſtate, out of which is yearly paid to the poor about 700 l.

GROCHE. See *Groſs*.

GROCHE, is a term ſometimes given by the Turks to the rial, or Spaniſh piece of eight, current at Conſtantinople for 80 aſpers of good allay or 3 s. ſterling; but if of baſe, 120 are given for the rial. See *Aſper*.

The pieces of eight riſe in their value at Conſtantinople, and Cairo, by exchanging them for temins, aſpers, and other monies of baſe allay current in Turky, according as they are ſought for by Armenian, Perſian, and Arabian merchants, who carry them into their countries preferably to other coins.

GROCHE, or *Cara Grouch*, is alſo a Turkiſh coin worth 4 s. 6 d. ſterling.

GROENLAND. See *Denmark*.

GROGRAM. A ſort of ſtuff, or ſilk, being in reality no more than a taffety, coarſer and thicker than ordinary. See *Taffety*.

GROS. A ſmall copper, or braſs coin, current in Franche-Compte, before that province was united with the crown of France, under the reign of Lewis XIV. and now received in Lorrain, and in ſome other neighbouring ſtates; being worth ſomewhat leſs than $\frac{1}{2}$ d. ſterling.

Livre de GROS, is a money of accompt uſed in Holland, Flanders, and Brabant; being worth more or leſs according to the places where it is uſed, or according as exchange riſes and falls.

GROSS, or *Groot*, is alſo a copper coin uſed in Poland, Germany, and Italy. The Poliſh groſs is equal to $\frac{1}{10}$ of an Engliſh penny. The groſs of Dantzic is equal to $\frac{3}{5}$ of a penny ſterling. The groſs of Hamburgh is equal to $\frac{9}{16}$ of a penny ſterling. The groſs of Saxony is of two kinds; the good and the marien; the former worth 1 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. ſterling, and the latter worth 1 $\frac{1}{6}$ d. ſterling. The kayſer groſs of Frankfort is worth 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. ſterling. The groſs of Vienna is worth 1 $\frac{19}{30}$ d. ſterling: and the groſs of Venice is worth 1 $\frac{19}{181}$ d. ſterling.

GROSS *weight*, is the weight of merchandiſes, and goods, with their duſt, and droſs; alſo of the bag, caſk, or cheſt, wherein they are contained; out of which groſs-weight allowance is to be made for tare and tret. See *Tare* and *Tret*.

GROSS *average*. See *Average*.

GROSS *in tale*, the quantity of twelve dozen. See *Tale*.

GROTESQUE *work*. A wild, whimſical figure, or deſign of a painter, or engraver; having ſomething ridiculous, extravagant, or even monſtrous in it.

GROUND, in agriculture, is a piece of land, ſoil, or portion of earth, fit, or unfit, to be cultivated: but all ſorts of ground may be reduced to marſhy, chalky, gravelly, and ſtony.

GROUND *in painting*, is the ſurface upon which the figures, and other objects, are raiſed, or repreſented. In like ſenſe is alſo ſaid the *ground* of a piece of tapeſtry, of an embroidery, of a medal, coin, and ſuch like.

GROUND *tackle*. A ſea term, denoting a ſhip's anchor, cables, and whatſoever is neceſſary to make her ride at anchor in a proper ground.

GROUND-*timbers*, in ſhip-buildings, are thoſe which lie on the keel, and are faſtened to it with bolts thro' the keelſon.

GROUNDS, the dregs or lees of liquors, eſpecially thoſe made from malt; alſo the name of powder made of ſtarch. See *Starch*.

GROUNDING *of a ſhip*, is the bringing her on ground to be trimmed, made clean, or to have ſome leak ſtopped in her.

GRUBENHAGEN. A town and caſtle of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and duchy of Brunſwick, ſituated in 9 deg. 36 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. 60 m. S. W. of Brunſwick, and 45 S. of Hanover. There are mines of ſilver, copper, iron, and lead, in the adjacent mountains, which are covered with the woody remains of the Hercynian foreſt: the people of this and the neighbouring country being all miners.

GUADALAVIAR. A river of Spain, which riſes in the province of Arragon, and runs S. E. through the province of Valencia, falling into the Mediterranean, a little below the city of Valencia.

GUADALUPE. One of the largeſt of the Caribbee iſlands, ſituated in 61 deg. of W. lon. and 16 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. in the Atlantic ocean, 80 miles N. of Martinico. See *French* America, under *France*.

GUADIANA. A river of Spain, which riſes in the middle of New Caſtile, and running S. W. by Calatrava, and Cividad Real, paſſes on to the city of Merida, in Eſtremadura; then entering Portugal near Elvas, runs S. through the provinces of Alentejo, and Algarva, diſcharging itſelf into the Atlantic ocean at Aymonte.

GUADILBARBAR. A river of Africa, which riſes in the mountains of Atlas, and runs from S. to N. through the kingdom of Tunis, falling into the Mediterranean near Bona.

GUADILQUIVIR. A river of Spain, which riſes in the mountains of Segura, in New-Caſtile; runs S. W. the whole length of Andaluſia; and, paſſing by Cordoua and Seville, falls into the Atlantic ocean at St. Lucar, a little N. of the bay of Cadiz.

GUAIAC, or *Guiacum*. A medicinal wood brought from the Indies, much uſed in venereal diſorders; called alſo *lignum vitæ*, and by the Spaniards *ligno ſanto*.

Guaiac grows both in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies; that of the latter is brought in large pieces, ſome of them weighing four or five hundred pounds; by which it is diſtinguiſhed from the former. The guaiac tree is the height of the common walnut-tree, and is diſtinguiſhed into two kinds, male and female; only differing as their leaves are more or leſs round; being all equally green, the flowers blue, and of a ſtarry form; having a little orange-coloured fruit, about the ſize of a ſmall nut, at the tip thereof.

The wood guaiac is extremely hard and heavy, on which account it is uſed as ebony in moſaic work, and alſo for making of button-moulds: but its principal uſe is in medicine, being found to warm, dry, rarify, attenuate, attract, and promote ſweats and urine: the uſual way of applying it being in decoction.

The beſt is that in large pieces, of a duſky colour, full gummy, heavy, and of an agreeable ſmell, and a brisk pungent taſte; the bark ſticking cloſe to the wood.

The bark of guaiac is held of as much virtue as the wood itſelf; but the rind is of no efficacy: ſo that to make a ſudorific decoction, or ptiſan of the wood, all the white part ſhould be firſt poured off; which, in reality, is the rind; and it is only neceſſary to chip or raſp the hard ſolid part, which is black, heavy, and reſinous; but, the chirurgeons frequently ſubſtitute box-wood inſtead of guaiac, and, they ſay, with equal ſucceſs.

The reſin drawn from guaiac is held much more effectual in venereal caſes, than either the wood or bark. It is brought to Europe in large pieces, not much unlike the common reſin; but very different in reſpect of ſmell: for, being caſt upon the coals, it yields a very agreeable balſamic fume.

GUAM. The chief of the Ladrone or Marian iſlands, in the Pacific ocean, ſituated in 140 deg. of E. lon. and 14 deg. of N. lat. where the Spaniards, and other nations, uſually touch for proviſions, in their voyages from America to Aſia. See *Marian* Iſlands.

UANCO, or *Guanaco*. An animal of the number of thoſe who furniſh the occidental bezoar, otherwiſe bezoar of Peru. See *Bezoar*.

UANIN. A kind of metal, compoſed of gold, ſilver, and copper, in which, when of 32 parts, there are 18 of gold, 6 of ſilver, and 8 of copper. There were formerly mines of Guanin in the iſland of St. Domingo; but, ſince the natural inhabitants of the iſland were exterminated by the Spaniards, the knowledge thereof has been intirely loſt.

UANIHANI, or *St. Salvador*, now called *Catt* iſland, one of the Bahama iſlands, in the Atlantic ocean, in North America, ſituated in 76 deg. of W. lon. and 24 deg. of N. lat. 200 miles E. of the iſland of Providence. This was the firſt land Columbus diſcovered in North America, in 1492; when he called it St. Salvador, his crew giving themſelves over for loſt in a boundleſs ocean, till they ſaw this land. See *Britiſh* America.

UARD, in its general ſenſe, implies defence, cuſtody, or conſervation of any thing; the act of what paſſes to prevent ſurpriſe, or the care and precaution taken to hinder any thing being done contrary to the deſire and intention of another. Thus Spain has at various times purpoſely fitted out men of war called,

UARDA-COSTAS, both in Europe and America: in the former particularly to guard the coaſts of Andaluſia from Cape St. Vincent to the ſtreights of Gibraltar, which the corſairs of Sallé, Algiers, and others from Barbary, more frequently infeſt, and dare to inſult. Such a proviſion may not only contribute very much to reſtrain them from invading, and committing all ſorts of hoſtilities, and depredations aſhore, making priſoners, and dragging into captivity many of the inhabitants of both ſexes; but would alſo ſerve to convoy, and protect the Spaniſh veſſels, that either carry on, or ought to carry on the traffic of their own fruits, and commodities, at leaſt upon their own ſeas, without being expoſed to be hurried away captive, and ſuffer all the wretchedneſs that uſually attends ſuch a misfortune, and with this additional mortification, that the Spaniards are obliged to remit thoſe large ſums of money, which they ſend from time to time, to Africa for their redemption, and which enable thoſe Barbarians to encreaſe their power at ſea, and do them ſtill greater injuries.

In America, the Spaniards conſtantly employ a great number of theſe armed veſſels, to prevent the ſhips of other nations from enjoying a traffic with the American Spaniards: as alſo to ſearch foreign veſſels, in ſuch latitudes, for what they eſteem contraband goods; ſuch as pieces of eight, logwood, and indigo: and likewiſe to hinder the Engliſh from carrying on the logwood trade in the bays of Honduras and Campeachy: which occaſioned the late war between Great Britain and Spain; and which, very probably, may bring on another.

UARDA FEU *Cape*, the moſt eaſterly promontory in Africa, ſituated in 50 deg. of E. lon. and 11 deg. of N. lat. on the coaſt of Anian, near the entrance of the Red ſea.

UARMAY. A port-town of Peru, in South America, ſituated in 78 deg. of W. lon. and 10 deg. of S. lat. 120 miles N. W. of Lima.

UATIMALA. A city of Mexico, in North America, ſituated in 97 deg. of W. lon. and 14 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. capital of the province of Guatimala.

UENGA. A great river of the Hither India in Aſia, which riſes in the mountains of Balagate, and running N. E. falls into the W. branch of the river Ganges, in Bengal.

UERNSEY. See *Britiſh* Iſlands.

UEROU. A river of Morocco, in Africa, near which is the city of Sallee.

UEST. A long meaſure, uſed in ſome of the Mogul's territories, being about 2 Engliſh ells.

UEZE. A long meaſure uſed by the Perſians for ſtuffs, cloths, and ſuch like merchandiſes; of which there are two kinds; the royal, called monkelſer; and the ſhort ſimply gueze, being only $\frac{2}{3}$ of the other; the former containing 2 feet 10 inches, and the latter 11 lines.

UIACUM. A phyſical wood. See *Guaiac*.

GUIAQUIL. A city and port-town of Peru, in South America, ſituated on the Pacific ocean, in 80 deg. of W. lon. and 30 deg. of S. lat. 140 miles N. E. of Payta, ſubject to Spain.

GUIARA. A port-town on the Caracoa coaſt, in Terra Firma, in South America, ſituated in 66 deg. of W. lon. and 10 deg. of N. lat. 200 miles E. of Maracaibo, ſubject to Spain.

GUILD, or *Gild*, ſignifies a fraternity or company; the original of which is thus related. It being a law among the Saxons, that every freeman of fourteen years old, ſhould find ſureties to keep the peace, or be committed; certain neighbours entered into an aſſociation, and became bound for each other, either to produce him who committed an offence, or to make ſatisfaction to the injured party. That they might better do this, they raiſed a ſum of money among themſelves, which they put into a common ſtock; and when one of their pledges had committed an offence, and was fled, then the other nine made ſatisfaction out of this ſtock, by payment of money according to the offence. Becauſe this aſſociation conſiſted of ten families, it was called a decennary, and from hence came the Engliſh fraternities or companies. As to the direct time when theſe guilds had their origin in England, there is nothing of certainty to be found; ſince they were in uſe long before any formal licence was granted to them for ſuch meetings. Edward III. in the 14th year of his reign, granted licence to the men of Coventry, to erect a merchant's guild and fraternity, of brethren and ſiſters, with a maſter and warden; and that they might found chantries, beſtow alms, do other works of piety, and conſtitute ordinances touching the ſame. So Henry IV. in his reign granted a licence to found a guild of the Holy croſs, at Stratford upon Avon.

GUILD, in the royal boroughs of Scotland, is ſtill uſed for a company of merchants, who are freemen of the borough. Every royal borough has a dean of guild, who is the next magiſtrate below the bailiff: he judges of controverſies among men concerning trade; diſputes between inhabitants touching buildings, lights, water-courſes, and nuiſances; calls courts, at which his brethren of the guild are bound to attend; manages the common ſtock of the guild, and amerces and collects fines.

GUILD, according to Cambden, alſo ſignifies a tribute or tax.

GUILD-*rents*, payable to the crown by any guild, or fraternity, or ſuch rents as formerly belonged to religious guilds, and came to the crown at the general diſſolution, were ordered for ſale by the ſtatute of the 22d of Charles II.

GUILDHALDA TEUTONICORUM, was uſed for the fraternity of Eaſterling merchants in London; called alſo the Stillyard.

GUILD-*hall*. The great court of judicature for the city of London; in which are kept the mayor's court; the court of huſtings; the court of conſcience; court of common-council, and the chamberlain's court.

GUILD-*merchant*, was a certain privilege, or liberty, granted to merchants; whereby they were enabled, among other things, to hold certain pleas of land within their own precincts. Thus, King John granted *gildam mercatorium* to the burgeſſes of Nottingham.

GUILDER, is a ſilver coin, and money of accompt, of Holland, Flanders, and ſome places of Germany. The Dutch guilder, gulden, or florin, is worth 1 s. 9 d. ſterling. The guilder of Flanders is worth 1 s. $7\frac{1}{2}$ d. ſterling. That of Cologn 2 s. 4 d. ſterling. That of Hanover 2 s. $4\frac{1}{4}$ d. and that of Saxony 2 s. $3\frac{1}{7}$ d. ſterling. See *Guilder*.

GUILDINE, or *Guildive*. A ſpirit extracted from Brazil ſugar; making a part of the Portugueſe trade from Rio Janeiro, with the Spaniards of Buenos-Ayres. The French repute it extremely prejudicial to health, and therefore have forbid its importation under very ſevere penalties.

GUINEA, together with *Nigritia*, or *Negroeland*, are two large countries on the weſtern and ſouthern parts of Africa; extending from Cape Barbes, which ſeparates Nigritia from Zaara, to Cape Negro, which ſeparates

Guinea from Caffraria; theſe countries containing the principal places traded to by the ſeveral European African companies and others.

Nigritia, part of which is called the *Gum* coaſt, lies between 18 deg. of W. lon. and 15 deg. of E. lon. and between 10 and 20 deg. of N. lat. the great river Niger running through it from eaſt to weſt. It is bounded by Zaara, or the Deſart, on the north; by unknown countries on the eaſt; by Guinea on the ſouth; and the Atlantic ocean on the weſt; there being ſeveral European ſettlements on the branches of the river Niger, eſpecially near the mouths. It is about 3000 miles in extent: but, ſhould it be admitted, that ſome Europeans have gone up the river Niger, and diſcovered the country for 300 miles to the eaſtward of Cape Verd, as they pretend; it is certain, that all the remainder of the 3000 miles to the eaſtward of that, is perfectly unknown to the European nations, unleſs what they have gath red from the report of the natives, who are but poorly qualified to give a deſcription of their country: neither is the language of ſeveral of the negroe nations, who come down to the mouths of the river Niger to trade with the Europeans, underſtood by them, or even by the natives on the coaſt: for there are ſuppoſed to be forty nations of different people comprehended in this tract aſſigned to Negroeland.

The river Niger empties itſelf into the Atlantic ocean by ſeveral mouths; of which the three largeſt are the Rio Grande, or great river, the Gambia, and the Senegal: and as the mouth of the river Grande lies in 11 deg. of N. lat. and the Senegal in 16, it is conſequently upwards of 300 miles between the two moſt diſtant mouths of this river: and all the country between, except the riſing grounds, are annually overflowed as the Delta in Egypt is by the Nile; though the Senegal is ſaid by ſome writers to be a diſtinct river from the Niger. The Portugueze ſtill retain their ſettlements of Catheco, and Biſſeo, on the river Grande: the Engliſh had two ſettlements in the Gambia, one on Charles iſland, and another on James iſland. The French have two ſettlements, one on the ſouth, and the other on the north of Cape Verd; and another to the northward of them, on the river of St. John: the Dutch alſo have ſome ſettlements, all which formerly belonged to the Portugueze.

The chief negroe town is Tombut, and the adjacent country would be extremely fruitful if well cultivated; however it yields great plenty of rice and mil et, palm-trees, cocoa-nuts, and other fruits, herbs, and roots, with fleſh, fiſh, and fowl. The European nations ſettled on this coaſt, deal with the natives chiefly for gums, gold-duſt, ivory, wax, leather, oſtrich feathers, muſk, rice, cotton, and ſlaves.

The river Gambia is navigable for ſloops 200 leagues, the tides reaching ſo far from the mouth of it. The ſides of the river are generally flat and woody for about a quarter of a mile in land, in ſome places not ſo much; and within that are open pleaſant grounds, which the negroes uſe for their rice, and in the dry ſeaſon it ſerves the cattle for paſture. Inland it is chiefly very woody; but near the towns there is always a large ſpace of cleared ground for corn: the ſoil being moſtly ſandy, with ſome clay, and a great deal of rocky ground. Near the ſea, and the lower part of the river, no hills are to be ſeen; but high up the river are ſome lofty mountains, from whoſe tops are pleaſant proſpects: the hills are of iron ſtone; and though they are ſometimes little elſe but a continued hard rock, they are full of trees.

In every kingdom there are ſeveral lords of ſoils, commonly called Kings of the towns where they dwell, whoſe privilege it is to have all the ciboa-trees; ſo that no perſon can cut any leaves, or draw any wine from them, without their permiſſion: the men who have the liberty of drawing wine, give two days produce in a week to the lord of the ſoil, as an acknowledgment; and white men are obliged to make a ſmall preſent to them, before they can have liberty to cut ciboa leaves, or graſs, to cover a houſe.

James iſland, one of the principal ſettlements formerly belonging to the Engliſh African company, lies ten leagues up the river Gambia, almoſt in the middle of it, being 3 miles from the neareſt ſhore. At low water, the iſland is about three quarters of a mile in circumference, upon which there was a ſquare fort of ſtone, regularly built, with four baſtions, upon each whereof were ſeven cannons mounted, which commanded the river all round. Under the walls of the fort, facing the ſea, were two round batteries, on each of which were four large cannon mounted, and between thoſe were nine ſmall guns mounted for ſalutes. In the fort were ſome very good apartments for the governor, chief merchants, factors, writers, and enſign; and under ſome of theſe apartments were very good ſtorehouſes. One officer, one ſerjeant, 2 corporals, a gunner and his mate, with 30 ſoldiers, were by eſtabliſhment the garriſon of this fort, beſides white and black ſervants. Beſides the fort, there were ſeveral factories up the river, ſettled for the conveniency of trade, which were all under the direction of the governor and chief merchants of the fort, to whom the factors remitted all their trade. For this purpoſe the company had three or four ſloops of about 30 tons each, and about the ſame number of long-boats: ſome of them were conſtantly employed in fetching proviſions and water from the main for the uſe of the garriſon; the reſt being employed in carrying goods up to the factories, and bringing from them ſlaves, elephants teeth, wax, and other things, down to James fort, from whence moſt of them, except ſlaves, were ſent to the company in England.

On the north-ſide of the Gambia, the firſt kingdom is that of Barrach, which extends 20 leagues along the river; and in this country the Engliſh African company had two factories; one at Gilliſleet over againſt James fort; and the other at Colar, upon a river of the ſame name, which diſcharges itſelf into the Gambia, eight leagues above James iſland. The next kingdom is Cadibus, which extends 20 leagues. Further eaſt, on the north-ſide of the river, is the kingdom of Sangally, which extends 14 leagues; and in this kingdom the Engliſh company had their chief factory of Joar, being about ten miles diſtant from the river. Next to Sangally lies the kingdom of Barſally, extending about 15 leagues along the river, to which moſt of the other kingdoms are tributary. Beyond Barſally lies the kingdom of Yany, which extends 80 leagues further up the river. And the laſt kingdom on the north-ſide of the river, which Europeans frequent, is that of Woolly, extending 7 leagues beyond Yany: in which kingdom the Engliſh company had a factory of Fatatenda, about 500 miles from the mouth of the Gambia, which at this place is as wide as the Thames at London-bridge; ſo that ſloops of 30 tons can come up with their cargoes, and the tides riſe three or four feet.

On the ſouth-ſide of the river Gambia, the firſt kingdom is Cumbo, which commences at Cape St. Mary, and extends eleven leagues to the eaſtward of it, affording plenty of cattle, goats, and fowl; where the Engliſh company had a ſmall factory, which purchaſed proviſions for the garriſon at James Fort. The next kingdom on the ſouth-ſide is Fonia, extending ſeven leagues, in which the Engliſh company had two factors employed in buying up elephants teeth and bees wax. The next country to Fonia is Caen, extending 23 leagues along the river, in which is a town called Tancrowal, where the Engliſh company had a factory: but Tancrowal is divided into two parts; one belonging to the Portugueſe, and the other to the Mundingoes; the former having ſeveral canoes, which they ſend up the river to trade once or twice a year, by which means they have made this town a place of great reſort, and the richeſt in the whole river. Next to Caen lies the country of Jaloffs, famous for huſbandmen and laborious people, by which means it abounds with corn and rice: this kingdom extends about 12 leagues; and in it is Elephant's iſland, being four or five miles long, full of trees and monkeys. The next kingdom is Yamina, which abounds in fiſh and fowls: it extends about 14 leagues, and in it are two iſlands; the one large and pleaſant; the other almoſt in the middle of the Gambia, called Sea-horſe iſland, abounding in ſea-horſes, from whence it takes its name. The next country is Eropina, a petty king-

extending about 14 leagues. After which begins Jenarrow, governed by an Emperor: here the Engliſh company had a ſettlement near a large town called Benoe, which is inhabited by people of the Mundingo race, but ſtrict followers of Mahomet: this country runs about 32 leagues along the river, and then begins Tomany, which is a large and populous country, extending about 26 leagues along the river, and the Engliſh company had a factory at a ſmall town called Yamyamacunda, which made a conſiderable trade, in dry goods, when it was well ſupplied. Above Tomany begins Cantore, in which is a town called Colar, about 500 miles from Cape St. Mary's; and beyond this town the country is little known to white people.

The ſea-horſe, the crocodile, and other animals for which the Nile is famous, abound in the river Gambia; which alſo overflows its banks every year as the Nile does, but ſome months later.

Theſe countries on the banks of the river Gambia, are inhabited by ſeveral races of people; as the Mundingoes, Jaloffs, Pholeys, Floops, and Portugueſe; but the moſt numerous are called Mundingoes, as is likewiſe the country where they inhabit; and the natives are generally of a black colour.

The chief trade of theſe countries conſiſts in gold, ſlaves, elephants teeth, and bees-wax. The gold is of a very good quality, and finer than ſterling gold: it is brought from the inland countries in ſmall bars, big in the middle, and turned round into rings, worth from 10 to 40 s. each. The black merchants who bring the gold alſo bring ſlaves and elephants teeth: about 2000 ſlaves being brought from the inland countries, and near 1000 bought along the river every year.

The French company of Senegal, incorporated with that of the Weſt in 1718, and ſince the year 1719 making part of the grand India company, has two principal eſtabliſhments on this coaſt, one in the iſland of Goree, and the other in the iſland of St. Lewis, at the mouth of the river Senegal: the latter having alſo ſubordinate to it the wood iſland, and the Engliſh iſland.

The iſland of Goree is about 30 leagues from Senegal, one league from the terra firma of Cape Verd, and four leagues from the Cape.

The Dutch firſt poſſeſſed it, and built the forts St. Francis and St. Michael: the French ſeized upon it in 1678, and the Engliſh in 1692, but were obliged the year following to give it up to the French, in whoſe hands it has continued ever ſince.

The principal commerce of the French company is with the ſubjects of the King of Hamel, or Houmel, and at Rio-freſco, Portudat, Seringua, Jovat, and the river Breſalin.

About three leagues from this river there is a ſalt marſh, where the Portugueſe, with the negroes of Gambia, and the coaſt, load ſalt for trading with it up the river, where it proves to be a very good commodity.

All that the French company purchaſe in theſe places, comprehending even Senegal, may amount one year with another to 6000 ox hides, 40 or 50 hundred weight of gum arabic, called otherwiſe gum ſenega; 150, or 160 hundred weight of yellow-wax; 7 or 800 lb. of elephants teeth; 200 cotton carpets; 25 or 30 lb. of gold, and 1500 negroes of both ſexes, beſides oſtriches and egrets feathers, ambergreaſe, indigo, civet, and ſeveral coarſe cotton cloths ſtriped with blue and white, which are ſold again on the gold coaſt.

Somewhat higher up the coaſt are the kingdoms of the Jaloffs and Ceraticks; to the latter of which the cuſtoms are paid for the liberty of navigation and commerce in the river Senegal; which may amount for each ſhip to about 80 l. ſterling reduced into merchandiſe proper for this trade.

The Engliſh and Dutch trade conſiderably with the Jaloffs at Camino, Jameſil, and Geroep: where the months of March and April, November and December, are beſt for this trade.

The merchandiſes proper for Gambia, particularly for the Jaloffs, wherewith the Dutch uſually load their ſhips, are bars of iron, whereof 28 or 30 weigh 10 hundred weight; brandy, beer, copper baſons of different weights, copper-plates of about a pound weight; coarſe, narrow, and blue ſerges; red, yellow, and blue cloths of four threads; glaſs work of different ſorts; red, yellow, and white ratines; rock coral, broad ſwords, braſs trumpets, red caps, rock-cryſtal, ſailors knives, coarſe ſhirts for men, fine ſhirts laced on the neck and wriſts, Haarlem habits, Sileſia lawns, fine linen, fine cotton cloths, fine and common paper, white and blue earthen pots, Leyden blankets, Iriſh mantles, Morocco ſhoes, hats, coarſe white thread, glaſs bottles with tin ſtoppers, and all ſorts of needles.

The cargoes of French ſhips for Senegal are compoſed partly of the ſame merchandiſe; as alſo of black cotton cloths, and Rouen calendered linnen: kettles from 4 and 5 lb. to 8 and 10 lb. ſome ſilver trinkets of little conſequence; middling ſtraw-coloured amber, tin, ſmall looking-glaſſes, dreſſed ſkins from 8 to 10 lb. the dozen, ſome ſmall ſpecie, coarſe and red coral, taffeties, cloves in ſmall quantity, Sambucca wood, and Florence iris, but theſe two laſt, with ſome ells of ſcarlet-cloth, are only by way of preſent for the Negro Kings. To theſe may be added fuſees, muſkets, piſtols, gun-powder, balls, ſhot, and flints: but the beſt kind of merchandiſe are the Maldive ſhells, called in the Eaſt Indies coris, and on the coaſts of Africa bouges.

The moſt proper times for the negro trade up the Gambia, are the months of May and June, 7 or 800 captives being then brought there from Guinea, and other parts.

The Engliſh, French, and Portugueſe, eſtabliſhed upon the Gambia, return in the month of July from the traffic they carried on up the river, and bring with them commonly to the amount of 200 negroes: but in December, January, and February, the petty Kings, on the lower part of the river, alſo ſell ſome few captives.

GUINEA is divided into the Upper and Lower Guinea; extending together about 2500 miles along the ſea coaſt.

Upper Guinea, is ſituated between 15 deg. of E. lon. and 15 deg. of W. lon. and between 4 and 10 deg. of N. lat. bounded by Nigritia, or Negroeland, on the north; by unknown lands on the eaſt; by Lower Guinea and the Atlantic ocean on the ſouth; and by the ſame ocean on the weſt; comprehending, 1. The Grain coaſt, from its producing chiefly Guinea pepper: 2d, The ivory coaſt, from the plenty of elephants teeth found there: 3d, The gold coaſt, from its furniſhing moſt gold: 4th, The ſlave coaſt, from their meeting with the greateſt number of ſlaves there; though every one of theſe diviſions produce ſome of theſe articles. The Engliſh, French, Portugueſe, and Dutch, have forts and factories on this coaſt: but there are abundance of little princes and ſtates in the inland country, who are uſually at war, and ſell their priſoners to the Europeans for ſlaves; others make it their buſineſs to traffic to diſtant countries to purchaſe ſlaves, or ſteal them, and bring them down to the coaſt to make money of them; for ſome of the negroes will ſell even their neareſt relations, if they have an opportunity.

1. The *Grain* coaſt, ſo called from the paradiſe grain, or Guinea pepper, is watered by three great rivers; the Rio de Seſtro, the Rio de St. Paul, and the river de Sierra Leon. The chief towns are Sherbro, Baffoe, Sanguin, Buga, and Tomba.

The Engliſh are in poſſeſſion of an iſland in the river of Sierra Leon, which was firſt called Bence's iſland, but now George's Iſland. It is the property of ſome private merchants of London, who have a factory there, conſiſting of about ten Engliſhmen, and ſome black ſervants, who purchaſe a great many ſlaves from the neighbouring negroes, and carry on a conſiderable trade up the river for rice, ivory, civet, and ambergreaſe. There are about thirty private traders ſettled on the Sierra Leon, who keep gromettas, or negroe ſervants, which they hire by the month, to carry European goods up the river, and exchange them for ſlaves and teeth: but the country about the river is entirely covered with wood.

The commerce carried on up the Rio de Seſtro, is principally in Guinea-pepper, ivory, wax, rice, millet, peaſe, beans, ſeveral ſorts of fruit, and palm-wine: but the chief

chief place of trade is at Sherbro, from whence is brought cam-wood for dying.

2. The *Ivory*, or *Tooth* coaſt, which takes its name from the elephants teeth found here, is watered by the Rio de Suerio, and the Rio de Eſcravos; the moſt remarkable towns being Jaque, Cape Lakoo, Drumryn, Cape Palmas, Seſtre, Sino, and Bottowa.

The principal commerce of this coaſt is ivory, becauſe elephants are very numerous here, and are ſuppoſed to ſhed their teeth every three years: however, there are ſeveral ſtriped cotton ſtuffs brought from this coaſt, which are profitable commodities on the gold coaſt, where the negroes uſe them for covering their nakedneſs. In exchange for theſe commodities, the Europeans give the negroes iron rings, and little copper bells; for which they alſo receive ſeveral kinds of refreſhments, and very cheap; ſuch as oxen, kids, and hogs; as likewiſe rice, peas, beans, citrons, oranges, cocoa-nuts, and ſugar-canes.

Ivory is purchaſed in teeth, or ſchrevelios. The teeth are large, weighing from 30 lb. to a hundred weight: they are worth double the ſchrevelios in the country; ſelling for 10 or 12 l. when the other are not worth 5 l. a hundred. The ſchrevelios are ſmall, from 15 lb. to 4 lb. weight, among which are ſold to the windward, the teeth of the hippopotamus, or ſea-horſe, catched in the river Nunes and Gambia; being about 16 inches long, a white ivory, but ſo brittle as not to be eaſily worked.

The rule upon the coaſt is, that when four will weigh a hundred weight, they ſhall be all accounted teeth, and paid for as ſuch, though one or two of them ſhould be very ſmall: for the more teeth increaſe in their weight, the ivory is better, and makes amends for the ſmallneſs of the other. At Gambia the points of them are often found broken, from the elephants grubbing againſt rocky ground: at other times they are ſeen flawed, or they are light in proportion to their bigneſs, which are circumſtances that abate their value.

The elephants move and change their paſture in very large herds; 1000 or 1500 together have been ſeen upon the banks of the Gambia, who are bold, forage leſs than horſes, and look out better: they march in a line, and are ſecure from the attacks of the natives, who muſt come very near, as their ſkin is impenetrable by fire-arms; beſides, ivory was the trade of Guinea before the uſe of muſkets; and the weighty teeth come to ſale in leſs numbers than the ſchrevelios; therefore, it appears that the larger ſize are teeth of elephants which have died naturally, and which being grown to their utmoſt perfection and ſolidity, withſtand a very conſiderable elapſe of time, without mouldering or decay: the ſchrevelios being probably ſuch as were ſhed when young, or as bucks ſhed their horns, which the natives by practice know where to look for. See *Elephant*.

3. The *Gold* coaſt, ſo named from the abundance of gold that is found here, is watered by ſeveral rivers, of which the principal is Rio Cobre, or Ancober, by ſome called the gold river, which falls into the ſea, near the Dutch fort of St. Anthony, a little to the weſtward of Cape Three points.

The chief towns, which give names to ſo many petty kingdoms or ſtates dependant on them, are Aquamboe, Agonna, Acron, Fantyn, Sabo, Fetu, Commani, or Commenda, Jabi, Adorn, Ante, and Axim.

On this coaſt are ſeveral European forts and ſettlements. The moſt eaſterly, called Chriſtianburgh, belongs to the Danes. The ſecond, called Crevecœur, ſtands a little to the weſtward of the former, and belongs to the Dutch; and, further weſtward, Accra, which belongs to the Engliſh. In Agonna ſtands fort Simpas, once belonging to the Engliſh. In Acron, fort Patience to the Dutch. In Fantyn, Anamaboa to the Engliſh; and Amſterdam to the Dutch. In Sabo, fort Naſſau to the Dutch. In Fetu, Conradeſburgh to the Dutch; and Cape Coaſt Caſtle, or Cabo Corſo, to the Engliſh. In Commani, Vredenburgh, and Las Minas, or d'Elmina to the Dutch. In Ante, fort Infuma to the Engliſh: Batenſteirn, Orange, and St. Sebaſtian, to the Dutch. In Axim, the forts of Axim, and St. Anthony to the Dutch: fort Frederickſburg, and Dorothea, once to the Pruſſians. There are

alſo ſeveral other ſmall forts and factories belonging to the Engliſh and Dutch on this coaſt: but the ſtrongeſt forts are thoſe of Cape Coaſt, and Las Minas.

This coaſt is more frequented by Europeans than any other part of Africa. The gold of Axim is the beſt, being 22 or 23 carats fine; the others are leſs fine, and that of Fetu is the coarſeſt of all.

The negroes find it either in the ſand of brooks and torrents, or in mines: the former being what is commonly called gold duſt, which is more or leſs abundant according as it rains more or leſs in the mountains where theſe torrents and rivulets have their ſources.

The gold from the mines is found very plentifully in the mountains of Jaffou, 30 leagues from Accra.

The mine and earth gold is not purified when brought by the negroes to the Europeans; therefore it requires an underſtanding in the goodneſs of the mineral to avoid being deceived.

Thoſe who come to trade aboard the ſhips are uſually officers, or captains of villages, who are all merchants; and, as they are from different places, they have alſo different manners of bargaining; thoſe eſtabliſhed on the coaſts bargain for themſelves; and thoſe of the inland parts, who are neither acquainted with the language nor manner of treating with Europeans, make uſe of brokers, for a certain fee agreed upon among themſelves. Theſe brokers are commonly conſiderable merchants of the coaſt, who never neglect ſuch ſmall profits; and who generally buy up all the merchandiſe of the ſhips, and ſell them again at 6 *per cent.* profit, in the inland country.

When the negroes are upon any bargain with Europeans, they always aſk before concluding it, what *dachee* will be given them; that is, the preſent, beſide the merchandiſe agreed upon for exchange.

This cuſtom was introduced by the Dutch to alienate the negroes from the Portugueſe whom they greatly eſteemed; but what was firſt voluntary became afterwards neceſſary, and nothing could be concluded with a negroe unleſs he knew firſt what *dachee* he ſhould be complimented with.

The negroes have no notion of mercantile credit, therefore every thing is paid for in gold; for which purpoſe they have little ſcales and weights of their own making, or ſuch as are brought them from Europe, if the quantity to be given is ſomewhat conſiderable; if not, they take it up with their fingers, and augment, or diminiſh it as they think proper.

The European merchants, or factors, never go up into the country to purchaſe gold: but the trading negroes come down to the forts and factories, or bring it on board the European ſhips. They have learnt to mix copper, and other ingredients of leſs value, both with the rock gold and gold duſt. Some pieces they caſt ſo artfully, that quite round, of the thickneſs of a ſhilling, the piece ſhall be pure gold, and perhaps filled up with copper or iron: but the common falſe mountain gold is a mixture of ſilver, copper, and a proportion of gold very high coloured, which makes the cheat not eaſily diſcernible for, being obliged to receive an infinite number of little pieces in a pound, it is almoſt impoſſible to try every one by the touch, and the metal looking ſo well, is ſcarce ſuſpected. They alſo tinge powder of coral ſo artfully, that it is impoſſible to diſtinguiſh it any other way than by the weight: of this alſo they make a powder reſembling gold duſt; but chiefly of the filings of copper, to which they give a good tincture; though all this falſe metal in a month or two loſes its luſtre. The way the factors take to diſtinguiſh true gold from falſe, if it is in large pieces, is to cut it through, which eaſily diſcovers what it is: if the pieces are ſmall mountain gold, they lay them upon a ſtone, and beat them with a hammer: but, as this is not practicable with gold duſt, they put the duſt into a copper baſon, winnowing and blowing it, by which the falſe gold flies away, leaving the pure gold behind. Maſters of ſhips commonly hire a native at ſo much a month for the trade; ſome of them have a quicker ſight at knowing it, and are readier by practice at ſeparating the droſſy falſe gold from the true.

The value of gold brought from the Guinea coaſt, year with another, by all the European nations

de thither, is ſuppoſed to amount to the value of
,000 l. ſterling and upwards; of which the Engliſh
y import one third, the Dutch another, and the
ench, Portugueſe, Danes, and Pruſſians, another third:
ough of late the French have come in for a much
ater ſhare.

ſides the commerce which the negroes of the gold coaſt,
thoſe who come from the inland parts, have with the
ropean nations eſtabliſhed among them, and the ſhips
ich arrive there yearly, they drive on a very conſider-
e trade among themſelves, either by daily markets in
ir towns, or by fairs held in ſome places once or twice
year; which fairs are never held on the ſame day in
o villages of the ſame kingdom, in order that the con-
urſe of people might be the greater, and that the mer-
ants might not prejudice one another.

t theſe fairs the Negroes expoſe to ſale all the fineſt and
ſt kind of merchandiſe they have purchaſed from Eu-
peans, and none but Negroes come to traffic there;
ough, if the markets are near the European forts, the
hite people reſort there for providing neceſſaries.

The *Slave* coaſt extends from the Daniſh fort of Chriſti-
burg, near the river Volta on the weſt; to the river
amarone on the eaſt; containing the kingdoms of
ahomy, Whidah, Ardra, and Benin; where the Eng-
h, French, Portugueſe, and Dutch, have ſeveral facto-
es: there are alſo the Negro towns of Lampo, Great
d Little Popo, Whidah, Great and Little Ardra,
rebo, Averri, and Benin; the latter of which is re-
ted to contain 100,000 inhabitants: but the King of
ahomy, having conquered Whidah, is the moſt potent
ince of the country.

The ſlave trade is carried on in much the ſame manner as
e gold trade. The Negroe factors and merchants come
wn to the coaſt with their ſlaves, agree with Europeans
r the price of them, and the price of the goods they are
take in exchange; ſo that a ſhip is ſoon diſpatched, if
ey act fairly: but if a merchant delivers any part of his
ods before he has his ſlaves, they will make him wait a
eat while for them, and ſometimes not bring them at
ll, unleſs the European factor find ſome way to make re-
riſals: and yet it is found neceſſary to truſt theſe people;
r, as they trade with other nations beyond them, and
ave not always effects to purchaſe ſlaves, they have ſome-
mes no way of getting them, unleſs they can be credited
r goods to go to market with, and exchange for ſlaves
the inland country.

rivate trading ſhips bring two or three boats with them
pon the Guinea coaſt for diſpatch; and while the mates
o away in them, with a proper parcel of goods and in-
ructions, into the rivers and bye-places, the ſhip is
aking good her trade at others near hand: but from the
ricks and panyars, or running away with the Negroes,
hich the European traders have ſometimes practiſed; and
om the cutting off the ſhips by the Negroes, in return;
oth ſides are jealous of each other in many places. The
uropeans commonly trade on board the ſhip, keeping their
ailors in cloſe quarters abaft, becauſe they are few, while
he ſlaves are viewing and contracting for at the fore-part:
t night alſo keeping a good watch, to prevent the Negroes
rom ſtealing with their canoes athwart the hauſe, to cut
he cable, with an intention of ſtranding and plundering
he ſhip. The Negroes are again as often diffident of
oming near the Europeans, and will play for hours to-
gether in the canoes about the ſhip, before they dare ven-
ure aboard. In the windward part, they have a ſuper-
itious cuſtom of dropping with their finger a drop of
ea-water into their eye, which they are pleaſed to get
eturned, as it paſſes for an engagement of peace and ſe-
curity: but, after all this ceremony, they will ſometimes
return to ſhore; and if hardy enough to come on board,
hey appear all the time ſo ſhy and frightened, that from
he leaſt appearance of a panyar, they will jump over-
oard. Downwards to Biſſam, Aſinee, Jaquelahou, Cape
le Hou, Jaque a Jaques, Cape Apollonia, and Three
Points, or where the Negroes have poſſibly gained a
knowledge of the European factories, there is a better un-
derſtanding and ſecurity: theſe being places that ſell off a
great number of ſlaves, managed, however, entirely on board
the ſhips, who anchor before the town, hoiſt their enſign, and fire a gun; or, when the natives ſeem timorous, do it by their boats coaſting along the beach, and pay at ſome of them a ſmall duty to the chief cabiceers, or principal traders. Where there are factories, as at Gambia, Sierra Leon, the Gold coaſt, Whidah, Calabar, Cabenda, and Angola, the Europeans are more at large; the Negroes being ſold there in open market on ſhore; and in ſome places, when the natives perceive a ſhip on their coaſt, they make a ſmoke on the ſea-ſhore, as a ſignal for the ſhip to come to an anchor, that they may come and trade with the people on board.

In ſome places, the firſt buſineſs, after a ſhip arrives upon the coaſt to trade for ſlaves, is to pay the duties, and make a preſent to the King, or governor of that part of the country, for leave to trade: then the King's ſlaves are to be taken off, at almoſt what price he pleaſes to ſet upon them, before the merchant is permitted to deal with his ſubjects. When the price is agreed on, the European ſurgeon views all the ſlaves naked, men, women, and children: the grown men, ſuppoſed to be above 35 years of age, are generally excepted to; as are all thoſe who have any lameneſs, or other defects, thoſe whoſe ſight fails them, and ſuch as have the venereal diſeaſe, or any other diſtemper that is not eaſily cured, even the loſs of a tooth being ſometimes made an objection. The infirm Negroes being ſet aſide, the reſt are branded with a hot iron by the merchant, to diſtinguiſh them; after which they are locked up in ſome priſon, till they can be ſent on board; for the Europeans have no forts or factories in many places where they meet with the greateſt number of ſlaves. The price of an able-bodied man is from 3 to 5 l. the women a fifth part leſs, and the children in proportion to their reſpective ages: this price being reckoned by ſo many bars; as ſo many knives make a bar, or there is ſuch a quantity of cloth to a bar; from ſixty to eighty of which is the price of a good ſlave. When the Negroes are ſent on ſhip-board, their former maſters ſtrip them of every rag, ſo that the merchant receives them all perfectly naked, in which manner they generally remain till they are brought to America.

If this part of Africa was not ſo exceeding populous, this contiuual exportation of its inhabitants muſt ſoon diſpeople the country; for it is computed there are about 200,000 yearly exported to America.

The ſucceſs of a voyage depends firſt, on the well ſorting, and well timing of a cargo. Secondly, in a knowledge of the places of trade, what, and how much, may be exported every where. Thirdly, in dramming well with Engliſh ſpirits, and conforming to the humours of the Negroes. Fourthly, in timely furniſhing proper goods for the ſlaves. Fifthly, in diſpatch. And, laſtly, the good order and management of ſlaves when on board.

As to the timing of a cargo; this depends at ſeveral places much upon chance, from the fanciful and various humours of the Negroes, who make great demands one voyage for a commodity, that perhaps they reject the next; and is in part to be remedied, either by making the things they want to paſs off ſome others with them, for which they have not ſo much inclination: or by ſuch a continual traffic and correſpondence on the coaſt, as may furniſh the owner from time to time with quick intelligence, to be done only by great merchants, who can keep a number of ſhips employed, that, like a thread, unites them in a knowledge of their demands, and a readier ſupply for them, as well as diſpatch for the intereſt of the merchant, by putting the purchaſes of two or three ſhips into one.

As to the ſorting, this may be obſerved in general, that the windward and leeward parts of the coaſt are as oppoſite in their demands as their diſtance is great. Iron bars, which are not aſked for to the leeward, are a ſubſtantial part of the windward cargoes, beſides cryſtals, oranges, coral, and braſs-mounted cutlaſſes: braſs pans are proper for Rio Seſthos to Apollonia: Coris, or bouges, at Whidah: copper and iron bars at Calabar: but arms, gunpowder, tallow, old ſheets, cottons of all denominations, and Britiſh ſpirits are every where ſought after; ſealing-wax and pipes are alſo neceſſary in ſmall quantities, as they

ſerve for dachees, or preſents, and are a ready purchaſe for fiſh, a goat, kid, or fowl.

As to the wholeſome victualing, and managing ſlaves aboard; the common, cheapeſt, and moſt commodious diet is with vegetables, hoarſe-beans, rice, Indian corn, and farine or flour: the former are brought from Europe: rice is got to windward about Seſthos: Indian corn at Montford, Anamaboa, and ſome other places on the coaſt; as alſo, with farine, at the iſles of St. Thomas and Prince's; maſters governing themſelves in purchaſing according to the courſe they deſign to ſteer. This food is accounted more ſalutary to ſlaves, as being nearer to their accuſtomed way of feeding. One or other is boiled on board at conſtant times of the day into dab a-dab, ſometimes with meat in it; an overſeer, with a cat of nine tails, ſtanding over the ſlaves, to force it upon thoſe who are ſullen and refuſe. It is a rule always obſerved to keep the men ſlaves a part from the women and children, as alſo to hand-cuff the men; though ſome ſhips triple ſuch as are ſturdy with chains round their necks: it is alſo neceſſary to keep the ſailors ſober, and on a barricaded quarter-deck: but, abating their fetters, the ſlaves ſhould be all treated with gentleneſs and civility. When ſhips have their complement of Negroes, and are out at ſea, it is commonly imagined the ignorance of the ſlaves in regard of navigation will always be a ſafeguard; yet, as many of them think they are only bought to be fattened and eat; and more, that death will ſend them into their own country, there have been ſeveral inſtances of their riſing and killing a ſhip's company diſtant from land, though not ſo frequently as on the coaſt; therefore a maſter's care and diligence ſhould never be over till the delivery of them: however, many ſhips allow greater liberties in their paſſage, as conducive to the health of the ſlaves, whom they call up in different parties by turns, and ſuffer them to go at large on the ſhip's-deck, from ſun-riſe to ſun-ſet, giving ſuch as like it, pipes and tobacco, and cleaning and airing their dormitories every day.

Beſides ſlaves, this country ſupplies the Europeans with honey, wax, leather, cotton, pepper, jaſper-ſtones, leopard ſkins, and ſome ivory: for which the Europeans give in exchange gold and ſilver ſtuffs, ſcarlet-cloths, crimſon velvets, ear-pendants of red glaſs, looking-glaſſes with gilt frames, coris, fine coral, earthen pots for drinking; all ſorts of fine cotton and linen cloths; lemons, confected fruits, bracelets of braſs, lavendar, and bars of iron: but no Europeans, except the Dutch, are permitted to trade in Benin, where they are treated with great civility and fidelity.

The French are ambitious of increaſing their ſettlements on the coaſt of Guinea; but the Engliſh companies have relinquiſhed ſome of their factories, and in 1749 they had only ſeven; being Cape Coaſt Caſtle, Commenda, Succondee, Dick's Cove, Tantumquerry, Winnebah, and Accra.

LOWER GUINEA, or *Congo*, contains the kingdoms of Congo, Angola, or Loango.

Congo. The Portugueſe who diſcovered this country in 1484, and eſtabliſhed themſelves there in 1491, introduced Chriſtianity, among ſeveral of the natives, and are the only Europeans who trade there; other nations only putting in at the coaſts for refreſhments, which they have in exchange for ſmall looking-glaſſes, and toys.

The principal eſtabliſhment of the Portugueſe in the kingdom of Congo is at Laonda, the reſidence of the Viceroy, which is a beautiful, ſafe, and commodious port; from whence all the Portugueſe veſſels depart, whether thoſe which come from Europe, or go there; or thoſe deſtined for Brazil.

The ſlave trade is the moſt important which the Portugueſe carry on in Congo; and it is ſurpriſing how many they ſend yearly to their American colonies.

What makes this trade ſo conſiderable, and lucrative, is the eaſy paſſage from Loanda to Brazil, which is uſually made in a month or 35 days, and makes mortality leſs frequent with them, than among the Negroes tranſported by other nations, who have a longer voyage to make.

But of the five provinces of Congo, which are Banza, called St. Salvador; Bamba, Sondy, Pemba, and Sogno,

ſcarce any but St. Salvador, and Sondy, furniſh [illegible] ſlaves, at leaſt for being tranſported; the Negroes of [illegible] three other provinces never inuring themſelves properly [illegible] work, and dying when they change their air and climate.

It is difficult to ſay how many ſlaves belong to the Portugueſe at Loanda, Colombo, St. Salvador, and in all [illegible] places of this part of Africa, where they have ſettlements.

The middling people having 50, 100, and 200; ſeveral of the richeſt have 3000; and one religious ſociety at Loanda, has the property of 12000 ſlaves of different [illegible] tions, as ſmiths, joiners, turners, ſtone-cutters, and other workmen: however, none of theſe ſlaves are ſent to Brazil, but ſuch only as are taken in war, or ſold by the King, and the great men of the country.

Beſides Negroes, the Portugueſe have alſo from Congo elephants teeth, wax, honey, and civet.

The merchandiſe they bring there are gold, and ſilver ſtuffs, velvets, Engliſh cloths, gold lace, black ratteens, ſmall Engliſh carpets, copper baſons, blue earthen pitchers, hats, rings, coral, fire arms, and coris, which ſerve for ſmall money; beſides brandy and wine.

There are mines of copper and iron, in the kingdom of Congo, which are of ſome uſe in trade; but as to the ſilver mines ſaid to be in the province of Bamba, it ſeems that they have not been worked, or that their profits are not any way conſiderable.

Angola, of all the countries on the coaſt of Africa, furniſhes Europeans with the moſt Negroes, though not above 300 leagues in extent of coaſt; but the kingdom is extremely enlarged up the country, being ſcarce leſs than 900 leagues in length, and as many in breadth.

Tho' the Portugueſe are extremely powerful in the interior part of the kingdom of Angola, and tho' the greater part of the Negroes of the provinces they have ſubjected are vaſſals of the crown of Portugal, to which they yearly pay a tribute of ſlaves; yet the Negroe trade on the coaſts has always remained free to the other nations of Europe; the Engliſh, French, and Dutch, ſending there yearly a great number of ſhips, which take away ſeveral thouſands of ſlaves, and tranſport them either to their own, or the Spaniſh American colonies.

The Portugueſe however are thoſe who treat for the moſt, and it is aſtoniſhing that they have not already depopulated the country, as ſcarce a year paſſes without their ſending to Brazil to the amount of 15000.

The merchandiſe given in exchange for them are cloths, ſtriped feather beds, ſilk ſtuffs, linens, velvets, gold, and ſilver lace, black and broad ſerges, Turkiſh carpets, white and coloured thread, ſilk for ſewing, Canary wine, brandy, oil of olives, ſailors knives, ſpice, refined ſugar, large hooks, pins, needles, and toys.

The Portugueſe have alſo a ſettlement at Benguella, a ſmall kingdom depending on that of Angola, where they keep on foot ſomething of a trade; but this place is unwholſome, and rather remarkable for being the abode of criminals, whom the tribunal of Liſbon baniſhes there than for that of free profeſſors of trade.

Loango. The Negroe trade carried on in Loango, Malimba and Cabindo, by the Engliſh, French, and Dutch, is very conſiderable, as well for the number of ſlaves, for their goodneſs and ſtrength; the Europeans prefer them to all others; and the inhabitants of the American colonies purchaſing them always at a dearer rate; as they are the fitteſt for undergoing the labour and fatigues of the culture, and preparing of ſugar, tobacco, and indigo. Negroes are purchaſed cheaper in Angola and Loango than in Upper Guinea. Young blacks at full growth, and in their prime, are bought for about 3 l. a head, and boys and women in proportion; thoſe bought for 3 l. being worth 20 l. or 25 l. in America.

A Dutch cargo for the coaſt of Guinea.

This cargo contains not only the quantity, and quality of the merchandiſe fit for the Negroe trade on the coaſt of Guinea; but explains alſo what ſhips are beſt for the purpoſe, the requiſite number of ſailors, their wages, and neceſſary victuals both for Europeans and Negroes.

The fitteſt ſhips for theſe coaſts are thoſe of 200 tons manned with 50 or 60 ſailors.

The victuals for this number of ſailors for thirteen [illegible]

fourteen months, are 60 ſacks of oatmeal; 60 of grey peas; 60 of white peas; 50 barrels of beef; 15 barrels, or 10 ſchipponds of bacon; the ſchippond weighing 300 lb. 6 barrels of butter; 4 puncheons, or 2 pipes of oil; 250 cheeſes; 8000 lb. of biſcuit; 300 loaves of bread, each of half a pound; 8000 lb. of dry fiſh; 60 barrels of beer; 300 pipes of brandy; 200 pounds of candles, half wax; half a tierce of train oil for lamps.

Victuals for 600 *Negroes.*

14 laſts, or 152 ſacks of oatmeal; 8 laſts of beans; 4 pipes of brandy, beſides what is neceſſary for the ſailors; 1 butt of Spaniſh wine; 1 or 2 pipes of prunes for purging them; 300 lb. of tamarins for the ſame purpoſe; 2 ciſterns, containing 16 tierces of water each, for boiling their beans and oatmeal.

Merchandiſes for Loango, and Malimbo.

Scarlet cloth, with broad liſt; blue cloth; yellow cloth, a few pieces only; bleached Sileſia lawns; anabaſſes in pieces, and half pieces; black flowered ſtuffs; large and ſmall baſons; bells; fuſees and gun-powder; and a great quantity of brandy.

The expence of this cargo, either for Guinea, or Loango, not including the purchaſe of the ſhip, may amount to about 3000 l. ſterling.

The goods which the Europeans carry to this part of Africa, and barter for ſlaves, gold, and other commodities, are chiefly theſe: calicoes, cottons, linen and woollen ſtuffs, ſerges, perpetuana's; wrought iron, pewter, and braſs; ſuch as ſwords, knives, hatchets, nails, hammers, pewter-diſhes, plates, pots, and cups, braſs pots, kettles, and other houſhold utenſils; fire-arms, powder, ſhot; braſs and glaſs toys, beads, bugles, and coris; with brandy, ſpirits, wine, and tobacco. The Negroes are extremely fond of braſs ware; and wrought pewter, iron, and lead, are good articles. There are likewiſe great quantities of fire-arms, gun-powder, ball, cloathing, liquors, and furniture, ſent yearly from Europe, for the uſe of the European forts and factories. So that, upon the whole, Europeans may export to Africa about the value of 200 000 l. in goods; and may bring from thence annually to the value of 3 000,000 l. in gold, ſlaves, ivory, pepper, gums, aud drugs.

Guinea is agreeably diverſified with mountains and vallies, woods and open fields. The hills are adorned with trees of an extraordinary height; the vallies between them being rich and extenſive, proper for the cultivation of all manner of corn and fruits, with villages every where agreeably interſperſed, and the country is exceeding populous. But the moſt pleaſant and fruitful part of the country is that about Whidah, which is repreſented as a perfect paradiſe, if it was not for the unhealthfulneſs of the place with regard to European conſtitutions. However, it may be ſuppoſed, that, on ſo extenſive a coaſt, there is a great deal of deſert ground. Much of this is found upon the gold-coaſt; and other parts of it are ſo overflowed in the rainy ſeaſon, that the ſoil will produce ſcarce any thing but rice; all other corn, and moſt of the plants, being deſtroyed by the annual floods: but then Whidah, and other places, make amends for this by their abundant fertility.

Their rivers running but a ſhort courſe from north to ſouth, and being made chiefly by the rains, are not any of them navigable for ſhips, from the river of Sierra de Leon in the eaſt, to the river of Benin or Formoſa in the weſt; though they abound, as well as their ſeas, with variety of good fiſh.

Travellers uſually make but two ſeaſons in this country, winter and ſummer; from April to September incluſive is their winter, or rainy ſeaſon; and from October to March incluſive is their ſummer, and their hotteſt, as well as faireſt weather. But their wet ſeaſon does not always begin juſt at the ſame time; nor is it the ſame at all places on this coaſt. At ſome times, and in ſome places, it begins a month or two ſooner than in others, being ſometimes of a longer, and at others of a ſhorter duration: though, between the vernal and autumnal equinoxes, they have generally exceſſive rains, attended with violent ſtorms of wind, as well as thunder and lightening. Beſides, as the winds at this time blow from the ſouthward, and there is not one ſecure harbour on the coaſt, if any ſhipping happens to be there in theſe ſtorms, they are infallibly run on ſhore, unleſs they can ſtand out to ſea, or get into the mouth of the river Sierra de Leon, when they find them coming on; to which may be added, there always ſits ſuch a ſurf or ſwelling on this coaſt, that it is very difficult going on ſhore at any time, even during the fair ſeaſon, eſpecially at Whidah.

The moſt violent ſtorms, or travadoes, are in July and Auguſt, coming from the ſouthward. It is alſo obſerved, that, during the hot ſeaſon, the winds are periodical on this coaſt, blowing from midnight till one or two in the afternoon, from the land; and then ſhifting to the ſouthward, blow from the ſea; which rages ſo violently on this ſhore ſome months in the year, that it looks like fire, which makes the ſailors call it *the burnings*, when it is almoſt impoſſible to go on ſhore.

Few Europeans viſit theſe ſhores without a dangerous fit of illneſs ſoon after their arrival, and many of them are carried off by it; which is occaſioned from the noxious vapours in the wet ſeaſon, or from the ſituation of the European factories near the ſea, and the mouths of rivers, where the ouze and ſalt marſhes are very unhealthful.

The Negroes are generally of a good ſtature, robuſt, able-bodied men, their complexion a ſhining jet black, their noſes flat, their lips thick; large rolling eyes, of which great part of the white appears; exceeding even white ſets of teeth; with black hair, ſhort and curled, appearing more like wool than hair, which diſtinguiſhes them from the black inhabitants of Aſia.

The habit of a Negroe is a paan, or cloth, round the waiſt, about two feet broad; but thoſe of the better ſort have another cloth of a good length wrapped about them, and thrown over their ſhoulders; yet ſo as their arms, legs, and a good part of their bodies, appear naked, both of the men and women. Their ornaments conſiſt of a multitude of rings or bracelets, of gold, ivory, or copper, according to their circumſtances, worn on their arms and legs, with necklaces and girdles of coral; all of which they have from the Europeans; beſides thin plates of gold, copper, tinſel, beads, and coral, for dreſſing the women's hair.

As there are a great many petty ſovereigns in Guinea, who are frequently at war with each other, the ſlaves are generally ſuch as are taken in theſe wars, not only men, but women and children; for when they invade a country with any ſucceſs, they carry all the inhabitants into captivity. There are alſo a great many others, who are made ſlaves for debt, or ſome miſdemeanor; and not only the debtor, or criminal, loſes his liberty, but frequently his whole family, and all that are related to him. Beſides, ſome people ſell even their wives and children when they have offended them; while others leſſen their families, under an apprehenſion they ſhall not be able to maintain them; and if a famine, or great ſcarcity, happens, they will ſell themſelves to one another for bread. In times of full peace, nothing is more common than for the Negroes of one nation to ſteal thoſe of another, and ſell them to the Europeans: there have been alſo inſtances of children ſelling their parents when they have been weary of them, and wanted to enjoy what they had. Theſe are the various ways by which the unhappy Negroes are frequently reduced from flouriſhing circumſtances to a ſtate of ſlavery, and brought down to the coaſt to be ſold to the Europeans: ſo that, all things conſidered, this trade is not ſo inhuman as ſome have repreſented; becauſe, if the Europeans did not buy the captives, they would remain ſlaves to their captors, who are the worſt of maſters.

As to the traffic of the Negroes among themſelves, it conſiſts either in carrying corn, and other produce of the reſpective maritime countries, from one place to another along the coaſt, in their large canoes, as there happens to be a demand for it; or in bartering goods with one another on ſhore: thoſe near the coaſt exchange the merchandiſe they get of the Europeans, with thoſe of the more diſtant countries, for gold, ſlaves, and ivory, which foreigners take off their hands, furniſhing them with new ſupplies of European goods, and with theſe they go to market in the inland countries again.

Every

Every tribe or family make their own tools: they are all ſmiths, carpenters, and maſons, building their houſes or huts with wood and clay, thatching them with reeds or palmeto leaves: they alſo make their own arms, ſuch as darts, lances, arrows, and broad ſwords; but their fire-arms, powder, and ball, are ſupplied by the Europeans: they alſo make their inſtruments of huſbandry, and ſeveral houſhold-utenſils. Their watermen and fiſhermen are but one tribe; and are ſo numerous upon the coaſt, that 800 or 1000 of them go out a fiſhing together in canoes made out of one tree, the largeſt being 30 feet long, and 6 broad; which the Europeans hire to carry their merchandiſe to and from their ſhips, and along the coaſt from one factory to another.

They have bulls and cows, but no oxen, in Guinea, the Negroes applying themſelves very little to grazing; though the fleſh of theſe animals is very dry and hard in moſt places. They have alſo ſheep cloathed with hair inſtead of wool, goats, hogs, and deer. Their horſes are exceeding ſmall, and uſed ſometimes for the ſaddle, as well as aſſes; but they neither uſe them, or any other cattle, for the draught of carriage, or to lay burdens on; for all their goods are carried on the backs of men, if it is 100 miles, unleſs they have the conveniency of water-carriage, which ſeldom happens, their rivers falling from ſteep rocks and mountains, and are navigable only a little way. They have lions, tygers, elephants, wild hogs, jackhalls, foxes, crocodiles, wild cats, and monkeys.

They have plenty of wild and tame fowl, particularly parrots; and they have many kinds of freſh and ſalt water fiſh.

They have alſo rice, millet, Indian corn, yams, potatoes, and ſugar-canes.

They abound in palm-trees, from which they extract wine and oil; the wine from the tree, and the oil from the nut. A tree will yield from 10 to 20 gallons of wine; of which an anchor, or 5 gallons, is uſually ſold on the coaſt for about 2 s. 6 d. ſterling. There are ſome ſweet and ſour orange-trees upon the coaſt; with great number of lemon-trees, the ſmall fruit of which are pickled, and ſent to Europe. The papay-tree grows here, affording a fruit as big as a large pear, of an oval figure, green within, and white without, which ſerves the natives for food. They have alſo ſome ginger, the piſan or bananas tree, pomegranates, tamarinds, the delicious ananas or pine-apple, and the fineſt melons.

Their garden-plants are good; and almoſt all manner of European roots, herbs, and garden-ſtuff, arrive there to great perfection: but the Malaguette, or Guinea pepper, is the plant for which the country is moſt remarkable; it grows on a ſhrub, in long, ſlender, red ſhells or pods, ſeparated into four or five diviſions or cells, and covered by a white film: beſides, they have alſo a bad ſtinking ſort of tobacco, uſed by the Negroes.

The Portugueſe were the firſt who diſcovered the S. W. ſhores of Africa, in the 15th century; and as the Pope was then thought to have a right to diſpoſe of all Pagan countries, they obtained a grant from his Holineſs in 1442, of all countries diſcovered to the S. and E. of Cape Bajadore, which lies on the weſt-ſide of Africa, in 27 deg. of N. lat. The Pope however afterwards, on the diſcovery of America by Columbus, publiſhed another bull in favour of the Spaniards, dated the 3d of May 1493; whereby he aſſigned and transferred to the King of Spain, and his ſucceſſors, all the countries diſcovered, and to be diſcovered 100 leagues to the W. and S. of the Azores, and Cape Verd iſlands; which the Portugueſe looked upon as an infringement of the former grant to them; and this bred a miſunderſtanding between thoſe two nations: however, they came to an agreement in the ſame year, that the line mentioned in the grant to Spain, to be drawn from N. to S. through the Azores, and the Cape Verd iſlands, ſhould be extended 270 leagues farther weſtward, and that all new diſcovered lands to the weſtward of that line ſhould belong to the Spaniards, thoſe to the eaſtward of it being to belong to the Portugueſe; accordingly, the latter built forts, and ſettled colonies on the eaſtern and weſtern coaſts of Africa, and in the Eaſt Indies, and remained in the quiet poſſeſſion of them, enjoying the ſole trade of Africa and the Eaſt Indies about 100 years without a competitor.

The reformation happening in the 16th century, the Engliſh, Dutch, and other Proteſtant nations, began to call in queſtion the Pope's power of diſpoſing of Pagan countries; and being ambitious of ſharing the gold of Africa with the Portugueſe, both the Engliſh and Dutch, in the ſame century, ſent ſeveral ſhips to the coaſt of Guinea; where, in imitation of the Portugueſe, they exchanged toys and trifles with the Negroes for gold, and made very advantageous returns. But the Portugueſe building forts upon the coaſt, and keeping the natives in a ſort of ſubjection, that they could not trade freely with any other nation, the Negroes invited the Engliſh to ſettle among them; and, for ſome ſmall conſideration, aſſigned them places to erect forts and factories upon, that they might be able to protect their own trade, as well as that of the natives. The Dutch alſo falling upon the Portugueſe ſettlements about the ſame time, deprived them of their capital fort of La Minas, and at length drove them from all their ſettlements on the gold coaſt. Whereupon the Portugueſe removed farther eaſtward, and gained a vaſt extent of country, in which they were not diſturbed by the Dutch, little or none of the ſame tempting metal being found there, though they meet with ſlaves in abundance.

The Dutch had no ſooner driven the Portugueſe from the gold coaſt, but they began to contrive how they might beat the Engliſh, and all other nations, out of that trade: accordingly, as they had by treaty agreed to join an Engliſh ſquadron to ſuppreſs the pirates upon the Barbary coaſt, De Ruyter, the Dutch Admiral, actually ſailed to the Straights with the Engliſh, under pretence of putting that project in execution; but then making an excuſe to the Engliſh Admiral, that he was ordered another way, he ſailed to the coaſt of Guinea; and there, with the aſſiſtance of the Negroes his countrymen had already ſpirited up againſt the Engliſh, made himſelf maſter of ſeveral Engliſh forts, and particularly of that now in the poſſeſſion of the Dutch, which goes by the name of Amſterdam fort.

The Dutch had the ſame views here as they had in the Eaſt Indies: they intended the ſubduing of the natives, and no doubt propoſed to have opened the gold mines, and become the ſole maſters of them, as the Spaniards are of the ſilver mines in Potoſi: but the court of England eſpouſing their company's intereſt, rendered the Dutch ſcheme abortive.

But the French are now very formidable on this part of Africa, where they are chiefly in poſſeſſion of the gold trade; and have ſo artfully crept into the Negroe trade, that they now purchaſe the beſt ſlaves on the coaſt, with which they not only ſupply their own colonies, but also furniſh the Spaniards with great numbers, whereby they have almoſt ſupplanted the Engliſh of Jamaica in this valuable trade: however, it is hoped the Engliſh will now retrieve their loſs, and recover this important branch of their commerce.

Reflexions on the African trade.

The African trade is very advantageous to Great Britain, as it ſupplies the Britiſh plantations with Negroes for their uſe and ſervice: beſides, conſidering the number of ſhips annually employed in it, the great export of the Britiſh manufactures to the African coaſts, and the value of the product of the Britiſh plantations annually ſent to Great Britain, the advantages reſulting from this trade are more apparent. The Negroes are the hands by which the Britiſh plantations are improved; it being by their labour ſuch great quantities of ſugar, tobacco, cotton, ginger, fuſtic, and indigo, are raiſed, which employ a great number of ſhips for tranſporting them to Great Britain; and the greater number of ſhips employed, the greater number of handicraft-trades at home, ſupported more of the Britiſh product and manufactures, and maintain more ſailors, who are maintained by a ſeparate employment: for if every one raiſed the proviſions he eat, made the manufacture he wore, traffic would ceaſe, whereas is a variety of employments men have ſet themſelves

whereby one is ſerviceable to another, adapted to their particular genius, without invading each others provinces. Therefore it may be ſaid, that the adviſing a former reign to monopolize this trade, and confine it to an excluſive company, was the ſame as to adviſe the people of Egypt, to raiſe high banks to keep the Nile from overflowing, leſt it ſhould fertilize their lands; or the King of Spain to ſhut up his mines, leſt he ſhould fill his kingdom too full of ſilver.

It is not to be doubted, whether the vending Britiſh manufactures, and encouraging navigation, on advantageous terms, are the true intereſt of Great Britain; and that all foreign commerce, as it advances either, is more or leſs profitable to the kingdom; but the confining this trade to an excluſive company could promote neither: and perhaps it was one great reaſon why we know ſo little of the great continent of Africa; becauſe the company finding ways enough to employ their ſtock among thoſe few ſettlements they had made on the ſea-coaſt, never endeavoured a farther inland diſcovery; whereas, when the trade was laid open, the buſy merchant, that induſtrious bee of the nation, would not leave any creek or river untraded to, from whence he might hope to make advantage.

When the company had an excluſive trade, they were obliged, by the ſtatute of the 9th and 10th of William III. to pay a duty of 10 *per cent.* on all goods exported to Africa, which was applied to maintain, ſupport, and defend all ſuch forts and caſtles as were erected for the preſervation, improvement, and well carrying on that trade. However, the excluſive privileges granted to the company were prejudicial to the community; for the African company, under an excluſive trade, in the time of peace, between the years 1680 and 1689, employed only 159 ſhips, being about 28 ſhips annually, and delivered into the plantations 46,396 Negroes, being 5155 a year: but the Negroes imported, after the trade was laid open by William III. into Jamaica, Barbadoes, and Antigua, only, amounted to 42,000 for three years of peace; which was near as many Negroes delivered to thoſe three iſlands only in three years under an open trade, as there were in nine years of peace by the company into all the plantations when excluſive. It appeared in the year 1708, in time of war, that there were employed in this trade above a hundred ſhips, capable of carrying 25,000 Negroes a year into the plantations, belonging to the ſeparate traders; which demonſtrated that the trade was above four times as much increaſed as when it was excluſive, though that was a time of peace; and that the export of the manufactures of coarſe perpets to that coaſt, had been increaſed from 4000 to 70,000 pieces a year.

It muſt certainly be prudent in any trade, manufacture, or buſineſs, to render the firſt materials as cheap as poſſible. Negroes are the firſt and moſt neceſſary materials for planting; from whence it follows, that all meaſures ſhould be taken that may produce ſuch a plenty of them, as may be an encouragement to the induſtrious planter.

Experience, the ſureſt guide we can follow in matters of trade, has demonſtrably taught us, that the African trade has not been carried on moſt to the national advantage by a company with a joint ſtock; but that when it became free and open, it greatly encreaſed, the plantations were better ſupplied with Negroes, and the advantages to the kingdom were infinitely greater.

It is undoubtedly true, that when the company had the whole trade almoſt to themſelves, they did not ſupply the plantations with ſuch a plenty of Negroes as was requiſite; and that, as they forced them to accept of ſuch a ſort as they thought fit to bring, ſo they put their own price upon the product of the plantations. But if it is alledged, that the African company, when excluſive, at any time ſold choice Negroes from 14 to 18 l. a head; it may be remembered, that as they ſet their own price on the product of the plantations, ſo ſugar did not ſell in any of them for half the price it has done for many years paſt, or ſince the trade to Africa was firſt laid open.

It is to trade and commerce we are indebted for what knowledge we have of foreign parts; and it is obſervable, that the more remote people dwell from the ſea, the leſs they are acquainted with affairs abroad. Africa is a large country, and doubtleſs the trade to it may be much enlarged to the advantage of Great Britain. Uſe and experience make us by degrees maſters of every thing; and though the firſt undertakers of a deſign may fall ſhort of anſwering their private ends, yet they often lay open beaten paths, wherein poſterity may tread with ſucceſs, tho' the others miſcarried. When all places are permitted freely to ſend ſhips, and to have the management of their own affairs, induſtry is encouraged, and people's heads are ſet at work how they may outdo each other, by getting firſt into a new place of trade. Beſides, the more traders, the more buyers at home, and ſellers abroad; by which means the Britiſh plantations on the large continent of America may be better furniſhed with Negroes; for want of which, the inhabitants there could never arrive to thoſe improvements they have done on the iſlands, the company having given them little or no ſupply; chooſing rather to ſend their Negroes to the latter, becauſe they were able to make them better payments; but the free traders afterwards did it, to the great advantage of thoſe plantations, and of the nation in general.

As for the three other principal commodities brought in returns from Africa, gold, wax, and teeth, they are alſo highly advantageous to Great Britain: the firſt advances the national wealth, and is allowed to be a good barter; and the ſecond ſerves for a foreign export, without any diſadvantage to the home product; and the third is not only manufactured at home, but afterwards carried to the markets abroad.

As neither Great Britain, nor any other European nations, are owners of any conſiderable ſpot of ſoil on the coaſt of Guinea; and ſuch as have forts and caſtles thereon dare not ſtir beyond the reach of their guns; beſides, as Great Britain is enabled by her manufactures and goods of all kinds, to trade the cheapeſt and moſt advantageouſly to Africa, and has a ſuperior ſtrength to any nation to protect its trade on that coaſt; there is no reaſon to dread the inſults of the French, nor to fear that they can beat the Britiſh ſubjects out of this trade, while it remains open and free, without being impeded by an excluſive company.

Since the act of parliament of the 23d of King George II. for extending and improving the trade to Africa, there are 135 merchants free of the new African company in London, 157 in Briſtol, and 101 in Liverpool, in all 393; which will occaſion an increaſe of this trade; for, in the year 1752, there were 88 ſhips ſent from Liverpool only, to the coaſt of Africa; whoſe commanders and owners names, what part of the coaſt each ſhip went to, and what number of ſlaves they bought, are as follows.

	Slaves.
Africa, —— Halliſon, Benin, John Walſh and company - -	250
Antigua Merchant, Robert Thomas, Angola, James Gildart and co. - -	200
Annabella, William Harriſon, Windward and Gold coaſt, W. Dobb and co. -	260
Angleſea, James Caruthers, Wind. and Gold coaſt, Tim. Farrar and co. - -	180
Alice Galley, Rich. Jackſon, Wind. and Gold coaſt, Rob. Cheſhyre and co. -	350
Ann Galley, Nehemiah Holland, Callabar, William Whalley and co. - -	340
Adlington, Thomas Perkin, Wind. and Gold coaſt, J. Maneſty and co. - -	320
African, John Newton, Wind. and Gold coaſt, J. Maneſty and co. - -	250
Allen, James Strangeways, Wind. and Gold coaſt, John Brooks and co. - -	250
Achilles, Thomas Patrick, Hen. Hardwar and co.	450
Barbadoes Merchant, John Wilſon, Angola, G. Campbell and co. - -	500
Betty, Samuel Sacheveril, John Robinſon	100
Blake, Alexander Torbett, Callabar, Jo. Bird and co. - -	460

	Slaves.
Boyne, William Wilkinſon, Bonny, Edw. Forbes and co.	400
Beverly, William Lowe, Angola, Edward Lownds and co.	200
Brooke, Thomas Kewly, Old Callabar, Roger Brooks and co.	400
Barclay, John Gadſon, Old Callabar, John Welſh and co.	450
Bulkeley, Chriſt. Baitſon, Wind. and Gold coaſt, Foſter Cunliffe, ſons and co.	350
Britannia, James Pemberton, Wind. and Gold coaſt, Thomas Leatherbarrow and co.	300
Bridget, ——— Hayſton, Wind. and Gold coaſt, Foſter Cunliffe, ſons and co.	250
Cheſterfield, Patrick Black, Old Callabar, William Whalley and co.	440
Clayton, (taken by pirates, and retaken by a Portugueſe man of war), J. Clayton and co.	440
Cumberland, John Griffin, Gambia, Edw. Deane and co.	260
Charming Nancy, Th. Roberts, Wind. and Gold coaſt, W. Davenport and co.	170
Cavendiſh, Robert Jennings, Wind. and Gold coaſt, Rd Nicholas and co.	170
Cecilia, Richard Younge, Gambia, Fr. Green and co.	120
Duke of Cumberland, John Croſbie, Bonny, James Croſbie and co.	450
Dolphin, John Pederick, Wind. and Gold coaſt, Edward Forbes and co.	200
Enterprize, Samuel Greenhow, Gambia, John Yates and co.	130
Elijah, —— ———, Wind. and Gold coaſt, Ed. Lownds and co.	200
Elizabeth, William Heys, Gambia, Samuel Shaw and co.	200
Ellis and Robert, R. Jackſon, Wind. and Gold coaſt, F. Cunliffe, ſons and co.	320
Eaton, John Hughes, Angola, John Okill and co. (wood and teeth)	550
Fanny, William Jenkinſon, Wind. and Gold coaſt, John Knight and co.	120
Florimell, Samuel Linnekar, Callabar, Rich. Townſend and co.	320
Frodſham, James Powell, Angola, Nich. Torr and co.	450
Fortune, Hugh Williams, Bonny, Henry Townſend and co.	480
Foſter, Edward Cropper, Benin, Foſter Cunliffe, ſons and co.	200
Fenet, Joſeph Welſh, Wind. coaſt, &c. John Welſh and co.	50
George, Charles Cooke, Angola, G. Campbell and co.	250
Grace, ——— ———, Old Callabar, Edward Forbes and co.	400
Greyhound, —— ———, Wind. and Gold coaſt, Richard Savage and co.	120
Heſketh, James Thomſon, New Callabar, Richard Nichols and co.	260
Hector, Brook Kellſal, New Callabar, Wm Gregſon and co.	480
Hardman, Joſeph Yoward, Wind. and Gold coaſt, John Hardman and co.	300
Jenny, Thomas Darbyſhire, Wind. and Gold coaſt, John Knight and co.	450
Judith, Nich. Southworth, Bonny, John Welſh and co.	350
James, John Sacheveril, Wind. and Gold coaſt, James Gildart	120
Knight, William Boates, Wind. and Gold coaſt, John Knight and co.	400
Lintott, Ralph Lowe, New Callabar, Rich. Nicholas and co.	400
Lord Strange, Edward Smith, Benin, William Halliday and co.	230
Lovely Betty, Geo. Jackſon, Wind. and Gold coaſt, Geo. Campbell and co.	140
Little Billy, Thomas Dickenſon, Wind. and Gold coaſt, John Knight and co.	60
Merſey, John Gee, Benin, John Kennion and co.	300
Middleham, John Welſh, Old Callabar, Rich. Gildart and ſons	320
Methwen, John Coppel, Wind. and Gold coaſt, James Croſbie and co.	280
Minerva, Thomas Jordan, Gambia, James Pardoe and co.	400
Mercury, John Walker, Wind. and Gold coaſt, Kennion and Holme	100
Molly, Richard Rigby, Wind. and Gold coaſt, Richard Golding and co.	320
Neptune, Tho. Thompſon, Old Callabar, Joſeph and Jona. Brooks and co.	450
Nelly, John Simmons, Old Callabar, William Williamſon and co.	300
Nancy, John Honeyford, Bonny, Thomas Kendal and co.	400
Nancy, Robert Hewin, Bonny, Pet. Holme and co.	400
Nancy, Thomas Midgely, Gambia, Knight, Mairs, and co.	300
Onel, James Griffin, Gambia, William Whaley and co.	120
Ormond Succeſs, — ———, Angola, William Williamſon and co.	320
Pardoe, —— ———, Wind. and Gold coaſt, James Pardoe and co.	200
Priſcilla, William Parkinſon, Angola, John Welſh and co.	350
Phœbe, W. Lawſon, Wind. and Gold coaſt, Arth. and Ben. Heywood and co.	280
Prince William, John Valentine, Angola, Richard Gildart and ſons	200
Rider, Michael Ruſh, Angola, Richard Gildart and ſons	300
Ranger, James Sanders, Wind. and Gold coaſt, William Farrington and co.	300
Sterling Caſtle, Charles Gardner, Bonny, John Backhouſe and co.	300
Sarah, Alexander Lawſon, Bonny, Thomas Crowder and co.	550
Saliſbury, Thomas Marſden, Old Callabar, Robert Armitage and co.	350
Samuel and Nancy, James Lowe, Wind. and Gold coaſt, Richard Savage and co.	220
Swan, Peter Leay, Bonny, John Tarlton and co.	400
Sammy and Biddy, R. Grayſon, Wind. coaſt, &c. Jon. Blundell and co.	120
Schemer, Robert Grimſhaw, Wind. coaſt, &c. T. Chalmers and co.	120
Stronge, Thomas Cubbin, Bonny, Matthew and John Stronge, and co.	300
Tarlton, James Thomſon, Bonny, John Tarlton and co.	300
Triton, Charles Jenkinſon, Bonny, Levinus Unſworth and co.	240
Thomas, James Hutchinſon, Gambia, Geo. Campbell and co.	200
True Blue, Benjamin Wade, Benin, John Cheſhyre and co.	300
Thomas and Martha, J. Gillman, Wind. and Gold coaſt, George Campbell and co.	200
Vigilant, Wm Freeman, Wind. and Gold coaſt, J. Bridge and co.	100
Union, Tim. Anyon, Wind. and Gold coaſt, Ja. Pardoe and co.	300
William and Betty, Thomas Barclay, Angola, Samuel Shawe and co.	400
	In all 25,7

See *Africa*, and *African* companies.

GUINEA. A gold coin, ſtruck and current in Engla
See *Coin*.
The value or rate of the guinea has varied: it was
ſtruck on the footing of 20 s. and, by the ſcarcity of g
was afterwards advanced to 21 s. 6 d. but is now

to 21 s. The pound troy of gold being cut into 44 parts and a half, each part makes a guinea; which took this denomination, becauſe the gold whereof the firſt were ſtruck was brought from that part of Africa called Guinea; for which reaſon it likewiſe bore the impreſſion of an elephant.

Guineas and half-guineas may be imported by any perſons, purſuant to an act of the 8th William III.

UINEA, is alſo the name of a white cotton cloth, brought from the Eaſt Indies, particularly from Pondicherry; the piece being 29 or 30 ells and a half long, and 7-8ths broad.

They are ſo called, becauſe proper for the Negroe trade on this part of Africa.

UINEA *Company*. See *African* company.

UINEA *Pepper*. See *Pepper*.

UINEATUF-*Longee*. A cotton and ſilk ſtuff, manufactured in the Eaſt Indies; the pieces of which are 6, 8, or 13 ells in length, and 5-6ths or 2-3ds in breadth.

UINGUANS. A blue and white cotton cloth, ſometimes mixed with the thread of the bark of trees; the pieces uſually contain 8 ells in length, and 3-4ths or 5-6ths in breadth; which come chiefly from Bengal; though there are alſo guinguans half bark and half ſilk.

UINGUET. A ſort of ſlight camblet, manufactured at Amiens in France; the breadth of which is half an ell.

ULDEN, or *Gould*, is a ſilver coin of ſeveral places in Germany. That of Saxony is worth 2 s. 4 d. ſterling, and that of Vienna is the ſame. There are alſo ſeveral others, more properly called guilders. See *Guilder*.

The gulden of St. Gall, in Switzerland, is worth 2 s. 3 d. ſterling; that of Lucern 2 s. 6 d. ſterling, and that of Zurich the ſame.

There are alſo in Holland, particularly at Amſterdam, two ſorts of guldens; the one is the guilder, and the other called gulden, worth about 2 s. 2 d. ſterling.

ULPH, or *Gulf*. An arm or part of the ocean, running up between the land; ſuch is the gulph of Venice, called alſo the Adriatic ſea; the gulph of Lyons; the gulph of Mexico, and of Florida.

A gulph is ſtrictly diſtinguiſhed from a ſea, becauſe the latter is larger: it is alſo diſtinguiſhed from a bay, or ſinus, being greater than the ſame. Some will have it eſſential to a gulph, to run into the land through a ſtreight or narrow paſſage. The ſea is always moſt dangerous near gulphs, by reaſon of the currents being penned up by the ſhores.

UM. A vegetable juice, exuding through the pores of certain plants, and there hardening into a tenacious tranſparent maſs.

Gum is properly one of the juices of the bark, drawn thence by the ſolar warmth, in form of a glutinous humour; and by the ſame cauſe is afterwards inſpiſſated, concocted, and rendered tenacious.

The chemical character of gums, whereby they are diſtinguiſhed from reſins, and other vegetable juices, is, that they are diſſoluble in water, and at the ſame time inflammable by fire: but it muſt be obſerved, that this character excludes a great part of thoſe commonly called gums.

In the general, gums are more viſcid, and leſs friable, and generally diſſoluble in any aqueous menſtruum; whereas reſins are more ſulphurous, and require a ſpirituous, or oily diſſolvent. Boerhaave conſiders a gum as a ſort of ſaponaceous fat; which, beſide its oily principle in common with a reſin, has ſome other ingredient that renders it miſcible with water. See *Reſin*.

Gums are different, according to the different trees and roots they ooze from. Some authors diſtinguiſh them into aqueous and reſinous gums; the firſt thoſe diſſoluble in water, wine, and the like fluids; the ſecond only thoſe diſſoluble in oil. To theſe two, ſome add a third anomalous kind, ſoluble with much difficulty in water or oil.

Among the claſs of gums are uſually ranked, gum anime, arabic, gutta, adraganth, ammoniac, aſſa fœtida, bdellium, balm, benzoin, camphor, copal, elemy, frankinſenſe, euphorbium, galbanum, lacca, manna, myrrh, olibanum, ſagapenum, ſanguis draconis, ſtarcocolla, ſtacte, ſtorax, tacamahacha, turpentine, and many others, ſee each under its proper article.

GUM-*Coaſt*. See *Guinea*.

GUM, among gardeners, is a diſeaſe incident to fruit-trees of the ſtone kind, as peaches, plums, apricots, and cherries.

GUN. A fire-arm, or weapon of defence; which forcibly diſcharges a ball, ſhot, or other offenſive matter, through a cylindrical barrel, by means of gun-powder.

Under this general name are included moſt ſpecies of fire-arms, which may be divided into great and ſmall. Great guns, called by the general name cannon, make what is alſo called ordnance, or artillery; under which come the ſeveral ſorts of cannon; as cannon-royal, demi-cannon, culverins, demi-culverins, ſakers, minions, and falcons. Small guns include muſkets, muſketoons, carabines, blunderbuſſes, and fowling-pieces.

Piſtols and mortars are almoſt the only kinds of regular weapons charged with gun-powder, that are excepted from the denomination of gun.

GUNFLEET. One of the channels by which ſhips enter the mouth of the river Thames.

GUNNEL, in a ſhip, is that piece of timber that reaches on either ſide, from the half deck to the fore-caſtle; alſo the lower part, where a piece of ordnance lies.

GUN-POWDER. A compoſition of ſaltpetre, ſulphur, and charcoal, mixed together, and uſually granulated; which eaſily takes fire, and rarifies, or expands, with great vehemence, by means of its elaſtic force.

To this powder is owing all the action and effect of guns and ordnance; ſo that the modern military art and fortification depend wholly thereon.

The invention of gun-powder is aſcribed by Polydore Virgil, to a chemiſt, who accidentally put ſome of this compoſition in a mortar, and covered it with a ſtone; whence the ingredients happened to take fire, and blew up the ſtone.

Thevet ſays, the perſon here ſpoke of, was a monk of Fribourg, named Conſtantine Anelzem: but Belloforet, and other authors, with more probability, hold it to be Bartholdus Schwartz; at leaſt it is affirmed he firſt taught the uſe of it to the Venetians, in the year 1380, during the war with the Genoeſe; and that it was firſt employed in a place, antienty called Foſſa Clodia, now Chioggia, againſt Laurence de Medicis; and all Italy made complaints againſt it, as a manifeſt contravention of fair warfare.

Du Gange adds, that there is mention made of gun-powder in the regiſters of the chambers of acounts in France, as early as the year 1338.

To ſay no more; it appears that Roger Bacon, an Engliſhman, knew of gun-powder 150 years before Schwartz was born. That excellent friar mentions the compoſition in expreſs terms, in his treatiſe *De nullitate magiæ*, publiſhed at Oxford in 1216. "You may raiſe thunder and "lightening at pleaſure, ſays he, by only taking ſulphur, "nitre, and char-coal, which ſingly have no effect; but "mixed together, and confined in a cloſe place, cauſe a "noiſe and exploſion greater than that of a clap of "thunder."

Preparation of gun-powder. There are divers compoſitions of gun-powder, with reſpect to the proportions of the three ingredients to be met with in pyrotechnical writers; but the proceſs is much the ſame in all.

However, gun-powder being a commodity of ſuch conſequence, both in reſpect of ſpeculation, of war, and of commerce, as the conſumption thereof is incredible, it deſerves a more particular detail. To make gun-powder duly, then, regard is to be had, that the ſaltpetre be pure, and in fine large chryſtals, or ſhootings; otherwiſe it is to be purified, by taking away its fixed or common ſalt, and earthy parts: thus, diſſolve 10 lb. of nitre in a ſufficient quantity of fair water; ſettle, filtrate, and evaporate it in a glazed veſſel, to the diminution of half, or till a pellicle appear on it; the veſſel may then be taken off from the fire, and ſet in a cellar: in 24 hours the chryſtals will ſhoot; which ſeparate from the liquor; and after the like manner may the liquor be chryſtalized ſeveral times, till all the ſalt be drawn forth: this done, put it into a kettle, and that on a furnace with a moderate fire; which gradually increaſe till it begins to ſmoke,

evaporate, loſe its humidity, and grow very white. It muſt be kept continually ſtirring with a ladle, for fear it ſhould return to its former figure, by which means its greaſineſs will be taken away: after that, ſo much water is to be poured into the kettle as will cover the nitre; and then it is diſſolved, and reduced to the conſiſtency of a thick liquor; which muſt be ſtirred with a ladle, without intermiſſion, till all the moiſture is again evaporated, and it is reduced to a dry and white meal.

The like regard is to be had to the ſulphur; chuſing that which is to be had in large lumps, clear, and perfectly yellow; not very hard, nor compact, but porous; nor yet too much ſhining; and if, when ſet on fire, it freely burns away all, leaving little or no reſident matter, it is a ſign of its goodneſs: ſo likewiſe, if it is preſſed between two iron plates, that are hot enough to make it run, and in the running appear yellow, and that which remains of a reddiſh colour, it may be concluded to be fit for the purpoſe. But, in caſe the ſame be foul and impure, it may be purified in this manner: melt the ſulphur in a large iron ladle or pot, over a gentle coal-fire, well kindled, but not flaming; then ſcum off all that riſes on the top, and ſwims upon the ſulphur; take it preſently after from the fire, and ſtrain it through a double linen cloth, letting it paſs at leiſure; by which means it will be pure, the groſs filthy matter remaining behind in the cloth.

For the charcoal, the third ingredient, ſuch ſhould be choſen as is large, clear, free from knots, well burned, and cleaving.

There are three kinds of powder, called cannon-powder, muſket-powder, and piſtol-powder: of each of theſe again there are two ſorts, a ſtronger and a weaker; all which differences ariſe only from the various proportions.

The proportions are thus: in the ſtronger cannon-powder, to every 100 lb. of ſaltpetre 25 lb. of ſulphur are generally allowed, with the ſame quantity of charcoal; and in the weaker cannon-powder, to every 100 lb. of ſaltpetre, 20 lb. of ſulphur, and 24 lb. of charcoal. As for the ſtronger muſket-powder, 100 lb. of ſaltpetre require 18 lb. of ſulphur, and 20 lb. of charcoal; and in the weaker, there goes to 100 lb. of ſaltpetre, 15 lb. of ſulphur, and 18 lb. of charcoal. In the ſtronger piſtol-powder, 100 lb. of ſaltpetre requires 12 lb. of ſulphur, and 15 lb. of charcoal; whereas the weaker has to 100 lb. of ſaltpetre, only 10 lb. of ſulphur, but 18 lb. of charcoal.

Other authors preſcribe other proportions. Semicnowitz, for mortars, directs 100 lb. of ſaltpetre, 25 lb. of ſulphur, and as many of charcoal: for great guns, 100 lb. of ſaltpetre, 15 lb. of ſulphur, and 18 lb. of charcoal. For muſkets and piſtols 100 lb. of ſaltpetre, 8 lb. of ſulphur, and 10 lb. of charcoal.

Miethius extols the proportion of 1 lb. of ſaltpetre to 3 oz. of charcoal, or two, or two and a quarter of ſulphur; than which, he affirms, no gun powder can poſſibly be ſtronger. He adds, that the uſual practice of making the gun-powder weaker for mortars than guns, as in the example above, is without any foundation, and renders the expence needleſsly much greater: for whereas to load a larger mortar 24 lb. of common powder is required, and conſequently to load it ten times 240 lb. he ſhews, by calculation, that the ſame effect would be had by 180 lb. of the ſtrong powder.

Gun-powder may alſo be made of ſeveral colours; but the black is the moſt ſerviceable of any.

Corn-powder is of ſo much greater force, than when in duſt, or meal, that it is concluded the larger grains are ſtronger than the ſmaller: for which reaſon, common powder is granulated larger than other powders; and therefore powder in loading ſhould not be beat home into the piece, ſo as to bruiſe the grains. There are three ways to prove the goodneſs of gun-powder: 1. By ſight; for if it be too black, it is too moiſt, or has too much charcoal in it: ſo alſo, if rubbed upon white paper, it blackens it more than good powder does; but if it be of a kind of azure colour, ſomewhat inclining to red, it is a ſign of good powder. 2. By touching; for if, in cruſhing it with the fingers ends, the grains break eaſily and turn into duſt, without feeling hard, it has too much coal in it; or if, in preſſing under the fingers upon a ſmooth hard board, ſome grains feel harder than the reſt, or, as it were, dent the fingers ends, the ſulphur is not well mixed with the nitre, and the powder is bad. 3. By burning, wherein little heaps of powder are laid upon white paper, three inches or more aſunder, and one of them fired; which, if it only fires away, and that ſuddenly, and almoſt imperceptibly, without firing the reſt, and make a ſmall thundering noiſe, and a white ſmoke riſes in the air almoſt like a circle, the powder is good; if it leaves black marks, it has too much coal, or is not well burnt: if it leaves a greaſineſs, the ſulphur, or nitre, are not well cleanſed. Again, if two or three corns be laid on paper an inch diſtant, and fire be put to one of them, and they all fire at once, leaving no ſign behind, but a white ſmoaky colour in the place, and the paper not touched, the powder is good; ſo alſo, if fired in a man's hand, and it burns not; but if black knots appear, which burn downwards in the place where the proof was made after firing, it is not ſtrong enough, but wants nitre.

To recover damaged powder, the merchants put part of the powder on ſail-cloth, to which they add an equal weight of what is really good; and with a ſhovel mingle it well together, dry it in the ſun, and barrel it up, keeping it in a dry and proper place.

Others again, if it be very bad, reſtore it by moiſtening it with vinegar, urine, or brandy; then they beat it fine, ſearce it, and to every pound of powder add an ounce, an ounce and half, or two ounces, according as it is decayed, of melted ſaltpetre; afterwards, theſe ingredients are to be moiſtened and mixed well; ſo that nothing can be diſcerned in the compoſition, which may be known by cutting the maſs, and then they granulate it as aforeſaid. In caſe the powder be in a manner quite ſpoiled, the only way is to extract the ſaltpetre with water, according to the uſual manner, by boiling, filtrating, evaporating, and chryſtalizing, and then with freſh ſulphur and charcoal, to make it up again.

Gun-powder is chiefly made in England and France, where there are mills erected for the purpoſe.

By the ſtatute of the 16th of Charles I. it was enacted, That it ſhould be lawful for all perſons, as well ſtrangers as natural-born ſubjects, to import gun-powder, paying ſuch cuſtoms as by authority of parliament ſhould be limited. That it ſhould be lawful for all his Majeſty's ſubjects of England, to make and ſell gun-powder at their pleaſure, and alſo to bring into the kingdom ſaltpetre, brimſtone, or other materials, for the making of gun-powder.

By the ſtatute of the 4th of George II. it was enacted, That there ſhould be paid to every perſon who ſhould export, by way of merchandiſe, any gun-powder of the manufacture of Great Britain, an allowance of 4s. 6d. for every barrel containing 100 lb. weight; which allowance ſhould be paid by the cuſtomer or collector with the privity of the comptroller of the port from whence the ſame ſhould be exported, or a debenture to be made forth by the cuſtomer or collector, according to the entry of ſuch gun-powder, without fee, and the ſhipping thereof verified by the ſearcher, and oath or affirmation made by the exporter on the entry or debenture before the cuſtomer or collector, or comptroller of the port, that the ſaid gun-powder was of Britiſh manufacture, and was exported or intended to be exported, by way of merchandiſe, and not for the uſe of the ſhip, and not relanded, or intended to be relanded, in Great Britain, the exporter giving ſecurity to the cuſtomer or collector in 5 l. for each barrel, that the gun-powder ſhipped, or intended to be ſhipped, ſhould not be relanded; and ſuch ſecurities ſhould be diſcharged in manner hereafter mentioned. For ſo much gun-powder as ſhould be entered for, or landed in Ireland, Guernſey and Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, or any of his Majeſty's plantations, the condition of the bond ſhould be to bring certificates in diſcharge thereof from each place reſpectively, importing that ſuch gun-powder was there landed, ſigned by the proper officers of his Majeſty's

toms; and for want of ſuch officers, by the governor of thoſe iſlands or plantations; and for ſuch gun-powder as ſhould be entered for any foreign port, to bring a certificate under the hand of any of his Majeſty's conſuls reſiding in ſuch port, or under the hands of two known Britiſh merchants at ſuch port, that ſuch gun-powder was there landed; or ſuch bonds ſhould be diſcharged, upon proof that the ſame was taken by enemies, or periſhed in the ſeas; the examination and proof thereof being left to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in England or Scotland.

That whereas gun-powder exported for Africa was ſold in ſmall parcels along the coaſt, therefore, in ſuch caſe, upon proof made upon oath, or ſolemn affirmation, of the maſter, mate, or other perſon having charge of the ſhip during the voyage, importing that ſuch gun-powder was ſold upon the coaſt of Africa, and alſo of the oath or ſolemn affirmation of the merchant exporter, if living, that, to the beſt of his knowledge and belief, the ſaid goods had been diſpoſed of at the places to be mentioned in the reſpective affidavits, or affirmations, and that they had not been relanded in Great Britain, the ſame ſhould be taken in lieu of the certificates aforeſaid.

That if any gun-powder ſhipped to be exported, for which allowance was made, ſhould be relanded in Great Britain, without the licence of one of the principal officers of ſuch port firſt had, or unleſs in caſe of diſtreſs to ſave the gun-powder from periſhing, which ſhould forthwith be made known to one of the ſaid officers, the ſaid gun-powder, over and above the penalty of the bond, and treble the value of ſuch gun-powder, ſhould be forfeited.

That in caſe any of the duties payable upon the importation of ſaltpetre or brimſtone ſhould, during the continuance of this act, be redeemed, ſo much of the allowance to be made on exportation of the gun-powder ſhould be abated, as ſhould bear a proportion to the duties ſo redeemed.

By the ſtatute of the 5th Geo. II. it was enacted, That no commander of any ſhip outward bound ſhould receive on board any gun-powder, either as merchandiſe, or ſtore for the voyage, except for his Majeſty's ſervice, before ſuch ſhip ſhould be over againſt Blackwall, upon pain of forfeiting for every 50 lb. weight of gun-powder 5 l. and in proportion for a leſſer quantity.

That the commander of every ſhip coming into the Thames, ſhould put on ſhore all powder, either before the arrival of ſuch ſhip at Blackwall, or within 24 hours after ſuch ſhip ſhould come to an anchor there, or at the place of her unloading, upon pain of forfeiting 5 l. for every 50 lb. weight of gun-powder found on board, and in the like proportion for a leſs quantity; and if any gun-powder ſhould be found on board ſuch ſhip above Blackwall, after the time limited for unloading the ſame, the commander of every ſuch ſhip ſhould, for every 50 lb. weight of gun-powder, forfeit 5 l. and in proportion for a leſſer quantity.

By the ſtatute of the 15th and 16th of George II. reciting, That whereas, by an act paſſed the 11th of George I. for making more effectual an act paſſed in the 5th year of the ſame reign, intitled, An act for the preventing the miſchiefs that may happen by keeping too great quantities of gun-powder in or near the cities of London and Weſtminſter, or the ſuburbs thereof; no perſon ſhould keep above 200 lb. of gun-powder at a time, within any place under one roof, or any yard within the cities of London and Weſtminſter, or within three miles of the Tower of London, or of St. James's palace, or within two miles of any public magazine, longer than 24 hours, on forfeiture of the gun-powder, or the value: but that dealers ſtill kept as large and dangerous quantities as uſual, and by ſeveral methods evade the act; and though the juſtices had power to ſeize ſuch dangerous quantities, they could not detain them, and the owners immediately demanded the ſame again, and maintained an action at law for the recovery thereof, though it was not detained an hour; whereby the good intentions of the act were defeated to the great danger of the public ſafety: to prevent which, it was then enacted, That no perſons, not being dealers in gun-powder, ſhould keep more than 50 lb. within the limits aforeſaid; or being dealers, not more than 200 lb. longer than 24 hours, though the places were diſpoſed under different roofs; or on the river Thames, except in ſhips, &c. paſſing or detained by tides, or bad weather; except alſo carts and other carriages, loading or unloading, or paſſing on the highway; on pain of forfeiting all ſuch gun-powder, and the value, with full coſts of ſuit to any perſon who would ſue for the ſame.

That perſons permitting others to keep gun-powder, in any places not belonging to the owners of ſuch gun-powder, ſhould forfeit for every offence one ſhilling for every pound of gun-powder ſo permitted to be kept contrary to the meaning of this act, to be recovered as aforeſaid.

By the ſtatute of the 22d of George II. reciting, That as great quantities of gun-powder were frequently lodged in warehouſes, or other edifices, within or near to cities and market-towns, to the apparent danger of the lives and fortunes of many thouſands of his Majeſty's ſubjects; for preventing the miſchiefs which might happen thereby, or from carrying too great quantities of gun-powder together from one place to another; it was enacted, That no perſon ſhould have or keep gun-powder for more than 24 hours at any one time, in greater quantity than 400 lb. in any houſe or other place in any city, or the ſuburbs thereof, or in any market-town, or within a hundred yards diſtance thereof, within England, or within two miles of any of the King's palaces, or houſes of reſidence, or within one mile of any of the King's magazines for keeping gun-powder; nor ſhould any perſon keep, for more than 24 hours, at any time a greater quantity than 3000 lb. weight thereof, in any houſe or other place within England, except herein after excepted.

That any two juſtices might iſſue a warrant for ſearching in the day-time, any houſe, ſhop, or other place, and breaking open the door thereof, if there ſhould be occaſion; and if, upon ſearch, more ſhould be found than allowed by this act, the ſame ſhould be ſeized, and forfeited to any perſon who ſhould inform and ſue for the ſame.

That no perſon ſhould convey at any one time, in any waggon or other carriage, within England, a greater quantity of gun-powder than 2500 lb. weight, or more than 5000 lb. weight in any open veſſel upon any river, within the diſtance of one mile from any city or market-town; and all ſuch gun powder ſhould be carried in covered carts and carriages; and the barrels in which the ſame was contained, ſhould be cloſe joined and hooped, and ſecured, that no part thereof be ſcattered in the paſſage, under penalty of being ſeized and forfeited to the informer.

That every perſon employed in any ſtorehouſe or warehouſe where gun-powder ſhould be kept, or in carrying gun-powder from one place to another, being convicted before any juſtice of wilfully committing any act, whereby ſuch gun-powder might be in danger of taking fire, ſhould forfeit 5 s. to the informer for every 100 lb. weight of gun-powder contained in ſuch ſtorehouſe, &c. or which he ſhould be employed in conveying from one place to another; and on non-payment thereof he ſhould be committed to the public goal, without bail or main prize, for any time not exceeding ſix months, as ſuch juſtice ſhould think fit.

That this act ſhould not extend to any of the King's ſtorehouſes or magazines, or to hinder the proving gun-powder for the King's officers, as is uſual for the ſervice, or to the carrying of gun-powder to or from any of the King's magazines, or with forces on their march, or to any mills already built, and uſed for the making of gun-powder, or to any ſtorehouſes or offices near to ſuch mills, or to the magazines erected at Barking Creek's mouth in the county of Eſſex, and Erith Level in the county of Kent, or to the magazines or warehouſes erected near Liverpool in the county of Lancaſter.

That the juſtices for each county, riding, or diviſion in England, ſhould, at their reſpective general quarter-ſeſſions, upon application made to them for that purpoſe, appoint proper and convenient plots of ground, at the diſtance of two

miles from any city or market-town, not exceeding two acres in any one place, with the uſe of convenient roads leading thereto, for erecting warehouſes for keeping gunpowder in any quantity, firſt agreeing with the proprietors of the ſaid grounds for the ſame; and if any ſuch proprietors ſhould refuſe or neglect to agree, or by reaſon of any impediment could not ſo agree, the ſaid juſtices, at their general quarter-ſeſſions, ſhould iſſue their warrant to the ſheriff of that county to impannel and return a jury at that time and place appointed, who ſhould upon oath enquire into the value of the ſaid ground, with the uſe of convenient roads leading thereto; and all ſuch verdicts and inquiſitions ſhould be kept with the records of the ſaid ſeſſions, and ſhould be concluſive to all parties; and the ſaid juſtices were impowered to ſend for perſons intereſted, and examine parties or witneſſes upon oath; and the ſum to be aſſeſſed as aforeſaid, not exceeding 30 years purchaſe, ſhould be paid to the proprietors of the ſaid ground, according to their reſpective intereſts therein, to be adjudged by the ſaid juſtices; and upon ſuch payment, or in caſe of refuſal to accept the ſame, then, upon leaving the ſame with the reſpective juſtices for the benefit of ſuch proprietors, the inheritance of the ſaid ground, and the uſe of the roads leading thereto, ſhould be veſted in the purchaſers and their aſſigns, for the purpoſes aforeſaid, and not otherwiſe; and the warehouſes which ſhould be erected thereon, ſhould be built in ſuch manner as would moſt effectually render them ſafe and ſecure.

That no penalty or forfeiture ſhould be incurred upon account of a greater quantity than 30 C. weight of gunpowder being kept within any warehouſe or magazine already built for that purpoſe, unleſs the juſtices at their quarter-ſeſſions ſhould, upon complaint thereof, by two or more of the inhabitants of, or near that place, adjudge the ſame to be dangerous, and until the expiration of ſix months next after ſuch adjudication; and provided the ſame was not ſituated in any city, or the ſuburbs thereof, or in any market-town, or within 100 yards diſtance thereof, or within two miles of any of the King's palaces or houſes of reſidence, or within one mile of any of the King's magazines for the keeping gun-powder.

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GUNTER's *Scale*, alſo called by navigators the *Gunter*, is a large, plain ſcale, with divers lines thereon, of great uſe in working queſtions in navigation. On one ſide of the ſcale, are the line of numbers; the line of artificial ſines, marked ſines; the line of artificial tangents, marked tangents; the line of artificial verſed ſines, the artificial ſines of the rhumbs, the artificial tangents of the rhumbs, the meridian line in Mercator's chart, and equal parts. To which, on the ſhorter ſcales of a foot long, are uſually added lines of latitudes, hours, and inclinations of meridians. On the backſide of the ſcale are the lines uſually found on a plain ſcale. The lines of artificial ſines, tangents, and numbers, are ſo fitted on this ſcale, that, by means of a pair of compaſſes, any problem, whether in right-lined or ſpherical trigonometry, may be ſolved very expeditiouſly with tolerable exactneſs; whence the inſtrument becomes extremely uſeful in all parts of mathematics where trigonometry is concerned, as navigation, dialling, and aſtronomy.

The ſame lines are alſo occaſionally laid down on rulers to ſlide by each other; hence called *ſliding gunters*, ſo as to be uſed without compaſſes.

GUPPAS. A weight uſed in ſome towns of the ſtraights of Malacca, particularly at Queda; 4 make the quantas, and 16 quantas the hali or nali, and 15 hali the bahar of 450 lb. avoirdupoiſe weight.

GUR. A white cotton cloth, brought from the East Indies; the length 14 ells, and breadth 7 or 8.

GURAES. Bengal painted callicoes of 36 cobres in length, and 2 in breadth, the cobre being 17½ inches; of which the Engliſh of Madras ſend great quantities to the Manillas.

Gum GUTTA. See *Gamboge*.

GYNÆCEUM, among the antients, the apartments of the women, or a ſeparate place in the inner part of the houſe where the women kept themſelves retired, employed in ſpinning, out of ſight of the men. Under the Roman Emperors there was a particular eſtabliſhment of gynæcea, being a kind of manufactories managed chiefly by women for the making of cloths, and furniture for the Emperor's houſhold. Mention is made of theſe gynæcea in the Theodoſian and Juſtinian code, and ſeveral other authors. In imitation whereof, divers of the modern manufactories, particularly thoſe of ſilk, where a number of women and maids are aſſociated and formed into a body, are called gynæcea.

GYPSUM. A fibrous, talky kind of ſtone, found in quarries; which being burnt and diluted, or wrought up with water, ſerves to make what is called parget, or plaiſter of Paris.

GYPSUM, or *Gypſe*, is alſo uſed for a coarſe ſort of talk, a ſhining tranſparent ſtone, chiefly found in the quarries of Montmartre near Paris, among the plaiſter-ſtone. The generality confound this with the former, on account of its conformity with the Latin gypſum; but happily enough, as the French gyp, or gypſe, is not for the making of plaiſter.

This ſtone being calcined in a kiln, beaten into meal and ſifted, then mixed up with gum, ſize-water, and colours, ſerves to counterfeit marble; which it does to a perfection, that both the eye and touch may be deceived

H.

HAG

HAAM. See *Awm.*

HABERDASHER. The name of a trader in various ſmall wares or goods; as ſilk, thread, tape, ribbands, needles, pins, and other articles; particularly buckram, wadding, hair-cloths, buttons, mohair, and binding, for taylors: but the name is alſo ſometimes uſed for a ſeller of hats.

HABERDASHERS *company of London*, antiently was indifferently called hurrers and milliners; the latter from the merchandiſes they chiefly dealt in, which came from the city of Milan in Italy. But they were incorporated, by letters-patent of the 26th of Henry VI. in 1407, by the ſtyle of The fraternity of St. Catharine the Virgin, of the haberdaſhers of the city of London; though at preſent they are denominated The maſter and 4 wardens of the fraternity of the art or myſtery of haberdaſhers in the city of London.

This corporation is governed by a maſter, 4 wardens, and 93 aſſiſtants, with a livery of 342 members, who, upon their admiſſion, pay each a fine of 25 l. They have a ſtately hall in Maiden-lane to diſpatch their affairs in; and they are poſſeſſed of a great eſtate; out of which, according to the generous benefactions of ſeveral donors, they annually pay to charitable uſes about 3500 l.

HABERDINE. An ordinary ſort of cod-fiſh, which is fit for ſalting, particularly in Scotland.

HACHA. A port-town of Terra Firma, in South America, ſituated in 72 deg. of W. lon. and 11 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the north ſea, at the mouth of the river Hacha, 240 miles eaſt of Carthagena. The galleons firſt touch here on their arrival in South America; of which expreſſes are immediately ſent to all their ſettlements, to prepare the treaſure to be carried to Europe.

HADDOCK. A ſort of fiſh, eaten freſh, or ſalted for long keeping, ſomething like a cod, but not ſo good in kind, nor ſo large in form.

HADERSLEBAN. A port-town of Sleſwick, or South Jutland, ſituated in 10 deg. of E. lon. and 55 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. near the ſea called the Little Belt, 32 miles S. E. of Rypen, ſubject to Denmark.

HÆMATITES, in natural hiſtory, the blood-ſtone; a kind of ruddy mineral, in form of a ſtone: thus called, either on account of its reſembling dry, curdled ſtone, or of the faculty it has of ſtanching blood.

Pliny reckons five kinds; the Ethiopic, the androdamas or black, the arabic, the elatites or miltites, and the ſchiſtos; beſides that commonly called the magnes hæmatites, from the property it has of attracting iron.

The five ſorts differ chiefly in point of hardneſs; the beſt, according to Dioſcorides, is that which is friable, hard, black, and ſmooth, without either gritty parts or veins.

That commonly uſed by the painters is factitious, being made of Armenian bole, and other drugs; but the native, or foſſil kind, comes from Egypt and Bohemia; which has ſeveral uſes in medicine, being held cooling and aſtringent; in which quality it is preſcribed in hæmorrhages, and given in ſubſtance, in form of fine powder; though the gilders alſo uſe it for burniſhers, to poliſh their gold.

HAERLEM. A large populous city of the United Provinces, in the province of Holland, ſituated in 4 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. of N. lat. 4 miles eaſt of the ſea, and 12 weſt of Amſterdam, near the lake, which, from this town, is called Haerlem Meer. They have large manufactories of ſilk, velvet, and linen here, as alſo of thread and tapes. See *United* Provinces.

HAGUE, or *Graven Hague*; that is, *the Earl's Hague*; a place of the United Provinces, in the province of Holland, ſituated in 4 deg. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 10 min. of

HAI

N. lat. 2 miles E. of the ſea, 14 N. W. of Rotterdam, and 9 S. W. of Leyden; encompaſſed with fine meadows and groves, but no walls, and therefore eſteemed a village; though it enjoys all the privileges of a city, except that of ſending repreſentatives to the ſtates. See *United* Provinces.

HAFTER. A perſon whoſe trade is to make hafts, or handles, for all kinds of inſtruments, of ivory, horn, wood, gold, or ſilver.

HAIL, among ſailors, is to call a ſhip at a diſtance.

HAINAN, or *Aynan*. An iſland of China, ſituated between 107 and 110 deg. of E. lon. and between 18 and 20 deg. of N. lat. about 50 miles S. of the continent of China. See *Chineſe* iſlands.

HAINE. A river of the Auſtrian Netherlands, which runs through the province of Hainault from E. to W. paſſing by Mons and St. Ghilian, and falling into the Scheld at Conde.

HAIR. Thoſe ſmall fine threads that grow out of the ſkin of human creatures, and moſt four-footed animals; but it is frequently called ſhag and wool upon the latter.

Human hair makes a very conſiderable article in commerce, eſpecially ſince perukes have been in faſhion.

The hair of the growth of the northern countries, as alſo of England, Scotland, and Ireland, is valued much beyond that of the more ſouthern ones, as Italy, Spain, and the more ſouth parts of France.

The merits of good hair conſiſt in its being well fed, and neither too coarſe, nor too ſlender; the bigneſs rendering it leſs ſuſceptible of the artificial curl, and diſpoſing it rather to frizzle; and the ſmallneſs making its curl of too ſhort duration. Its length ſhould be of about 25 inches; for the more it falls ſhort of this, the leſs value it bears.

There is no certain value of hair; but it is ſold from 5 s. to 5 l. an ounce, according to its quality; the white being moſt coveted, then the grey, and ſo on, as it grows darker.

The ſcarceneſs of grey and white hair has put the dealers in that commodity upon a method of reducing other colours thereto; which is done by ſpreading the hair to bleach on the graſs, like linen, and afterwards waſhing it out in a lixivious water; which lye, with the force of the ſun and air, brings the hair to ſo perfect a whiteneſs, that the moſt experienced perſon may be deceived therein, there being ſcarce any way of detecting the artifice, but by boiling and drying it; whereby the hair is left of the colour of a dead walnut-tree leaf.

There is alſo a method of dying hair with biſmuth, which renders ſuch white hair as borders too much upon the yellow, of a bright ſilver colour; and boiling is alſo the proof of this, the biſmuth not being able to ſtand it.

Hair which does not curl or buckle naturally, is brought to it by art; by firſt boiling, and then baking it, in the following manner. After having picked and ſorted the hair, and diſpoſed it in parcels, according to the lengths; they roll them up, and tie them tight down, upon little cylindrical inſtruments, either of wood or earthen ware, a quarter of an inch thick, and hollowed a little in the middle; in which ſtate they are put in a pot over the fire, there to boil for about two hours. When taken out, they are let to dry, and when dry ſpread on a ſheet of brown paper, covered with another, and thus ſent to the baker; who making a cruſt, or coffin, around them of common paſte, ſets them in the oven, till the cruſt is about three fourths baked.

The end by which an hair grew to the head, is called the head of the hair; and the other, with which they begin to give the buckle, the point. Formerly the peruke-makers

miles from any city or market-town, not exceeding two acres in any one place, with the uſe of convenient roads leading thereto, for erecting warehouſes for keeping gunpowder in any quantity, firſt agreeing with the proprietors of the ſaid grounds for the ſame; and if any ſuch proprietors ſhould refuſe or neglect to agree, or by reaſon of any impediment could not ſo agree, the ſaid juſtices, at their general quarter-ſeſſions, ſhould iſſue their warrant to the ſheriff of that county to impannel and return a jury at that time and place appointed, who ſhould upon oath enquire into the value of the ſaid ground, with the uſe of convenient roads leading thereto; and all ſuch verdicts and inquiſitions ſhould be kept with the records of the ſaid ſeſſions, and ſhould be concluſive to all parties; and the ſaid juſtices were impowered to ſend for perſons intereſted, and examine parties or witneſſes upon oath; and the ſum to be aſſeſſed as aforeſaid, not exceeding 30 years purchaſe, ſhould be paid to the proprietors of the ſaid ground, according to their reſpective intereſts therein, to be adjudged by the ſaid juſtices; and upon ſuch payment, or in caſe of refuſal to accept the ſame, then, upon leaving the ſame with the reſpective juſtices for the benefit of ſuch proprietors, the inheritance of the ſaid ground, and the uſe of the roads leading thereto, ſhould be veſted in the purchaſers and their aſſigns, for the purpoſes aforeſaid, and not otherwiſe; and the warehouſes which ſhould be erected thereon, ſhould be built in ſuch manner as would moſt effectually render them ſafe and ſecure.

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GUNTER's *Line*, called alſo *Line of lines*, and *Line of number*, is a graduated line, actually placed on ſcales, rules, and ſectors; being only the logarithms transferred upon a ruler from the tables, ſo as to anſwer much the ſame purpoſes inſtrumentally, as the logarithms themſelves do arithmetically; for what the logarithms do by addition and ſubſtraction, is done in this line by turning a pair of compaſſes this way and that.

GUNTER's *Quadrant*, is a quadrant made of wood, braſs, or the like; being a kind of ſtereographic projection on the plane of the equinoctial, the eye ſuppoſed in one of the poles: ſo that the tropic, ecliptic, and horizon, are arches of circles, but the hour-circles all curves, drawn by means of ſeveral altitudes of the ſun, for ſome particular latitude every day in the year; the uſe of this inſtrument being to find the hour of the day, the ſun's azimuth, and other common problems of the globe, as alſo to take the altitude of an object in degrees.

GUNTER's *Scale*, alſo called by navigators the *Gunter*, is a large, plain ſcale, with divers lines thereon, of great uſe in working queſtions in navigation. On one ſide of the ſcale, are the line of numbers; the line of artificial ſines, marked ſines; the line of artificial tangents, marked tangents; the line of artificial verſed ſines, the artificial ſines of the rhumbs, the artificial tangents of the rhumbs, the meridian line in Mercator's chart, and equal parts. To which, on the ſhorter ſcales of a foot long, are uſually added lines of latitudes, hours, and inclinations of meridians. On the backſide of the ſcale are the lines uſually found on a plain ſcale. The lines of artificial ſines, tangents, and numbers, are ſo fitted on this ſcale, that, by means of a pair of compaſſes, any problem, whether in right-lined or ſpherical trigonometry, may be ſolved very expeditiouſly with tolerable exactneſs; whence the inſtrument becomes extremely uſeful in all parts of mathematics where trigonometry is concerned, as navigation, dialling, and aſtronomy.

The ſame lines are alſo occaſionally laid down on rulers to ſlide by each other; hence called *ſliding gunters*, ſo as to be uſed without compaſſes.

GUPPAS. A weight uſed in ſome towns of the ſtraights of Malacca, particularly at Queda; 4 make the quanta, and 16 quantas the hali or nali, and 15 hali the bahar of 450 lb. avoirdupoiſe weight.

GUR. A white cotton cloth, brought from the East Indies; the length 14 ells, and breadth 7 or 8.

GURAES. Bengal painted callicoes of 36 cobres in length and 2 in breadth, the cobre being 17½ inches; of which the Engliſh of Madras ſend great quantities to the Manillas.

Gum GUTTA. See *Gamboge*.

GYNÆCEUM, among the antients, the apartments of the women, or a ſeparate place in the inner part of the houſe where the women kept themſelves retired, employed in ſpinning, out of ſight of the men. Under the Roman Emperors there was a particular eſtabliſhment of gynæcea, being a kind of manufactories managed chiefly by women for the making of cloths, and furniture for the Emperor's houſhold. Mention is made of theſe gynæcea in the Theodoſian and Juſtinian code, and ſeveral other authors. In imitation whereof, divers of the modern manufactories, particularly thoſe of ſilk, where a number of women and maids are aſſociated and formed into a body, are called gynæcea.

GYPSUM. A fibrous, talky kind of ſtone, found in quarries; which being burnt and diluted, or wrought up with water, ſerves to make what is called parget, or plaiſter of Paris.

GYPSUM, or *Gypſe*, is alſo uſed for a coarſe ſort of talk, a ſhining tranſparent ſtone, chiefly found in the quarries of Montmartre near Paris, among the plaiſter-ſtone. The generality confound this with the former, on account of its conformity with the Latin gypſum; but unhappily enough, as the French gyp, or gypſe, is not for the making of plaiſter.

This ſtone being calcined in a kiln, beaten into meal and ſifted, then mixed up with gum, ſize-water, and colours, ſerves to counterfeit marble; which it does to a perfection, that both the eye and touch may be deceived

H.

HAG

HAAM. See *Awm.*

HABERDASHER. The name of a trader in various ſmall wares or goods; as ſilk, thread, tape, ribbands, needles, pins, and other articles; particularly buckram, wadding, hair-cloths, buttons, mohair, and binding, for taylors: but the name is alſo ſometimes uſed for a ſeller of hats.

HABERDASHERS *company of London*, antiently was indifferently called hurrers and milliners; the latter from the merchandiſes they chiefly dealt in, which came from the city of Milan in Italy. But they were incorporated, by letters-patent of the 26th of Henry VI. in 1407, by the ſtyle of The fraternity of St. Catharine the Virgin, of the haberdaſhers of the city of London; though at preſent they are denominated The maſter and 4 wardens of the fraternity of the art or myſtery of haberdaſhers in the city of London.

This corporation is governed by a maſter, 4 wardens, and 93 aſſiſtants, with a livery of 342 members, who, upon their admiſſion, pay each a fine of 25 l. They have a ſtately hall in Maiden-lane to diſpatch their affairs in; and they are poſſeſſed of a great eſtate; out of which, according to the generous benefactions of ſeveral donors, they annually pay to charitable uſes about 3500 l.

HABERDINE. An ordinary ſort of cod-fiſh, which is fit for ſalting, particularly in Scotland.

HACHA. A port-town of Terra Firma, in South America, ſituated in 72 deg. of W. lon. and 11 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the north ſea, at the mouth of the river Hacha, 240 miles eaſt of Carthagena. The galleons firſt touch here on their arrival in South America; of which expreſſes are immediately ſent to all their ſettlements, to prepare the treaſure to be carried to Europe.

HADDOCK. A ſort of fiſh, eaten freſh, or ſalted for long keeping, ſomething like a cod, but not ſo good in kind, nor ſo large in form.

HADERSLEBAN. A port-town of Sleſwick, or South Jutland, ſituated in 10 deg. of E. lon. and 55 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. near the ſea called the Little Belt, 32 miles S. E. of Rypen, ſubject to Denmark.

HÆMATITES, in natural hiſtory, the blood-ſtone; a kind of ruddy mineral, in form of a ſtone: thus called, either on account of its reſembling dry, curdled ſtone, or of the faculty it has of ſtanching blood.

Pliny reckons five kinds; the Ethiopic, the androdamas or black, the arabic, the elatites or miltites, and the ſchiſtos; beſides that commonly called the magnes hæmatites, from the property it has of attracting iron.

The five ſorts differ chiefly in point of hardneſs; the beſt, according to Dioſcorides, is that which is friable, hard, black, and ſmooth, without either gritty parts or veins.

That commonly uſed by the painters is factitious, being made of Armenian bole, and other drugs; but the native, or foſſil kind, comes from Egypt and Bohemia; which has ſeveral uſes in medicine, being held cooling and aſtringent; in which quality it is preſcribed in hæmorrhages, and given in ſubſtance, in form of fine powder; though the gilders alſo uſe it for burniſhers, to poliſh their gold.

HAERLEM. A large populous city of the United Provinces, in the province of Holland, ſituated in 4 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. of N. lat. 4 miles eaſt of the ſea, and 12 weſt of Amſterdam, near the lake, which, from this town, is called Haerlem Meer. They have large manufactories of ſilk, velvet, and linen here, as alſo of thread and tapes. See *United* Provinces.

HAGUE, or *Graven Hague*; that is, *the Earl's Hague*; a place of the United Provinces, in the province of Holland, ſituated in 4 deg. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 10 min. of

HAI

N. lat. 2 miles E. of the ſea, 14 N. W. of Rotterdam, and 9 S. W. of Leyden; encompaſſed with fine meadows and groves, but no walls, and therefore eſteemed a village; though it enjoys all the privileges of a city, except that of ſending repreſentatives to the ſtates. See *United* Provinces.

HAFTER. A perſon whoſe trade is to make hafts, or handles, for all kinds of inſtruments, of ivory, horn, wood, gold, or ſilver.

HAIL, among ſailors, is to call a ſhip at a diſtance.

HAINAN, or *Aynan*. An iſland of China, ſituated between 107 and 110 deg. of E. lon. and between 18 and 20 deg. of N. lat. about 50 miles S. of the continent of China. See *Chineſe* iſlands.

HAINE. A river of the Auſtrian Netherlands, which runs through the province of Hainault from E. to W. paſſing by Mons and St. Ghilian, and falling into the Scheld at Conde.

HAIR. Thoſe ſmall fine threads that grow out of the ſkin of human creatures, and moſt four-footed animals; but it is frequently called ſhag and wool upon the latter. Human hair makes a very conſiderable article in commerce, eſpecially ſince perukes have been in faſhion.

The hair of the growth of the northern countries, as alſo of England, Scotland, and Ireland, is valued much beyond that of the more ſouthern ones, as Italy, Spain, and the more ſouth parts of France.

The merits of good hair conſiſt in its being well fed, and neither too coarſe, nor too ſlender; the bigneſs rendering it leſs ſuſceptible of the artificial curl, and diſpoſing it rather to frizzle; and the ſmallneſs making its curl of too ſhort duration. Its length ſhould be of about 25 inches; for the more it falls ſhort of this, the leſs value it bears.

There is no certain value of hair; but it is ſold from 5 s. to 5 l. an ounce, according to its quality; the white being moſt coveted, then the grey, and ſo on, as it grows darker.

The ſcarceneſs of grey and white hair has put the dealers in that commodity upon a method of reducing other colours thereto; which is done by ſpreading the hair to bleach on the graſs, like linen, and afterwards waſhing it out in a lixivious water; which lye, with the force of the ſun and air, brings the hair to ſo perfect a whiteneſs, that the moſt experienced perſon may be deceived therein, there being ſcarce any way of detecting the artifice, but by boiling and drying it; whereby the hair is left of the colour of a dead walnut-tree leaf.

There is alſo a method of dying hair with biſmuth, which renders ſuch white hair as borders too much upon the yellow, of a bright ſilver colour; and boiling is alſo the proof of this, the biſmuth not being able to ſtand it.

Hair which does not curl or buckle naturally, is brought to it by art; by firſt boiling, and then baking it, in the following manner. After having picked and ſorted the hair, and diſpoſed it in parcels, according to the lengths; they roll them up, and tie them tight down, upon little cylindrical inſtruments, either of wood or earthen ware, a quarter of an inch thick, and hollowed a little in the middle; in which ſtate they are put in a pot over the fire, there to boil for about two hours. When taken out, they are let to dry, and when dry ſpread on a ſheet of brown paper, covered with another, and thus ſent to the baker; who making a cruſt, or coffin, around them of common paſte, ſets them in the oven, till the cruſt is about three fourths baked.

The end by which an hair grew to the head, is called the head of the hair; and the other, with which they begin to give the buckle, the point. Formerly the peruke-makers

ruke-makers made no difference between the two ends, but curled and wove them by either indifferently, which made them unable to give a fine buckle; hair wove by the point never taking a right curl. Foreigners own themſelves obliged to the Engliſh for this diſcovery; which was firſt carried abroad by an Engliſh peruke-maker.

There are a great many frauds in the hair-trade, human hair being frequently adulterated with the hair of camels, goats, and horſes. Great quantities of hairs are imported into Great Britain from France and Spain, worth about 6 l. *per* pound, beſides the duty in France, which is 6 *per cent.* of the value. The duty on importation into Great Britain, is 4 s. *per* pound: but theſe dealers have uſually entered it from Dunkirk as a Flemiſh commodity; whereby it only pays 1 s. 6 d. *per* pound, beſides the new additional duty of 5 *per cent.* on dry goods; whereby the Britiſh government has loſt 18,000 l. at leaſt, from the year 1713 to 1750.

HAIR is alſo uſed in divers arts and manufactories; the hair of beavers, hares, and conies, being the principal matter whereof hats are made.

The hair of cattle ſpread on the ground, and left to putrify on corn-lands, like other animal ſubſtances, ſuch as horns, hoofs, blood, and garbage, proves a good manure; and it alſo makes an ingredient in the compoſition of plaiſter.

HAIR-*Merchant.* A perſon who furniſhes the peruke-makers with hair, ready picked, dreſſed, and curled, fit for weaving. He buys the hair of pedlars and others who go up and down the country of England to procure it; and there are ſome who import great quantities from abroad.

HAIRS-*Breadth*, is accounted the 48th part of an inch. See *Meaſure.*

HAIR-*Lace.* See *Lace.*

HALABAS. A city of the Hither India, in Aſia, capital of the province of Halabas, ſituated in 83 deg. of E. lon. and 26 deg. 35 min. of N. lat. at the conflux of the rivers Ganges and Jemma, 200 miles eaſt of Agra, ſubject to the Mogul.

HALE, in the ſea-language, ſignifies to pull; hence, to hale a ſhip, ſignifies to pull her on ſhore.

HALF-*Bloom.* A round maſs of metal, which comes out of the finery of an iron work.

HALF-*Penny.* An Engliſh copper coin, whoſe value is expreſſed by its name. See *Penny.*

HALF-*Seal*, is that uſed in chancery for the ſealing of commiſſions to delegates, upon any appeal in marine caſes, and ſuch like. See *Delegate.*

HALI, or *Nali.* A weight uſed at Queda, a conſiderable town of the ſtraight of Malacca in the Eaſt Indies; 15 of which make one bahar of 450 lb. avoirdupoiſe weight.

HALL, is a public building, erected for the adminiſtration of the policy and juſtice of a city or corporation; in which ſenſe it is called the town-hall, a company's hall, and the like: thus Guild-hall is a ſtately building in the city of London, and the great court of judicature for that city, where meetings of the citizens are held for the election of officers, and for ſolemn entertainments.

HALLAGE. A fee due for cloth brought for ſale to Blackwell-hall in London; but the word is alſo uſed for toll, paid to the lord of a fair, or market, for commodities ſold in the common hall of the place.

HALLEIN. A town of Germany, in the circle of Bavaria, and archbiſhopric of Saltzburg, ſituated in 13 deg. 6 min. of E. lon. and 47 deg. 36 min. of N. lat. on the river Saltza, 8 miles ſouth of Saltzburg, where there are great ſalt works.

HALLIARDS. The ſea-term for thoſe ropes by which all the ropes of a great ſhip are hoiſted up, except the croſs-jack, and the ſprit-ſail-yard, which are always ſlung.

HALMSTAT. A port-town of Gothland in Sweden, ſituated in 13 deg. 5 min. of E. lon. and 36 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. on the coaſt of the province of Halland, in the Categate ſea, 80 miles S. of Gottenberg.

HALSER. See *Hawſer.*

HALSTER. A corn meaſure uſed at Louvain, Ghent, and in ſome other parts of the Low Countries; 12 halſters make 1 muid, and 4 muids 7 halſters are about 10½ quarters of London meaſure.

HAM, in commerce, is uſed for a leg and thigh of pork, dried, ſeaſoned, and prepared to make it keep, and give it a briſk, agreeable flavour.

Weſtphalia hams, ſo much in vogue, are prepared by ſalting them with ſaltpetre, preſſing them in a preſs eight or ten days, keeping them in juniper-water, and drying them by the ſmoke of juniper-wood. However, Portugal, Flanders, and Hamburg, furniſh an abundance of hams cut after the manner of thoſe from Weſtphalia.

HAMANS. White, very fine, and cloſe cotton cloths, brought from the Eaſt Indies, particularly from Bengal, whoſe pieces are uſually 9 ells and a half in length, and one ell in breadth.

HAMBURG, called ſometimes *Ramburg*, a German term for a ſort of caſk for containing pickled ſalmon, weighing uſually from 300 to 350 lb. 6 hamburgs being computed to make 8 barrels, each containing 30 or 40 large ſalmons, and 80 or 100 ſmall ones.

HAMBURG. A great city, and port-town of Germany, upon the river Elbe, ſituated in 9 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 54 deg. of N. lat. in the circle of Lower Saxony, and duchy of Holſtein. See *Germany.*

HAMBURG *Company.* See *North* companies.

Bank of HAMBURG. See *Bank.*

HAMMER. A town of Norway. See *Denmark.*

HAMMER. An inſtrument of iron, with a handle of wood, uſed in moſt mechanic arts, to beat, ſtretch, and drive. Bodies capable of being ſtretched, or extended under the hammer, are ſaid to be malleable: but when this act is performed on iron heated for the purpoſe, the ſmiths call it forging.

HAMMERING, in coining; a piece of money, or a medal, is ſaid to be hammered, when ſtruck, and the impreſſion given with a hammer, and not with a mill. See *Coinage.*

HAMMOCK. A ſwinging bed uſed by ſailors, and throughout all parts of America; being found ſo commodious by ſuch Europeans as are eſtabliſhed there, that they prefer them to the ordinary beds of their reſpective countries.

The hammocks eſteemed moſt are thoſe that come from the Brazils; which, on a journey, are ſuſpended from the branches of trees; and their weight, not exceeding 4 or 2 pounds, makes their carriage eaſy to travellers; being moſtly of cotton, and manufactured with ſuch ingenuity and variety by the women of the country, that of 100 brought from the ſame place, ſcarce one has the ſame deſign and faſhion.

HAMPSTEAD *Water-office.* See *Water* work companies.

HAMPTON. A port-town of New Hampſhire, in North America, ſituated in 70 deg. of W. lon. and 42 deg. 35 min. of N. lat. 40 miles north of Boſton, ſubject to Great Britain.

HAN. A kind of caravanſera met with in ſome parts of the Levant, where travellers and merchants may retire with their equipage: the difference of the han and caravanſera conſiſting in ſize; the latter having many, and the former but few apartments.

HANCES, or *Hanſes*, in a ſhip, are falls, or deſcents of the fife rails, which are placed as baniſters in the poop and down to the gang-way.

HAND-BREADTH is ſometimes uſed for a meaſure of four inches.

HAND, or *Handful*, is alſo a meaſure of four inches, by the ſtandard, according to the ſtatute of the 33d of Hen. VIII. The hand, among jockeys, is four fingers breadth, by which the height of horſes is meaſured.

HANDICRAFT. Any trade that is wrought or performed by the hand.

HAND-*in-hand Fire-office.* See *Inſurance.*

HAND *Mill.* See *Mill.*

HANDSPECK, or *Spike.* A ſmall lever to move heavy bodies with; eſpecially to wind up the cable in ſhips, and to hoiſt the anchor.

HANGINGS. Linings for rooms, made of arras, tapeſtry, or the like. See *Tapeſtry.*

HANK. A ſkain of ſilk, thread, or worſted.

ANOVER. A city of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and duchy of Brunſwick, ſituated in 9 deg. 45 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 32 min. of N. lat. capital of the dominions belonging to his Britannic Majeſty in Germany. See *Germany*.

ANSE, or *Hans*. An antient name for a ſociety, or company of merchants.

ANSE *towns*. Certain free towns of Germany, and the north, united in a ſtrict league, for the better carrying on of commerce.

They were formerly reputed to be 72 in number, comprehending all the important towns for commerce, not only in Germany, where this aſſociation began, but alſo throughout the reſt of Europe; as, among others, Marſeilles, Calais, Bourdeaux, St. Malo, Rouen, and Bayonne, for France; Liſbon, Cadiz, Seville, and Barcelona, for Spain and Portugal; London, for England; Leghorn, Meſſina, and Naples, for Italy; laſtly, Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Antwerp, Dort, and Dunkirk, for that part of Lower Germany afterwards called the Netherlands.

It is not well known why the name of hanſe was given to this aſſociation. Some think it derived from an old French term ſignifying formerly ſociety or company; others from the German *a en-zée ſteden*, that is, towns on the ſea; and afterwards, by way of abbreviation, *hanſée*. The time of the aſſociation of the hanſe towns is as uncertain as the origin of their name; ſome fixing it in 1164, and others not till 1254.

The confederacy of ſo many cities depending on different ſovereigns, who had often different intereſts, and who were not always at peace with each other, ſubſiſted not long in its firſt extent; being reduced towards the end of the 16th century, to what was afterwards called the *Teutonic hanſe*, that is, the aſſociation of the Germanic cities, whereof Lubeck, Brunſwick, Cologn, and Dantzic, were, after the ſeparation of the others, the four principal cities. During the greateſt reputation of this hanſe or ſociety, it not only made treaties of alliance with ſeveral ſovereigns, as that of 1370 with the King of Denmark; but alſo frequently armed conſiderable fleets, and raiſed troops for ſeveral enterprizes, particularly for maintaining the privileges and liberty of its commerce; for in 1428 they made war againſt Eric King of Denmark, with a fleet of 250 ſhips, manned with 12,000 men.

The principal factories of theſe towns were thoſe of London; Bruges, which was afterwards transferred to Antwerp; Bergen in Norway, and Novogrod in Ruſſia; but the chief of all was Lubeck.

The factories of the hanſe towns eſtabliſhed in foreign countries, were directed by a principal merchant, who had under him a ſecretary; and this merchant was a kind of conſul, who paſſed judgment upon the differences among the merchants of the aſſociation, an appeal from whom was to be finally decided by the magiſtrates of the aſſociated cities.

This privilege, called liberty of court, and which took away from the juriſdiction of the judges of places the cognizance of the affairs of theſe ſtrangers, was what moſt contributed to break the confederacy; ſovereigns being unwilling to ſuffer in the principal towns of their ſtates an independency which might be attended with bad conſequences.

The remaining part of the hanſe towns preſerve this privilege ſtill among themſelves; but it is of no conſequence in the preſent ſituation of the Teutonic hanſe, which, under a grand name, enjoys ſcarce any of the privileges of the antient confederacy.

However, Hamburg, Lubeck, Bremen, and Dantzic, have maintained themſelves in the liberty of their commerce, and in ſeveral conſiderable privileges, which they not only obtained from the maritime powers, but were careful to get confirmed from time to time by new treaties; though now each town carries on a trade ſeparately for itſelf.

RAM. A name given by the inhabitants of Madagaſcar to the tree productive of the medicinal gum, called by druggiſts tacamacha. See *Tacamacha*.

RBOROUGH, or *Harburg*. A port-town of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, ſituated in 9 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 53 deg. 57 min. of N. lat. on the ſouth-ſide of the river Elbe, oppoſite to Hamburg. See *Germany*.

HARBOROUGH *Company*. See *North* companies.

HARBOUR. A ſea-port, or ſtation, where ſhips may ride ſafe at anchor; the word being chiefly applied to thoſe cloſed, or ſecured with a boom or chain, and that are furniſhed with a mole. See *Port*.

HARDENING. The act of communicating a greater degree of hardneſs to a body than it had before: the hardening and tempering of iron and ſteel making a conſiderable article in the mechanical arts.

HARDERWICK. A town of the United Provinces, in the province of Guelderland, ſituated in 5 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 35 min. of N. lat. on the Zuider ſea, 23 miles N. W. of Zutphen.

HARDS, or *Hurds*, of flax, or hemp, denote the coarſer parts, ſeparated in the dreſſing of it, from the tear, or fine ſtuff. See *Flax*, and *Hemp*.

HARD-*ware*, is a general term of trade, comprehending an infinity of different kinds of merchandiſe, of wrought ſteel, iron, braſs, and copper; of which there are conſiderable manufactures at St. Stephen's in Forez, and Tiers in Auvergne in France; the biſhopric of Liege, Aix-la-Chapelle, Nuremberg, and in ſeveral other parts of Germany; as alſo at Saliſbury, Sheffield, Birmingham, Wolverhampton, Walſal, and other places in England. The Engliſh hard-ware is reputed the fineſt, niceſt, and beſt in Europe; which the French, who are riſing in this branch of manufacture, have prohibited to be imported into their dominions.

HARLINGEN. A port-town of the United Netherlands, in the province of Weſt Frieſland, ſituated in 5 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 53 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. on the German ſea, 14 miles W. of Lewarden.

HARNESS, is uſed for the furniture put on a horſe, to draw in a coach, waggon, cart, or other carriages; ſuch as collars, leathers, traces, and the like; as alſo for corſlets, curates, and morions, uſed as armour; which are prohibited to be imported into Great Britain.

HARP. A muſical inſtrument, of the ſtring kind, being of a triangular figure.

Jews-HARP. See *Jews*-harp.

HARPINEER, or *Harpooneer*. An engineer, or fiſherman, who manages and throws the harping-iron. See Whale-*Fiſhery*.

HARPING-*Iron*, or *Harpoon*. A ſort of dart or ſpear, faſtened to a line, wherewith fiſhermen catch whales, ſturgeons, and other large fiſh. This harping-iron is a large javelin of forged iron, five or ſix feet long, with a ſharp, cutting, triangular point, barbed like that of an arrow. At the upper end is engraven the harpineer's name, near a ring, to which the line is faſtened, which is let down as ſoon as the fiſh is ſtruck, to give him room to dive. See Whale-*Fiſhery*.

HARPINGS, in a ſhip, properly denotes her breadth at the bow: but the ends of the bends, which are faſtened into the ſtem, are ſometimes called harpings.

HARPSICHORD. A muſical inſtrument, of the ſtring kind, played after the manner of an organ.

HARQUEBUSS, in the ancient ſtatutes of England, called alſo *Arquebuſe*, *Haquebut*, or *Hagbut*, is a hand gun, or a fire-arm, of a proper length to be bore on the arm; being properly a fire-arm, of the ordinary length of a muſket, or fowling piece, cocked uſually with a wheel. Hawzelet preſcribes its legitimate length to be forty calibers; the weight of its ball one ounce ſeven eighths, and its charge of powder as much. There is alſo a larger kind, called *harquebuſs a croe*, much of the nature of blunderbuſſes, uſed in war, for the defence of places; being uſually reſted on ſomething when diſcharged.

The firſt time theſe inſtruments were ſeen, was in the imperial army of Bourbon, who drove Bonnevet out of the ſtate of Milan; which were ſo big and heavy as to require two men to carry them: but they are now little uſed, except in ſome caſtles, and by the French in ſome of their garriſons.

HARROW, in huſbandry, a drag made in a ſquare form, to break the clods of earth after ploughing, which con-

fiſts of ſeveral parts; 1ſt, the harrow bulls, which are the holes where the nails go in; 2d, the ſlots, which are the croſs pins; 3d, the harrow-tines, pins, or tuſhes, which are iron nails; 4th, the hook, being that which faſtens the horſe to them; 5th, the couples, when two harrows are tied together.

HARTLAND. A market-town of Devonſhire, ſituated in 4 deg. 45 min. of W. lon. and 51 deg. 9 min. of N. lat. near Briſtol channel; 25 miles W. of Barnſtaple; and gives name to a cape, called Hartland Point, at the entrance of Briſtol channel.

HARTS-HORN, or *Cornu Cervi*. See Harts-*Horn*.

HARWICH. A borough, and port-town of Eſſex, ſituated in 1 deg. 25 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 5 min. of N. lat. at the mouth of the river Maningtree, on the German ſea, 62 miles N. E. of London.

HASLEM. An iſland of Denmark, ſituated in 11 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 56 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. in the Categate ſea, at the entrance of the Baltic, north of the iſland of Zealand.

HAT. A covering for the head, wore by the men throughout the weſtern part of Europe; being chiefly made of hair and wool, worked, fulled, and faſhioned to the figure of the head; which are ſaid to be firſt ſeen about the year 1400, when they became of uſe for country wear and riding.

F. Daniel relates, that when Charles VII. of France made his public entry into Rouen in 1449, he had on a hat lined with red velvet, and ſurmounted with a plume, or tuft of feathers. He adds, that it is from this entry, at leaſt under this reign, that the uſe of hats and caps is to be dated, which thence forward began to take place of the chaperoons and hoods that had been worn before. In progreſs of time, from the laity, the clergy likewiſe took the habit; but it was looked on as a great abuſe, and ſeveral regulations were publiſhed, forbiding any prieſt, or religious perſon, to be abroad in a hat without cornets; and enjoining them to keep to the uſe of chaperoons, made of black cloth with decent cornets: if they were poor, they were at leaſt to have cornets faſtened to their hats, and this upon penalty of ſuſpenſion and excommunication. Indeed the uſe of hats is ſaid to have been of a longer ſtanding among the eccleſiaſtics of Britanny, by 200 years, and eſpecially among the canons: but theſe were no other than a kind of caps wore in colleges.

Hats make a very conſiderable article in commerce: the fineſt, and thoſe moſt valued, being made of the pure hair of an amphibious creature, called caſtor, or beaver, common in Canada, and other parts of North America; but they are alſo made of the hair, or wool, of ſeveral other animals; particularly the hare, coney, and camel; the proceſs of making being much the ſame in all. See *Caſtor*, *Camel*, and *Wool*.

Hats for women are made in various forms, and of various materials; ſuch as ſilk, ſtraw, ſhavings of wood, ivory, feathers, and horſe-hair.

By the ſtatute of the 8th of Elizabeth it was enacted, That no perſon ſhould make any hat of foreign ſtuff, unleſs ſuch perſon ſhould firſt have been apprentice, or covenant ſervant, to hat-making ſeven years; upon pain to forfeit all ſuch hats, and 5 l. for every month that he ſhould ſo continue. That no perſon ſhould make or ſell any cap, or other thing made of felt, but only hats; nor ſhould make or ſell any cap of woollen cloth not knit: and that no perſon ſhould dye black any cap with bark or ſwarf; but only with copperas and gall, or with woad and madder. See *Dying*.

By the 1ſt of James I. it was enacted, That no perſon ſhould ſet on work, in the art of hat or felt making, any perſon born out of his Majeſty's realms, upon pain to forfeit 5 l. for every month.

By the 5th of Geo. II. it was enacted, That no hats or felts ſhould be ſhipped in any of the Britiſh plantations; and no hats or felts ſhould be loaden upon any horſe or carriage to the intent to be exported out of the ſaid plantations. That all offenders againſt this act ſhould be ſubject to theſe penalties; the hats and felts to be forfeited, and the offenders to forfeit 500 l. and every maſter, mariner, porter, boatman, or other perſon, knowing ſuch offence, and aſſiſting therein, to forfeit 40 l. which forfeitures might be recovered in any court of record in Great Britain. That no perſon inhabiting in the plantations ſhould retain in the ſaid art of hat or felt making any Negro, upon pain to forfeit 5 l. for every month.

The manufacture of hats was formerly very conſiderable in France; but the Engliſh hats are now moſt in repute for the trade to Germany, Spain, Portugal, and Italy, where conſiderable quantities are exported.

HATTER, and HATTERS *Company of London*. See *Feltmaker*, and *Feltmakers* Company.

HATBAND-*maker*, is a perſon whoſe employment conſiſts in making bands, and buying linings for hats.

HATBAND-*makers company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 13th of Ch. I. dated the 12th of Dec. 1638, by the name of The maſter, wardens, aſſiſtants, and fellowſhip of the myſtery of hatband-makers of the city of London; which is a fraternity conſiſting of a maſter, two wardens, and twelve aſſiſtants; but without either hall or livery.

This company, during the wear of rich hatbands, was in a flouriſhing condition; but the ſame having been for many years in diſuſe, the trade is almoſt dwindled to nothing; inſomuch, that at preſent there are very few of the profeſſion.

HATCHES, in a ſhip, a ſort of trap-doors in the mid-ſhip or between the main-maſt and fore-maſt, through which goods of bulk are let down into the hold. Hence the

HATCHWAY, is that place where the hatches are.

HATCHES, are alſo flood-gates, ſet in a river, to ſtop the current of the water; this word being particularly uſed for certain dams, or mounds, made of rubbiſh, clay, or earth, to prevent the water that iſſues from the ſtream-works, and tin-waſhes in Cornwal, from running into the freſh rivers.

HATTOCK. A ſhock of corn, containing twelve ſheaves; but others make it only three ſheaves laid together.

HAVANA, or *Havannah*. A port-town, and capital of the iſland of Cuba, in America, ſituated in 84 deg. W. lon. and 23 deg. of N. lat. See *Spaniſh* America.

HAVEL. A river of Brandenburg, in Germany, which receives the river Spree, near Berlin; and, running by Brandenburg, turns N. and diſcharges itſelf into the Elb, a little below Havelburg.

HAVEN. A port, harbour, or proper place where ſhips may ride in ſecurity. See *Port*.

HAVERFORD-*weſt*. A port, and borough town of Pembrokeſhire, in South Wales, ſituated in 5 deg. of W. lon. and 51 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. 12 miles S. E. of St. David's.

HAVRE-DE-GRACE. A port-town of France, in the province of Normandy, ſituated in 10 min. of E. lon. and 49 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the Engliſh channel at the mouth of the river Seyne, 40 miles W. of Roan. See *France*.

HAUTBOY, or *Hoboy*. A ſort of muſical inſtrument of the wind kind, with a reed to blow or play upon it.

HAWKERS, anciently were fraudulent perſons, who went from place to place, buying and ſelling braſs, pewter, and other merchandiſe, which ought to be uttered in open market; but now they are perſons who utter wares by virtue of a licence from the commiſſioners appointed for that purpoſe by the government.

By the ſtatute of the 9th of William III. it was enacted, That there ſhould be paid to his Majeſty by every hawker, pedlar, petty-chapman, or other trading perſon, going from town to town, and to other mens houſes, or travelling either on foot or with horſes, or other carriage, carrying to ſell any goods, a duty of 4 l. for each horſe; and every perſon ſo travelling with a horſe, or other beaſt bearing or drawing burden, ſhould pay 4 l. for each horſe over and above.

That every perſon ſo travelling, upon receiving his licence, ſhould pay unto ſuch perſons as the commiſſioners of the treaſury ſhould appoint to be commiſſioners for licenſing hawkers, pedlars, and petty-chapmen, not exceeding three, or any perſon deputed by them, one moiety of the duty, and give ſecurity by bond, with one

be taken in his Majeſty's name, for the payment of e other moiety at the end of ſix months, unleſs the arty ſhould chuſe to pay down the other moiety; in hich caſe he ſhould be allowed 2 s. in the pound for rompt payment.

That if any ſuch perſon ſhould be found travelling without a licence, he ſhould forfeit 12 l. one moiety to the informer, and the other moiety to the poor of the pariſh; and if any perſon ſo trading, upon demand made by any uſtice, mayor, conſtable, or other officer of the peace, f any town corporate, or borough, where he ſhould ſo rade, ſhould refuſe to produce his licence, he ſhould forfeit 5 l. to the church-wardens of the pariſh for the uſe of he poor, and for non-payment ſhould ſuffer as a vagrant, nd be committed to the houſe of correction.

That the commiſſioners, or any two of them, might rant a licence to every hawker, and pedlar, for which icence there ſhould only be taken 1 s. unleſs ſuch perſon hould travel with horſe, or other beaſt, in which caſe here ſhould be paid 2 s. over and above the duties; and hat the commiſſioners ſhould keep a diſtinct accompt of he duties, and pay the money into his Majeſty's exchequer.

That if any perſon ſhould forge any licence, or travel with ſuch forged licence, ſuch perſon ſhould forfeit 50 l. nd ſhould be ſubject to ſuch other penalties as for forgery.

That this act ſhould not prohibit any perſon from ſelling acts of parliament, forms of prayer, proclamations, gazettes, licenſed almanacks, or other printed papers licenced; or any fiſh, fruits, or victuals; nor to hinder any maker of goods, within the kingdom, or their children, apprentices, agents, or ſervants, from carrying or ſelling the goods of their own making; nor any tinkers, coopers, glaziers, plumbers, harneſs-menders, or other perſons uſually trading in mending kettles, tubs, houſhold-goods, or harneſs, from going about and carrying materials for mending the ſame: and that nothing therein contained ſhould hinder any perſon from ſelling goods in any public mart, market, or fair.

Theſe duties were made perpetual, and part of the aggregate fund, by the 3d and 7th of Q. Anne, and the firſt of Geo. I.

By the ſtatute of the 3d of Queen Anne it was enacted, That every perſon, actually trading as a hawker, &c. who ſhould not upon demand have his licence ready, ſhould forfeit as if he had traded without a licence; and in caſe any perſon ſhould lend his licence, the perſon lending, and the perſon trading under colour of the ſame, ſhould each of them forfeit 40 l.

That perſons trading in the woollen or linen manufactures of this kingdom, and ſelling the ſame by wholeſale, ſhould not be deemed hawkers, pedlars, or petty chapmen, within any act; but ſuch perſons, and thoſe immediately employed under them, might carry abroad and ſell the ſaid manufactures.

By the 4th of Geo. I. makers and ſellers of Engliſh bone-lace, going from houſe to houſe, &c. are not adjudged hawkers.

AWKERS, are alſo thoſe perſons who go up and down London ſtreets, crying news-papers, and ſelling them by retail.

AWSER, or *Halſer*, belonging to a ſhip, is a rope conſiſting of three ſtrands; being a kind of little cable, ſerving for many uſes on board; ſuch as to faſten the main and fore ſhrouds, and to warp a ſhip over a bar.

AWSES, in a ſhip, are two round holes under her head, thro' which the cables paſs when ſhe lies at anchor.

urning in the HAWSE, is when the cable endures any extraordinary ſtreſs.

earing the HAWSE, is the untwiſting of two cables, which, being let out at different hawſes, are entangled or twiſted together.

old HAWSE, is when the holes are high above the water.

reſh the HAWSE, is a term among the ſailors when there is reaſon to ſuſpect the cable may be fretted in thoſe holes; at which time they veer out a little, to let another part endure the ſtreſs: and this they call, *to freſh the hawſe*: though freſhing the hawſe, is alſo uſed when new pieces are laid upon the cable.

Riding upon the HAWSE, is when a weighty ſubſtance lies a-croſs, or falls directly before the hawſe.

HAY. Graſs which is mowed down and dried in the ſun, on purpoſe for horſes provender in the winter time, in cities, ſtables, or other places, when and where green and growing graſs cannot be had.

By the ſtatute of the 2d of William and Mary it was enacted, That every truſs of old hay offered to be ſold in the cities of London and Weſtminſter, and within the bills of mortality, between the laſt of Auguſt and the 1ſt of June, ſhould contain 56 pounds; and that every truſs of hay offered to be ſold between the 1ſt of June, and the laſt of Auguſt, being new hay of that ſummer's growth, ſhould contain 60 pounds; and the perſons bringing either of the ſame, ſhould forfeit for every truſs of leſs weight 1 s. 6 d.

That no perſon ſhould ſuffer his waggon or cart to ſtand in the Haymarket, or Southwark, or other place within the bills of mortality, with hay or ſtraw to ſell, from Michaelmas to Ladyday, after two in the afternoon, and from Lady till Michaelmas after three in the afternoon, on pain of 5 s.

HAZON-MAINTHI. A name which the inhabitants of Madagaſcar give to all ſorts of ebony wood.

HEAD, in the mechanic arts, is applied to the parts of inanimate and artificial bodies; in which ſenſe ſome nails are ſaid to have heads, others hooks; and others, as brads, neither.

HEAD *of a ſhip*, or other veſſel, is the prow, or part that goes foremoſt.

HEAD-*land*, in huſbandry, is the upper part of a ground left for the turning the plough; or that part which is ſo ploughed a-croſs, at the ends of other lands.

HEAD-*ſea*, is when a great wave, or billow of the ſea, comes right a-head of the ſhip, as ſhe is in her courſe.

HEADS. A ſort of tanned hide. See *Hide*.

HEADS *of goods*, is a term among traders on the coaſt of Guinea, for ſpread-eagle dollars, cryſtal-beads, iron-bars, braſs-pans, and arrangoes; becauſe they are the deareſt. See *Bar*.

HEAVE, at ſea, ſignifies to throw away, or fling any thing overboard: though when a ſhip being at anchor riſes and falls by the force of the waves, ſhe is alſo ſaid to heave, and ſet. To heave at the capſtan, ſignifies to turn it about. To heave a flag a-board, is to hang it out: and to heave out the top-ſails, is to put them abroad.

HEBRIDES, or *Weſtern Iſlands*, lie on the W. of Scotland; of which Sky, Mull, Iſla, and Arran, are ſome of the largeſt. See *Britiſh* Iſlands.

HECK, among huſbandmen, a rack at which horſes are fed with hay: but it is alſo an engine to take fiſh in the river Ouſe: and a ſalmon-heck is a grate for catching that ſort of fiſh. See Salmon *Fiſhery*.

HEDAGIUM, antiently ſignified a toll, or cuſtom, paid at the hyth, or wharf, for landing merchandiſe, or other goods: from which toll, or cuſtomary duty, exemptions were ſometimes granted to particular perſons and ſocieties.

HEDERA. A kind of gum, or reſin, oozing from the ivy-tree; being firſt like glue, of a red colour, with a ſtrong, active, and diſagreeable ſmell: when dry it is friable, and of a tanned colour: it ſhould be choſen dry, tranſparent, and of a balſamic odour; but care muſt be taken that gum Aluchi is not ſubſtituted in its place. It is reputed good for the healing of wounds, and employed alſo as a depilatory: the beſt kind comes from the Indies; but it is alſo brought from Italy, and Languedoc in France

HEEL, in the ſea-language. If a ſhip leans on one ſide, whether a-ground or a-float, ſhe is ſaid to heel a-ſtarboard, or a port; or off-ward, or to the ſhore; that is, inclines more to one ſide than the other.

HEEL *of a maſt*, is that part of the foot thereof, which is pared away ſlanting, that the maſt may be ſtayed aft-ward on.

HEIDELBURG. A city of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, capital of the Palatinate, ſituated in 8 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 49 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. on the river Neckar, 43 miles S. of Frankfort, and 13 N. E. of Spire. See *Germany*.

HEILA. A port-town of Regal Pruſſia, in the kingdom of

of Poland, ſituated in 19 deg. of E. lon. and 54 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the point of a peninſula in the Baltic ſea, 12 miles N. of Dantzick, ſubject to Poland.

HELENA, St. commonly called *Saint Helena*, an iſland in the Atlantic ocean, ſituated 1200 miles W. of the coaſt of Africa, and 1800 E. of the coaſt of South America. It conſiſts of one ſteep high rock, and looks like a caſtle in the middle of the ſea; nor is there any poſſibility of landing but at one place, which is defended by a platform of 40 guns. It was taken from the Dutch in the reign of King Charles II. and is now ſubject to the Engliſh Eaſt India company.

The winds blowing always from the S. E. a moderate gale, it is an exceeding pleaſant voyage from the Cape of Good Hope to St. Helena, and performed in leſs than 3 weeks without handing a ſail, or giving the leaſt trouble to the ſeamen. But there is no ſailing to this iſland directly from the northward, the winds always blowing from the S. E. in theſe ſeas. When a ſhip therefore is ſent from England to St. Helena, it firſt ſails as far ſouthward as the Cape of Good Hope, and then returns to St. Helena: but it is doubted whether three ſhips ever made the iſland in going directly from Europe ſince it has been diſcovered.

There is no anchorage any where about the iſland, but at Chappel-valley bay; and as the wind always ſits from the S. E if a ſhip over ſhoots the iſland ever ſo little, ſhe cannot recover it again.

In this iſland the Engliſh Eaſt India company has a fort of three baſtions, and at the foot of the fort a little village of forty or fifty houſes.

In this village, which is only inhabited on the arrival of European ſhips, the inhabitants, who the reſt of the year are employed in the culture of their lands, keep a kind of fair, where the whole trade of the iſland is carried on, and where ſailors furniſh themſelves with the refreſhments of the iſland, and the iſlanders with ſuch European and Indian commodities as ſuit them moſt.

The produce of the iſland conſiſts in oranges, citrons, pomegranates, figs, peas, beans, and other fruits, as alſo garden ſtuff.

The inhabitants may be alſo treated with for white ſalt, which is excellent; bole, or red earth, much like *terra ſigillata*, and ſome red dying-ſtuffs.

The merchandiſes given them in exchange are ſome wines, thin ſtuffs of a low price; ſeveral ſorts of linens, ſome hard and haberdaſhery-ware, houſhold utenſils, and inſtruments for the culture of their lands.

HELISPHERICAL-*line*, in navigation, denotes the rhumb-line, becauſe, on the globe, it winds round the pole heliacally, or ſpirally, and ſtill comes nearer and nearer to it.

HELITROPIUM, otherwiſe *Ricionoides*, or the turnſol. See *Turnſol*.

HELIOTROPE, a precious ſtone of a green colour, ſtreaked with red veins, which Pliny ſays is thus called, becauſe, when caſt into a veſſel of water, the rays of the ſun falling thereon, ſeem to be of a blood colour; as alſo that, when out of the water, it bears ſome reſemblance to the figure of the ſun, and is proper to obſerve its eclipſes.

The heliotrope is alſo called oriental jaſper, on account of its ruddy ſpots. See *Jaſper*.

It is found in the Eaſt Indies; as alſo in Ethiopia, Germany, and Bohemia.

HELLEBORE. A medicinal plant, reputed among the ancients a ſpecific for the cure of folly, melancholy, and madneſs.

There are two ſorts of hellebore; the black, and white.

Black hellebore, called in Engliſh Chriſtmaſs-roſe, has a dark coloured root, furniſhed with abundance of little fibres; its ſtem green, its leaves dented, and its flowers of a carnation hue, not unlike the roſe.

White hellebore, called in Engliſh neeſewort, has a whitiſh root, beſet with fibres of the ſame colour, ſhooting out at a ſort of bulb, not unlike the head of an onion; its leaves being broad, at firſt green, and afterwards of a yellowiſh red. From the middle of the leaves riſes a ſtem, two or three feet high, which ſeparates about the middle into branches, each whereof bears a conſiderable number of little flowers like ſtars, diſpoſed in manner of a ſpica, or ear.

In each kind the roots only are uſed, which are to be choſen large, and fair; furniſhed with big filaments: thoſe of the white, tan-coloured without, and white within; and thoſe of the black, blackiſh without, and browniſh within; dry, clean, and of a ſharp diſagreeable taſte. They act as purgatives; but ſo very violently upwards and downwards, as frequently to cauſe convulſions; whence the uſe of them internally is now neglected, unleſs joined with other purgatives, and even alterants to correct them. They are ſtill retained with ſucceſs for the farcy in horſes, and for the ſcab in ſheep: but the chief uſe wherein the preſent practice acknowledges white hellebore, is in form of a ſternutory powder to clear and open the head.

HELLESPONT. The ancient name for the entrance of the ſtreight which divides Aſia from Europe, paſſing from the Archipelago to Conſtantinople: but it is now called the Dardanells, and is about 2 miles wide, being the place where Xerxes laid a floating bridge over, to march his army from Aſia to Europe. See *Dardanells*.

HELM, in navigation, a horizontal piece of timber, ſerving to move another fitted into it at right angles, called the rudder; the helm, or tiller of a ſhip, being a beam, or piece of timber, faſtned into the rudder, and ſo coming forward into the ſteerage, where the perſon that ſtands at the helm ſteers the ſhip.

A-lee the Helm, ſignifies to put the helm to the lee-ſide of the ſhip.

Bear up the Helm, is to let the ſhip go more large before the wind.

Port the Helm, is to put the helm on the left hand or ſide of the ſhip.

Right the Helm, or *Helm the midſhip*, is to keep it even with the middle of the ſhip.

Starboard the Helm, is to put it to the right ſide of the ſhip.

HELMONT. A town of the Netherlands, in the province of Dutch Brabant, ſituated in 5 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the river Aa, 18 miles W. of Venlo.

HELMONTIAN *Laudanum*. See *Laudanum*.

HELSINGPORT. A port-town of Sweden, in the province of Finland, and territory of Nyland, ſituated in 24 deg. 6 min. of E. lon. and 60 deg. 8 min. of N. lat. on the gulph of Finland, 80 miles E. of Abo, ſubject to Sweden.

HELVETIA, or *Helvetic*, ſomething that has a relation to the Switzers, or inhabitants of the Swiſs cantons, who were antiently called Helvetii.

The Helvetic body comprehends the republic of Switzerland, conſiſting of thirteen cantons, which make ſo many particular commonwealths: by whoſe laws and cuſtoms all differences between the ſeveral ſtates and republics are to be decided within themſelves, without the intervention of foreign power. See *Switzerland*.

HELVOETSLUYS. A port-town of the United Netherlands, ſituated in 4 deg. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 54 min. of N. lat. on the iſland of Voern, in the province of Holland, 5 miles S. of the Briel; one of the beſt harbours in Holland, and the ſtation for the Engliſh packet-boats. See *United Provinces*.

HEMINA, *Emine*, or *Eſmine*, is a great corn meaſure uſed in ſeveral parts of France, and in ſome ports of the coaſt of Barbary: however it is not an effective meaſure, as the buſhel, but a kind of meaſure of accompt, being one compoſed of ſeveral other certain meaſures; as, at Marſeilles the hemina of corn weighs 75 lb. weight of the place, or 60 lb. and ſomewhat more avoirdupoiſe weight; and in Barbary it is computed equal to 2 buſhels.

HEMLOCK. A narcotic plant, of ſome uſe in phyſic. The common hemlock is a poiſon, though not of a violent ſort: for there are inſtances of conſiderable quantities being taken without the leaſt diſorder.

HEMP. A plant of great uſe in the arts and manufactories furniſhing thread, cloth, and cordage: which bears a near analogy to flax, both in reſpect of form, culture, and uſe.

The plant is annual; that is, muſt be ſown afreſh every year: it riſes quick, into a tall, ſlender ſort of ſhrub, whoſe ſtem however is hollow, and big enough to be charred, and thus uſed in the compoſition of gun-powder. Its leaves ariſe by fives, or ſixes from the ſame pedicle, and are a little jagged; yielding a ſtrong ſmell, which affects the head.

The culture and management of hemp makes a conſiderable article in agriculture; there being divers operations required therein, as pulling, watering, beating, and ſwingling. The plant is ſown in May, in a warm, ſandy, rich ſoil; and is itſelf ſufficient to deſtroy weeds, on any ground. About Lammas it is fit for gathering; the marks of its maturity being its leaves turning yellow, and the ſtalks white. It is of two kinds, male, popularly called karl; and female, or fimble. The male alone produces ſeed to perpetuate the kind; the female is the lighteſt, and the firſt ripe. See *Flax*.

The Engliſh and Dutch, whoſe countries produce but little hemp in proportion to what they have an occaſion for with regard to their fleets, and merchant-ſhips, buy up great quantities of it yearly in Italy, and the northern countries; as in Riga, Coningſberg, Narva, Courland, and Muſcovy. The beſt is the Italian; and the next that of Ruſſia.

Moſt of all the provinces of France produce hemp in abundance, which makes a very conſiderable article in the French trade, by its great conſumption in the kingdom, either for thread, linens, or cordage; the French India company having not forgot among other things the culture and traffic of ſo neceſſary a plant.

Hemp is the foundation of ſeveral profitable manufactures; as ſail-cloth, ticking, ſacking, cordage, twine, and nets: therefore its culture ought to be encouraged, both in Great Britain and its northern colonies in America.

ENECHEN. An herb which grows in ſome parts of America, particularly in the iſthmus of Panama; being a kind of hemp of which the Indians make thread, cloths, and cords: but the leaves of this plant are more like thoſe of the European thiſtle, than of hemp.

ENRY-*Cape*. The ſouth cape of Virginia, in America, ſituated in 74 deg. 50 min. of W. lon. and 37 deg. of N. lat. at the entrance of the bay of Cheſepeak.

ERACLEA. A port-town of European Turky, in Romania, ſituated in 28 deg. of E. lon. and 41 deg. of N. lat. on the Propontis, 60 miles S. W. of Conſtantinople, once a great city, but now run to ruin.

ERB, is a denomination for thoſe plants whoſe ſtalks periſh every year, after the production of their bloſſoms, and after the ſeeds which are to preſerve their ſpecies are come to maturity.

Of theſe plants ſome are annual, and muſt be ſowed every year; others biſannual, which produce flowers and ſeeds only every two or three years; and others vivarous, whoſe root is preſerved all the winter, and in the ſpring ſhoots forth leaves, bloſſoms, and ſeeds.

Garden plants, or herbs, are thoſe cultivated in gardens, and fit for eating. Medicinal herbs, are thoſe of which phyſicians and apothecaries compoſe their remedies: and vulnerary herbs, are thoſe which taken interiorly, or applied topically, are good for the healing of wounds.

There are an affinity of herbs; ſome of which, as relative to trade, are deſcribed in this dictionary under their proper articles.

ERB, or *Herba*, in foreign manufactures, particularly in thoſe of the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, is underſtood of ſtuffs manufactured of herbs, reduced into flax, and afterwards ſpun: the principal of theſe ſtuffs being ſpun herbs, ſilk herbs, ſoft herbs, and herb taffeties.

HERBS, is a term in the Eaſt Indies for a kind of roſſy ſtuff, made of a thread taken from different ſorts of herbs, being uſually ſold at Surat; but Europeans only buy them out of curioſity, as they readily cut in the folds.

Some pretend that theſe cloths, which are uſually coloured, are not made of herbs; but of a ſilk produced by a kind of fly in the woods, and left upon the trees: though the firſt opinion is the moſt common.

HERB, is a term given by the Engliſh of Virginia to a kind of hemp which grows naturally, and without culture, in that part of North America; being ſpun like European flax, but the thread is more beautiful and gloſſy. The Indians make only cordage and nets of it; but the Europeans make linens and ſlight ſtuffs of it, which ſucceed admirably well.

There is another kind of this ſilk herb found in South America; eſpecially in the mountains of Popayan and Peru. The root of the plant is full of knots, and its leaves are like the blade of a ſword; of the thickneſs of the hand in the middle near the root, but thinner towards the edges, and upper part where they terminate in a point.

The Indians and Spaniards cut theſe leaves when at a certain growth; and, after drying them in the ſun, beat, and extract from them different ſorts of threads, coarſe or fine, employed in making hammocks, cordage, and a kind of half ſhifts, with which the Indian women cover themſelves from their waiſt. The threads of the fineſt ſort are uſually for ſilk ſtuffs, and ſtockings, as gloſſy as thoſe of Spain; the fineſt ſort being for lace, with which the Mulatoes and Negroes adorn themſelves on days of great ceremony: of all which merchandiſe there is a great trade in the principal towns of the South ſea, and farther up the country.

HERB *of Bengal*, has a ſtalk of a finger's thickneſs, on the extremity of which there grows a tufted button, ſpun into a very fine and gloſſy thread, with which carpets and bed-coverings are made, variegated with divers figures; beſides, of this herb alſo is made that kind of taffety called in Europe herb taffety.

Soft HERB, is an Eaſt India ſtuff, half herb and half cotton, whereof the pieces are 7 ells and a half in length, and $\frac{3}{4}$ or $\frac{5}{6}$ in breadth.

HERB-*taffety*, is an Indian taffety manufactured out of a ſilky matter extracted from ſeveral plants growing in Indoſtan, and ſome parts of China.

HERBA, however, is properly the bark of a tree, growing in many places of India and China, which being drawn out very fine, works like ſilk, and is mixed with ſilk or cotton, in the manufactures of calicoes.

HERCULES *Pillars*, are Mount Calpe in Spain, near Gibraltar, on the European ſide of the Streights; and Mount Avila on the African ſide of the ſtreights of Gibraltar.

HERMETIC, or *Hermetical Art*, is a name given to chemiſtry, on a ſuppoſition that Hermes Triſmegiſtus was the inventor thereof, or excelled therein.

HERMETICAL *Seal*. A manner of ſtopping or cloſing glaſs-veſſels, for chemical operations, ſo very accurately that nothing can exhale, or eſcape; not even the moſt ſubtile ſpirits. It is performed by heating the neck of the veſſel, in the flame of a lamp, till it is ready to melt; and then with a pair of pincers twiſting it cloſe together, which is called putting on Hermes's ſeal.

There are other ways of ſealing veſſels hermetically; as by ſtopping them with a plug, or ſtopple of glaſs, well luted into the neck of the veſſel: or by turning another *ovum philoſophicum* upon that wherein the matter is contained.

HERMODACTYLS, in medicine, a drug uſed as a gentle purgative: but naturaliſts are not agreed as to the origin of this drug. Some will have it the root; others the fruit of a plant: however, to reconcile them, there might probably be allowed two kinds of hermodactyls; the one a root, the other a fruit.

The fruit is about the ſize of a little cheſnut; in figure reſembling a heart, ruddy without, very white within; of a light fungous ſubſtance, without fibres, eaſily broke, and reduced into a ſubſtance like flour, of a ſweetiſh taſte, but ſomewhat viſcid. It is brought dried from Egypt and Syria: but authors differ as to the plant which bears it: in the common opinion it paſſes for a ſort of colchicum; others take it for a *tuberoſus iris*.

Hermodactyls promote perſpiration, but are chiefly uſed to purge pituitous humours of the brain and joints; being ſo efficacious in ſcouring the mucilaginous glands, and preſerving them from the lodgments of gritty matters, which occaſion the gout and arthritic pains, that they are denominated by ſome writers *anima articulorum*.

HERNGRUNT. A town of Upper Hungary, ſituated

in 19 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 48 deg. 47 min. of N. lat. 65 miles N. of Buda, near the Carpathian mountains; where is one of the richeſt copper-mines in Europe, with ſeveral ſorts of vitriol.

HERON. A large bird, bearing on its head a kind of tuft compoſed of very fine feathers; uſed chiefly for the ornaments of theatrical and maſquerade caps.

HERRING. There are ſeveral names given to herrings, according to the different manners wherein they are ordered; as, 1ſt, ſea-ſticks, being ſuch as are catched all the fiſhing ſeaſon, and are but once packed. A barrel of theſe hold ſix or eight hundred, eight barrels to the tun by law: a hundred of herrings is to be one hundred and twenty; a laſt ten thouſand; and they commonly reckon fourteen barrels to the laſt. There are others repacked on ſhore, called repacked herrings: ſeventen barrels of ſea-ſticks, making from twelve to fourteen of repacked ones.

The manner of repacking them is to take the herrings waſhed out in their own pickle, and lay them orderly in a freſh barrel. Theſe have no ſalt put to them, but cloſe packed, and headed up by a ſworn cooper with pickle, when the barrel is half full; the pickle being ſo ſtrong a brine that the herrings will ſwim in it.

2d, Summers are ſuch as the Dutch chaſers, or divers, catch from June to the 15th of July. Theſe are ſold away in ſea-ſticks, to be ſpent preſently in regard to their fatneſs; becauſe they will not endure repacking: they go one with another, full, and ſhotten; but the repacked herrings are ſorted, and the full ones put by themſelves.

3d, The ſhotten and ſick herrings by themſelves; the barrel whereof is to be marked diſtinctly.

4th, Crux herrings, which are ſuch as are caught after the 14th of September: theſe are cured with ſalt upon ſalt, and are carefully ſorted out, all full herrings, and uſed in the repacking.

5th, Corved herrings ſerve to make red herrings; being ſuch as are taken in the Yarmouth ſeas from the end of Auguſt to the middle of October; provided they can be carried aſhore within a week or leſs after their taking. Theſe are never gipped, but rowed in ſalt, for the better preſerving of them, till they can be brought on ſhore; and ſuch as are kept to make red herrings, are waſhed in great vats in freſh water, before they are hanged up in herring-hangs, or red-herring houſes.

As for the manner of ſalting herrings: the nets being haled on board, the fiſhes are taken out, and put into the warbacks, which ſtand on one ſide of the veſſels; where, when all the nets are thus unloaded, a perſon fills the gipper's baſkets. The gippers cut their throats, take out their guts, and fling out the full herrings into one baſket, and the ſhotten into another. One man takes the full baſket, when they are gipt, and carries them to the rower-back, wherein there is ſalt. One boy rows and ſtirs them about in the ſalt, another takes them thus rowed, and carries them in buckets to the packers. Four men pack the herrings into one barrel, and lay them one by one, ſtraight and even; and another man, when the barrel is full, takes it from the packer. It is let ſtand a day, or more, open to ſettle, that the ſalt may melt and diſſolve to pickle; after which they are filled up, and the barrel headed. The pickle muſt be ſtrong enough to ſuſtain a herring, otherwiſe the fiſh will decay.

Pickled HERRINGS. } See Herring-*Fiſhery*.
Red HERRINGS. }

HERRINGS are ſometimes preſcribed in medicine, by way of cataplaſms, to the feet, in fevers; as being ſuppoſed to draw the febrile matter downwards: though it is more probable this effect ſhould be owing to the ſalt uſed in the pickle.

HERRING-*buſs*. A veſſel uſed in the herring fiſhery. See *Buſs*.

HERRING *Cob*, is a young herring.

HERRING-*Fiſhery*. See *Fiſhery*.

HESSE-*Caſſel-Landgraviate*, including *Wetteravia*, is a territory of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine.

HETEROGENEOUS, or *Heterogenial*, literally imports ſomething of a different nature, or that conſiſts of parts of different or diſſimilar kinds, in oppoſition to the homogeneous: thus, the refining of a metal is the purging it from all its heterogeneous parts. See *Refining*.

HETEROSCII, in geography, a term vulgarly applied to thoſe inhabitants of the earth, whoſe ſhadow at noon-tide is always projected the ſame way, either northward or ſouthward: in which ſenſe, the inhabitants of the temperate zones are called heteroſcii.

HETEROSCII, however, in ſtrictneſs, and according to the origin and reaſon of the word, is a term of relation, and denotes thoſe inhabitants, which, during the whole year, have their noon-tide ſhadows projected different ways from each other. Thus, we who inhabit the northern temperate zone, are heteroſcii with regard to thoſe who inhabit the ſouthern temperate zone, and thoſe are heteroſcii with reſpect to us.

From this definition it follows, that only the inhabitants of the two temperate zones are heteroſcii; nor is the word ordinarily applied to any other: though, in reality, there is always one part of the torrid zone, whoſe inhabitants are heteroſcii with regard to thoſe of the reſt, and with regard to thoſe of one of the temperate zones, except at the time of the ſolſtices; and, even at that time all of the torrid zone are heteroſcii with regard to thoſe of one of the temperate zones. But as this is variable, and the people of the torrid zone have their ſhadow now on this, and then on the other ſide; the cuſtom is to call them amphiſcii, and not heteroſcii. See *Amphiſcii*.

HEYRS, in huſbandry, young timber trees, uſually left for ſtandards, in felling of woods, or copſes. See *Timber*.

HIDE. The ſkin of a beaſt, particularly that of a bullock, or cow. See *Skin*, and *Tanning*.

There are hides of ſeveral denominations, according to their ſtate and quality.

Curried HIDE, is that which after tanning has paſſed through the curriers hands, and has thus received its laſt preparation, and is fitted for uſe.

Raw HIDE, or *Green Hide*, is that which has not undergone any preparation, being in the ſame condition as when taken off the carcaſe.

Salted HIDE, is a green hide, ſeaſoned with ſea-ſalt and alum, or ſalt-petre; to prevent its ſpoiling and corrupting, either by keeping it too long in cellars, or in tranſporting it too far in a hot ſeaſon.

There are alſo hides dried in the hair, ſent from America, particularly thoſe of buffaloes. See *Buff*.

Tanned HIDES, are hides either green, ſalted, or dried, further dreſſed, and prepared by the tanner, by paring off the hair, and ſteeping them in pits of lime and tan. See *Tanning*.

By acts paſſed in the 9th and 10th of Queen Anne, hides and ſkins imported, after payment of the duties, are to be marked, or ſtamped to denote the ſame.

Stamps are to be provided by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms; and counterfeiting ſuch ſtamps, or knowingly ſelling any hides with ſuch counterfeited ſtamps, is made felony.

Such goods ſhipped off to be exported, and afterwards re-landed, are forfeited with treble their value.

By acts paſſed in the 13th, 14th, and 20th of Charles II. hides of ox, ſteer, bull, cow, or calf, untanned, or raw, may not be exported, upon penalty of 500 l. and diſability to deal in leather for the future; and ſuch exportation is likewiſe declared a common nuſance, except for the ſhips uſe only, and not exceeding ſix hides. To be exported from any iſland belonging to Great Britain, except Ireland, to any other place than Great Britain, the penalty is double the value.

The drawback on hides, as granted by the third of Geo. from the 1ſt of Auguſt 1718 for ever, is for every pound of avoirdupoiſe weight $\frac{2}{3}$ d. And all hides and calve-ſkins dreſſed or curried, are alſo to draw back 1 d. *per* pound weight, as they ſhall weigh at the cuſtom-houſe. Sheep-ſkins and lamb-ſkins, tanned, tawed or dreſſed, are to draw back.

By the 12th of Queen Anne, the hides and calves ſkins having paid duties at the time of tanning, and having been marked with a ſtamp to denote the ſame, two third parts of thoſe duties may, upon exportation to foreign parts, be repaid by the collector of the duty at that port; provided ſufficient ſecurity be firſt given to the collector of the cuſtoms, that they ſhall not be relanded in Great Britain: whereupon the ſaid collector is to gi-

a debenture, expreſſing the kinds, quantities, and weights exported.

And this drawback may be allowed, altho' the marks have not been ſeen by the officers of the cuſtoms; provided that oath be made before the collector of the cuſtoms, that the hides or ſkins contained in the reſpective bales or packs, were marked with the ſtamps denoting the payment of the duties, and how much the duties amounted to, together with the weight exported. But if relanded, they are forfeited, and treble the value.

Tanned hides are marked on each buttock, and tanned calve-ſkins above the tail: but never on the fleſh ſide.

Under the denomination of tanned hides are comprehended *ſole leather*; as

Butts, which are generally made from the largeſt ox, bull, ſteer, or cow-hide, and are tanned whole, except the pates and tails, which are cut off, and tanned ſeparately.

Backs, which are made from ſmall, as much as from large hides, and for conveniency in tanning, and afterwards for packing them for exportation, they are ſlit down the back in two parts, ſo that each two ſides of leather are accounted but one back. The pates and tails are cut off and tanned ſeparately.

Bends, which are cut off the beſt part of the hide, as the back, ribs, ſhoulders and buttocks, and then tanned: ſo that out of one hide there may be made ſix, eight, or ten bends.

Clout leather, which are a ſmall ſort of bends, the beſt part of a hide being cut into twenty or thirty pieces.

Crope ſoles, which are cut out of the back of a good upper leather hide after it is tanned.

Upper leather, as roundings, rands, wombs, dippings, and heads, which are the offal, being only the thin part, as the belly, flanks, and ſhanks of thoſe hides, the bends and clouting-leather were cut from; and are cut into ſeveral pieces and tanned.

HIERA PICRA, in pharmacy, a kind of electuary, firſt deſcribed by Galen, compoſed of aloes, cinnamon, aſarabacca, ſpicanardi, ſaffron, and maſtic, made up with honey, or ſyrop of violets and honey; being uſed to purge and cleanſe the ſtomach, remove obſtructions, promote the menſes and hæmorrhoides, and ſweeten the blood: tho' its chief uſe is in making the tinctura ſacra.

Beſides this ſimple hiera picra, there is a compound ſort, called diacolocynthidos pachii, by reaſon colocynthis is the baſe thereof, and that it was firſt uſed, with good ſucceſs, by Pachius of Antioch, in divers obſtinate diſeaſes. It is compoſed of colocynthis, opoponax, ariſtolochia rotunda, agaric, and other ingredients; being uſed in epilepſies, apoplexies, palſies, and lethargies; to excite the menſes, and promote the expulſion of the after-birth.

There is alſo a third ſort of hiera, called liberanus, but rarely uſed; and Dr. Quincy ſays it is one of the moſt ridiculous medicines ever contrived, though it paſſes for a cordial.

HIERES. A town of Provence, in France, ſituated in 6 deg. 5 min. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 5 min. of N. lat. on the Mediterranean, 8 miles E. of Toulon.

HIERES *Iſlands*, are ſituated near the coaſt of Provence, in France, oppoſite to the towns of Hieres and Toulon. See *French* Iſlands.

HIGH *ſea* or *Ocean*, is that far from land. See *Sea*, and *Ocean*.

HIGH *water*, is that ſtate of the tides when they ceaſe to flow. See *Tide*.

HIGLER. A perſon who buys up proviſions in the country, and carries them to peoples houſes, inſtead of bringing them to market.

HILDESHEIM. A city of Germany, capital of the biſhopric of Hildeſheim, ſituated in 18 deg. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 17 min. of N. lat. 30 miles S.W. of Brunſwic, and 17 S.E. of Hanover; an imperial city, or ſovereign ſtate, the inhabitants being a mixture of Lutherans and Papiſts.

HINGES, in building, thoſe neceſſary iron ligaments, by means whereof doors, lids, folds of tables, and the like, make their motions, whether of opening, ſhutting, or folding.

The ſpecies of hinges are many, as bed, box, butts, caſement, Lancaſhire, and ſmooth-filed, caſting, cheſt-black, coach, deſk, dovetails, eſſes, folding, garnets, dozen-ware long, weighty-long, lamb-heads, port, ſide Lancaſhire, ſide ſmooth-filed, ſide with riſing joints, ſide with ſquares, ſcrew, ſcuttle, ſtall, trunk of ſundry ſorts, joints; Lancaſhire, dozen-ware with hooks, dozen ware long, dozen ware ſhort, weighty long, and weighty ſhort.

HIN. The name for aſſa-fœtida in China, of which the Chineſe export much from Batavia.

HIPPO, now *Bona*. A port-town of Africa, ſituated in 7 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 36 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the coaſt of Algiers and province of Conſtantina, 90 miles N. E. of the city of Conſtantina.

HIPPOCRAS. A kind of medicated wine, being a drink, or beverage, compoſed of wine, with ſpices and other ingredients infuſed therein, much uſed among the French by way of dram after meals. There are various kinds of hippocras, according to the kind of wine, and the other additional ingredients made uſe of; as white-hippocras, red hippocras, claret hippocras, ſtrawberry hippocras, hippocras without wine, and cyder hippocras.

That directed in the college diſpenſatory, is to be made of cloves, ginger, cinnamon, and nutmegs, beat, and infuſed in canary, with ſugar; to the infuſion ſhould be put milk, a lemon, and ſome ſlips of roſemary, and the whole to be ſtrained through a flannel; which is recommended as a cordial, good in paralytic, and all nervous caſes.

HIPPOLAPATHUM, in natural hiſtory, a ſpecies of lapathum, called alſo monk's rhubarb. See *Rhubarb*.

HIPPOPOTAMUS, or *Sea-horſe*, an amphibious animal, not ſo much like a horſe as an ox; of which it has not altogether the reſemblance; having ſomething alſo of the bear and the hog. See *Sea-horſe*, and *Walrus*.

They are met with abundantly upon the banks of the Nile, and the Niger; but thoſe of the Niger are larger, and more dangerous than thoſe of the Nile. There are alſo many in ſome iſlands on the coaſt of Africa; but ſmaller, and even of different figures.

The Negroes of Guinea feed on their fleſh, which ſome Europeans make no difficulty alſo of eating, reputing the taſte pretty good, though ſomewhat ſavouring of ſlime and mud.

The teeth of the ſea-horſe are extremely white, and better than ivory for ſupplying the place of loſt teeth; both upon account of their hardneſs, and not ſo readily growing yellow: handles for knives, and turners work, are alſo made of them.

HIRCULUS. A kind of falſe nardus, found mixed with celtic nardus.

HISPANIOLA. An iſland of America, in the Atlantic ocean, ſituated between 67 and 74 deg. of W. lon. and between 18 and 20 deg. of N. lat. being about 420 miles long from E. to W. and 120 in breadth from N. to S. 50 miles E. of Cuba, 70 miles E. of Jamaica, 60 miles W. of Porto-Rico, and 300 miles N. of Terra Firma. See *French* and *Spaniſh* America, under *France* and *Spain*.

HISTIODROMIA, the art of ſailing, or of conducting veſſels on the ſea. See *Sailing*.

HITHE. One of the cinque ports in the county of Kent, ſituated in 1 deg. 7 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 6 min. of N. lat. on the Engliſh channel, 13 miles S. of Canterbury, and 6 miles W. of Dover.

HOED. A corn meaſure, being one of the diminutions of the laſt, and uſed in ſeveral towns of the United Provinces.

HOG's-*gum*. A kind of reſin, or ſovereign balſam for the healing of wounds, oozing from a tree which grows in the iſland of St. Domingo. It has been called hog's gum becauſe this animal made known its virtue and qualities, being accuſtomed, after the battles wild boars have with each other, to open the bark of the tree with his tuſks, and to rub himſelf afterwards againſt it, when the gum begins to ooſe.

HOGSHEAD. A meaſure, or veſſel of wine or oil, containing the fourth part of a tun, or 63 gallons. See *Meaſure*.

Two of theſe hogſheads make a pipe, or butt.

The diſtillers weigh their veſſels when full, and for a hogſhead allow four hundred weight, two quarters, and twenty-two pounds, caſk, and liquor.

HOGUE. A town and cape, ſituated in 2 deg. of W. lon. and 49 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. on the N. W. point of Normandy, in France.

HOHIO. A river of North America, which riſes in the Apalachian mountains, near the confines of Carolina, and Virginia, and running S. W. falls into the river Miſſiſſippi; being reckoned by ſome the principal ſtream, which forms the river Miſſiſſipi.

HOLANS. A kind of cambric manufactured in Flanders, and ſent in conſiderable parcels to Spain, whence it paſſes to the Spaniſh Weſt Indies.

HOLBECK. A town of Denmark. See *Denmark*.

HOLD, of a ſhip, the loweſt part of a ſhip, including all that part lying between the keelſon and the lower deck; containing the ſteward's room, the powder room, the bread room, and the boatſwain's room, divided from each other by bulk-heads.

The hold, in a merchant ſhip, is the ſtore room, or the place wherein the goods, at leaſt all the heavier, and more cumberſome, are ſtowed: the reſt being diſpoſed between the two decks, at leaſt in Dutch ſhips, which have their holds very ſhallow, and the ſpace between the decks high.

HOLER. A copper coin ſtruck and current in ſome ſtates of Germany; 12 of which are worth about a halfpenny ſterling.

The holer is ſo light and thin, that to give it a currency in payments, they mould it into the form of the head of a nail; and thus the name holer comes from *hol*, which ſignifies hollow, or concave.

HOLLAND, in the linen-drapery, a fine, white, even, cloſe kind of linen cloth, chiefly uſed for ſhirts and ſheets; being chiefly wrought in the provinces of Holland, Frieſland, and other parts of the United Provinces, whence the appellation: but the principal mart, or ſtaple of this cloth is at Haerlem, whence it is ſent from moſt other parts, as ſoon as wove, to be whitened the enſuing ſeaſon.

That manufactured in Frieſland is the moſt eſteemed, and called frize-holland; being the ſtrongeſt, and the beſt coloured, of any of that fineneſs; which is never calendered, nor thickened as the reſt; but exported juſt as it comes from the whitſter. It is diſtinguiſhed by its being yard, quarter and half wide; being half a quarter more than thoſe commonly called frize-hollands, which are not right.

Guilix HOLLAND is very white, and fine, and is chiefly uſed for ſhirts; being the ſtrongeſt of any for its fineneſs, except true frize, and is juſt yard wide.

Alcmaer HOLLAND is very ſtrong cloth, and wears exceeding well; being about yard, quarter and half wide.

HOLLEN. A town of Norway. See *Denmark*.

HOLLI. A kind of gum, or balſam, which the Indians of New Spain make uſe of as an ingredient in their chocolate, to which they attribute the virtue of fortifying the heart, and ſtopping a dyſentery.

The holli oozes by inciſion from a tree, in the language of the country, called holquahuylt, or chilly. The liquor when it begins to ooze is of a milky colour, afterwards it grows brown, and laſtly becomes intirely black.

The Spaniards of Mexico uſe holli in imitation of the antient inhabitants of the country; but the uſe of it is not eſtabliſhed in Old Spain, nor in any other country of Europe.

HOLM. A port and market town of Cumberland, ſituated on Solway frith, 200 miles W. of Carliſle.

HOLSOM. A ſhip is ſaid to be holſom at ſea, when ſhe will hull, try, and ride well, without rolling, or labouring.

HOLSTEIN. A duchy of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony.

HOLYHEAD. An iſland and cape of the county of Angleſey, ſituated in 4 deg. 45 min. of W. lon. and 53 deg. 26 min. of N. lat. in the Iriſh channel, where people uſually embark for Dublin in Ireland.

HOLY-ISLAND. An iſland in the German ſea, ſituated in 1 deg. 42 min. of W. lon. and 55 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. 6 miles S. of Berwick in Northumberland.

HOMOGENEOUS, or *Homogenial*, is applied to various ſubjects, to denote, that they conſiſt of ſimilar parts of the ſame nature and kind, in contradiſtinction to heterogeneous, where the parts are of different natures. See *Heterogeneous*.

Natural bodies, for the generality, are compoſed of homogeneous parts; as a diamond, a metal, and the like. Artificial bodies, on the contrary, are aſſemblages of heterogeneous parts, or parts of different qualities; as a building of ſtone and wood.

HONDURAS. A province of Mexico, in North America, which, including the country of the Muſkito Indians, is ſituated between 85 and 94 degrees of W. lon. and between 12 and 16 deg. of N. lat. bounded by the bay of Honduras and the North ſea on the north and eaſt; by the province of Nicaragua and Guatimala on the ſouth; and by Vera Paz on the weſt; which the Spaniards lay claim to; but the Engliſh have been long poſſeſſed of the logwood country, in the bay of Honduras, and cut large quantities there every year. The Muſkito Indians on the eaſtern part of this province are a people independent of the Spaniards, having entered into treaties with the Engliſh, and entertained them in their country, and ſerved them in ſeveral capacities; nor have the Spaniards any towns, or forts in the bay of Honduras, or the Muſkito country.

HONE. A general denomination for all ſuch kinds of ſtone as ſerve to ſharpen ſciſſars, razors, lancets, and knives. Thoſe of the Levant are of a yellowiſh colour, not unlike bees wax when firſt taken out of the hive; and are uſed moſt commonly for ſciſſars.

There are alſo ſome yellow hones in Oxfordſhire, being holly-wood that will be thus petrified in a ſhort time.

The Cork hone is of a milk white colour on the outſide, and of a flat colour within; its chief uſe being for razors.

The hone for lancets is green, being a kind of pebble.

The hone for whetting knives is a kind of brown freeſtone.

And, laſtly, the oil-hone is much like that of the Levant; being uſed for the ſharpening of chizzels and engraving-tools.

HONEY. A ſweet ſort of juice ſucked from vegetables by the bees, and repoſited in their combs; being properly one of the juices afforded by the flowers, and is found to exude from all ſorts thereof; even the bittereſt, as aloes and colocynth, not excepted. In all male flowers that have utricles at the bottom of the petala, is found a viſcid, ruddy, ſweet juice in good plenty. The bees viſit theſe flowers, and putting in their proboſcides, or trunks, ſuck out the honey-juice, and load their ſtomachs therewith; to be afterwards diſcharged and laid up in their combs: ſo that honey is a vegetable ſubſtance. In the belly of the bee is a ſmall tranſparent bladder, which is the proper receptacle of the honey; when the animal finds this full it returns, enters one of the cells, and diſcharges it there by that part of the head ſituated between the two jaws, which it extends wider than ordinary, moving its head about at the ſame time. If a drop happens to be ill placed, the bee ſucks it up again by its proboſcis, and diſcharges it anew: and when a cell is filled with honey, they ſtop it up with wax, for winter ſtore. See *Wax*.

Honey was antiently taken for a dew that fell, or deſcended on the flowers; but what proves this a miſtake is that the bees only gather it after the ſun is up, when there is no dew left; it muſt therefore be either a liquor prepared in the flower, and excreted by its proper veſſel, like manna; or rather, it appears to be the fine duſt, or *farina fœcundans* of the apices. For, according to the obſervations of M. du Vernay, the bees, when in ſearch of honey, fix upon no other parts but the ſtamina and apices, and not on ſuch as yield any other liquor.

There are two kinds of honey, white and yellow: the white, called virgin honey, trickles out ſpontaneouſly from the comb, by turning it up, or breaking it. The ſecond is ſqueezed from the combs in a preſs, after having firſt ſoftened them with a little water over the fire: and there is alſo an intermediate ſort, of a yellowiſh white colour, drawn, by expreſſion, without fire.

Honey left to ſtand two or three days, purges itſelf, throwing up a ſcum of wax, and other droſs, which is to be taken off.

Hone

Honey has conſiderable medicinal virtues, being reputed a good detergent and cleanſer, and in that quality uſed both internally and externally, for the viſcera, wounds, and ulcers: it is alſo the baſis of ſeveral compoſitions in pharmacy. Of honey, with the addition of roſes, violets, or mercurialis, is made mel roſatum, mercuriale, and helleboratum. There is likewiſe mel ſcilliticum, or a preparation of ſquills; mel paſſulatum violatum, made with raiſins boiled in water; and mel anthoſatum, made of roſemary flowers. The chemiſts alſo draw a water, a ſpirit, and an oil, from honey; and it is an ingredient in ſeveral drinks, as mum, and metheglin. See *Mum*, and *Metheglin*.

Honey is the production of moſt countries, yet more abundant in the iſland of Candia, and in the greater part of the iſlands of the Archipelago, than any where elſe. Hamburg honey is ſold at Amſterdam by the ton of 330 lb. tret; its price being from 40 to 45 s. ſterling *per* ton, with a deduction for prompt payment of 1 *per cent.*

Wild HONEY. S. Adaman, abbot of Hii, in his deſcription of holy places, obſerves, that in the place where John the Baptiſt lived in the deſart, there are locuſts which the poor people boil with oil, and a ſort of herbs with large long leaves, of a milk colour, and a taſte like that of honey: and that this is what in ſcripture is called wild honey.

HONEY-*comb*, in gunnery, is a flaw in the metal of a piece of ordnance, when it is ill caſt, and ſpongeous.

HONEY-*dew*, is a ſweet taſted dew, found early in the morning on the leaves of divers ſorts of plants. This honey-dew falling on the ears of ſtalks of wheat, beſmears them with a different colour from the natural; and being of a clammy ſubſtance, ſo binds up the young, tender, and cloſe ears of the wheat, by the heat of the ſun, that it prevents the growth, and compleating of the perfect grain therein: a ſhower of rain ſucceeding preſently after the fall thereof, or the wind blowing ſtiffly, are the only natural remedies againſt it.

HONFLEUR. A port-town of France, in the province of Normandy, ſituated in 15 min. of E. lon. and 49 deg. 24 min. of N. lat. on the ſouth-ſide of the river Seyne, near the Engliſh channel.

HONGRE. See *Hungar*.

HONOUR *of the city*, are the public offices, or employments thereof: thus, when a man has been conſtable, overſeer of the poor, and church-warden of his pariſh, common-council-man, alderman, and laſtly mayor, he is ſaid to have paſſed all the honours of the city.

HONOUR, is alſo a term uſed in the commerce of bills of exchange. To honour a bill of exchange is to accept and pay it, in conſideration of the drawer, tho' he has not as yet remitted effects. To honour a bill is alſo underſtood when a bill of exchange having been proteſted, any other perſon than him on whom it has been drawn, is willing to accept and pay it upon account of the drawer, or ſome endorſer.

HONORAT. An iſland on the coaſt of Provence, in France. See *French* Iſlands.

HOOK. A crooked inſtrument made of iron or braſs, whereon or wherewith to hang or faſten one thing to another; of which there are ſeveral ſorts uſed in building; as, 1ſt, armour hooks, which are generally of braſs, and are to lay up arms upon, as guns, muſkets, half-pikes, javelins, and the like; 2d, caſement hooks; 3d, chimney-hooks, which are made of both braſs and iron, and of different faſhions; their uſe is to ſet the tongs and fire ſhovel againſt; 4th, curtain-hooks; 5th, hooks for doors and gates; 6th, double line hooks, large and ſmall; 7th, ſingle-line hooks, large and ſmall; 8th, tenter-hooks, of various ſorts.

HOOK-*pins*, in architecture, are taper iron pins, only with a hook-head, to pin the frame of a roof or floor together.

HOOKER. See *Howker*.

HOOP. A flexible inſtrument made of wood or metal, ſo as to go round and incloſe a veſſel, to keep it tight, and prevent it from leaking.

HOORN. A port-town of the United Provinces in the province of Holland, ſituated on the Zuider ſea, 19 miles N. of Amſterdam.

HOP. A plant of the reptile kind, whoſe flower is a principal ingredient in beer, and other malt-liquors. See *Beer*.

The hop creeps like ſnake-weed, unleſs it finds pales, or ſhrubs to hang to; or unleſs they who cultivate it, plant poles for the purpoſe. Its ſtem is long, flexible, rough, and hairy: its leaf indented like that of the vine, and covered with a kind of prickly down, like that of the cucumber. Its flowers are of a greeniſh yellow, reſembling, both as to form and ſize, thoſe of the female elm, and grow in a kind of bunch, or cluſter: in this flower a blackiſh bitter grain is contained, which is the ſeed of the hop. In the ſpring time, while the bud is yet tender, the tops of the plant being cut off, and boiled, are eat like aſparagus, and found effectual to looſen the body: the heads and tendrils are good to purify the blood in the ſcorbutus, and moſt cutaneous diſeaſes: decoctions of the flowers, and ſyrups thereof, are of uſe againſt peſtilential fevers: juleps and apozems are alſo prepared with hops, for hypocondriacal and hyſterical affections, and to promote the menſes.

The propagation and culture of hops, is a point of ſome nicety, as well as advantage. It is certain there is nothing in all the rural employments, that, under prudent management, turns to more account; very large eſtates having been raiſed by this commodity in a few years paſt. Switzer tells us, he has known ground yield 30 l. *per annum per* acre, planted therewith: to ſay nothing of the number of poor that are employed therein, in the planting, ſoiling, digging, houghing, poling, tying, and picking.

Culture of HOPS *and* HOP-*gardens*. Hops are of ſeveral kinds: Mortimer reckons four; namely, the wild garlic-hop, which is not worth propagating; the long and ſquare garlic hop, which, tho' valuable, yet on account of the redneſs towards the ſtalk, does not bear the beſt price; the long white hop, which is the moſt beautiful and fertile; and the oval hop. Another author diſtinguiſhes the hops to be cultivated into the white and grey kinds; the latter being a large ſquare hop, more hardy, and bearing a plentifuller crop than the former, though it does not ripen ſo early.

For the ſoil of HOPS. There are ſcarce any but may ſerve, except ſtony, rocky, and ſtiff clay ground: the beſt, however, is that which is light, deep, and rich, which will be the better if ſand is mixed with it; a black garden mould is alſo excellent. If the ground be cold, ſtiff, and ſour, the beſt means of improvement is to burn-beat it. Mortimer adds, that in Kent, where they eſteem new land beſt for hops, they plant their hop-gardens with cherry-trees and apple-trees, at a good diſtance; that when the land is paſt the beſt for hops, which happens in about ten years, the cherry-trees may begin to bear; and thirty years after, when the cherry-trees are ſpent, the apples-trees may be in perfection.

For the planting of HOPS. The ground is firſt to be prepared, by tilling it in the beginning of winter, either with the plough or ſpade. In October, and ſometimes in March, they proceed to plant, marking out the places where they deſign each hillock, or little plantation. Some plant in ſquares, checquer-wiſe, which is the moſt convenient form, where they intend, in the courſe of the tillage, to plough with horſes between the hills; but the beſt form for the hop, as well as the moſt pleaſing to the eye, is the quincunx.

If the ground-plot be poor, or ſtiff, it is neceſſary ſome good mould, or elſe a compoſt of manure and earth, be laid in holes a foot ſquare, in the ſeveral places where the hills are to be. The diſtance of the hills in dry and hot ground, may be ſix feet; but in moiſt and rich ground, ſubject to bear large hops, eight or nine.

For planting, the largeſt ſets are to be choſen, eight or ten inches long, having each three or four joints, which are to be ſet in holes made for the purpoſe, one at each corner of a hole, and a fifth in the middle, raiſing the earth two or three inches about.

For the dreſſing of HOPS. If the hop-ground be old, and wore out of heart, they find it convenient to dig about them, towards the beginning of each winter, and take away a quantity of old earth, ſupplying its place with what is fatter and freſher. If the hops are in good heart, manuring and pruning is moſt adviſeable: in order to which, they pull down the hills, and undermine all about,

till they come near the principal roots. This done, taking off the earth from the roots, they find by the colour, which are new ſhoots, and which old ones, and cut off all the new ones: when the roots are thus dreſſed, the new mould, or manure, is to be applied.

For the poling. The time is when the hops begin to appear above ground; the number and dimenſions of the poles, to be adjuſted to the diſtance of the hills, the nature of the ſoil, and ſtrength of the hop. To prevent houſling, the poles are to be made to lean outwards, and particularly towards the ſouth, to receive more of the ſun's beams; it being matter of obſervation, that a leaning pole bears more hops than an upright one.

As to tying. When the hops are got two or three feet above ground, the next buſineſs is, to conduct and tie them to ſuch poles as are empty, and at proper diſtance from them. They are to be tied with withered ruſhes, or woollen yarn; but not ſo cloſe as to hinder their climbing up the poles: two or three ſtrings may ſuffice for a pole; and this operation muſt be attended to in April and May.

About midſummer, when they ceaſe to run in length, and begin to branch, ſuch of them as are not yet got up to the tops of the poles, ſhould have their heads nipped off, or elſe be diverted from the pole, that they may branch the better, which is more for the increaſe of the hop, than its extending in length.

Sometime in May, after rain, the hills are to be made up with a hoe, or ſpade, or by ploughing, which will be a means to deſtroy the weeds; and it is neceſſary, if the ſpring or ſummer prove dry, to water them twice or thrice in a ſeaſon.

Hops *blow* towards the latter end of July; and the forward ones are ripe by the cloſe of Auguſt: their ripeneſs is diſcovered by their fragrant ſcent, their changing of colour, being eaſily pulled, and by the browniſh colour of the ſeed.

Hops are to be *gathered* when they look a little browniſh, and that without delay: the moſt expeditious way is, to make a frame with four ſhort poles or ſticks, laid on four forks driven into the ground, of ſuch breadth as to contain either the hair cloth of the kiln, or a blanket tacked round it about the edges. On this device the poles, with the hops round them, may be laid, being either ſupported by forks, or the edges of the frame; at each ſide whereof the pickers may ſtand and pick the hops into it. When the blanket or hair-cloth is full, they untack it, carry it away, and place another, or the ſame emptied, in the ſame frame again; and this frame may be daily removed, with little trouble, to ſome new place in the garden near the work.

Hops muſt not be gathered while wet; but if the dew is on them, or a ſhower of rain has taken them, the pole may be ſhaken, and they will dry the ſooner. If they are over-ripe, they will be apt to ſhed their ſeed, wherein conſiſts their chief ſtrength; neither will they look ſo green, but ſomewhat brown, which much leſſens their value; though ſome let them ſtand as long as they can; becauſe they waſte leſs in the dropping: for four pounds of undried hops, though ripe, will make one of dry; whereas five pounds of thoſe ſcarcely ripe, yet in their prime, make but one; ſo that it is judged the proprietors get more in the thorough ripe hop, than they loſe in the colour.

As faſt as the hops are picked they muſt be *dried*; ſome, eſpecially the Flemings and Hollanders, make uſe of an ooſt, or kiln, for this purpoſe; others dry them on the ordinary malt-kiln in an hair-cloth; but the beſt way is to make a bed of flat ledges, about an inch thick, and two or three inches broad, ſawn, and laid one acroſs the the other, checquer-wiſe, the flat way; the diſtances about three inches; the ledges ſo entered are put into another, that the floor may be even and ſmooth: this bed may reſt on two or three joyſts ſet edge-ways, to ſupport it from ſinking; they then cover it with large double tin-plates, ſoldered together at each joint, and ſo order the ledges before they are laid, that the joints of the tin may always be over the middle of a ledge; and when the bed is wholly covered with tin, then ſet boards about the edges of the kiln, to keep up the hops, only letting the one ſide be to remove, that the hops may be ſhoved off as before. The hops may be turned on this tin bed or floor with great ſafety, and ſmall expence of fuel; beſides, that any manner of fuel will ſerve for this purpoſe, as well as charcoal, the ſmoke not paſſing through the hops: but it muſt not be forgot, to make conveyances for it, at the ſeveral corners and ſides of the kiln.

The *turning* of hops after the eaſieſt and moſt ſecure manner, is found to be not only a waſte and injury to the hop, but alſo an expence of fuel and time; yet it may be prevented, in caſe the upper bed, whereon the hops lie, have a cover, that may be let down, and raiſed at pleaſure; which cover may be tinned over, by nailing ſingle tin-plates to the face of it, that when the hops begin to dry, and are ready to be burnt, this cover may be let down within a foot and leſs of the hops, which will reflect the heat upon them, that the uppermoſt hop will be as ſoon dry as the lower, and every hop equally dried.

Bagging of Hops. After they have lain a month or more to cool and toughen, the method is to make a round or ſquare hole in an upper floor, big enough for a man with eaſe to go up and down, and turn and wind in it; a hoop is then tacked about the mouth of the bag faſt with packthread, that it may bear the weight of the hops when full, and of the man that treads them: that done, the bag is let down through the hole, and the hoop will reſt above, ſo as to keep the bag from ſliding wholly through; into this bag are caſt a few hops, and before they go in to tread, a handful of hops are tied at each lower corner with a piece of packthread, to make a ſort of taſſel, whereby the bag, when full, may be conveniently lifted or removed: a perſon then goes into the bag, and treads the hops on every ſide; another ſtill caſting in as faſt as it is required, till it be full: when it is well trodden and filled, the bag is let down by unripping the hoop, and the mouth of the bag is cloſed; the two upper corners being filled like the lower: this bag, if well picked and dried, will keep ſeveral years in a dry place; only care muſt be taken, that mice are not permitted to ſpoil or waſte the hops; not that they will eat them, but make their neſts therein.

The counties of Kent, Surry, and Worceſter, are the moſt remarkable of any in England, for the cultivation of hops; where the hop-planters commonly agree with hop-dreſſers to do all the huſbandry part, for 3 l. to 3 10 s. *per* acre; the charge of which is computed thus in ſome parts; 3 l. for the huſbandry, 4 l. for the wear of 3000 poles, 5 l. for picking and drying, 1 l. 10 s. for dung, 1 l. for rent, and 10 s. for tythe, in all 15 l. a year; and, in ſome places, they pay 4 or 5 l. a year for the rent of an acre of land. Poles are about ⅓ part of the yearly charge, picking and drying another third, and the reſt is laid in the managing of the ground, the acre of which ſometimes produces 40, 50, 60, 80, or 100 l. the hop-planters eſteeming it a moderate return if an acre produces only 30 l. in a ſeaſonable year; but the crops frequently fail, becauſe hops are very tender plants, and very apt to ſuffer by winds, blights, mildews, rains, droughts, and inſects.

Hops are under the laws of exciſe; and by ſeveral acts of parliament the following regulations are made relative to this commodity. If hops are imported, unclean, corrupt, or mixed with powder, duſt, droſs, ſand, or dung, they are forfeited. Britiſh hops exported to Ireland, are not to draw back the duty: nor are they to be imported into Ireland, except from Great Britain only, on forfeiture of the value, and the ſhip; ſuch importation being declared likewiſe a common nuſance.

If carried from Great Britain to Ireland, the maſter of the ſhip is to take with him a duplicate of his cocket, under the hands and ſeals of the collector and comptroller of the port, in order to be produced upon oath, to the officers of the cuſtoms in Ireland, before landing, upon forfeiture, and 10 s. *per* pound.

No foreign hops are to be landed in Great Britain, before the entry and payment of the duty, or without warrant from the proper officer: nor any foreign hops, except of Britiſh growth, are to be landed in Ireland, upon forfeiture thereof, together with the ſhip or veſſel

d every perſon concerned is to forfeit 5 s. for every ound weight; the hops being to be burnt within ten ys after condemnation.
ny perſon mixing with hops any dung or ingredient to ter the colour or ſcent, and being convicted thereof, pon oath before a juſtice of the peace, is to forfeit 5 l. r every hundred weight.
PE. A ſtation for ſhips in the mouth of the river Thames, below Graveſend.
E *Cape.* See *Bon Eſperance.*
PPER. A veſſel wherein ſeed-corn is carried at the ime of ſowing. The word is alſo uſed for that wooden rough in a mill, into which the corn is put to be ground.
R, or *Oort.* A Daniſh coin. See *Oort.*
RD, in geography, is uſed for a company or tribe of wandering people, who have no ſettled abode or habitation, but ſtrole about, dwelling in chariots, or under tents, to e ready to ſhift, as ſoon as herbage, fruits, and the preent province is eaten bare.
RD, is more popularly the name which the Tartars, who nhabit beyond the Wolga, in the kingdoms of Aſtracan nd Bulgaria, give to their villages; a hord conſiſting f fifty or ſixty tents ranged in a circle, having an open lace in the middle. The inhabitants of each hord ſually form a military company or troop; the eldeſt whereof is commonly the captain, and depends on the eneral, or prince of the whole nation.
ORDEATUM. A liquid medicine, made of barley, oiled till it burſt: but ſometimes other ingredients are dded, as the cold ſeeds, almonds, and the like.
ORN. A hard, callous ſubſtance, growing on the head of divers animals: but it is laid down as a rule by ſome naturaliſts, that no animals have horns, except thoſe that are cloven footed.
Horns make a conſiderable article in the arts and manufactures. Bullocks horns, ſoftened by the fire, ſerve to make lanthorns, combs, inkhorns, drinking-horns, ſnuff-boxes, tobacco-boxes, and the like.
By the ſtatute of the 4th of Edw. IV. and 1ſt and 7th of James I. Britiſh horns unwrought, are not to be tranſported or ſold to ſtrangers, upon forfeiture of double their value.
art's-HORN, or *Cornu cervi.* The ſcrapings or raſpings of the horn of a hart, or ſtag, which are medicinal; being uſed in aſtringent draughts, and ptiſans, with that intention: it yields by diſtillation a very penetrative volatile ſpirit, much in uſe, and commonly called drops, which is often adulterated.
ORN, is alſo a ſort of muſical inſtrument, of the wind kind; chiefly uſed in hunting, to animate and bring together the dogs, and the hunters: but what are now called French-horns, made of braſs, are chiefly in uſe.
ORN *Cape*, or *Cape Horn.* The moſt ſouthern promontory of Terra del Fuego, in South America, ſituated in 80 deg. of W. lon. and 57 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. round which all ſhipping paſſes of late, from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean or South ſea; the way through the ſtreights of Magellan, being found more tedious, if not more hazardous.
ORNER. A perſon whoſe trade conſiſts in manufacturing or turning of horns, much in the ſame manner as the turner does wood.
ORNERS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 13th of Charles I. dated the 12th of January 1638, under the appellation of The maſter, wardens, aſſiſtants, and commonalty of the art and myſtery of horners of the city of London; who conſiſt of a maſter, two wardens, and nine aſſiſtants; but have neither livery nor hall.
In the reign of Edward IV. this company was reduced to great ſtraits by the almoſt general exportation of horns; therefore, upon their application to parliament in 1465, it was, in compaſſion to their grievances, enacted, That henceforth no other horns ſhould be exported, but ſuch as were refuſed by the horners of this city and kingdom, on the penalty of forfeiture; and for the more effectual execution of the ſaid law, the wardens of the company of horners of this city, were empowered to ſearch for all ſuch goods and merchandiſe, both wrought and unwrought, not only in the city, but within twenty-four miles of the ſame, and alſo in the fairs of Sturbridge and Ely, when all ſuch goods as were found bad and unmarketable were to be forfeited.
And the company, for the more effectual preventing monopolies, and the evil deſigns of ſiniſter men, have of late appointed ſeveral of their members to attend, not only the market of Leadenhall, but likewiſe thoſe of the neighbouring counties, for the buying of horns; whence the reſpective quantities bought by each, are ſent to their warehouſe in Wentworth-ſtreet, Spittlefields, where they are divided by lots among the ſeveral members; by which means all frauds and impoſitions are happily prevented, to the great eaſe and advantage of both widows and orphans, who receive their ſeveral ſhares in proportion to the reſt of the members of the company.

HORSE. A domeſtic quadruped, of great uſe in the affairs of agriculture, commerce, war, and ſporting.
The maſters in the art of horſemanſhip lay it down, that a horſe to be good, and well made, muſt have three parts like thoſe of a woman; the breaſt, which is to be broad; the hips round, and the mane long: three of a lion; namely, countenance, intrepidity, and fire: three of a bullock; the eye, noſtril, and joint: three of a ſheep; the noſe, gentleneſs, and patience: three of a mule; ſtrength, conſtancy, and foot: three of a deer; head, leg, and hair ſhort: three of a fox; ear, tail, and trot: three of a ſerpent; memory, ſight, and turning: three of a hair, or cat, running, walking, and ſuppleneſs.
Horſes are diſtinguiſhed into ſeveral kinds, and differently denominated, with regard to their ſtrain or country. As, the Neapolitan, known by his hawk noſe; the Spaniſh genet, by his ſmall limbs; the Barb, by his fine head, and deep hoof; the Dutch, by the roughneſs of his legs; and the Engliſh, by his ſtrong knitting together.
Horſes are alſo diſtinguiſhed with regard to the uſes or offices they are reſerved for; as, the ſumpter-horſe, coach-horſe, war-horſe, hunting-horſe, running-horſe, ſaddle-horſe, pack-horſe, and road-horſe.
Horſes are likewiſe diſtinguiſhed with regard to their colours; as, a bay, which admits of divers ſhades or caſts; as, black-bay, brown-bay, dapple-bay; all which have conſtantly black manes and tails. Dun, and mouſe-dun, having frequently a black liſt along the back, are denominated flea-backed. The flea-bitten is white, ſpotted with red. Grey, dapple-grey, ſilver-grey, ſad, or powdered grey, black-grey, ſandy-grey, and iron-grey. Griſſel, or rount, a light fleſh colour intermixed with white. Peach-colour, or bloſſom colour. Pye-bald, which conſiſts of two colours, one of them white. Tyger colour, much the ſame with the branded grey, only the ſpots ſmaller. Roan, a bay, black, or ſorrel, intermixed with white hairs. Rubican, black or ſorrel, with white hairs ſcattered about his body. Sorrel, common ſorrel, red and cow-coloured ſorrel, bright or light-coloured ſorrel, burnt ſorrel, all chiefly diſtinguiſhed by the colour of their manes. Starling colour, reſembling a browniſh or blackiſh grey, only more freckled or intermixed with white. Wolf-colour, deer-colour, black, and white.
The colours are generally conſidered as ſymbolical of the nature and qualities of the beaſts, and accordingly their value is much influenced thereby. The dapple grey is prized for beauty; the brown bay for ſervice; the black, with ſilver hair for courage; the roan for countenance; the ſorrel, black without white, and iron grey, are reputed hot and fiery; the bright grey, flea-bitten, and black with white ſpots, are ſanguine; the white, dun, and pye-bald, phlegmatic, and heavy; the mouſe-dun, red bay, and blue grey, are dull; the peach colour rarely prove obedient to the ſpur; the ſorrel ſeldom fail of being good, eſpecially if their legs, tails, and manes, are black; and the ſame may be ſaid of the flea-bitten, at leaſt thoſe ſo marked in the fore parts, or over the whole body, for when marked behind it is an ill ſign. Indeed, it is hard laying down any univerſal rule: the white, which promiſe the leaſt, prove good, when black about the eyes and noſtrils; and there are excellent iron greys, tho' they are not reputed a good colour.
There is a conſiderable trade in moſt parts of Europe in

in horſes; but the countries affording the beſt, and in the greateſt numbers, are England, Spain, Flanders, Holland, particularly Frieſland, a part of Germany, Switzerland, Denmark, and Italy, eſpecially the kingdom of Naples.

Sometimes Barbs, Turkiſh, and Arabian horſes, are imported into Europe; but the difficulty of embarking the one, and the long voyage of the others, beſides the great duties paid for all, and the extortions thoſe are ſubject to who undertake theſe tranſports, make the obſtacles almoſt inſurmountable.

Beſides the commerce of horſes in different countries, a horſe affords either ſeveral uſeful things for manufactures, or for the implements of ſeveral arts and trades.

The principal of theſe are, the hair, the hoof, and the hide. The hair is uſed for making buttons, and haircloths, as alſo to mix with human hair in perukes: the hoof in ſeveral horn works; and the hide moſtly for ſaddle leather.

An oil is extracted from the horſe's neck and belly, which is uſed chiefly by enamellers. The buccaneers of St. Domingo uſe no other for burning, and even drive on a pretty conſiderable trade with it, at Tortuga, and the Antilles iſlands, where it yields but little ſmoke; making a more lively blaze than any other oil. See *Oil*.

Sea HORSE. An amphibious animal found in ſeveral parts of the frozen ocean; particularly towards Greenland.

Some authors, and perhaps not without reaſon, give it the name of *morſe*, or ſea-ox, either upon account of its bigneſs, or its two large teeth ſhaped like horns; or its nearer reſemblance to an ox, than to a horſe.

When theſe animals are in great numbers upon the ice, where they uſually go to ſleep, and repoſe themſelves in the ſun-ſhine, the ſeamen awake them by great outcries; yet keeping their boats at ſome diſtance, for fear the animals, on running into the ſea, might leap into, and overturn them; though it is when the ſea-horſe precipitates himſelf into the ſea, that the harponeer takes his time to caſt at him his harping iron, the ſtroke being then ſurer, becauſe the ſkin is more tender.

The teeth of this animal are uſed for a kind of ivory; but they are not ſo much in eſteem as formerly; becauſe the ſhips which reſort the whale fiſhery, frequently brought ſuch a great quantity of them, that the price is much lowered. Their chief uſe is in turners, and inlaid work; they are alſo of ſome uſe in medicine; and rings are alſo made of them, reputed a kind of counter-poiſon, and an antidote againſt malignant diſorders.

In 1606, ſome Engliſh were ſent to make diſcoveries in the north, where they landed in 74 degrees, 55 minutes, and met with ſuch numbers of ſea-horſes, that they killed 800 in leſs than ſix hours, filled three barrels with teeth, and twenty-one ton of oil.

In 1608 the Engliſh killed 900 in ſeven hours, from which they procured 31 ton of oil, and two barrels of teeth: they alſo took alive a male and a female; and the male was brought into England.

In 1610, 800 were killed in two days; and one man killed 40 the firſt day with a lance.

The Hamburghers alſo, being once unſucceſsful in the whale fiſhery, went in queſt of theſe animals, and killed ſuch numbers of them, that they made a greater profit by this voyage, than if they had had ſucceſs in the whale-fiſhery.

There are ſome parts of the ſea-horſe good for eating; among others the tongue, heart, and liver, if boiled, when newly killed. See Whale *Fiſhery*, *Walrus*, and *Hippopotamus*.

HORSE, is alſo a term uſed in various arts and manufactories, for ſomething that helps to ſuſtain their work from the ground, for the more commodious working at it.

The horſe uſed by tanners and ſkinners, called alſo the leg, is a piece of wood cut hollow and roundiſh, four or five feet long, and placed aſlope, upon which they pare their ſkins to get off the dirt, hair, and fleſh.

HORSE, is likewiſe uſed in carpentery for a piece of wood jointed acroſs two other perpendicular ones, to ſuſtain the boards, and planks, which make bridges over ſmall rivers; and on divers other occaſions.

HORSE, is alſo a rope in a ſhip, made faſt to one of the foremoſt ſhrouds; having a dead-man's eye at its end, through which the pennant of the ſprit-ſail ſheets is reeved.

HORSE, is alſo a cant name lately introduced into the office of lotteries, for the chance, or benefit of a ticket; or number for one or more days; upon condition, if it be drawn a prize within the time covenanted for, of returning to the ſeller an undrawn ticket. To determine the value of a horſe, the amount of the prizes in the lottery ſhould be multiplied by the time the horſe is hired for; and from the product ſhould be ſubſtracted the amount of the number of prizes by the value of an undrawn ticket into the time of the horſe: the remainder being divided by the number of tickets into the whole time of drawing, the quotient is the value of the horſe.

HORSE-*ſhoe*. A cover or defence for the ſole of a horſe's foot. Of theſe are ſeveral ſorts; as, the planch ſhoe, or pancake, which is ſaid to make a good foot, and a bad leg, as cauſing the foot to grow beyond the meaſure of the leg. It is choſe for a weak heel, and will laſt longer than any other ſhoe; being borrowed from the moil, which has weak heels, and fruſhes to keep the feet from ſtones and gravel.

Shoes with calkins, which, though intended to ſecure the horſe from ſliding, yet are reputed by many to do him more harm than good; as he cannot tread even upon the ground, whereby many times he wrenches his foot, or ſtrains ſome ſinew, eſpecially upon ſtony ways, where ſtones will not ſuffer the calkins to enter. Double calkins are leſs hurtful, as he treads evener with them than on the ſingle calkins; though they muſt not be over long, or ſharp-pointed, but rather ſhort and flat.

Shoes with rings were firſt invented to make the horſe lift his feet up high; though ſuch ſhoes are more painful than helpful, beſide the unhandſomeneſs of the ſight. This defect is moſt incident to horſes that have not ſound hoofs, for tender feet fear to touch the ground that is hard: but what is intended for remedy, proves a prejudice to the horſe, by adding high calkins, or rings to his ſhoes; for by that means his heels are made weaker than before.

Shoes with ſwelling welts or borders round about them, are uſed in Germany, which being higher than the heads of the nails, ſave them from wearing. Theſe are the beſt ſort of laſting ſhoes, if made of well tempered ſtuff, as they wear equally in all parts, and the horſe treads evenly upon them.

Others, who uſe to paſs mountains, and places where ſmiths are not ſo eaſily met with, carry ſhoes about them, with vices, whereby they faſten them to the horſe's hoof, without the help of the hammer or nail: yet this is more for ſhow than ſervice; for tho' ſuch ſhoes may ſave a horſe's feet from ſtones, yet it ſo pinches his hoof that he goes with pain, and, perhaps, injures them more than the ſtones. On ſuch emergent occaſions, therefore, it is better to make uſe of the joint-ſhoe, which is made of two pieces, with a flat rivet nail joining them together in the toe, ſo that it may be taken both wide or narrow, to ſerve any foot.

Panton, or pontable ſhoe, opens the heels, and helps hoof-binding; to which may be added the half panton ſhoe.

Patten-ſhoe, is uſed for a horſe that is burnt in the hip, ſtifle, or ſhoulder, as it cauſes him to bear upon that leg the grief is on, and conſequently makes him uſe it the better.

HORSE-*meaſure*, is a rod of box, to ſlide out of a cane, with a ſquare at the end, being divided into hands and inches, to meaſure the height of horſes. See *Hand*, and *Meaſure*.

HORSHAM-*ſtone*, is a kind of thin broad ſlate, of a greenish colour, chiefly brought from the town of Horſham in Suſſex, formerly much uſed, eſpecially in Suſſex, to hear or cover churches, chancels, and great houſes.

HORTOLAN, or *Ortolan*. A ſmall bird, exceeding fat and of an exquiſite taſte, found in the ſouthern, and ſeveral other provinces of France.

The hortolans of the iſland of Cyprus are a very conſiderable object of the Venetian trade, upwards of a thouſand barrels of them being one year with another exported

orted for Venice, which are cured and caſked much like rovence anchovies; that is, with a pickle of vinegar and alt.

SE, from the Saxon, *hoſa*, a ſtocking. See *Stocking*.

enwich HOSPITAL. See *Greenwich* Hoſpital.

ſt's HOSPITAL, popularly called the *Blue-coat Hoſpital*, the city of London, was anciently a monaſtery of rey-friars, founded by Raihere the firſt prior thereof, in e time of Henry I. diſſolved by Henry VIII. and con-erted by Edward VI. into an hoſpital for poor children, ho are ſupplied with all neceſſaries, and conveniencies, oathed, dieted, and taught.

ere are two mathematical ſchools, the firſt founded by ing Charles II. but they are now united; where youths e taught ſeveral parts of practical mathematics, particu-rly navigation, to fit them for apprentices to maſters of ips.

T-*bed*. A piece of earth, or ſoil, plentifully enriched ith manure, and defended from cold winds, to forward e growth of plants, and force vegetation, when the aſon, or the climate of itſelf is not warm enough.

y means of hot-beds ſkillfully managed, gardeners can nearly imitate the temperature of other climates, that eds of plants brought from any country between the opics, may be made to flouriſh even under the poles.

he uſual way of making hot-beds in England, is of rſe-litter and graſs mixed together, and left on a heap eight or ten days to putrify; when it is removed into ed, and covered with glaſſes or frames. Others chuſe take horſe-dung a month or ſix weeks old, and make feed-bed of it, about four feet high, and cover it up th ſtraw a foot thick, which is to be removed in three four days, and its place ſupplied either with cows dung, the laſt years ridges.

Holland they make uſe of hot beds made of ſand, hich are not ſo apt to raiſe unwholſome damps as thoſe horſe dung. The Dutch alſo make hot beds of tanners k, which, when once rightly prepared, will maintain equable heat for ſix months.

eſe ingredients are to be made up into balls, moiſtened th a little urine, or in any other form at pleaſure, and poſed to the air till thoroughly dry; whence they may built into the moſt orderly fire imaginable, affording lowing, ſolemn, and conſtant heat for ſeven or eight urs without ſtirring. This mixture is frequently uſed ſome parts to ſlacken the impetuous devouring of the , and keep coals from conſuming too faſt.

-*ſhoots*, or *Hoviliſes*. A ſort of factitious or compound l, made of a third part of any coal, pit, ſea, or rcoal, mixed with two thirds of loam. See *Fuel*.

TTENTOTS *Country*, is ſituated between 15 and 35 . of E. lon. and between 23 and 25 deg. of S. lat. ng the moſt ſouthern promontory of Africa, compre-ding the Cape of Good Hope, and the reſt of the tch ſettlements there. See *Caffraria*.

TS, or *Hutts*, pounces and round balls of leather, ed, or tied on the ſharp end of fighting cocks ſpurs, keep them from hurting one another in ſparring or athing themſelves.

PPON, or *Hoppo*, is a term among the Chineſe for a ndarin commiſſioner of the cuſtoms, eſtabliſhed for receipt of the duties of importation and exportation.

R-*Glaſs*. A popular kind of chronometer, or clepſy-, ſerving to meaſure the flux of time, by the deſcent running of ſand, out of one glaſs veſſel into another. e beſt hour-glaſſes are thoſe which, inſtead of ſand, e egg-ſhells well dried in the oven, then beaten fine ſifted.

e hour glaſſes are much uſed at ſea for reckoning; but e are alſo a ſort of hour-glaſſes which depend on the of water or other liquid, more properly called clep-a.

SAGE. A fee which a carrier, or other perſon, pays aying up goods in a houſe.

SE. A building of divers forms and materials, con-d with various apartments, ſuited to the uſe and enience of the perſons who inhabit therein: but it rticularly applied, in partnerſhips of trade, to that e where the buſineſs is carried on.

HOUSE *of Call*. A houſe where journeymen taylors, ſhoe-makers, and all other artificers meet, and may be heard of by the reſpective maſters.

Town-HOUSE, or *Hall*, is a place where the officers and magiſtrates of a town, or city, hold their meetings, for the due adminiſtration of their polity. See *Gild*.

HOUSE-*wife's cloth*, is a middle ſort of linen cloth, between fine and coarſe, for family uſes.

HOUSING, or *Houſe*. A cover laid over the ſaddle of a horſe, in order to ſave it from the weather and dirt.

Boot-HOUSING, is a piece of ſtuff faſtened to the hinder part of the ſaddle, that covers a horſe's croupe; either for the ſake of ornament, to hide the horſe's leanneſs, or to ſave the cloaths of the rider from being daubed and ſoiled by the ſweat of the horſe.

Shoe-HOUSING. A piece of cloth bordered with a fringe, oftentimes put round the ſaddle, to cover the croupe, and hang down to the lower part of the belly, to ſave the ſtockings of thoſe that ride without boots.

HOUSSET. A kind of Perſian ſilk, brought from Aleppo.

HOWKER, or *Hooker*. A veſſel much uſed by the Dutch, built ſomething like a pink, but rigged and maſted like a hoy.

Howkers carry from 50 to 200 tons; and with a ſmall number of hands will go to the Eaſt Indies: they tack ſoon and ſhort, will ſail well, lie near the wind, and live almoſt in any ſea.

HOY. A ſmall veſſel, or bark, whoſe yards are not acroſs, nor the ſails ſquare, like thoſe of ſhips; but the ſails like a mizzen, ſo that ſhe can fall nearer to the wind than a veſſel with croſs ſails can do.

HOYSE, or *Hoiſe*, the ſea word for haling up any thing into the ſhip, or getting up a yard: thus they ſay hoiſe up the yard, and hoiſe the water in.

HUCKABACK. A particular ſort of linen, wove on purpoſe for table-cloths and napkins, with little eyes in it, and ſhot back, that the greaſe and dirt may eaſily waſh out.

HUCKSTER. One that ſells proviſions, or ſmall wares, by retail.

HUDSON's *Bay* lies in the north part of Canada, in North America, in 80 deg. of W. lon. and between 51 deg. and 63 min. of N. lat. where the Engliſh Hudſon's bay company have ſeveral forts and ſettlements; from whence they carry on a traffic with the natives for ſkins and furs to a very great value.

This bay is about 300 leagues wide from ſouth to north; or rather above 530 reckoning from the cod of James bay, in lat. 51, to that of Repulſe bay in lat. 67-10. The breadth is unequal; being in ſome places only about 30 leagues, and in others 130. That part of the bay on the weſt ſide, in lat. 57, is called Button's bay; and the eaſtern part, from lat. 55-15 to 51, and the moſt ſouthern part, is called James bay.

On the eaſtern main, or coaſt of Labrador, are ſeveral iſlands: the continent is very extenſive, and inhabited by Indians, who are rude and uncivilized: but the Engliſh have ſeveral forts and ſettlements on the Weſt Main, or New Wales; particularly one at the mouth of Churchil river, in about lat. 59, and lon. 95. W. from London; another at York fort, at the mouth of Nelſon's river; one at new Severn, one at Albany river, one at Hayes's iſland, and one at Rupert's river. See *Britiſh* and *Indian* America.

The Engliſh HUDSON's *bay company* was formed in 1681; its charter, dated the 2d of May, in the 32d year of the reign of Charles II. being granted in favour of Prince Rupert and his aſſociates.

Its privilege is excluſive for all the trade that can be carried on in Hudſon's bay, and in all the ſeas, ſtreights, bays, rivers, lakes, and paſſages, in whatever latitude they may be, with the property of all the iſlands and lands therein, not poſſeſſed by any other nation; which lands and territories were to be called the lands of Rupert. A governor, ſub-governor, deputy, and ſeven directors, were appointed for its adminiſtration; and a common ſeal was granted to the company.

The capital fund of the company was 10,500 l. ſterling, and ſhares were worth 500 l.; but the continual wars be-

 tween

tween France and Great Britain, till the peace of Utrecht, ſunk the value of the ſhares.

The ſole trade of the country is that of furs; ſuch as the ſkins of beavers, martens, foxes, bears, rein-deer, and buffaloes; from which vaſt profits ariſe; and, beſides, there is a pretty good trade of blubber, in the forts belonging to the Engliſh company. See *Beaver*.

The natives receive, in exchange for their furs, arms, proviſions, ſome groceries, and hard-ware.

The commodities for the ſupport of the colony conſiſt generally in all the neceſſaries of life; the country affording nothing either for the nouriſhment or cloathing of the inhabitants of this rich, but miſerable colony.

This company was occaſioned by two French gentlemen, who travelled into the country of the Eſkimaux, and diſcovered what a valuable trade might be carried on there: they repreſented the matter to the French government, who, contrary to their political ſyſtem, rejected it; whereupon they communicated their obſervations to the Engliſh, who ſettled the trade. The French ſoon perceived their error, grew jealous of the Engliſh, and at different times diſpoſſeſſed them of moſt of their forts, which were reſtored by the treaty of Utrecht; and from that time the Engliſh company has been in a very flouriſhing condition.

French Canada company, otherwiſe called *The company of Caſtor*. Before the eſtabliſhment of companies for the Weſt Indies, the inhabitants and colonies of New France, diſcretionarily diſpoſed of the ſkins they treated for with the Indians. The company of 1628, which alone was empowered to carry on this trade, being incapable of fulfilling its engagements; the Dutch, for a conſiderable time, engroſſed the whole Canada trade; taking away with them the beſt part of the caſtors, and ſelling them to the French at an exceſſive rate.

When the Weſt company was eſtabliſhed in 1664, it carried on this trade as long as it ſubſiſted; it being from them that the hatters and furriers of France had their caſtors much cheaper than from the Dutch.

After the revoking of the letters-patent granted this company, when Lewis XIV. had united to his crown the dominions of the Weſt company, the adjudication thereof was made over to private farmers; and, by an arret of council of the 11th May 1675, it was ordained, that the commerce and traffic of caſtor ſhould be confined to one only perſon; that is, the adjudicator of the ſaid demeſnes, at 3 s. 4 d. ſterling *per* lb. weight, without diſtinction of qualities and ſpecies.

By another arret, of the 16th of May 1677, caſtors were reduced to 3 qualities, and 3 different prices; the fat and half-fat to 4 s. 6 d. ſterl. *per* lb. the dry and new, to 3 s. 4 d. ſterling; and the dry and moulted to 2 s. 6 d. ſterling.

Laſtly, in 1695, upon the remonſtrance of Pointeau, farmer-general of the five large farms, to whom the demeſnes of the Weſt and Canada were made over, the following regulation was made of the price and ſpecies of caſtor, by an arret of council of the 30th of May of the ſame year; fat, and half fat caſtor, at 4 s. 2 d. *per* lb. avoirdupoiſe weight: fat ſummer caſtor, and moulted, at 2 s. 2 d. and dry winter and Muſcovy caſtor, at 2 s. 6 d. ſterling.

French Acadia Company. The French had a flouriſhing company in Nova Scotia, or Acadia, before the peace of Utrecht; for, in 1683, this company was formed for carrying on the commerce of all ſorts of furs, eſpecially thoſe of caſtor: but it was deſtroyed by the treaty of Utrecht, which gave Nova Scotia to the crown of Great Britain.

This is a very profitable trade to the Europeans, who, in 1742, gave only a pound of gun-powder for 4 beavers, a fathom of tobacco for 7, a pound of ſhot for 1, an ell of coarſe cloth for 15, a blanket for 12, two fiſh-hooks, or 3 flints, for 1; a gun for 25, a piſtol for 10, a common hat with white lace for 7, an ax for 4, a check ſhirt for 7, a bill-hook for 1, and a gallon of brandy for 4; all which is ſaid to bring 2000 *per cent.* profit.

Theſe furs are more eſteemed than thoſe ſold at New York, and brought from the Canadean lakes; for the former are worth 5 or 6 s. a pound, and the latter only 3 s. 6 d. A good Indian hunter will kill 600 beavers in a ſeaſon: but they ſometimes burn off the fur, and roaſt the beavers like pigs; beſides, they uſe the ſkins for bedding and coverings; ſo that one man ſeldom brings above a pack, containing 100 ſkins, to market: but the French have got a ſettlement for trade about 100 miles above the Britiſh factory, where they ſell their goods cheaper than the Engliſh, and get all the choice ſkins both of beavers and martens.

It has been ſaid, that the Engliſh company avoid making any diſcoveries to the northward of Churchill, or extending their trade that way, for fear they ſhould diſcover a paſſage to the weſtern ocean of America, and by that means tempt the other Engliſh merchants to lay open their trade. Indeed, it is ſtrongly preſumed that ſuch a paſſage may be diſcovered; the parliament have encouraged the attempt; and it has been tried, but hitherto with little ſucceſs. See *North*-weſt paſſage.

It has been complained, that the company have only 120 men in all their factories; that they employ only two or three ſhips in the trade; and that the commerce of furs in this part of the world may ſoon be engroſſed by the French who are daily attempting it: therefore, the opening of this trade, and the better ſettlement of the bay, has been wiſhed for by ſeveral perſons; eſpecially as there is a probability of ſucceeding in the diſcovery of a north-weſt paſſage, which would open a new road to the South Sea and the Eaſt-Indies, greatly change the face of commerce, and give to the poſſeſſors of the country about Hudſon's bay many advantages over other nations.

HUDSON's *Streights*, in N. America, lie between 65 and 75 deg. of W. lon. and between 60 and 64 deg. of N. lat. being the paſſage out of the Atlantic ocean into Hudſon's bay.

HUDSON's *River*, riſes near the lake Champlain, in Canada in North America; and, running ſouth, paſſes by the Engliſh fort of Albany; from whence it continues its courſe the whole length of New York, falling into the ſea near the weſt-end of Long iſland, a little below the city of New York.

HUEGLY. A town in the Eaſt Indies, ſituated on an iſland in the moſt weſterly branch of the river Ganges, in the province of Bengal, in 87 deg. of E. lon. and 22 deg. of N. lat. about 100 miles up the mouth of the river. It is a large populous town, inhabited by Indians and Portugueſe, where the Engliſh and other Europeans lately had factories; but the Engliſh are now removed lower down the river to Fort William, or Calkutta.

HULKS, are large veſſels, having their gun-decks from 113 to 150 feet long, and from 31 to 40 feet broad, capable of carrying from 400 to 1000 tons; their chief uſe being for ſetting maſts into ſhips.

HULL, or *Kingſton upon Hull*, a port-town in the East Riding of Yorkſhire, ſituated in 6 min. of W. lon. and 53 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. on the river Hull, near its mouth of the Humber, 32 miles S. E. of York; being a place of good trade; with a yard for building men of war, and other veſſels.

HULL *of a ſhip*, is her main body, without either maſts, yards, ſails, or rigging.

To HULL, or *lie at the Hull*, is underſtood of a ſhip, when either in a dead calm, or in a ſtorm, ſhe cannot carry her ſails, but they are taken in to preſerve them; ſo that nothing but her maſts, yards, and riggings are abroad, and her helm tied down to the lee ſide of the ſhip; in which ſtate ſhe will lie eaſily under the ſea, if ſhe be a good ſailor, and make her way one point before the wind.

To ſtrike a HULL, is to lie cloſely, or obſcurely, in a ſtorm; or to tarry for ſome conſort, bearing up with the helm laſhed a-lee.

HULLOCK. A ſmall part of a ſhip's ſail, which is cut and left open in a great ſtorm; commonly uſed in the mizzen ſail, to keep the ſhip's head to the ſea.

HUMBER. A river formed by the Trent, the Ouſe, the Derwent, and ſeveral other ſtreams; which divides Yorkſhire from Lincolnſhire, and falls into the German ſea at Holderneſs.

HUN

NDRED. The number of ten times ten, or the ſquare f ten; whereby is uſually expreſſed the quantity or proortion of the profits made in theway of commerce; as, hey aſk two and a half *per cent.* or in the hundred, for emitting money to ſuch a city: the legal intereſt of oney is 3 *per cent.* or three pounds in the hundred.

NDRED, is alſo uſed as a meaſure to expreſs a certain uantity, or number of things: a hundred of ſalt at Amſterdam being fourteen tons.

Deal boards are ſix ſcore to the hundred, called the long undred: pales and laths are five ſcore to the hundred if ive feet long, and ſix ſcore if three feet long.

NDRED *Weight*, Engliſh avoirdupoiſe, is 112 lb. the uarter is 28 lb. the pound 16 ounces, and the ounce 16 rachms; 20 hundred weight, or 2240 lb. being a ton. This is the common weight of England for all groſs goods; eing the ſame as the quintal of France; but the hundred eight is leſs in ſugar, and more in tin. See *Quintal*, nd *Weight*.

NGAR, or *Hongre*, a gold coin ſtruck in Hungary; nd alſo a money of accompt, worth about a crown erling.

NGARY. A kingdom ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria, bounded by the Carpathian mountains, which divide from Poland, on the north; by Tranſilvania, and Wallachia towards the eaſt; by the river Drave, which ſearates it from Sclavonia, on the ſouth; and by Styria, Auſtria, and Moravia towards the weſt.: extending from 5 deg. 30 min. to the 49th deg. of N. lat. and from the 6th to the 22d deg. of E. lon. being a continued plain f 300 miles and upwards from Preſburg to Belgrade.

This country, tho' at ſome diſtance from the ſea, is well watered by lakes and rivers; the moſt conſiderable of which are the lakes Balaton, or Platſee, and the new Fidelſee. The principal rivers are the Danube, the Tiſcus, the Drave, the Raab, the Gran, the Teyſſe, and the Waag.

Hungary is divided into the upper, or larger, which lies N. E. of the Danube; and the lower, or leſſer, on the S. W. ſide of the Danube. The chief towns in Upper Hungary are Preſburg the capital, New Hauſel, Chremnitz, Newſol, Hern Grunt, Eſperics, Caſchaw, Agria, Peſt, Segedin, Temeſwaer, Zolnock, Montgatz, Unghuar, and Tokay. In Lower Hungary the chief towns are Buda, Gran, and Komarra.

No ſoil can be more fruitful than that of Hungary, where it is free from woods and mountains. Their bread corn is good, and yet ſo plentiful that it is ſix times cheaper than in England. Their grapes are large and luſcious, and their wines, particularly thoſe of Tokay, admired beyond any in Europe. Nor have they leſs plenty of cattle, than of corn and wine, ſending incredible numbers of oxen every year into Germany, beſides deer, game, wild fowl, and the beſt freſh water fiſh, all in abundance. The country is alſo famous, eſpecially about Chremnitz, for its gold mine, which is 170 fathoms deep, and the vein runs 10 miles in length. There have been found in this mine pieces of pure virgin gold, ſome of which are to be ſeen among the Emperor's curioſities at Vienna. Near the town of Chremnitz is alſo a mine of vitriol 80 fathoms deep. The richeſt of the ſilver mines is called the Trinity, and a third called Winſchat. The ore is rich, and moſt of it contains ſome gold, which is ſeparated by melting the ſilver, and afterwards grinding and diſſolving it in aqua fortis, made of the vitriol which comes from Chremnitz, wherein the gold ſubſides. Theſe mines alſo afford cryſtals, amethyſts, and vitriol naturally cryſtallized. At Hern Grunt there are copper mines, ſo rich that they yield from 20 to 60 lb. of copper in 100 lb. of ore. There are alſo ſeveral kinds of vitriol found in theſe mines, as white, green, blue, and a tranſparent red; likewiſe a green earth called berg grun, uſed in painting. Here are alſo two ſprings of vitriolic water, which in fourteen days turn iron into copper. At Eſperics, near the frontiers of Poland, there are ſalt mines, in one of which the veins are ſo large that they dig out pieces of a thouſand pound of pure ſalt.

The Hungarians have ſcarce any other manufacture than that of copper, and other hard wares; conſequently their foreign trade is not very conſiderable; the exportation of their wines and cattle ſeeming to be the beſt branches of it. They might indeed promote a very profitable navigation by the Danube on the coaſts of the Black ſea; but, as the Turks are maſters of the mouth of that river, nothing of that kind can be attempted at preſent: ſhould the houſe of Auſtria extend its conqueſts a little farther, by making itſelf maſter of Wallachia, and Bulgaria, the ſituation of Hungary would not lie much amiſs for carrying on a trade between Aſia, and the German ocean; but what is the greateſt diſcouragement to trade, is, that Hungary is looked upon only as a province, and the imperial miniſtry, far from conſulting the good of the country, only wreck and impoveriſh the people to increaſe the Auſtrian revenue, and fill their own pockets, while they ſtop the mouths of the moſt popular Hungarian lords with penſions or places.

Adjacent to Hungary are the provinces of Tranſylvania, Sclavonia, and Croatia; all of which are ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.

Tranſylvania, part of the ancient Dacia, is bounded by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland towards the north; by Moldavia towards the eaſt, from which it is ſeparated by a long ridge of hills; by Wallachia, and part of Hungary, on the ſouth; and by Hungary towards the weſt; extending from 45 deg. odd min. to 48 deg. of N. lat. and from the 22d to the 25th deg. of E. lon. being about 120 miles in length from N. to S. and about as many from E. to W.

The country is inhabited by four ſeveral ſorts of people; the firſt ſtyle themſelves Saxons, and are poſſeſſed of the province called Sieben Bourgen, or ſeven towns, containing near two thirds of the country; the ſecond are the Siculi, who inhabit the N. E. near the Carpathian mountains; the third, the Hungarians, who reſide towards the confines of Hungary, and Walachia; and the fourth, the Cingars or Gypſies, who pitch their tents all over the country.

The principal rivers of Tranſylvania are the Alt, the Maroſch, and the Samos: the ſoil is exceeding fruitful, the wheat eſteemed the beſt in Europe, and ſo plentiful, that the peaſants eat no other bread; the wine is in great plenty, and inferior only to that of Hungary. In their meadows and paſtures they feed vaſt herds of large oxen, which increaſe ſo upon them, that a fat ox may be purchaſed for the value of 20 ſhillings in the country, but driven to market into Auſtria will yield 12 or 15 l. They have alſo a good breed of horſes, very much eſteemed by foreigners. Their woods afford plenty of bees and honey, with which they make a ſort of mead, which is highly valued, mixing the honey with ſeveral other pleaſant ingredients. Their foreſts abound with all kinds of veniſon. They have ſome mines of gold, and other metals, in their mountains, but not ſo many as in Hungary. Theſe are either at Sculatti, or Rimli Dominurditz, in the laſt of which there have been found large lumps of virgin gold. Their beſt ſilver mines are near Offera, and Radna; where are alſo ſeveral copper mines, in which they ſometimes meet with a vein of pure gold. There is plenty of ſteel at Cyck; of iron at Thoroſch and Huniad; and they frequently meet with brimſtone and iſinglaſs in their copper mines. They have alſo ſuch quantities of rock ſalt, in the diſtrict of Maromarus, that they export it to other countries.

The only manufacture, beſides thoſe of copper, iron, and ſteel, is that of cloth, of which they export no great quantities. What they ſend abroad is chiefly fat cattle, wine, mead, rock ſalt, copper, and iron wares. A country ſo well ſtocked with all manner of proviſions, and neceſſaries, was it under the government of its own Prince, muſt make a tolerable figure in the world; but being a diſtant province belonging to the Auſtrian family, notwithſtanding all theſe extraordinary advantages, Tranſylvania is ſcarce ever mentioned as part of Europe, and leſs is known of it than of the remoteſt countries in the Eaſt or Weſt Indies.

Sclavonia, including Ratzia, is bounded by the rivers Drave, and Danube, which ſeparate it from Hungary, towards the north and eaſt; by the river Save, which divides it from

from Servia and Bosnia, on the south; and by Stiria on the west; being computed to be upwards of 200 miles in length, and between 50 and 60 miles in breadth. The chief towns are Posega, Walpo, Walcowar, Peterwaradin, Salankamen, Carlowitz, Sirmium, Zagrab, and Gradiska. Sclavonia is very proper for tillage, and would produce plenty of corn and wine if they could enjoy a settled peace, and their fields were well cultivated. The navigable rivers which pass through Sclavonia, render it also exceeding proper to carry on a trade between the empire and Turky; but it is a misfortune, that, notwithstanding these frontier countries are blessed with all the advantages nature can bestow upon them, great part of them are often a perfect desart, and only considerable for the strength of their towns, and the number of their garrisons, which are always pernicious to trade, and husbandry; for none will attempt to establish manufactures, or improve their lands, where the soldiers probably will reap the fruit of their labours.

Croatia, part of the ancient Illyricum, is bounded by the river Save, which separates it from Sclavonia, towards the north; by Bosnia towards the east; by Morlachia towards the south; and by Carniola on the west; being about 80 miles in length, and as much in breadth. The chief towns are Carlstat, Siseg, Castanovitz, Dubiez, and Whitz.

The country of Croatia is naturally fruitful, producing plenty of corn, wine, and oil, where it is cultivated; but, being a frontier against the Turks, it has not yielded much more than would supply the necessities of the inhabitants of late years.

HUNGARY-*water*. A distilled water, denominated from a Queen of Hungary, for whose use it was first prepared; which is one of the distilled waters of the shops, and is directed, in the college dispensatory, to be made of rosemary flowers infused some days in rectified spirits of wine, and then distilled: its virtues being much the same as those of the simple it is drawn from.

HURDS. See *Hards*.

HURDLES, in husbandry, are frames made either of slit timber, or of hazzle rods platted together, to serve for gates in enclosures, or to make sheep-folds.

HURON *Lake*, is situated in Canada, in North America, between 84 and 89 deg. of W. lon. and between 43 and 46 deg. of N. lat. the country contiguous to this lake being called the country of the Hurons, where the French pretend to have some settlements, and to have entered into an alliance with the Indians, who have found out a way from this lake to their settlements on the river Missisippi, which falls into the gulph of Mexico.

HURRICANE. A furious storm of wind, arising from a contrariety and opposition of several winds; which is frequent in the East and West Indies; making terrible ravages in the islands thereof; blowing down houses, rooting up trees, and even whole woods. They begin in the north, some say in the west, but turn round; and, in a little time, veer through all the points of the compass.

It is customary for the French and English inhabitants in the Caribbee islands, to send every year about June to the native Caribbees of St. Domingo, and St. Vincent, to know whether there will be any hurricane that year: and, about ten or twelve days before any hurricanes come, they constantly send them word. The prognostics those people go by, are given us by Captain Langford, who, in 1697, engaged one of them, by civilities, to reveal them to him.

It is one of their principles, that all hurricanes come either on the day of the full, change, or quarter of the moon; each of which is discovered by a number of phænomena the preceding quarters, as, a turbulent sky, universal calm, the stars appearing red, noises in hollows or cavities of the earth, strong smell of the sea, and a settled westerly wind. The same author assures us, he received this benefit from the information, that whereas hurricanes are so dreadful, that all ships are afraid to put out to sea while they last, and chuse rather to perish at anchor in the roads; yet, with good management, a vessel may lie out at sea in these, as safely as other storms, by taking care the ports be well barred and calked, the top-masts and tops taken down, the yards a-port lashed, and the doors and windows secured. With these precautions, that experienced navigator preserved his vessel in two great hurricanes, and taught others how to do the same, by putting out from port, where they would inevitably have perished. And from the above prognostics he foretold several hurricanes at land. He adds, that all hurricanes begin from the north, and turn to the westward, till arriving at the south-east their force is spent. The cause he suggests to be, the sun's leaving the zenith of those places, and going back towards the south; and the repelling, or bounding back of the wind, occasioned by the calming of the general trade wind.

HUSBAND *of a ship*, or *the ship's husband*, is a person chose by the owners, where several persons are concerned in a ship, to take an account of every merchant's goods, &c. and pay the wharfage, lighterage, porterage, &c. without troubling the merchants; and these husbands are to collect every merchant's proportion, when they do the owners freight.

HUSBANDRY. The knowledge and art of improving lands, particularly arable and meadow, which is properly the employment of a farmer. It is chiefly this that distinguishes the happiness of one nation from another; for corn is more precious than gold or silver; it commands both, and the farmer of Great Britain receives in exchange for his labour both the produce of the mines of Peru and Brazil. The art of husbandry is well understood in England; but it may be greatly improved, if the farmers were not entirely averse to any new scheme or invention, however manifestly calculated for their advancement; rather choosing to follow the methods used by their ancestors, than endeavour to put any modern design into execution. See *Agriculture*, and *Corn*.

HUSE. A fish, of which the white glue, called ising-glass, is made.

HUSTINGS. A court of common pleas, held before the Lord Mayor and Aldermen of London, in Guildhall; which is the principal and highest of all the courts in the city.

Other cities and towns had also courts of the same nature, as Winchester, Lincoln, York, and Shippey.

HUSUM. A port-town of Slesvic, or S. Jutland, situated in 8 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 54 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. on the German sea, 35 miles E. of Slesvic, subject to the Duke of Holstein-Gottorp.

HYACINTH, or *Jacinth*, in natural history, a precious stone, thus called from its resemblance of the purple flower called hyacinth, or the violet.

Though, it must be observed, this holds of the ancient rather than the modern hyacinth, which is usually of a deep reddish yellow, approaching a flame colour, or the deepest amber: the ancient seeming to be a different stone, of a purple colour tending to blue.

There are four sorts of hyacinths; those intermixed with a vermillion colour; those of a saffron colour; those of an amber colour; and, lastly, those of a white, intermixed with a slight red. Hyacinths, again, are distinguished into oriental and occidental: the oriental come from Calicut and Cambaya; being equal in hardness to the oriental amethyst: the occidental are sold in Bohemia and Portugal, which are a degree softer. This stone graves or cuts fine, and would be more used for seals, but that the graving frequently costs more than the stone: the ancients used it for amulets and talismans; and bore it about their necks, or set in rings, supposing it to have the virtue of securing them from the plague.

The hyacinth used in medicine, and whereof the confection of hyacinth is made, is a different stone, of which there are three several sorts: the first, about the bigness and figure of a grain of salt, and pretty soft; the second ruddy, and shaped like the point of a diamond, found in several parts of Italy, Silesia, and Bohemia; the third, is white, intermixed with some other colours, being found in the same places as the red.

In strictness, only the first kind should be used in the confection of hyacinth; but the druggists and apothecaries frequently substitute the other.

Confecti

fection of HYACINTH, is a thin cordial electuary, com-
oſed of divers ſorts of precious ſtones, particularly of
hat whoſe denomination it bears, with certain earths,
eeds, roots, coral, hartſhorn, and other ingredients, well
ixed, and ground together.

DRAGOGUES. A ſpecies of purgative medicines,
uppoſed to be peculiarly fitted to diſcharge ſerous or
atry humours. The principal of which, in the com-
non opinion, are the juices of elder, of the root of iris,
f ſoldonnella, mechoacan, and jalap: in the general,
ll ſudorific, aperitive, and diuretic medicines, are hy-
ragogues.

DRARGYRUM. A name given to mercury, or quick-
lver. See *Mercury*.

DROGRAPHICAL *maps*, more uſually called ſea-
harts, are projections of ſome part of the ſea, in plano;
or the uſe of navigation; in which are laid down all the
humbs, or points of the compaſs, the meridians, and
arallels, with the coaſts, capes, iſlands, rocks, ſhoals,
nd ſhallows, in their proper places and proportions. See
Chart.

DROGRAPHY. That part of geography which con-
ders the ſea, principally as it is navigable; teaching how
o deſcribe and meaſure the ſea; giving an account of the
ides, counter-tides, currents, ſoundings, bays, and gulphs;
s alſo its rocks, ſhelves, ſands, ſhallows, promontories,
arbours, and diſtances from port to port, with all that is
emarkable, either out at ſea, or upon the coaſt: but ſome
f the beſt authors uſe the term in a more extenſive ſenſe,
o as to denote the ſame with navigation.

n this ſenſe, hydrography includes the doctrine of ſailing,
he art of making ſea charts, with the uſe thereof; and
very thing neceſſary to be known, in order to the
afeſt and moſt expeditious performance of a voyage:
that it is the moſt perfect of all the mathematical
ciences; there being ſcarce any thing wanting to its per-
ection, but the diſcovery of the longitude. See *Longi-
ude*.

The Jeſuits Ricciolus, Fournier, and De Chales, are the
rincipal writers on the ſubject of hydrography.

n France they have profeſſors of hydrography eſtabliſhed
t all their ſea-ports, who are to inſtruct the youth in-
ended for the ſea, in all the parts of navigation, ſailing,
nd ſteering, with the ſeveral branches of mathematics
eceſſary thereto; as, arithmetic, the doctrine of the
phere, and trigonometry: they are royal profeſſors, and
each gratis; having ſalaries allowed them by the King;
nd are alſo charged with the examination of pilots.

DROMEL. A drink made of honey diluted with
ſufficient quantity of water, and fermented by a long
nd gentle heat: under which claſs are mead, and me-
heglin. Hydromel is either ſimple, called alſo aqueous,
here honey and water are the only ingredients, which
ay be prepared at any time; or compound, when other
rugs are added to improve and exalt the flavour and vir-
ue. It is particularly called vinous hydromel, when it
quals the ſtrength of wine; which it is brought to do,
ot only by the great quantity of honey uſed in it; but
lſo by its long coction and inſolation: this is only made
the heat of ſummer, and of rain water, the beſt ho-
ey boiled together, and ſcummed from time to time,
ll they become of conſiſtence to ſuſtain an egg. This
one, the liquor is expoſed to the ſun for forty days, to
ſpoſe it to ferment; then adding ſome Spaniſh wine,
nd keeping it two or three months, it acquires a flavour,
carce inferior to malmſey: it fuddles readily; and the
runken fit holds longer than that produced by wines,
y reaſon of its more viſcid conſiſtence: however, hy-
romel is the common drink of the Poles and Ruſſians.

DROSTATICAL *ballance*. A kind of ballance con-
rived for the eaſy and exact finding the ſpecific gravity of
odies, both liquid and ſolid; which is an inſtrument of
onſiderable uſe in eſtimating the degree of purity of
odies of all kinds; the quality and richneſs of metals, oars,
nd minerals; the proportions in any mixture, adultera-
on, or the like; of all which the ſpecific weight is the
nly adequate judge.

The hydroſtatical ballance is founded on this theorem of
rchimedes; That a body heavier than water, weighs leſs
in water than in air, by the weight of as much water as is equal to it in bulk: whence, if the weight of the body in water is ſubtracted from the weight in air, the difference gives the weight of as much water as is equal in magnitude to the ſolid propoſed: having therefore two bodies, the one firm, the other fluid, together with the weight of each apart; to find their proportion, the greater muſt be divided by the leſſer; and the quotient compared to one that is unity, will be the antecedent of the proportion deſired.

HYDROSTATICS. The doctrine of gravitation in fluids; or that part of mechanics, which conſiders the weight or gravity of fluid bodies, particularly water, and of ſolid bodies immerged therein. To which belong whatever relates to the gravities and æquilibria of liquors; with the art of weighing bodies in water, in order to eſtimate their ſpecific gravities.

HYGROMETER. A machine, or inſtrument, whereby to meaſure the degrees of dryneſs, or moiſture of the air; of which there are ſeveral kinds; for whatever body either ſwells or ſhrinks by dryneſs or moiſture, is capable of being formed into a hygrometer: ſuch are woods of moſt kinds, particularly aſh, deal, and poplar; ſuch alſo is catgut, and the beard of a wild cat.

HYGROSCOPE, is uſed in the ſame ſenſe with hygrometer.

HYKES. A ſort of blankets, in great uſe among the natives of Barbary; being wove by the women, who make no uſe of a ſhuttle therein, but conduct every thread of the woof with their fingers. One of theſe hykes is uſually ſix yards long, and five or ſix broad; ſerving the Kabyle as well as Arab, both male and female, for a compleat dreſs in the day, and for a bed and covering in the night. It is a looſe and troubleſome kind of garment, being frequently diſconcerted, and falling on the ground; ſo that the wearer is every moment to be tucking it up, and folding it anew round the body.

HYPOCHONDRIACAL *Medicines*, are remedies proper in the hypochondriacal diſeaſe: ſuch are all thoſe which tend to purify the blood, humours, and ſpirits; as chervil, baum, agrimony, and the other cephalic and cardiac herbs: ſuch alſo are thoſe which purge melancholy or atribilis, and thoſe which diſpel wind and vapours; and all medicines good for diſorders of the nerves, particularly vervain, both male and female: but, above all, frequent general anodyne purges.

HYPOCISTIS, in medicine, a juice uſed in the compoſition of theriaca; being the juice of a ſhoot or excreſcence of the ſame name, ſprouting out from the foot of a kind of ciſtus-tree, called ledon, or ladaniſera, common enough in the hot countries. See *Ladanum*.

The ſhoot grows about a foot high, and one, two, or three inches thick; ſomething bigger at top than at bottom, ſoft, ſucculent, of a yelloviſh colour, and ſurrounded from ſpace to ſpace with a ſort of rings or browniſh knots.

When gathered, it is pounded in a mortar, and the juice expreſſed; after which it is evaporated on the fire, till it comes to the conſiſtence of a hard blackiſh extract, like Spaniſh liquorice; and it is then made up into little maſſes for carriage. It is of a tart aſtringent taſte, and uſed to ſtop fluxes of the belly, vomitings, and hæmorrhages; though antiently much more than at preſent. It is alſo an ingredient in Venice treacle, and ſome unguents. It is ſometimes uſed as a ſubſtitute to acacia; and, Dr. Quincy ſays, is the more powerful of the two. See *Acacia*.

HYPOLAPATHUM. A kind of rhubarb, of two ſorts; one wild, and growing without culture; and the other cultivated in gardens. See *Rhubarb*.

HYPOSTATICAL *Principles*, among the chemiſts, and particularly paracelſiſts, are the three chemical elements, ſalt, ſulphur, and mercury; called alſo the *tria prima*.

HYPOTHECA, in the civil law, an obligation whereby the effects of a debtor are made over to his creditor, to ſecure his debt. As the hypotheca is an engagement procured on purpoſe for the ſecurity of the creditor, various means have been made uſe of to ſecure to him the benefit of the convention. The uſe of the pawn or pledge

is the moſt antient; which is almoſt the ſame thing with the hypotheca; all the difference conſiſting in this, that the pledge is put into the creditor's hand; whereas in a ſimple hypotheca the thing remained in the poſſeſſion of the debtor. It was found more eaſy and commodious to engage an eſtate by a civil covenant, than by an actual delivery: accordingly, the expedient was firſt practiſed among the Greeks; and from them the Romans borrowed both the name and the thing; only the Greeks, the better to prevent frauds, uſed to affix ſome viſible mark on the thing, that the public might know it was hypothecate, or mortgaged by the proprietor: but the Romans, looking upon ſuch advertiſements as injurious to the debtor, forbad the uſe of them.

The Roman lawyers diſtinguiſhed four kinds of hypothecas; the conventional, which was with the will and conſent of both parties; the legal, which was appointed by law, and for that reaſon called tacit; the prætor's pledge, when by the flight, or non-appearing of the debtor, the creditor was put in poſſeſſion of his effects; and the judiciary, when the creditor was put in poſſeſſion by virtue of a ſentence from the court.

The conventional hypotheca is ſubdivided into general and ſpecial. The hypotheca is general, when all the debtor's effects, both preſent and future, are engaged to the creditor. It is ſpecial, when limited to one or more particular things.

For the tacit hypotheca, the civilians reckon no leſs than 26 different ſpecies thereof.

Among the moderns, to hypothecate a ſhip, is to pawn or pledge the ſame for neceſſaries; and into whoſe hands ſoever the ſhip comes, it is liable; ſo if goods be hypothecated, it will be the ſame.

By the common law of England, a maſter of a ſhip could not impawn the ſhip or goods; for no property, either general or ſpecial, nor ſuch power, is given unto him, by the conſtituting of him maſter: but, by the civil law, in caſes of neceſſity, he may do it, rather than the voyage ſhould be loſt; and the reaſon of the civil law, which allows the pawning of a ſhip for neceſſaries upon the high ſeas, ſeems to be plain; becauſe there may be an invincible occaſion and neceſſity at ſea, but not at land. And the common law hath held the law of Oleron reaſonable, that if a ſhip be at ſea, and takes leak, or otherwiſe wants victuals, or other neceſſaries, whereby ſhe is in danger, or the voyage may be defeated; in ſuch caſe the maſter may impawn, for money, or other things to relieve ſuch extremities, by employing the money to that end; for he is the perſon truſted with the ſhip and voyage, and therefore may be reaſonably thought to have that power implicitly, ſo as not to ſee the whole voyage loſt.

But a maſter, for any debt of his own, cannot pawn or hypothecate the ſhip; the ſame being no ways liable but in caſes of neceſſity, for relief and compleating of the voyage: nor can he ſell or diſpoſe of the ſhip, without a ſpecial authority or licence from the owners; and when he does hypothecate the veſſel or furniture, he ought to have the conſent and advice of his mariners; but when the ſhip is well engaged, ſhe is for ever obliged, and the owners are concluded thereby till redemption: though ſuch obligation of the veſſel muſt be in foreign parts, or places where the calamity attending the ſhip is univerſal; and the maſter may not in every caſe of neceſſity impawn the veſſel or furniture.

By the laws of Oleron, if a veſſel in her voyage happens to be wrecked or caſt away, and the mariners, by their great pains and care, recover ſome of the ruins and lading, the maſter, in that caſe, may pledge the ſame; the produce of which he may diſtribute among his diſtreſſed mariners, in order to the carrying them home to their own country: but if the mariners no way contributed to the ſalvage, then their reward is ſunk and loſt with the veſſel. And if there is any conſiderable part of the lading preſerved, the maſter ought not to diſmiſs his men, till he has advice from the laders or freighters, and know their pleaſure; for otherwiſe he may be made liable for damage.

Where merchants freight out a ſhip at their own charges and ſet her to ſea, and it happens afterwards that the veſſel enters into ſome harbour, and is there wind-bound and the maſter delayed in his voyage till he wants neceſſaries, the maſter is not only to write home for ſupplies, but he may impawn his ſhip or lading at his pleaſure; or at leaſt ſuch goods as he can moſt convenieniently raiſe money on, rather than to loſe his whole voyage on the account; and if he cannot pawn the lading, he may ſell as much thereof as is neceſſary, to anſwer his occaſions; in all which caſes his act obliges. However, orders and inſtructions are carefully to be followed.

A ſhip being in great diſtreſs upon the ſea, and wanting a cable, the maſter contracted with a perſon for a cable which he delivered to him, &c. in an action for the money, it was held, that, by the maritime law, every contract of the maſter implies an hypothecation; but at common law it is not ſo, unleſs it be ſo expreſsly agreed. In the caſe of Coſter and Lewſly there was an expreſs hypothecation, and that was in a place where hypothecations are allowed, for it was at Rotterdam; and a maſter may hypothecate either ſhip or goods, becauſe he is intruſted with both, and repreſents the traders as well as owners of the ſhip.

In the caſe of Johnſon againſt Shippen, a ſhip in diſtreſs on the high ſea, in her voyage, put into Boſton in New England, and there the maſter took up neceſſaries, and by bill of ſale hypothecated the ſhip; and now there being a ſuit in the admiralty againſt the ſhip and owners to compel repayment, on a motion for a prohibition, the court of king's bench held, that the maſter could not by his contract make the owners perſonally liable; but the ſuit againſt the ſhip was good, otherwiſe there can be no remedy by law: and to hypothecate ſhips is abſolutely neceſſary for the preſervation of navigation; for the maſter can have no credit abroad, but upon giving ſecurity by hypothecation; though, if a ſhip in harbour in England is pawned or hypothecated, the party is not to ſue for it in the admiralty. See *Wreck*.

HYSSOP. A medicinal herb of a detergent cleaning quality and chiefly uſed in diſeaſes of the breaſt and lungs, being a ſtanding ingredient in pectoral apozems. There is also a ſyrup, and a ſimple diſtilled water from it, uſed in ſhops.

HYSTERICS, or *Hyſteric Medicines*, are remedies proper to remove hyſteric affections; particularly diſorders of the womb; of which there are ſeveral ſpecies: ſome evacuate or cleanſe the womb, by expelling any impurities lodged therein; others tend to ſtop immoderate fluxes thereof; and others ſtrengthen the tone of the womb.

HYTH, or *Hithe*. A port, wharf, or little haven, to embark or land wares at, ſuch as Queen-hyth.

I.

JAL

JAAR. A river which riſes near Tongres, in the biſhopric of Liege, runs N. E. and falls into the Maes at Maeſtricht, in the Netherlands.

JACATA. The capital of the iſland of Java. See *Sunda* iſlands.

JACHOS. A name given to one of the animals which produces the occidental bezoar.

JACINTH. A ſort of precious ſtone. See *Hyacinth.*

JACK, in a ſhip, is that flag which is hoiſted up at the ſprit-ſail-top-maſt head.

JACOBUS. A gold coin, worth 25 s. ſo called from King James I. of England, in whoſe reign it was ſtruck. There are uſually diſtinguiſhed two kinds of Jacobus, the old and the new; the former valued at 25 s. weighing 6 dwt. 10 gr. the latter, called alſo Jacobus, valued at 23 s. in weight 5 dwt. 20 gr.

JADE. A greeniſh ſtone, bordering on olive colour, much eſteemed for its hardneſs, which exceeds that of porphyry, agat, or jaſper, and only to be cut with diamond duſt. It is in great eſteem among the Turks and Poles, who adorn all their fine works with it, and eſpecially the handles of their ſabres.

This ſtone applied to the reins, is ſaid to be a preſervative from the nephritic colic. Mr. Bernier ſays, that the caravans of Tibet carry it to Cachemire, and that the Galibis prize it as highly as a diamond. The natives of South America value it on account of the virtues they attribute to it in the epilepſy, ſtone, and gravel; and, in a treatiſe on it printed at Paris, it is called the *divine ſtone.*

JAFFA, or *Joppa.* A port-town of Paleſtine, in Aſiatic Turky, ſituated in 36 deg. of E. lon. and 32 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. 30 miles N. W. of Jeruſalem.

JAFISMKE, is a term among the Muſcovites, for the rix-dollars of Germany, upon account of the figures of St. Joachim being impreſſed on theſe ſorts of ſpecie, which began to be ſtruck in 1519 in the city of Jochimſtal in Bohemia.

JAFNAPATAN. A port-town of the iſland of Ceylon, in the Eaſt Indies, ſituated in 70 deg. of E. lon. and 10 deg. of N. lat. at the north-end of the iſland, 100 miles north of Candy, ſubject to the Dutch. See *Ceylon.*

JAGO, St. A city of the iſland of Cuba, ſituated in 76 deg. 30 deg. of W. lon. and 20 deg. of N. lat. 100 miles north of Jamaica, in America. See *Spaniſh* America.

JAGO, St. The chief of the Cape Verd iſlands, in Africa, ſituated in 24 deg. of W. lon. and 15 deg. of N. lat. ſubject to Portugal. See Cape *Verd* iſlands.

JAGO, St. Capital of the province of Chili, in South America, ſituated in 77 deg. of W. lon. and 34 deg. of S. lat. 2 leagues weſt of the mountains of Andes, and 18 eaſt of the Pacific ocean. See *Spaniſh* America.

JAGO *de la Vega*, or *Spaniſh town.* The capital of the iſland of Jamaica, in America, ſituated in 76 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 18 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. at the S. E. part of the iſland, about 7 miles N. W. of Port Paſſage, and the bay of Port Royal; where the governor reſides, and the general aſſembly or parliament, and courts of juſtice, are held.

JALAP. A root of a plant not much unlike bryony, and therefore by ſome called bryonia peruviana; as being brought chiefly from Peru and New Spain; much uſed as a cathartic.

The mechoacan and the jalap are reckoned of the ſame ſpecies: therefore, as this is ſometimes called mechoacana nigra, that goes as often by the name of jalapium album.

As jalap does not appear to have been known to the antients, it has its place in medicine only ſince thoſe parts

JAN

of America which produce it have been traded to by the Europeans. That which breaks blackeſt, moſt brittle, ſound, and ſhining withinſide, is the beſt; by reaſon the reſinous parts, which give it thoſe properties, are ſuppoſed to contain its medicinal virtues.

Some take great pains to extract its reſin, which is to be done with any ſpirituous menſtruum, and afterwards want correctors for it. The moſt common is ſalt of tartar, or loaf-ſugar. But if correcting conſiſts in ſeparating its parts, as it certainly does, the drawing it from the root, and making it into a reſin, ſhould ſeem to be unneceſſary.

Jalap is ſold at Amſterdam for about 2 s. 8 d. ſterling the pound; the tare is purſuant to the weight, 2 *per cent.* deduction being allowed for good weight, and 1 *per cent.* for prompt payment.

JALE. A liquid meaſure in France, containing about 4 Paris pints, and anſwering to the Engliſh gallon. See *Gallon.*

JALOIS. A corn meaſure uſed at Guiſe in France, and in its neighbourhood. The jalois of wheat weighs 80 lb. avoirdupoiſe weight, of maſlin corn 76, of rye 76 alſo, and of oats 50; a jalois making 5 buſhels.

JAMAICA. An iſland of America, ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, or North-ſea, between 76 and 79 degrees of W. lon. and between 17 and 18 deg. odd min. of N. lat. near 5000 miles S. W. of England. See *Britiſh America.*

JAMAICA *Pepper*, or *All-ſpice.* See *Indian* wood.

JAMAICA *Wood*, or *Braziletto wood.* See *Indian* wood, and *Brazil* wood.

JAMAVAS. An Indian taffety, with gold or ſilk flowers; the piece being from 5 to 8 ells in length, and 5-8ths, 5-6ths, or 7-8ths in breadth.

JAMBA. A city of the Hither India, in Aſia, capital of the province of Jamba, ſituated in 82 deg. of E. lon. and 31 deg. of N. lat. 220 miles N. E. of Delli.

JAMBETT. The ſecond kind of fur, which the Turks have from the ſkin of the ſable; being much inferior to the ſable properly ſo called, which is that of the chine; but much better than that of the peck, called by them ſamoul-bachar: they have alſo a fourth kind, which is the belly; but not of any repute in Conſtantinople.

JAMBY. A town on the eaſt-ſide of the iſland of Sumatra, in the Eaſt Indies, ſituated in 101 deg. of E. lon. and 1 deg. 30 min. of S. lat. 160 miles north of Bencoolen; where the Dutch have a fort, and import from thence pepper, and the beſt ſort of canes. See *Sunda* iſlands.

JAMES-*Town*, was once the capital of Virginia, in America, and of James county, ſituated in 76 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 37 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. in a peninſula on the north-ſide of James or Pouhatan river, 40 miles weſt of the mouth of it; in which there are not above 80 houſes, and thoſe chiefly places of entertainment for ſeafaring men; the ſeats of the government and of the courts of juſtice, being removed to Williamſburg, about 7 miles north of it.

JAMES-*Town*, is alſo a Portugueſe ſettlement, on the river Cazuma, near Cape Verd, in Africa.

JAMIS. A kind of cotton cloth, brought from the Levant by the way of Aleppo.

JANISARKI. A term at Conſtantinople, for the covered bazar, where druggiſts and linen drapers have their ſhops.

JANNEQUIN, or *Genequin.* A ſpun cotton, of indifferent quality, brought from the Levant by the way of Smyrna; a thouſand quintals whereof are ſold there one year with another; which coſt from 1 l. 10 s. to 2 l. 14 s. ſterling the quintal if fine, and from 1 l. 16 s. to 2 l. 13 s. ſterling if coarſe.

JAPAN,

JAPAN, *Japon*, or the *Japoneſe iſlands*, are ſituated between 130 and 144 deg. of E. lon. and between 30 and 40 deg. of N. lat.

The largeſt of theſe iſlands is called *Japan*, and ſometimes called *Niphon*, which gives its name to the reſt; being about 600 miles long, and from 100 to 150 broad; the chief town whereof is Jeddo; but there are alſo the cities of Mecao, Oſacca, Sacai, and Surunga.

The next iſland is *Sacock*, or *Xino*, parted by a very narrow channel from Japan, lying ſouth of it, and is about 500 miles in circumference, the capital city being Bongo; but the city of Nangaſaqui is moſt remarkable for trade.

The third iſland in magnitude is *Tonſa*, divided from Japan and Sacock by narrow channels; it is near 400 miles in circumference, and the capital city is Tonſa.

Beſides theſe, there are a great number of leſſer iſlands about them, ſubject to Japan; ſome of which are inhabited, and others deſert. The whole are ſubject to one ſovereign or emperor; who has 50 or 60 vaſſal princes, or kings, as they are called, under his dominion; and his reſidence is at Jeddo, which is ſituated on a bay in the Pacific ocean on the eaſt-ſide of the iſland of Japan; whoſe revenues are ſaid to be greater than thoſe of any other monarch in the world.

The empire of Japan furniſhes every thing that is neceſſary for life, and ſeveral other merchandiſes which may ſerve for a greater trade than it has with ſtrangers; ſuch as gold, ſilver, copper, tin, lead, all in abundance; cotton, hemp, goat's hair, ſilk, all ſorts of varniſhed works and utenſils, porcelain, and a great quantity of medicinal drugs.

The Japoneſe have almoſt all ſorts of cattle and poultry found in Europe; but their horſes are very ſmall. Rice is the principal grain the country affords, which is managed in the ſame manner as in China, and always grows in water till ripe. They have alſo very good red wheat, but not in ſo great quantities as rice. Their huſbandmen are little better than ſlaves; as they plow and manure the ground for the great lords, but have no properties of their own.

The commerce of the Chineſe to Japan, is almoſt as antient as the two empires. It was formerly reciprocal; as many Japoneſe being ſeen at China, as Chineſe at Japan: but at preſent only the Chineſe continue it; the Emperor of China having prohibited the Japoneſe the entrance of his territories, on pain of death; and conniving at, rather than permitting, the trade of his ſubjects to Japan; ſo that the Chineſe who reſort Japan always make falſe declarations at the cuſtomhouſes, that their cargo is not intended for theſe iſlands.

The other Indian nations which trade to Japan, are the Siameſe and Cambodians; but ſince the Dutch made themſelves maſters of this trade, theſe two nations, and even the Chineſe, have greatly ſuffered in this branch of commerce.

The Japoneſe trade to Cochinchina, Siam, Camboya, and the Philippine iſlands; their principal return being in ſilk.

The Portugueſe were the firſt Europeans who had a knowledge of the Japoneſe iſlands, either, as ſome ſay, upon the relation of the Chineſe and Siameſe; or, as others report, that they had been drove there by a tempeſt in 1534, or in 1542, in a voyage to China.

The Portugueſe firſt eſtabliſhed themſelves at Surunga, where the Engliſh were alſo allowed to trade; but four or five years after they removed into the iſland of Diſnia, near Nangaſaqui, a poſt at preſent poſſeſſed by the Dutch.

The Portugueſe of Macao were thoſe who traded chiefly to Japan, which was ſo much the more eaſy, and advantageous to them, as they could import there moſt ſorts of Chineſe merchandiſe, which ſell very well at Japan; as alſo that their whole trade, upon account of their proximity, could be completed in leſs than four months, being ſcarce more than 20 days at ſea. This commerce was very beneficial, and amounted, one year with another, to upwards of 200,000 l. ſterling.

A jealouſy of commerce, rather than the real intereſt of ſtate, cauſed the expulſion of the Portugueſe from Japan,

in 1636; and with them the Chriſtian religion, which Francis Xavier a jeſuit had began to preach there in 1549. But the Dutch have reaped an advantage from this excluſion; being permitted to trade there, on declaring they were no Chriſtians.

The Dutch were invited in 1605 by the Japoneſe themſelves, which notwithſtanding they deferred till 1609; and it was in the month of July this year that the firſt ſhip of the Dutch company appeared at Firando, where they had afterwards leave to eſtabliſh themſelves; from whence the deputies went to Jeddo for the ratification of their treaty of commerce; the principal article of which was, that every year there ſhould come there at leaſt a ſhip from Batavia, with European and Indian merchandiſe.

Thevenot gives the following deſcription of the iſland of Diſnia in the Dutch poſſeſſion.

This iſland, he ſays, is not more than two miles in circumference, and no Dutchman can ſtir out of it, or come into the town of Nangaſaqui, to which it is joined with a bridge, without hazarding his being cut to pieces by the guards appointed to watch their motions; nor are the Dutch ſo much as ſuffered to have a lighted candle in their houſes in the night-time. If the centinels hear the leaſt noiſe, they blow a horn, and the governor immediately ſends a party to learn the reaſon of it, which does not return till the occaſion is diſcovered, and then the authors are ſeverely threatened, if not puniſhed. In this ſlaviſh condition the Dutch remain eight months in the year.

At the ſeaſon the Dutch fleet is expected, the governor of Nangaſaqui places centinels on the hills, to give notice of the approach of any ſhips. When they appear, a boat is ſent off to every ſhip with an officer; and as ſoon as the ſhips come to an anchor, an expreſs is immediately diſpatched to court, before whoſe return the Dutch cannot diſpoſe of any thing.

In the mean time a particular of every ſhip's cargo is taken, with the name, age, ſtature, and office of every man on board, which is tranſlated and printed in the Japoneſe language. When the expreſs is returned, the ſhip's crew are permitted to come on ſhore, and all are muſtered before a Japoneſe commiſſioner, when every perſon is called over aloud, and made to give an account of his age, quality, and office, to ſee if it agrees with the particular given in by the Dutch. After this examination they are ſent on board again, and the ſails of the ſhip, with the guns, arms, and ammunition, are brought on ſhore, and the hatches ſealed down by a Japoneſe officer; nor can they be opened, whatever the ſhip's crew want, without a permiſſion from the governor, who always ſends a perſon to ſee what is taken out, and ſeals them down again: nor dare the Dutch ſailors light a candle, or make any noiſe on board their ſhips, any more than on ſhore. The ſhips are allowed no communication with one another; nor is any officer or ſailor ſuffered to go on ſhore, except the perſon appointed to carry the company's preſent to the King at Jeddo. His Majeſty having accepted the preſent, and prepared another for the company, the Dutch officer is conveyed to Nangaſaqui under as a ſtrong guard as he came. This journey uſually takes up about three months and a half.

While the Dutch ſhips lie in the road, none of the Japoneſe are allowed to go on board them to trade with the ſailors; and thoſe that carry proviſions on board are not ſuffered to take any money from them till the permiſſion to trade comes from court, when they deliver in their accounts and are paid; and then the Japoneſe permit ſix perſons from every veſſel to come on ſhore, to buy and ſell for themſelves, and ſtay four days, either in Diſnia, or in the city, as they ſee fit. When theſe ſix men return on board, ſix others are allowed to go on ſhore and traffic in like manner, and ſo on.

As for the merchandiſes belonging to the company, the Dutch make an invoice of them, with their price; which being tranſlated into the Japoneſe language, is affixed to the gate of the town leading to the Dutch factory, and then for ſix weeks the Dutch are allowed to trade.

The Japoneſe are ſo jealous of the Dutch, that they will

not ſuffer the ſame preſident of their factory to reſide longer than a year, unleſs he is nominated a ſecond time, and has been two years out of employment: neither will they admit the ornaments of any figures in the ſtern, or ſtern of their ſhips; imagining it an affront offered to the idols, which are the objects of their religion.

It might appear ſtrange, that the Dutch, who are ſo haughty to the Indians, ſhould be ſo ſubmiſſive to the Japoneſe; but the profits of this trade are ſo great, that they readily bear theſe kinds of affronts; there being at leaſt 150 *per cent.* profit in the merchandiſe brought there, and much more in thoſe exported.

The European, Indian, and Chineſe merchandiſe proper for the Japan trade, are Dutch ſcarlet, and other lively coloured cloths, camblets of moſt ſorts, gold and ſilk brocades, damaſks, black and coloured armoiſins, gauzes, and other ſilk ſtuffs; with raw ſilk, wool, and ſpun cotton, embroidery-work, carpets, linen, ſilk night-gowns ready made, glaſs and earthern bottles; lead, tin, ſteel, Japan, calambour, eagle, and Brazil wood, brown and white ſugar, Cambodia walnuts, alum, red leather, wax, a metal called calin, caſſia, verdegreaſe, tea, camphor, muſk, paper, pepper, ſpice, particularly cinnamon; elephants teeth, hemp, red wool, medicinal drugs, borax, quickſilver, Chineſe porcelains, toys of all ſorts from the ſame country and Nuremberg, red coral; laſtly, the hides of ſtags, and other animals.

This laſt trade of green hides is one of the moſt important which the Dutch carry on to Japan, as they import there, one year with another, 200,000 hides of ſtags, and 100,000 of oxen and cows, which they have the greater part from Siam and the iſland of Formoſa.

Almoſt all theſe merchandiſes are paid for in ſilver; by which great profits are made when brought to China and Bengal.

From Japan are exported all ſorts of painted, lacquered, and varniſhed wood, wherein the Japoneſe are as excellent artiſts as the Chineſe; fans, coloured porcelains, drugs for dying, and medicine; gold, ſilver, copper, and ſteel, pearls, furs, goat-ſkins, and even ſilk.

The Dutch company ſend three or four ſhips every year to Japan, mounted from 30 to 50 guns, but indifferently equipped. Theſe ſhips depart from Batavia about the 10th June, touch at the iſland of Poltimon for refreſhments, arrive at Japan in the beginning of the month of Auguſt, and return in October or November, touching again about the 20th of December at the iſland of Poltimon, where the ſhips ſeparate; one taking all the gold and ſilver aboard, and going directly to Batavia; and the others, only laden with merchandiſe, continuing their route to Malacca, where they arrive towards the end of the year; from whence, after having refreſhed themſelves for eight days, they ſet ſail for Bengal and Surat.

All foreign merchandiſes are brought to Meaco; which, in extent, magnificence, and the multitude of inhabitants, is not much inferior to Jeddo, the imperial city; but it exceeds it in trade, by the concourſe of merchants, and the number of fairs held there every year.

It is to theſe fairs that the principal merchandiſes are brought, which the Dutch, Chineſe, and Indians, import to Japan; and where are alſo brought, from two or three hundred leagues diſtance, the commodities and manufactures of the country.

Foreigners have no ſhare in this interior commerce; being even prohibited to advance into the country beyond Nanguaſaqui, unleſs they are ambaſſadors from kings, deputies from the Dutch company, or ſuch perſons as are invited to court.

When the fairs are opened, the merchandiſes are rated by the inſpectors, who deliver them to the higheſt bidder; which, however, is not done by public auctions, as in Europe; but, in order to prevent the jealouſy and animoſities of the bidders for the ſame merchandiſe, each merchant depoſites a billet in the hands of a clerk, wherein is written the price he can take; and this clerk delivers it to him who has offered moſt, throwing all the other billets into the fire.

Frauds in trade are puniſhed by the Japoneſe with extreme ſeverity; the rigour of the law extending not only to him who is detected in a fraudulent action, but alſo to his whole family, ſometimes even to 20 of his neareſt neighbours, who are all condemned to die, if the caſe is conſiderable; or to a fine, if leſs important.

To hinder the fraud of retail-dealers, and thoſe who ſell by the ell, there are public ells, or ichins, fixed to the corners of ſtreets, where every perſon may meaſure what he has purchaſed.

Neither gold nor ſilver are reckoned in wholeſale dealings; the money being paid and accepted without ſeeing or touching it, if the payments exceed about 75 l. ſterling. In theſe payments they make uſe of bags, ſealed with the ſeal of the mint-maſter, each containing about 75 l. ſterling; on their receipt they only examine if the ſeal is entire; and if any thing upon the opening is found deficient, it is charged to the account of the officer whoſe ſeal it bears; but it ſeldom happens that theſe bags are opened, ſome of them paſſing unopened through upwards of 2000 hands.

Large ſums are paid in gold among the Japoneſe, and in ſilver to ſtrangers; ſo that hardly any other metal but the latter is to be met with at Nanguaſaqui and in the Dutch factory, the foreign exportation of gold being prohibited; though ſometimes, but with difficulty, a permiſſion is obtained for this purpoſe.

Beſides theſe bags of about 75 l. ſterling, the Japoneſe alſo uſe cheſts of gold and ſilver of different forms, according to the metal; thoſe of gold containing to the value of about 1500 l. ſterling, and thoſe of ſilver about 260 l. ſterling.

The Japoneſe merchants keep their books with as much regularity as the Italians, uſing ſuch arithmetical rules as are common in Europe. See *Jeſſo*.

JAPAN *Earth*, or *Terra Japonica*. A medicinal ſubſtance, of a dark purple colour; very auſtere upon the palate, ſeeming to melt, like bole, in the mouth, and leaving ſomewhat of a ſweetiſh taſte behind it; being eſteemed for ſtopping fluxes of all kinds; but to what genus of bodies it belongs, is not well agreed on. See *Cachou*.

JAPANNING. The art of varniſhing, and drawing figures on wood, after the ſame manner as the workmen in Japan.

The manner of japanning on wood, ordinarily practiſed by Europeans, is this. They take a pint of ſpirit of wine well dephlegmated, and four ounces of gum lacca, which laſt muſt be broke from the ſticks and rubbiſh; then bruiſing it roughly in a mortar, they put it to ſteep in ſpring-water, tied up in a bag of coarſe linen, together with a little Caſtile ſope, for the ſpace of twelve hours. This done, they rub out all the tincture, put to it a little alum, and reſerve it apart: then add as much maſtic and white amber, diſtilled in a mattraſs, with ſpirit of wine, by a two days digeſtion, frequently ſtirring it, that it does not ſtick to the glaſs; after which they ſtrain and preſs it out into another veſſel. When this is done, they take the wood to be japanned, and cover it with a layer of this varniſh, till it is ſufficiently drenched with it; then taking ſome of the colour the figures are to be of, they incorporate it with ſeven times as much of the varniſh, and apply it with a pencil, going over each part three ſeveral times, each a quarter of an hour after another; and, two hours after this, they poliſh it with a peſtile, or Dutch reeds.

As to the colours uſed in this art, it is ſaid, that for a fair red they take Spaniſh vermilion, with a fourth part of Venice laque; black they make of ivory calcined between two crucibles; for blue they uſe ultramarine, and only twice as much varniſh as colour. The reſt are applied as above directed, except the green, which is difficult to make fair and lively, and therefore ſeldom uſed.

Night JAPANNING, is performed by applying three or four layers with the colours firſt, then two of pure varniſh uncoloured, made according to the former proceſs. Before it is dry, they ſift ſome venturines, or gold wire reduced to powder, over it, and then cover it with as many layers of pure varniſh as render it like poliſhed glaſs; and laſtly, they rub it over with tripoli, oil of olive, or hatters felt. See *Varniſh*.

JAPARA. A port-town of the iſland of Java, in the Eaſt

Indies, ſituated in 110 deg. of E. lon. and 6 deg. of S. lat. 250 miles eaſt of Batavia; which was the capital of a conſiderable kingdom, till the Dutch made themſelves maſters of it: but it is now a Dutch colony, as are alſo the reſt of the towns on the north coaſt of Java. See *Sunda* iſlands.

JAR, is uſed for a ſort of meaſure, or fixed quantity of ſeveral things; being an earthen pot, or pitcher, with a big hollow. The jar of oil is from 18 to 26 gallons; and the jar of green ginger is about 100 lb. weight.

JARGONS. Small ſtones of the bigneſs of a pin's head, and of a bright red colour, which ſometimes are ſold for real hyacinths; being found in abundance at Puy in Auvergne, in France. See *Hyacinth*.

JASPER. A ſort of precious ſtone, chiefly opake, but ſometimes tranſparent in certain parts, not much different from the agate, excepting that it is more ſoft, and does not take ſo good a poliſh. See *Agate*.

In ſome of theſe nature has amuſed herſelf, in repreſenting rivers, trees, animals, and landſkips, as if they were painted. The florid jaſper, found in the Pyreneans, is uſually ſtained with various colours; though there are ſome which have but one colour, as red or green; but theſe are the leaſt valuable; the moſt beautiful ſort is that bordering upon the colour of lacca, or purple; the next to that, the carnation: but what is now moſt valued, is the green, ſpotted with red.

JASQUES. A port-town of Perſia, in the province of Kherman, ſituated in 58 deg. of E. lon. and 25 deg. of N. lat. on the gulph of Ormus, 160 miles S. E. of Gombron. See *Perſia*.

JAVA. One of the Sunda iſlands, in the Eaſt Indies, ſituated between 102 and 113 deg. of E. lon. and between 5 and 8 deg. of S. lat. See *Sunda* iſlands.

ICELAND. An iſland ſubject to Denmark, ſituated between 10 and 26 deg. of W. lon. and between 64 and 67 deg. of N. lat. See *Daniſh iſlands*, under *Denmark*.

ICHIN. The ell, or long meaſure, uſed in Japan, being the ſame throughout all the iſlands which compoſe this vaſt empire; where not only every merchant has ichins in his ſhop, whereby he meaſures and ſells his merchandiſe, but public ichins are fixed to almoſt every corner of the ſtreets, where the purchaſer may go and try his meaſure.

This kind of ell is about 6 feet in length; being divided into 6 parts, and each of theſe diviſions into 10 others; ſo that the entire ichin has 60 diviſions.

IDIS. A kind of glaſs pearl, very flat towards the extremities; being yellow, with four black ſtripes, and uſed by Europeans for the Guinea trade.

IDRIA. A town of Germany, in the circle of Auſtria, and duchy of Carniola, ſituated in 14 deg. of E. lon. and 46 deg. 25 min. of N. lat. 16 miles N. E. of Goritz, conſiderable for its mines of quickſilver.

JEAN *de Luz*. A port-town of France, in the province of Gaſcony, ſituated in 1 deg. 32 min. of W. lon. and 43 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. near the frontiers of Spain, 8 miles E. of Fonterabia, and 12 S. W. of Bayonne.

JEAT. See *Jet*.

JEDDO. The capital city of the iſlands of Japan, ſituated in 140 deg. of E. lon. and 36 deg. of N. lat. See *Japan*.

JEER *Capſtan*. See *Capſtan*.

JEKYL. A ſmall iſland in the mouth of the river Alatamaha in Georgia, a Britiſh colony in America, fortified by Lieutenant-General Oglethorpe.

JENDE. A great lake of Sweden, in the province of Finland, and territory of Tavaſtia.

JENISA. A great river of Ruſſia, running from S. to N. through the province of Siberia, parallel to the Oby, and falling into the frozen ocean E. of that river, in 72 deg. of E. lon. and 70 deg. of N. lat.

JERQUE, in the Britiſh cuſtoms, is when a ſhip is untouched, and the ſurveyor, or other officer, goes on board, to ſearch if there are any unentered goods concealed, which is called jerquing the ſhip.

JERQUER, is the ſurveyor, or officer, who ſearches or jerques the ſhip; whoſe buſineſs it is to check the books kept by the land-waiters and tideſmen; as alſo to compare them with the maſter's report of his cargo, to ſee whether it is juſt, and fit to intitle him to the allowance of portage. See *Cuſtoms*.

JERSEY. An iſland in the Engliſh channel, ſituated in 2 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 49 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. 15 miles W. of the coaſt of Normandy, in France, and 80 miles S. of Portland, in Dorſetſhire. See *Britiſh* iſlands.

JERUN-*Crochen*. A coin ſtruck in the ſtates of the Grand Signior, and current for half a ducat. See *Crochen*.

JESSO, called alſo *Jeco*, *Jedio*, and *Yeſſo*, is ſaid to make but one continent with ſome of the Japoneſe iſlands, lying in 140 deg. of E. lon. and 40 deg. of N. lat. though ſome navigators and geographers think it ſeparated by an arm of the ſea, which the Japoneſe themſelves affirm. It is conjectured to extend N. E. to the American continent.

Its inhabitants and commerce were unknown to Europeans till 1643; when the country was diſcovered by a Dutch ſhip called *Caſtricam*.

The country is very mountainous, and the inhabitants are moſtly wild and rude, both in perſon and manners; being entirely without religion, and almoſt all covered with long hairs, like bears, eſpecially the mountaineers; but ſome of them who inhabit towns are more civilized; and they are all equally governed by a prince, who acknowledges the Emperor of Japan for ſovereign, and who pays him every year a kind of tribute; which he preſents himſelf in perſon; being uſually ſome ſilver and fine feathers. See *Japan*.

They have a pretty good trade with the Japoneſe; which before the Dutch appeared among them, were the only people they had any knowledge of.

The merchandiſes they exchange with the Japoneſe are whale blubber, the oil of ſeveral fat fiſh, whales tongues ſmoked, furs, ſeveral ſorts of birds feathers, and hemp which they ſpin by faſtening it between their teeth, and twiſting it with the palm of their hands.

The Japoneſe merchants viſit the inhabitants of Jeſſo once every year; bringing them rice, ſugar, Japonese ſilk robes, others of a blue ſtuff called kangan, tobacco, tobacco-pipes, and tobacco-boxes, ſmall cups, varniſhed pots, and diſhes, knives, hatchets, ſilver ear pendants, copper-rings for their ears, and ſeveral other trinkets.

This people, notwithſtanding they are ſo much uncivilized, are very ſubtile and intelligent, eſpecially in commerce, wherein they ſhew themſelves very faithful and honeſt. In general they greatly eſteem iron; and particularly thoſe who live in the 40th degree, prefer it in their trade with ſtrangers to any other commodity.

JESUITS *Bark*. See *Quinquina*.

JET, called alſo *Black Amber*. A light, ſmooth, pitchy fiſſile ſtone, extremely black, formed of a bituminous juice in the earth, in the manner of coal.

Jet works like amber, and has moſt of its qualities. It abounds in Dauphiny in France; but the beſt in the world is ſaid to be produced in Yorkſhire; which readily catches fire, flaſhes, and yields a bituminous ſmell.

There is alſo a factitious jet, made of glaſs, in imitation of the mineral jet; being drawn out in long hollow threads, which are cut and faſhioned at pleaſure. It is much uſed in embroideries, as alſo in the trimming of mourning, and may be made of any colour, though uſually black and white, and of late denominated beads. See *Beads*, and *Bugles*.

JETSON, or *Jetſom*, is where a ſhip is in danger of ſinking, and the goods are thrown into the ſea, for lightening her; but notwithſtanding the ſhip periſhes. See *Flotſon* and *Wreck*.

JEWEL, is a term in general for ſuch valuable ornaments as are made of gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones, to ſerve for dreſs or curioſity; being ſold by goldſmiths or jewellers; but it is more particularly applied to precious ſtones and pearls. See *Precious ſtones*.

JEWELLER, is a perſon who deals in precious ſtones, or ſhould be a judge of their beauties, common blemiſhes, and their intrinſic value. He muſt not only know real ſtones, but fictitious gems, and the manner of preparing them; his buſineſs being to ſet them in rings, necklaces, pendants, ear-rings, buckles of all ſorts, watches, picture-

e-pictures, and all toys as are adorned with precious nes. He ought to be an elegant deſigner, and have a ick invention for new patterns, not only to range the nes in ſuch manner as to give luſtre to one another, t to create trade; for a new faſhion takes as much th the ladies in jewels as any thing elſe.

EL-*Office*, or *Jewel houſe*. An office in London, hich takes care of faſhioning and weighing the King's te, and delivering it out by warrants from the Lord amberlain. When his Majeſty makes any preſent of te, they have the charge of providing it, with ſome her things leſs material.

he principal officers are, the maſter of the jewel-office, hoſe ſalary is 450 l. *per annum*; a yeoman, a groom, d a clerk, all in the King's gift.

here are alſo in this office, in the gift of the Lord hamberlain, the poet-laureat, at 100 l. *per annum* ſary; the King's hiſtoriographer, at 200 l. *per annum*; e hiſtory-painter, and principal painter, at 200 l. *per nnum*; the painter in enamel, and the ſurveyor and eeper of the pictures, at 200 l. *per annum* each.

he goldſmith and jewellers are employed by the maſter, d are uſually in his gift.

WS. A proper name for a people who formerly inhaited Paleſtine, and are now diſperſed over the whole orld; being thoſe people that were formerly called Hebrews or Iſraelites; who took this name at their return om the captivity of Babylon, and have retained it ever ince; it coming from Judah, which was the only tribe hat made any conſiderable figure at that time among hem.

The Jews have the reputation of being much ſkilled in rade; yet their probity and fidelity therein is as greatly uſpected: however, it is certain the nations prejudiced moſt againſt them, not only admit their living among hem, but ſome of them even ſeem pleaſed in learning rom the Jews the ſecrets of trade, and dividing with hem the profits.

The Jews are ſo diſſeminated through all the trading parts of the world, that they are become the inſtruments by which the moſt diſtant nations converſe with one another, and by which mankind are knit together in a general correſpondence. They are like the pegs and nails in a great building; which, though they are but of little value in themſelves, are abſolutely neceſſary to keep the whole frame together.

Theſe people may be conſidered in three views: 1ſt, With regard to their number; 2dly, Their diſperſion; and, 3dly, Their adherence to their religion: and afterwards it may be neceſſary to ſhew, firſt, by natural reaſons; and ſecondly, what providential reaſons, may be aſſigned for theſe three remarkable particulars.

The Jews are looked upon by many to be as numerous at preſent as they were formerly in the land of Canaan. Th s is wonderful, conſidering the dreadful ſlaughter made of them under ſome of the Roman Emperors, which hiſtorians deſcribe by the death of many hundred thouſands in a war, and the innumerable maſſacres and perſecutions they have undergone in Turky, as well as in all Chriſtian nations of the world. The rabbins, to expreſs the havock which has been ſometimes made of them, tell us, after their uſual manner of hyperbole, that there were ſuch torrents of holy blood ſhed, as carried rocks of 100 yards circumference above three miles into the ſea.

Their diſperſion is the ſecond remarkable particular in this people. They ſwarm over all the eaſt, and are ſettled in the remoteſt parts of China; they are ſpread through moſt of the nations of Europe and Africa, and many families of them are eſtabliſhed in the Weſt Indies; not to mention whole nations bordering on Preſter-John's country, and ſome diſcovered in the inner parts of America, if we may give any credit to their own writers.

Their firm adherence to their religion is no leſs remarkable than their numbers and diſperſion, eſpecially conſidering it as perſecuted or contemned over the face of the whole earth. This is likewiſe the more remarkable, if we conſider the frequent apoſtaſies of theſe people, when they lived under their kings in the land of promiſe, and within ſight of their temple.

If, in the next place, we examine what may be the natural reaſons for theſe three particulars which we find in the Jews, and which are not to be found in any other religion or people; in the firſt place, their numbers can be attributed to nothing but their conſtant employment, their abſtinence, their exemption from wars, and, above all, their frequent marriages; for they look upon celibacy as an accurſed ſtate, and are generally married before twenty, as hoping the Meſſiah may deſcend from them.

The diſperſion of the Jews into all the nations of the earth, is the ſecond particular of that people, though not ſo hard to be accounted for. They were always in rebellions and tumults while they had the temple and holy city in view; for which reaſon they have often been driven out of their own habitations in the land of promiſe. They have as often been baniſhed out of moſt other places where they have ſettled; which muſt very much diſperſe and ſcatter a people, and oblige them to ſeek a livelihood where they can find it. Beſides, the whole people is now a race of ſuch merchants as are wanderers by profeſſion, and, at the ſame time, are in moſt, if not in all, places incapable of either lands or offices, that might engage them to make any part of the world their home.

This diſperſion would probably have loſt their religion, had it not been ſecured by the ſtrength of its conſtitution; for they are to live all in a body, and generally within the ſame incloſure; to marry among themſelves, and to eat no meats that are not killed, or prepared their own way. This ſhuts them out from all table-converſation, and the moſt agreeable intercourſes of life; and by conſequence excludes them from the moſt probable means of converſion.

If, in the laſt place, we conſider what providential reaſon may be aſſigned for theſe three particulars, we ſhall find that their numbers, diſperſion, and adherence to their religion, have furniſhed every age, and every nation in the world, with the ſtrongeſt arguments for the Chriſtian faith; not only as theſe very particulars are foretold of them, but as they themſelves are the depoſitaries of theſe, and of all the other propheſies, which tend to their own confuſion. Their number furniſhes us with a ſufficient cloud of witneſſes, that atteſt the truth of the old Bible. Their diſperſion ſpreads theſe witneſſes through all parts of the world. The adherence to their religion makes their teſtimony unqueſtionable: Had the whole body of Jews been converted to Chriſtianity, we ſhould certainly have thought all the prophecies of the Old Teſtament, that relate to the coming and hiſtory of our bleſſed Saviour, forged by Chriſtians, and have looked upon them with the propheſies of the ſibyls, made many years after the events they pretended to foretel.

The two principal eſtabliſhments which the Jews have in the ſtates of Chriſtian princes, are at Amſterdam and Leghorn.

At Amſterdam they are divided into two different tribes; the one of Portugueſe Jews, about 5000 in number; and the other of German Jews, who are not leſs than 1200. Both are rich, and interfere in all kinds of commerce, particularly in that of the bank; but the Portugueſe Jews are in greater credit, both for exchange and mercantile affairs, at home and abroad.

Among other trades, the Portugueſe Jews of Amſterdam have almoſt all that of Barbary in their hands; there being ſcarce any of them but what have a ſhare in the three or four Dutch ſhips which go there every year; all this commerce being carried on between them and the Jews of that coaſt, particularly thoſe of Sallee, Saffia, and St. Croix, whoſe principal attention is to purchaſe the prizes of the corſairs taken from Chriſtians, to ſell them afterwards to the Jews of Amſterdam, and perhaps ſometimes to the merchants whoſe property theſe goods originally were, by diſguiſing them in an artful manner, either mixing others with them, or packing them up otherwiſe, and with different marks.

The Jews of Leghorn are greatly favoured by the Grand Duke; having not only a ſuperb ſynagogue for the exerciſes of their religion; but Duke Ferdinand, who was

the author of their eſtabliſhment, alſo granted them a peculiar civil and criminal juriſdiction, by which they have in themſelves the power of creating magiſtrates, and from whom there is no appeal but to the Grand Duke himſelf.

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If the trade of the merchants of Leghorn to the Levant is computed at 100,000 crowns yearly, there are 98,000 for the Jews, and 2000 only to be divided between the French, Italians, Dutch, Engliſh, and Armenians, eſtabliſhed there.

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They were diſtinguiſhed from the Chriſtians both living and dying; for they had proper judges and courts wherein their cauſes were tried, and they wore a badge on their breaſt over their cloaths in ſhape of a table, and were fined if they ſtirred abroad without ſuch badges: they were never buried in the country, but brought up to London, and interred without the walls.

It is to be obſerved, that the Jews have been expelled Spain, Portugal, and Ruſſia: they were alſo expelled England by King Edward I. and were not permitted to return till the uſurpation of Cromwell; and they were likewiſe baniſhed in France in 1182 and 1321; though they were afterwards permitted to return.

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JEWS *Harp*, or *Trump*. A mock ſort of muſical inſtrument, made of braſs or iron, for children to play with; of which great quantities are made at Birmingham,

JEWS *Incenſe*. See *Frankincenſe.*

IF. One of the French iſlands to the ſouth of Marſeilles, on the coaſt of Provence. See *French* iſlands.

ILLENOIS *Lake* lies between 88 and 93 deg. of W. lon. and between 41 and 46 deg. of N. lat. ſituated in Canada in North America, having a communication with the Huron lake on the N. E. by a narrow channel; the country contiguous to this lake being called the country of the Illenois, now in alliance with the French.

ILMEN. A lake in the province of Great Novogrod, in Ruſſia, in 34 deg. of E. lon. and 58 deg. of N. lat. which has a communication with the lake Ladoga, by the river Woleoff.

IMAGERY. All ſorts of works that repreſent the ſhapes of men, or other creatures, whether in tapeſtry, painting, or embroidery.

IMBARGO. See *Embargo.*

IMMA. A kind of bole, or red earth, uſed in Perſia by dyers and painters; the beſt kind being found in the mountain of Chiampa, near Bander Congo.

IMMUNITY. A privilege, or exemption, from ſome office, duty, or impoſition; but the word is more particularly underſtood of the liberties granted to cities and communities. See *Franchiſe.*

IMPASTATION. The mixture of ſeveral materials of different colours, and conſiſtencies, baked or bound together with ſome cement, and hardened either by the air or fire; it being ſometimes a ſort of maſon's work, made of ſtucco, or ſtone ground ſmall, and wrought up again in manner of a paſte.

IMPERATORUM, or *Imperatorii*. A medicinal root, ſuppoſed to have the virtues of angelica; being of two ſorts, the one found in mountains, and the other in gardens. The former is preferable to the latter, eſpecially that of the Auvergne mountains in France; which ſhould be choſen with full roots, new, hard to break, of a brown exterior colour, green within, and of a briſk ſmell, and aromatic taſte.

IMPERIAL. A city and port-town of Chili, in S. America, ſituated in 80 deg. of W. lon. and 39 deg. S. lat. at the confluence of two rivers, 9 miles e... the Pacific ocean, and 70 miles north of Baldiviz.

IMPERIAL. A gold coin, formerly ſtruck in Fl... weighing 4 dwt. 4 gr. and of the fineneſs of 23 ... 3-4ths.

IMPERIAL *Serge*, or *Serge Imperial*, is a term among ... French for a kind of ſerge, 3-4ths of an ell broad, ... meaſure, and manufactured particularly in the L... Languedoc: they are alſo called ſempiternals and ... tuanas; which are chiefly deſigned for Italy and Spain.

IMPLEMENTS, is a term uſed for all things neceſſ... for a trade, or houſhold-furniture.

IMPORTATION. The bringing home goods from ... yond ſeas.

It has been obſerved, that commercial ſtates, on the ... portation of goods from other countries, lay very ... duties to diſcourage their coming in, and dream not ... that falſe maxim of reducing them, becauſe they are ... be paid by their own ſubjects; and, on the other ha... the duties on the exportation of their own goods are ... low, often none at all, notwithſtanding they are to ... paid by foreigners, in order to facilitate the export... of them; having always this point in view, that as ... as the commodities exported exceed thoſe imported, ... much more money will come into the kingdom, ... be detained there; and, from the contrary circumſta... ces, the miſery, depopulation, and ruin of the ſtate ... neceſſarily proceed.

It is ſuppoſed that the goods imported into Great B... tain, one year with another, amount to about five m... lions ſterling; but great quantities of theſe are re-... ported, which may reduce the home conſumption ... four millions.

It is the great intereſt of Great Britain to advance ... manufactures; but this cannot be more effectually d... than by freeing them from the cuſtoms of importa... and exportation, as alſo from exciſes. By diſcharging ... cuſtoms payable on manufactures at their exportation, ... would encourage the merchants to ſend them abro... and, by leſſening the duties on the importation ... many of them, it would enable the manufacturers to ... ford them cheaper at home. But it is ſtrange, that ... nation whoſe intereſt it is to outdo all others, by u... derſelling them in foreign markets, ſhould load eith... with taxes.

A judicious author, ſpeaking of logwood, ſays it pa... 5 l. *per* ton cuſtom when imported into Great Brita... and drew back 3 l. 15 s. when ſhipped out again; ... which means the dyers in Holland uſed it ſo muc... cheaper than thoſe of Great Britain: therefore, if ... was imported cuſtom free, and paid 1 l. 5 s. *per* ton ... its exportation, the Dutch dyers would uſe it ſo muc... dearer than thoſe of Great Britain.

It is proper for a country to diſcourage the importati... of commodities already manufactured, ſuch as wroug... ſilks, callicoes, brandy, glaſs, and other commoditie... unleſs purchaſed by its own manufactures or product; b... cauſe they ſhould encourage the materials whereof th... are made, to be wrought up at home; by which mea... more ſhips would be freighted, and more ſailors employe... beſides the great advantage to the nation in the balance ... its trade, which muſt be returned in bullion, as thoſe co... leſs abroad than the other; which will enable a count... to afford a greater conſumption of foreign commodities ... pleaſe the palate, ſuch as wine and fruit, which ... ſhips, and are fit ſubjects for trade, when they are pu... chaſed by home product and manufactures; for the pro... of the trade will enable the nation to bear the expenc... See *Exportation*, *Goods*, and *Ballance* of trade.

IMPOSITION. A tax, or duty, laid upon goods, pe... ſons, or lands, by the legiſlative power, or people of ... nation. See *Duty.*

IMPOST, in law, properly denotes the tribute, or ta... appointed by a ſovereign, to be paid for ſuch merch... diſe, as is brought into any haven in his dominions fro... foreign nations: which is diſtinguiſhed from cuſtom; b... cauſe the latter more properly ſignifies the duties paid ...

he King for goods ſhipped off or exported; but they are oth frequently confounded together. See *Cuſtom*, and *Duty*.

PRESS. To mark, ſtamp, or print, the ſhapes, repreentation, or ſubſtance of one thing upon another.

PRESSION, is frequently uſed in ſpeaking of the edition f a book, or of the number of times it has been printed. mpreſſion, however, differs from edition; the former, roperly ſpeaking, takes in no more than what belongs o the printing, letter, paper, margin, and page, diſances of words, lines, and the diſpoſition of every thing hat may have a good or bad effect on the eye: the latr, beſides all this, takes in the care of the editor, who eviſed the copy, corrected or augmented it; adding otes, tables, and other like things, which he judged ight contribute towards making the book more uſeful nd correct.

AMELLING, or *Enamelling*. See *Enamelling*.

CARNATION, in chemiſtry, the refining of gold, by eans of ſilver and aqua fortis; which is the ſame with hat is otherwiſe called departing. See *Depart*.

CENSE. An aromatic, odoriferous reſin, otherwiſe alled frankincenſe. See *Frankincenſe*.

CH. An Engliſh meaſure, the twelfth part of a foot, ontaining the ſpace of three barley corns in length. See *Meaſure*, and *Foot*.

H *of Candle*. A manner of ſelling goods among merhants; notice being uſually given upon the exchange in riting, and elſewhere, when the ſale is to begin; againſt hich time the goods are divided into ſeveral parcels called ots, and papers printed of the quantity of each, with he conditions of ſale; as, that none ſhould bid leſs than certain ſum more than another has bid before. During he time of bidding, a ſmall piece, of about an inch, of ax-candle, is burning; and the laſt bidder, when the andle goes out, has the lot or parcel expoſed to ſale. See *uction*.

CHASING. See *Enchaſing*.

CLE. A ſort of tape uſed by women to tie their coats nd aprons. See *Tape*.

DEMNITY. An act by which one promiſes to guantee, or ſave harmleſs, ſome other perſon from any loſs r damage that might accrue to him on any particular ccount.

DEX, is a term among traders and book-keepers, for a ook conſiſting of a certain number of leaves; which is ept in an alphabetical order, and uſed for finding readily, n the ledger, the folio of the debit and credit of the erſons with whom there is an accompt opened; though he index is alſo called the alphabet, table, or repertory.

DIA, or the *Eaſt Indies*. A great tract of Aſia, conaining all thoſe countries extending from Perſia on the weſt, to China on the eaſt; being India Proper, or India n this ſide the Ganges, and India beyond the Ganges; he former comprehending the empire of Indoſtan, or he Mogul's country; and the latter including the kingoms of Aracan, Pegu, Malacca, Siam, Cambodia, Cochinchina, and Tonquin; as alſo the ſtates of Acham nd Boutan.

This vaſt region of Aſia is called the Eaſt Indies, becauſe t is advanced ſo towards the eaſt; which diſtinguiſhes it rom a part of America, whoſe ſituation to the weſt has ccaſioned it to be called the Weſt Indies, on a preumption that they extended, and even joined to the Eaſt ndies, though diſtant from them in reality half the circumference of the globe.

. *India Proper*, or *Indoſtan*, is ſituated between 66 and 2 deg. of E. lon. and between 7 and 40 deg. of N. lat. eing bounded by Uſbec Tartary, and Thibet, on the orth; by another part of Thibet, the kingdoms of Aſem, Ava, and Pegu, on the eaſt; the bay of Bengal, and the ndian ocean, on the ſouth; and by the ſame ocean, nd Perſia, on the weſt; being about 2000 miles in ength from north to ſouth, and 1500 miles in breadth rom eaſt to weſt where broadeſt, though the ſouthern art of the peninſula is not 300 miles broad; and all the ountries within theſe limits are ſubject or tributary to the Great Mogul. It is ſuppoſed to be called Indoſtan, from he river Indus, on its weſtern frontiers. It is alſo called

Mogulſtan, from the imperial family now upon the throne, who derive their pedigree from Tamerlane, a Mogul, or Mogul Tartar: but it was the Emperor Aurengzebe, who made a conqueſt of Golconda, Viſiapour, and all the ſouthern kingdoms of India, about the year 1685. However, there are ſome Rajas, or Indian ſovereigns, on the coaſt of Malabar, and ſome others in the very heart of India, independent princes, inhabiting the mountainous and inacceſſible parts of the country: but Kouli Kan took the preſent Mogul priſoner, obtained an immenſe booty, and obliged him to yield up the weſtern provinces to Perſia, before he granted him his liberty.

The northern part of India is temperate, and the winds variable, as in other countries without the tropics; but towards the ſouth the country is ſubject to exceſſive heats; and the winds are periodical, returning to certain points at ſtated times, as in moſt countries within the tropics.

The monſoons, out at ſea, blow ſix months one way, and ſix another, namely, from April to October, or thereabout, they blow from the S. W. and from October to April from the N. E. not exactly from thoſe points, but varying ſometimes a point or two on either ſide. At the breaking up of either of theſe monſoons, a little before they ſhift, there are uſually prodigious ſtorms of wind. The ſhifting of the monſoons, and conſequently this ſtormy weather, does not come exactly at the ſame time every year, but ſometimes a fortnight or three weeks ſooner, and at others a fortnight or three weeks later than the uſual time; which frequently occaſions the loſs of ſhipping; for the merchants, for the ſake of a trifling gain, will remain upon the coaſt, in hopes that the ſtorm will keep off a little longer, till the winds grow too ſtrong for them, and they find it impoſſible to bear up againſt it. There are very few harbours on the coaſt of India; and therefore commanders who have any foreſight, get as far from the coaſts as they can at the time theſe ſtorms are expected.

But beſides the winds called monſoons, there are land and ſea breezes, which ſhift once in twelve hours, when the monſoons are not violent, for then the breezes give place to the hurricane. Theſe land and ſea breezes are of great uſe to the ſhipping, to carry them one way or the other along the coaſt; and the people on ſhore are very ſenſible of the effects of them too, for the land winds are hot, and the ſea breezes cool and refreſhing; and without the latter the ſouthern part of India would be intolerable in the heat of ſummer. But, as Providence is pleaſed to order it, the land winds blow but from midnight till noon, nor do they begin to be very troubleſome till nine in the morning.

Rains begin to fall in June, and their uſual continuance is about four months, from the latter end of June to the end of October. All the reſt of the year is exempt from ſtorms and hurricanes, and there are only ſuch moderate breezes as the heat of the climate requires. Thus it may be ſaid, that nine parts in ten of the continent of India are as healthful as any part of the world, and as agreeable to European conſtitutions after their illneſs is over, which they generally contract the firſt month they arrive there; this diſorder proceeding as much from the alteration of their diet, and a different regimen, as from any other cauſe.

The principal rivers of India are, the Ganges, the Indus, Jemma, Guenga, Chriſtena, Tapte, Paddar, Chaoul, and Negapatan. Beſides theſe, there are almoſt innumerable rivers, or rather torrents after the rains. Many of them at that time equal the Thames, and yet generally dry up before the rains fall again. As for the currents near theſe coaſts, they ſit and change as the monſoon does. It is very difficult going on ſhore in India, for the ſurf of the ſea runs ſo high, and breaks ſo far from the land, particularly at Fort St. George, on the Coromandel coaſt, that no European boat ever attempts the ſhore; but the natives come off in their muſſoola's, a boat almoſt as deep as a man is high, the planks whereof are not much more than half an inch thick, and ſewed together with cocoa-nut cordage. Theſe, if they ſtrike, as they muſt three times at leaſt before they get on ſhore, yield, and are as pliant almoſt as paſteboard; beſides, being exceeding light when on ground, the ſurf gently

the author of their eſtabliſhment, alſo granted them a peculiar civil and criminal juriſdiction, by which they have in themſelves the power of creating magiſtrates, and from whom there is no appeal but to the Grand Duke himſelf.

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JEWS *Harp*, or *Trump*. A mock ſort of muſical inſtrument, made of braſs or iron, for children to play with; of which great quantities are made at Birmingham,

JEWS *Incenſe*. See *Frankincenſe.*

IF. One of the French iſlands to the ſouth of Marſeilles, on the coaſt of Provence. See *French* iſlands.

ILLENOIS *Lake* lies between 88 and 93 deg. of W. lon. and between 41 and 46 deg. of N. lat. ſituated in Canada in North America, having a communication with the Huron lake on the N. E. by a narrow channel; the country contiguous to this lake being called the country of the Illenois, now in alliance with the French.

ILMEN. A lake in the province of Great Novogrod, in Ruſſia, in 34 deg. of E. lon. and 58 deg. of N. lat. which has a communication with the lake Ladoga, by the river Wolcoſſ.

IMAGERY. All ſorts of works that repreſent the ſhapes of men, or other creatures, whether in tapeſtry, painting, or embroidery.

IMBARGO. See *Embargo.*

IMMA. A kind of bole, or red earth, uſed in Perſia by dyers and painters; the beſt kind being found in the mountain of Chiampa, near Bander Congo.

IMMUNITY. A privilege, or exemption, from ſome office, duty, or impoſition; but the word is more particularly underſtood of the liberties granted to cities and communities. See *Franchiſe.*

IMPASTATION. The mixture of ſeveral materials of different colours, and conſiſtencies, baked or bound together with ſome cement, and hardened either by the air or fire; it being ſometimes a ſort of maſon's work, made of ſtucco, or ſtone ground ſmall, and wrought up again in manner of a paſte.

IMPERATORUM, or *Imperatorii*. A medicinal root, ſuppoſed to have the virtues of angelica; being of two ſorts, the one found in mountains, and the other in gardens. The former is preferable to the latter, eſpecially that of the Auvergne mountains in France; which ſhould be choſen with full roots, new, hard to break, of a brown exterior colour, green within, and of a briſk ſmell, and aromatic taſte.

IMPERIAL. A city and port-town of Chili, in South America, ſituated in 80 deg. of W. lon. and 39 deg. S. lat. at the confluence of two rivers, 9 miles eaſt the Pacific ocean, and 70 miles north of Baldivia.

IMPERIAL. A gold coin, formerly ſtruck in Flanders, weighing 4 dwt. 4 gr. and of the fineneſs of 23 carats 3-4ths.

IMPERIAL *Serge*, or *Serge Imperial*, is a term among French for a kind of ſerge, 3-4ths of an ell broad, measure, and manufactured particularly in the Languedoc: they are alſo called ſempiternals and tuanas; which are chiefly deſigned for Italy and Spain.

IMPLEMENTS, is a term uſed for all things neceſſary for a trade, or houſhold-furniture.

IMPORTATION. The bringing home goods from beyond ſeas.

It has been obſerved, that commercial ſtates, on the importation of goods from other countries, lay very high duties to diſcourage their coming in, and dream not of that falſe maxim of reducing them, becauſe they are to be paid by their own ſubjects; and, on the other hand, the duties on the exportation of their own goods are very low, often none at all, notwithſtanding they are to be paid by foreigners, in order to facilitate the exportation of them; having always this point in view, that as much as the commodities exported exceed thoſe imported, ſo much more money will come into the kingdom, to be detained there; and, from the contrary circumſtances, the miſery, depopulation, and ruin of the ſtate will neceſſarily proceed.

It is ſuppoſed that the goods imported into Great Britain, one year with another, amount to about five millions ſterling; but great quantities of theſe are reported, which may reduce the home conſumption to four millions.

It is the great intereſt of Great Britain to advance her manufactures; but this cannot be more effectually done than by freeing them from the cuſtoms of importation and exportation, as alſo from exciſes. By diſcharging the cuſtoms payable on manufactures at their exportation, it would encourage the merchants to ſend them abroad; and, by leſſening the duties on the importation of many of them, it would enable the manufacturers to afford them cheaper at home. But it is ſtrange, that the nation whoſe intereſt it is to outdo all others, by underſelling them in foreign markets, ſhould load them with taxes.

A judicious author, ſpeaking of logwood, ſays it paid 5 l. *per* ton cuſtom when imported into Great Britain, and drew back 3 l. 15 s. when ſhipped out again; which means the dyers in Holland uſed it ſo much cheaper than thoſe of Great Britain: therefore, if it was imported cuſtom free, and paid 1 l. 5 s. *per* ton on its exportation, the Dutch dyers would uſe it ſo much dearer than thoſe of Great Britain.

It is proper for a country to diſcourage the importation of commodities already manufactured, ſuch as wrought ſilks, callicoes, brandy, glaſs, and other commodities unleſs purchaſed by its own manufactures or product; becauſe they ſhould encourage the materials whereof they are made, to be wrought up at home; by which means more ſhips would be freighted, and more ſailors employed, beſides the great advantage to the nation in the balance of its trade, which muſt be returned in bullion, as thoſe are leſs abroad than the other; which will enable a country to afford a greater conſumption of foreign commodities that pleaſe the palate, ſuch as wine and fruit, which employ ſhips, and are fit ſubjects for trade, when they are purchaſed by home product and manufactures; for the profit of the trade will enable the nation to bear the expence. See *Exportation*, *Goods*, and *Ballance* of trade.

IMPOSITION. A tax, or duty, laid upon goods, perſons, or lands, by the legiſlative power, or people of a nation. See *Duty.*

IMPOST, in law, properly denotes the tribute, or cuſtom appointed by a ſovereign, to be paid for ſuch merchandiſe, as is brought into any haven in his dominions from foreign nations: which is diſtinguiſhed from cuſtom becauſe the latter more properly ſignifies the duties paid

the King for goods ſhipped off or exported; but they are both frequently confounded together. See *Cuſtom*, and *Duty*.

MPRESS. To mark, ſtamp, or print, the ſhapes, repreſentation, or ſubſtance of one thing upon another.

MPRESSION, is frequently uſed in ſpeaking of the edition of a book, or of the number of times it has been printed. Impreſſion, however, differs from edition; the former, properly ſpeaking, takes in no more than what belongs to the printing, letter, paper, margin, and page, diſtances of words, lines, and the diſpoſition of every thing that may have a good or bad effect on the eye: the latter, beſides all this, takes in the care of the editor, who reviſed the copy, corrected or augmented it; adding notes, tables, and other like things, which he judged might contribute towards making the book more uſeful and correct.

NAMELLING, or *Enamelling*. See *Enamelling*.

NCARNATION, in chemiſtry, the refining of gold, by means of ſilver and aqua fortis; which is what is otherwiſe called departing. See *Depart*.

NCENSE. An aromatic, odoriferous reſin, otherwiſe called frankincenſe. See *Frankincenſe*.

NCH. An Engliſh meaſure, the twelfth part of a foot, containing the ſpace of three barley corns in length. See *Meaſure*, and *Foot*.

NCH *of Candle*. A manner of ſelling goods among merchants; notice being uſually given upon the exchange in writing, and elſewhere, when the ſale is to begin; againſt which time the goods are divided into ſeveral parcels called lots, and papers printed of the quantity of each, with the conditions of ſale; as, that none ſhould bid leſs than a certain ſum more than another has bid before. During the time of bidding, a ſmall piece, of about an inch, of wax-candle, is burning; and the laſt bidder, when the candle goes out, has the lot or parcel expoſed to ſale. See *Auction*.

NCHASING. See *Enchaſing*.

NCLE. A ſort of tape uſed by women to tie their coats and aprons. See *Tape*.

NDEMNITY. An act by which one promiſes to guarantee, or ſave harmleſs, ſome other perſon from any loſs or damage that might accrue to him on any particular account.

NDEX, is a term among traders and book-keepers, for a book conſiſting of a certain number of leaves; which is kept in an alphabetical order, and uſed for finding readily, to the ledger, the folio of the debit and credit of the perſons with whom there is an accompt opened; though the index is alſo called the alphabet, table, or repertory.

NDIA, or the *Eaſt Indies*. A great tract of Aſia, containing all thoſe countries extending from Perſia on the weſt, to China on the eaſt; being India Proper, or India on this ſide the Ganges, and India beyond the Ganges; the former comprehending the empire of Indoſtan, or the Mogul's country; and the latter including the kingdoms of Aracan, Pegu, Malacca, Siam, Cambodia, Cochinchina, and Tonquin; as alſo the ſtates of Acham and Boutan.

This vaſt region of Aſia is called the Eaſt Indies, becauſe it is advanced ſo towards the eaſt; which diſtinguiſhes it from a part of America, whoſe ſituation to the weſt has occaſioned it to be called the Weſt Indies, on a preſumption that they extended, and even joined to the Eaſt Indies, though diſtant from them in reality half the circumference of the globe.

India Proper, or *Indoſtan*, is ſituated between 66 and 93 deg. of E. lon. and between 7 and 40 deg. of N. lat. being bounded by Uſbec Tartary, and Thibet, on the north; by another part of Thibet, the kingdoms of Aſem, Ava, and Pegu, on the eaſt; the bay of Bengal, and the Indian ocean, on the ſouth; and by the ſame ocean, and Perſia, on the weſt; being about 2000 miles in length from north to ſouth, and 1500 miles in breadth from eaſt to weſt where broadeſt, though the ſouthern part of the peninſula is not 300 miles broad; and all the countries within theſe limits are ſubject or tributary to the great Mogul. It is ſuppoſed to be called Indoſtan, from the river Indus, on its weſtern frontiers. It is alſo called Mogulſtan, from the imperial family now upon the throne, who derive their pedigree from Tamerlane, a Mogul, or Mogul Tartar: but it was the Emperor Aurengzebe, who made a conqueſt of Golconda, Viſiapour, and all the ſouthern kingdoms of India, about the year 1685. However, there are ſome Rajas, or Indian ſovereigns, on the coaſt of Malabar, and ſome others in the very heart of India, independent princes, inhabiting the mountainous and inacceſſible parts of the country: but Kouli Kan took the preſent Mogul priſoner, obtained an immenſe booty, and obliged him to yield up the weſtern provinces to Perſia, before he granted him his liberty.

The northern part of India is temperate, and the winds variable, as in other countries without the tropics; but towards the ſouth the country is ſubject to exceſſive heats; and the winds are periodical, returning to certain points at ſtated times, as in moſt countries within the tropics.

The monſoons, out at ſea, blow ſix months one way, and ſix another, namely, from April to October, or thereabout, they blow from the S. W. and from October to April from the N. E. not exactly from thoſe points, but varying ſometimes a point or two on either ſide. At the breaking up of either of theſe monſoons, a little before they ſhift, there are uſually prodigious ſtorms of wind. The ſhifting of the monſoons, and conſequently this ſtormy weather, does not come exactly at the ſame time every year, but ſometimes a fortnight or three weeks ſooner, and at others a fortnight or three weeks later than the uſual time; which frequently occaſions the loſs of ſhipping; for the merchants, for the ſake of a trifling gain, will remain upon the coaſt, in hopes that the ſtorm will keep off a little longer, till the winds grow too ſtrong for them, and they find it impoſſible to bear up againſt it. There are very few harbours on the coaſt of India; and therefore commanders who have any foreſight, get as far from the coaſts as they can at the time theſe ſtorms are expected.

But beſides the winds called monſoons, there are land and ſea breezes, which ſhift once in twelve hours, when the monſoons are not violent, for then the breezes give place to the hurricane. Theſe land and ſea breezes are of great uſe to the ſhipping, to carry them one way or the other along the coaſt; and the people on ſhore are very ſenſible of the effects of them too, for the land winds are hot, and the ſea breezes cool and refreſhing; and without the latter the ſouthern part of India would be intolerable in the heat of ſummer. But, as Providence is pleaſed to order it, the land winds blow but from midnight till noon, nor do they begin to be very troubleſome till nine in the morning.

Rains begin to fall in June, and their uſual continuance is about four months, from the latter end of June to the end of October. All the reſt of the year is exempt from ſtorms and hurricanes, and there are only ſuch moderate breezes as the heat of the climate requires. Thus it may be ſaid, that nine parts in ten of the continent of India are as healthful as any part of the world, and as agreeable to European conſtitutions after their illneſs is over, which they generally contract the firſt month they arrive there; this diſorder proceeding as much from the alteration of their diet, and a different regimen, as from any other cauſe.

The principal rivers of India are, the Ganges, the Indus, Jemma, Guenga, Chriſtena, Tapte, Paddar, Chaoul, and Negapatan. Beſides theſe, there are almoſt innumerable rivers, or rather torrents after the rains. Many of them at that time equal the Thames, and yet generally dry up before the rains fall again. As for the currents near theſe coaſts, they ſit and change as the monſoon does. It is very difficult going on ſhore in India, for the ſurf of the ſea runs ſo high, and breaks ſo far from the land, particularly at Fort St. George, on the Coromandel coaſt, that no European boat ever attempts the ſhore; but the natives come off in their muſſoola's, a boat almoſt as deep as a man is high, the planks whereof are not much more than half an inch thick, and ſewed together with cocoa-nut cordage. Theſe, if they ſtrike, as they muſt three times at leaſt before they get on ſhore, yield, and are as pliant almoſt as paſteboard; beſides, being exceeding light when on ground, the ſurf gently

heaves them forward, and when they ſtrike again, another ſurf ſucceeds the former, till at length they are gently heaved aſhore upon the beach.

The Mogul's dominions produce all the neceſſaries, and many luxuries of life. The blacks inhabit the ſouthern part of India; the complexion of thoſe in the northern provinces is either white, or an olive; theſe are the governing part of the nation, and of the Mahometan religion; the reſt being Pagans.

The Mogul's annual revenue is computed to amount to between 40 and 50 millions ſterling, if the viceroys were honeſt and faithful, ariſing by the produce of the ſoil, of which he is proprietor as well as ſovereign, every one being obliged to pay ſuch a rent as is required by his commiſſaries; by duties and cuſtoms on merchandiſe and labour, every thing being taxed among the working people; and great ſums frequently extorted from the principal merchants of the country; by forfeitures and eſcheats, being heir to all his great officers; by preſents, which are extracted from all his governors; and laſtly, by the produce of the diamond mines of Golconda. His country is exceeding populous; and the people are very good manufacturers, particularly of ſilk, and fine cotton cloths: there are alſo many merchants all over the country, who ſupply Europeans with Indian goods; and their Banians are very remarkable for their knowledge in trade.

The Europeans had very little trade to the Eaſt Indies before the year 1498, when the Portugueſe diſcovered the way thither by ſea, round the Cape of Good Hope: after which the Engliſh, Dutch, French, Swedes, and Danes, eſtabliſhed factories on the coaſts and iſlands of India; where they have carried on a conſiderable trade, and are now in poſſeſſion of many ſettlements in different parts of the country.

Commerce of Indoſtan, or the empire of the Great Mogul.

The commerce which Europeans carry on to the Mogul's territories, conſiſts principally in gold and ſilver coin, or bullion, which they bring there in great abundance, and which never returns; being converted at Agra into goldſmiths work, or being drawn and ſpun for their manufactures of gold and ſilver cloths and brocades. Great quantities of woollen cloths, tin, and other goods, are alſo brought there by the Europeans; who likewiſe ſupply India with ſpice, leather, elephants, and ſome other things which the Dutch bring from Japan, China, the Moluccas, and Ceylon.

But Europeans import from India the manufactures or produce of the country; ſuch as chints, calicoes, muſlins, ſilk, pepper, diamonds, and ſaltpetre.

India is divided into ſeveral provinces; but the principal trading places are upon the coaſts, which are diſtinguiſhed by different names; as the coaſt of Guzarat, the Indian coaſt, the coaſt of Malabar, the Pearl coaſt, the coaſt of Coromandel, and Bengal or the Bay.

The coaſt of Guzarat.

The kingdom of Guzarat, or Cambaia, is almoſt wholly maritime, forming a peninſula, advancing between the gulphs of the Indus and Cambaia, being upwards of 120 leagues along the coaſt.

It is in this extent that Cambaia and Surat are ſituated, the former in 72 deg of E. lon. and the latter in 72 deg. 20 min. They are two of the moſt famous towns, particularly the latter, of India, both for the trade carried on there by the European nations, and for that carried on by the merchants of the country with Java and Sumatra, in the Indian ocean; Aden, Mocha, and Mecca, upon the Red ſea; and Bander Abaſſi, or Gombron, in the Perſian gulph; where, though very indifferent mariners, and with ſhips very unfafely built, they ſend yearly very great cargoes of the merchandiſe of their country, or ſuch as they purchaſe from ſtrangers.

Theſe merchandiſes are cotton cloths, carpets, tapeſtry, rock-cryſtal, precious ſtones; woods for dying, perfumes, and other uſes; indigo, camphor, tobacco, ſulphur, galanga, ſpikenard, ultramarine, aſſa fœtida, borax, ſcammony, benjoin, pepper, cummin, ginger, mirobalans, ſilk ſtuffs of their own manufactures, wheat, ſalt, oil, and butter.

Their returns from Aden are gold and ſilver ſpecie, coral, ambergreaſe, meiſſeit a drug for dying, and the beſt opium of the eaſt.

From Perſia they bring brocades, ſilks, velvets, camblets, pearls, dry fruits, and particularly roſe-water, which they love extremely, and which they tranſport into ſeveral parts of the Indies.

The Portugueſe, for a conſiderable time, engroſſed all the commerce of the kingdom of Guzarat; of which they made themſelves maſters by their forts at Daman, Diu, and Goa; but their power is no longer dreaded: ſo that the trade is now open to all the European and Eaſtern nations, who ſend yearly their ſhips to Surat, where the principal commerce of Guzarat is tranſacted; though a conſiderable trade is alſo carried on at Cambaia, Boritſchia, Boodera, and Sirches.

Amadabat is the capital city of Guzarat, little inferior to Agra, being ſituated in 72 deg. of E. lon. and 23 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. upon a ſmall river, which empties itſelf into the Indus. It is 140 miles N. of Surat, and 40 N. E. of Cambaia; having a very flouriſhing commerce, ſending yearly great caravans to Agra, and tranſporting to Surat, Cambaia, and Boritſchia, its manufactures, and ſeveral other commodities, either the productions of the country, or the returns of its caravans.

About 25 large villages, and upwards of 3000 ſmall ones are computed to be in the diſtrict of Amadabat; where almoſt all the inhabitants are employed in manufacturing of all ſorts of ſilk and cotton ſtuffs, brocades, cloths of gold and ſilver, but not ſo beautiful as thoſe of Perſia, damaſks, ſattins, taffeties, and velvets of all colours; alſo carpets, whoſe ground work is either of gold, ſilver, ſilk, or wool.

The beſt part of theſe manufactures are deſtined for Surat; the Banians, who have almoſt the whole trade of that city in their hands, and who act there as brokers to European merchants, having their factors on the ſpot, who buy up theſe commodities as ſoon as manufactured.

The productions of the country are indigo, cultivated and prepared in abundance in the diſtrict of this capital, particularly at Sirches, a ſmall town, but in great reputation for the perfect culture, and good preparation of this drug; ſugar-candy, powder ſugar, all ſorts of confects, cummin, honey, lacca, opium, borax, dry and confected ginger, mirabolans, ſaltpetre, ſal armoniac, ambergreaſe, muſk, and diamonds; but the three laſt are brought there from abroad, and ſold again to foreign merchants.

All the merchandiſes brought from Amadabat, and all thoſe which enter there by the returns of the caravans, pay no cuſtomhouſe duty, except a kind of preſent to the officer, which does not exceed 6 d. ſterling for a camel load.

Gun-powder, lead, and ſaltpetre, are the only contraband goods prohibited there for exportation; but a permiſſion for taking them away may be eaſily obtained.

The meidan, or market-place, of Amadabat, is one of the largeſt and moſt agreeable in all the Indies, being bordered on both ſides with two rows of palm-trees and tamarins, intermixed with orange and citron-trees, under which the merchants keep their ſhops, and ſell their goods.

The Banians, who are generally bankers, trade great in money; there being no towns any way conſiderable in the Mogul's territories, and the other part of the Indies, but what they can make remittances to; which is very commodious for merchants, upon account of the danger in travelling through all parts of Indoſtan, unleſs in a caravan; as alſo upon account of the Malabar pirates, commonly called Angria's men, who ſcour all the Indian ſeas, like the corſairs of Barbary in the Mediterranean.

The Engliſh and Dutch uſually take caravans from Surat for Amadabat, and afterwards thoſe of Amadabat for Agra, when they have any buſineſs in that capital. They have alſo factors at Amadabat, where they dye their cloths, and refine their ſaltpetre. It is likewiſe from this city that all the blue cloths come which are ſent into Perſia, Arabia, Abyſſinia, the Red ſea, the coaſt of Melinda, Moſambique, Madagaſcar, Java, Sumatra, Macaſſar, and the Moluccas.

Barbiſol

Boritſchia, or *Brotchia*. A large town of the kingdom of Guzarat, ſituated 36 miles to the north of Surat, upon a river which empties itſelf into the ſea by two mouths, 24 miles below the town.

Cotton cloths are manufactured there, as alſo in 80 villages of its diſtrict; being reckoned among the fineſt and moſt beautiful kinds made in the Indies.

The factories which the Engliſh and Dutch have there are very antient, and the firſt eſtabliſhed by theſe two nations on this coaſt. The greater part of the inhabitants are Banians, and conſequently almoſt all merchants.

Dijentagar, is almoſt in the midſt of the kingdom of Guzarat, and has a manufactory of cotton cloths.

Pettan, is famous for its manufactures of ſilks, cottons, tulbands, allegias, and ſome other ſtuffs; it being from thence that the Banians bring the greater part of thoſe which are purchaſed by the Europeans.

Cambaia, or *Cambay*. The commerce of this city is very conſiderable; being not inferior to any, except Surat, over which it had the ſuperiority before the decay of Goa, and the ruin of the Portugueſe.

It is ſituated at the mouth of the river Carari, in 23 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. at the bottom of the gulph to which it gives its name, 48 miles from Boritſchia.

The Engliſh and Dutch have factories there, upon account of its proximity to Surat, where their principal trade lies.

The natives of the country, particularly the Banians, who almoſt all devote themſelves to trade, are more ſubtle and ſkilful there than in any other part of the eaſt; but alſo greater cheats, eſpecially in precious ſtones, of which they have a very perfect knowledge.

The commerce of the Banians of Cambaia is uſually to Diu, Goa, Cochin, Achem, Batavia, Bantam, the coaſt of Coromandel, that of Bengal, Perſia, and the Red ſea, where they ſend their own ſhips; but the greater part with Dutch pilots, which they hire at a dear rate from the company, thoſe of the country being little experienced in maritime affairs.

Though the exportation of their merchandiſe to all theſe places is a conſiderable object of their trade, it is nothing in compariſon to that carried on with ſtrangers, who arrive every year at Cambaia; there being ſcarce a nation in the Indies, whoſe merchants and ſhips are not ſeen there; as alſo from Moſambique, Melinda, Arabia, and the Perſian gulph; beſides Europeans, who ſend there ſeveral ſhips more uſually laden with rials, rixdollars, ducats, and ſequins, than merchandiſe; gold and ſilver being, as has been already obſerved, the beſt cargo for this coaſt, except ſpice, which the inhabitants of Cambaia, as well as the reſt of the kingdom of Guzarat, cannot well do without.

The principal merchandiſes brought from Cambaia, are very fine cotton cloths, and perfectly well manufactured, which are not leſs eſteemed than thoſe of the coaſt of Coromandel and Bengal, canvas for ſails and ſacks, ſeveral ſorts of ſilk ſtuffs, ſcarfs for covering the head and face of women, carpets, gold cloths, bed-coverings of ſilk or cotton, ſeveral houſhold utenſils, indigo, ſaltpetre, borax, cummin, ginger, rhubarb, mirabolans, ſeveral other excellent drugs, ſugar, oil, and butter; without reckoning ſeveral ſorts of precious ſtones, either found in Guzarat, or brought from other parts; wherein the Banians, who keep their ſhops in one of the three great bazars of Cambaia, drive on a very opulent trade; and wherein Europeans may alſo make conſiderable profits, if they are judges, and upon their guard againſt the artful contrivances of Indian jewellers.

At Cambaia are alſo made ſeveral excellent works of agate, not inferior in any reſpect to thoſe of Europe, either in the beauty of the ſtone, or the perfection of the work.

The beſt part of the merchandiſes, of which Europeans make the greateſt purchaſe, are not ſuch as they make their returns with into Europe; but they carry them to different parts of the Indies, and exchange them for others, ſuch as all ſorts of corn and fruits; of which the Dutch, among others, buy up yearly great quantities, and in which they gain conſiderably, by bringing them to the places where they are wanted.

Surat, is ſituated on the river Tapte, 10 miles E. of the Indian ſea, 160 miles N. of Bombay, and as many S. of the city of Cambaia; being about three miles in circumference, but very populous, and vaſtly rich. The Engliſh, Dutch, and French, have their factories here, and trade very largely; but the Moors, Armenians, Banians, Arabs, and Jews, are much greater merchants. The Engliſh preſident lives in the ſtate of a prince, being uſually governor of Bombay, and of all the Engliſh ſettlements upon the weſt coaſt of India; having almoſt as much reſpect paid him as the Indian governor of Surat. He has his coaches, palanquins, and led horſes, richly equipped; and, when he goes abroad, has his guards, with a numerous retinue; the Europeans finding it neceſſary for their officers and ſervants to make a grand appearance among the eaſtern people.

Souali, ſeven or eight leagues from the mouth of the Tapte, is properly the port of Surat; the river not being navigable up to the town for ſhips of burden; which obliges merchants to unload at this place, and to ſend their merchandiſe to Surat, either in barges up the river, or by land in waggons drawn by oxen.

The Portugueſe took and ruined Surat in 1520; but as it was already famous enough for its trade, it became more conſiderable by its ruin; all the Indian nations, who were accuſtomed to trade there, having united to re eſtabliſh it; but it was not till near a century after that it became a general ſtaple for European and Eaſtern merchandiſe; being enriched by a kind of compenſation for the damage done to it by the Portugueſe, when the Dutch appearing in the Indian ocean, had deprived them of almoſt all their places, and entirely ruined their trade.

Since that time the Mogul has had ſuch a jealous and watchful eye over the preſervation of this important place, whoſe cuſtomhouſes bring into him ſome millions of rupees annually, that he ſuffers no foreign ſhips to continue in the river.

The Engliſh eſtabliſhed a factory there in 1609, the Dutch in 1616, and the French in 1665.

The principal commerce of the Europeans at Surat paſſes thro' the hands of the Banians, who are almoſt all exceeding rich; and what makes them preferred to Mahometan merchants in matters of brokerage is, that all the workmen with whom they correſpond, are idolaters, who would not treat with the ſame confidence with brokers not of their own ſect.

The European companies have uſually a principal broker, who has ſeveral others under him; it being this broker, who, with the chiefs of the factories, and their council, decide all matters, both with regard to the ſale and purchaſe of merchandiſe.

It is of the laſt importance, that this firſt broker is an honeſt and expert merchant; all the ſucceſs of this commerce depending on theſe two qualities.

The merchandiſes purchaſed at Surat by the intervention of theſe brokers, are of ſeveral ſorts, and are ſold in different places.

Thoſe proper to be ſent into Europe are ſpun and wool cotton; plain, white, and dyed cotton cloths; ſeveral ſilk ſtuffs plain or ſtriped of gold or ſilver; woollen or ſilk carpets, others of ſilk worked with gold or ſilver; cotton cloths, painted or printed; raw ſilks, indigo of three ſorts, aloes, Sapan wood, coffee, Maldivee ſhells for the Guinea trade, incenſe, ſaltpetre, borax, lacca, wax, myrrh, terrame-rita, red bole, muſk, bezoar, and ſometimes grey amber, pearls, diamonds, and ſome other leſs precious ſtones.

For Bander-Abaſſi, and Boſſora in the Perſian gulph, white, coarſe, and fine cottons, with a few dyed blue and black.

The merchandiſes of Surat for the commerce of Mocha, and the coaſts of the Red ſea and Arabia Felix, are coarſe white, blue, and black cotton cloths.

For Sumatra, Java, and Macaſſar, blue and black cottons, but much more of the fine than of the coarſe ſort.

For the Philippines, all ſorts of coarſe and fine white and dyed cottons; beſides carpets and ſilk ſtuffs.

Laſtly, opium for the coaſts of Malabar, and for the other parts of the Indies, whence pepper is brought; no commodity being better than opium for the exchange of this ſpice.

Two ſhips depart every year from Surat, for the conveniency of the Mahometans, who go upon a pilgrimage to Mecca; but uſually they are as much laden with merchandiſe upon account of the Mogul, as upon that of the pilgrims; and their returns are ſo rich, that they make a part of the European trade for the merchandiſe of Arabia Felix.

The Turks of Aden and Mocha ſend likewiſe every year a ſhip to Surat, whoſe cargo belongs to the Grand Signior.

The duties of importation and exportation paid by European merchants at Surat, are pretty moderate, amounting to only 2 *per cent.* though the natives of the country pay $3\frac{1}{2}$ *per cent.*

It has been obſerved, in ſpeaking of the commerce of Amadabat, that the Banians there tranſact a great deal of buſineſs by bills of exchange, and remittances to ſeveral parts of the eaſt; and here it will not be amiſs to add the exchange in the Mogul's territories; where, as in Europe, it is higher or lower, according to certain circumſtances.

The exchange from Lahor to Surat is from 7 to $7\frac{1}{2}$ *per cent.*

From Agra, from 4 to 5.

From Amadabat, from 1 to $1\frac{1}{4}$.

From Bengal, Patna, Caſſumbaſar, and Huegly, from 8 to 9.

From Golconda, and the neighbouring places, from 5 to 6.

And from Goa, 4 *per cent.*

Agra, the capital of the Mogul's empire, is ſituated in 79 deg. of E. lon. and 26 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. upon the river Jemma, which falls into the Ganges. It is a large, beautiful, and populous city, where the Mogul frequently reſides; being 20 miles in circumference, and 300 N. E. of Surat.

The number of its meidans, where are held public markets for all ſorts of commodities; of its covered bazars, where the merchants and artiſans have their ſhops and quarters; and of its caravanſeras, which are upwards of 80, are ſufficient to ſhew its vaſt extent and commerce, which is promoted as well by ſtrangers as the inhabitants.

This commerce is kept on footing there by ſeveral caravans, which depart from Amadabat, Surat, and other parts, uſually conſiſting of 4 or 500 camels, which the Engliſh, Dutch, French, Moors, Turks, Arabs, Perſians, and other nations trading to Surat, uſe for tranſporting their merchandiſe into this capital, and for bringing ſeveral others proper for their trade.

Beſides the indigo of Agra, which is the beſt in the world, ſeveral ſilk ſtuffs and cottons are brought from thence.

It is there alſo that all the merchandiſes of Boutan and Tartary are brought; and many merchants come hither from the interior parts of Indoſtan.

The expence of the merchandiſe brought from Agra to Surat is from 15 to 20 *per cent.* including the remittances of bills of exchange at 5 *per cent.* package, carriages, and the duties of the roads, purſuant to their different qualities.

It ſhould be alſo obſerved in general, that confiſcation does not take place in the Mogul's territories for the fraudulent entrance, or going out of merchandiſe; but, upon diſcovery, a double duty is paid.

Daman, *Baciaim*, *Diu*, and *Chaoul*, are alſo four maritime places of the kingdom of Guzarat, but all belonging to the Portugueſe. They had alſo Bombay, between Daman and Chaoul; but they ceded it to the Engliſh in 1662, in favour of the marriage between Catharine Infanta of Portugal, and Charles II. King of England.

Daman is ſituated in 72 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 20 deg. of N. lat. upon the gulph of Cambaia, between Surat and Baciaim, from which it is equally diſtant, having the latter about 75 miles to the ſouth, and the former about the ſame diſtance to the north, being about 120 miles from Diu, and 240 from Goa.

The ſituation of this town, and the goodneſs of its fort, with a pretty conſiderable commerce, make it at preſent eſteemed by the Portugueſe more than any other place remaining to them in the Indies; yet the trade of Baciaim is not much inferior to it; but that of both places with Diu is much decayed, ſince the Engliſh, Dutch, and other European nations, raiſed the reputation of Surat.

The Banians are thoſe who farm the cuſtomhouſes of Daman, and of the greater part of the other towns remaining to the Portugueſe; the duties of entry being paid at Daman upon the footing of 10 *per cent.*

Diu, is a little iſland, with a town of the ſame name, lying in 69 deg. of E. lon. and 21 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. 200 miles W. of Surat. It has the reputation of being impregnable; having always been the ſtrongeſt place of the Portugueſe in the Eaſt Indies. It was here that they formerly kept their armadas: the Mooriſh ſhips were alſo viſited here, and took paſſports for the aſſurance of their commerce; ſo that there was not a town from whence the King of Portugal had a greater revenue in cuſtomhouſe duties and paſſports.

Tavernier, in his obſervation on the Indian trade, thinks this town the moſt proper of any for the principal eſtabliſhment of a commercial company, both for the ſafety of its port, and the goodneſs of its waters, which are infinitely better than thoſe of Soualy and Surat, as likewiſe on account of the extraordinary quantity of all ſorts of refreſhments; or laſtly, by its proximity to Surat, where a perſon may go in four or five days by land, by croſſing the gulph, or at moſt in ſeven, by making the entire paſſage.

Chaoul, or *Chaul*. The Portugueſe, on their firſt arrival, and in the beginning of their conqueſts, took this town from the King of Decan.

Its commerce, which is very conſiderable, but much leſs than formerly, is particularly famous for ſilk and ſilk manufactures, with which it furniſhes Goa, and a great part of the Indies.

Several Chineſe ſhips come there with their merchandiſe; and, in exchange, take ſpice, which they have pretty cheap. Their other manufactures are all ſorts of vaniſh, and divers lacquered works of all colours, bordering much upon the perfection of thoſe of China.

A great number of horſes, oxen, and cows, with all ſorts of fruits and productions of the earth, except raiſins, walnuts, and cheſnuts, are alſo found there.

The Indian coaſt, and coaſt of Malabar, extends from the frontiers of Guzarat to Cape Comorin; being about 500 miles on the coaſt.

The Portugueſe, for a conſiderable time, were maſters of all this coaſt; by which they began their diſcoveries and conqueſts in the Eaſt Indies, Calicut being the firſt town where they put in, and Canonor the place where they erected their firſt fort: but they were diſpoſſeſſed of all their ſettlements on this coaſt by the Dutch, except Goa and a few other places of no conſequence.

Decan is the firſt kingdom of this coaſt after that of Guzarat, and was for a conſiderable time a province of the Mogul's empire; but now it is only tributary.

Its maritime towns are Geytapour, Rajapour, Carapatan, Dabul, and Sifardan; whoſe commerce conſiſts in ſilk ſtuffs and cotton cloths; which are ſent to Surat by ſea or by land as far as the coaſt of Coromandel.

Rajapour, or *Dunder Rajapour*, is a town ſituated about miles from Goa, being in the lands of Sevagy, the famous rebel, who ſo long kept all the forces of the Mogul and the King of Viſapour, in employment. The Engliſh had formerly a factor here, but were expelled by the Indians. The French company eſtabliſhed itſelf there in 1669, where it has a handſome factory, and an agreeable garden. Its commerce conſiſts in ſaltpetre, cotton cloths, and pepper.

Bombay, or rather *Boonbay fort and iſland*, lie about miles to the northward of Rajapour, in 72 deg. 28 min. of E. lon. and 18 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. being 130 miles S. of Surat, and 206 N. of Goa. The Portugueſe who poſſeſſed themſelves of it, ſoon after their coming to India, gave it the name of Boonbay, from the goodneſs of the harbour, being capable, it is ſaid, of containing 1000 veſſels. The King of Portugal, in the year 1663, transferred the property of it to King Charles II. on his marriage with the Princeſs Catherine, the Infanta of Por-

gal, as part of her fortune; and his Majeſty made a preſent of it ſome time after to the Engliſh Eaſt India company.
The iſland of Bombay is about ſeven miles in length; but the houſes are low and mean, except ſome few belonging to the Engliſh and Portugueſe. The fort is ſtrong, and regularly fortified, having 120 pieces of cannon mounted, and ſtands at ſome diſtance from the town. There are three or four other little towns upon the iſland, where the Portugueſe have their churches.
The iſland is but barren, and produces not half grain enough to ſubſiſt the inhabitants; but they are ſupplied very reaſonably from the neighbouring countries. What they abound in moſt, are their groves of cocoa-nut trees. Their gardens alſo produce mangoes, jacks, and other Indian fruits; and they make pretty large quantities of ſalt, with very little trouble, from the ſea-water; which being let into little pits, the ſun extracts the moiſture, and the ſalt is left behind.
The inhabitants are a mixture of ſeveral nations, Engliſh, Portugueſe, and Indians, amounting to 50 or 60,000. The preſident of Surat is uſually governor of the place, who has a deputy here, and courts of juſtice after the model of England; and the governor, when in the iſland, appears in greater ſtate than the governor of Fort St. George, being attended by the troops of Moors and Bandarins, with their ſtandards.
Both the Dutch and the Mogul in their turns have endeavoured to make themſelves maſters of Bombay, but ineffectually. So lately as 1688, the Mogul General landed 25,000 men upon the iſland, and attacked the fort; but not being able to carry it, came to a treaty with the governor, and retired.
The iſland of *Canarin*, which ſome call *Salſette*, lies a little to the north of Bombay, ſeparated from it only by a channel of half a mile wide, and fordable at low water. This iſland is 20 miles in length, 17 in breadth, and about 70 in circumference. It belongs to the Portugueſe, and is parcelled out among ſuch gentlemen as have deſerved well of the crown.
The chief town is Bandora, where the Jeſuits particularly have a noble college, fortified by ſeveral batteries of guns. The land near the ſea is low, and cut into ſeveral canals, producing rice, ſugar-canes, and Indian fruits in abundance; but the middle of the iſland is mountainous.
Malagate, is a part of the kingdom of Decan; being productive of ſilk, cotton, excellent lacca, areca, rice, and betel, which afford a conſiderable trade with Europeans. The diamonds of the mine, called by the Portugueſe *Rocca Vieja*, are much eſteemed, eſpecially thoſe denominated *Boyſſez*, becauſe naturally cut. There are alſo amethyſts, chryſolites, and the ſtones called by lapidaries hæmatites.
Decan, which ſome make a particular kingdom, and others place in the number of the provinces of Decan, is famous for the town of Goa; beſides Baticula, Viſapour, Siliapour, Paranda, and Wingurta or Verſara.
Goa, the capital of this province, has a conſiderable trade; which is chiefly in the hands of Jews, conſiſting of rice; of which there are four ſorts, the firſt and beſt called *gracatili*, the ſecond *jambucal*, the third *canacar*, and the fourth *pacharil*; but there is a great difference between every kind.
The other commodities are powder ſugar, and confected mirabolans of all ſorts; the rice and ſugar being bought up by the ſhips of Ormus; and the mirabolans are ſent to Perſia and Arabia.
A great deal of copper is ſold there; part of which is coined, and part employed in manufacture.
Goa is the capital of the Portugueſe poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies; being ſituated in 73 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 15 deg. 20 min. of N. lat.
It ſtands on an iſland of the river Mandoua, about 8 miles from the mouth of it; and, by the ſtrength of its ſituation, and the fortifications the Portugueſe have added to it, has been able to defend itſelf, both againſt the Dutch and the natives, who have beſieged it ſeveral times. The iſland it ſtands upon is 24 miles in circumference; and the hills, which ſurround it at a little diſtance, on the neighbouring continent, render it very hot and unhealthful. The town is about two miles in length, and half a one in

breadth; being not only fortified with walls and ramparts, but the whole iſland is ſurrounded by a wall, baſtions, and other modern works, which ſecure their fields and gardens from the incurſions of enemies: and indeed the Portugueſe have fortified the banks of the river from the very mouth of it, with redoubts and batteries of guns, which makes the attacking of it more difficult than any other town in India. Nor is the country between the town and the ſea more ſecure than it is pleaſant; being full of country ſeats and villages, well planted with all ſuch fruits as are found between the tropics. The viceroy, who reſides in this city, commands all the ſettlements the Portugueſe are maſters of from the Cape of Good Hope to China, which are very numerous; the clergy in the Portugueſe towns and ſettlements in Aſia, and the weſt coaſt of Africa, being ſubject to the archbiſhop of Goa. The buildings of this city are of ſtone, and very magnificent. They have abundance of convents and nunneries here; and it is ſurpriſing to ſee what numbers of monks, and other Popiſh eccleſiaſtics there are in this city, and on the coaſt of Malabar and Golconda. But they make few proſelytes among the Indian Pagans; and as for the Mahometans, who have the government in their hands, it is as much as the life of a miſſionary is worth to attempt to make a convert of any of them. Their labours are chiefly beſtowed on the ſlaves and dependents of the European factories and ſettlements on theſe coaſts; for the Proteſtants, having few or no miſſionaries in India, permit the Popiſh prieſts to make as many converts to Chriſtianity as they can in their own way.
The commerce of the Portugueſe in the Indies is almoſt reduced to that of this town; which is very inconſiderable, there being hardly any Portugueſe rich enough to make a cargo of 2500 l. ſterling; ſo that throughout the Eaſt Indies their whole trade does not amount to 50,000 l. ſterling a year.
It is commonly thought, that what tends to ruin the Portugueſe trade in the Eaſt Indies, is, that each governor has partly the trade of the town where he commands, in his own hands: ſo that merchants, enjoying no liberty, dare not undertake any thing conſiderable.
There is however at Goa a junto, or tribunal, eſtabliſhed for judging of the affairs of a new company, which by great ſums has obtained the excluſive privilege of the Moſambique and Macao trade, and of the other places in the Eaſt Indies belonging to the crown of Portugal: but though this company is greatly protected, its trade is of no conſequence, and ſerves to ruin the whole commerce of Goa: from which place alone the Portugueſe are allowed to freight for Bengal and China.

The coaſt of Malabar.

This coaſt extends from Goa to Cape Comorin; being about 400 miles long, and 100 broad. It is divided into ſeveral ſmall ſtates, but tributary to the Mogul; which have all particular diſtinguiſhing names.
The air of the Malabar coaſt in general is very good, and the ſoil is as fertile as moſt parts of Aſia; black and white rice, which make a part of its commerce, and perhaps the moſt conſiderable, having two crops in the year. Beſides an abundance of excellent fruits, it affords alſo in great plenty cardamomum, cinnamon, betel, and eſpecially pepper.
Mirzeou is the firſt place in the province of Canara, near the frontiers of the kingdom of Viſapour, and 54 miles to the ſouth of Goa. The Portugueſe had one of their moſt antient forts at this place; but the inhabitants took it in 1662.
The French company eſtabliſhed a factory there in 1669, but abandoned it the ſame year for Rajapour; and now all the pepper of theſe parts is ſold to the Dutch, who have a factory at Barſaloor.
Mangalor, 150 miles N. of Calicut, and *Barcelor*, or *Baſſelor*, 130 miles S. of Goa, are two of the moſt important places of Canara, both for trade, and the goodneſs of their roads for ſhipping. The Portugueſe had forts in both places; but were expelled by the Canarins, whilſt engaged in their long wars with the Dutch: however, the peace between the two nations having given the viceroy of Goa the opportunity of revenging himſelf

on the Indians, by inroads which ruined the whole coaſt, the viceroy of Canara was willing to give up the forts; which the Portugueſe refuſed, becauſe they were not in a condition to keep them, contenting themſelves with the eſtabliſhment of two factories, for receiving the half of the duties of all imported and exported commodities. Pepper, with black and white rice, are the principal commodities of theſe two towns; rice being ſo plentiful at Mangalor, that the inhabitants ſend away 50 or 60 ſhips loaded with it every year.

Onor is a part of Biſnagar; where the Portugueſe have a factory, and trade for almoſt all the pepper of the country; which has the reputation of producing the beſt in the Eaſt Indies. They may buy up yearly to the amount of 8000 quintals, which they are obliged to pay for ſix months before the harveſt, otherwiſe they can get none. Great quantities of rice are alſo ſent from thence to ſeveral parts of India.

Before the Portugueſe were eſtabliſhed on this coaſt, commerce flouriſhed at Onor more than at any other place; but, after the taking of Goa by Albuquerque, it all paſſed to that city. However the viceroys of Onor have always been friends of the Portugueſe, and could never be prevailed on to depart from their alliance.

Canonor, or *Cananar*, is a large province of Malabar: it is not ſo extenſive as Calicut, but is ſuperior to it in commerce, and the multitude of inhabitants.

Its principal maritime places are Baliepatan, Framapatan, and Canonor the capital, from whence it is named. The Portugueſe, for a long time, kept the firſt fort they had in India in this country, but loſt it in 1662; and ſince, the Dutch, who took it, remained in ſome reſpects the maſters of the commerce of this part of Malabar, which has not leſs than 25 leagues along the coaſt.

The town of Canonor is ſituated in 75 deg. of E. lon. and 10 deg. of N. lat. The commodities it affords are ſugar, pepper, ginger, cardamomum, caſſia, honey, ambergreaſe, found at Cape Comorin; ſome precious ſtones, as granates, ſaphires, hyacinths, rubies, topazes, and particularly the Cananor ſtone, of ſome uſe in medicine.

It is ſaid, that there comes to Canonor upwards of 200 ſhips every year; and though the commerce of the above mentioned merchandiſe is very conſiderable, it is certain that the rice produced abundantly in this province is the beſt upon the coaſt, and makes the greater part of the cargo of theſe ſhips.

A league to the ſouth of Cananor is the village of *Caola*, where very beautiful cottons are manufactured; and a little farther off is *Tremepatan*, remarkable for its bazar, merchants, and cotton cloths; the laſt of which retain the name of their reſpective villages.

Baliepatan, is remarkable for its pepper trade. It is properly a village, but large, and inhabited by rich Mahometan merchants. The Engliſh have a conſiderable factory here; it being at this place that the two ſhips which the Engliſh company ſends yearly to the coaſt of Malabar for the pepper trade, have the greateſt part of their cargo.

The Engliſh factory is more than a league from the ſea; being built upon an eminence on the banks of the river, into which ſhips of burden cannot enter.

The French had alſo an eſtabliſhment here; but as it was ill ſituated, and too far from the ſea, it was tranſferred to Tellicherry.

Tellicherry, or *Tilcery*, is ſituated in 75 deg. of E. lon. and 12 deg. of N. lat. 30 miles N. of Calicut. The Engliſh and French have each a factory there. The trade is much upon the ſame footing with that of the neighbouring towns; particularly pepper is ſold there pretty cheap, and ſent in conſiderable quantities from the kingdom of Cananor to Perſia, Baſſora, Mocha, and Muſcat; but the ſmalleſt kind is the beſt for all theſe places.

Calicut is one of the provinces of Malabar; where the Engliſh Dutch, French, and Danes, have all conſiderable factories.

The town of Calicut is ſituated in 75 deg. of E. lon. and 11 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. 300 miles S. of Goa, and 320 S. W. of Fort St. George; being formerly the greateſt place of trade in India; but Goa, and afterwards Surat, deprived it of this advantage; beſides that, the coaſt is very bad, and too frequent inundations have much contributed to hinder its foreign commerce, which however is pretty conſiderable.

The Dutch eſtabliſhed themſelves there in 1604, the Engliſh ſoon after, and the French not till 60 years after them.

Though Calicut is the capital of the province; yet the King quitted it, to keep his court more up the country, which has greatly diminiſhed his commerce. The bazar, however, is one of the moſt beautiful of any on the coaſt of Malabar; containing four or five handſome ſtreets, and is always ſtocked with merchandiſe; the principal of which are pepper, very beautiful cottons, natural ſaltpetre, which wants but very little purification, and is found abundantly throughout the kingdom, particularly near Sirinpatan; ſantal wood, and excellent rice. The ſand on the ſea-ſhore of the Calicut coaſt, particularly at the mouths of rivers, is mixed with very fine grains of gold, by the gathering of which ſeveral poor people acquire a livelihood. The largeſt grains are worth about 7 d. ſterling, but moſt commonly they are worth only 2 d. or 3 d.

Tanjour, or *Tanor*, is the principal place of the commerce of a very ſmall kingdom, to which it has given its name; where the prince, though his territories are ſcarce 30 ſquare miles, is an abſolute ſovereign.

This town is ſituated in 79 deg. of E. lon. and 11 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 60 miles S. W. of Trincumbar, and 45 S. of Calicut. It has but one road for ſhips, and no river; the inhabitants of its bazar are rich Mahometans, and the natives in general are enemies of the Dutch, but friends to the Portugueſe; and the French were very well received there in 1672.

Cranganor is a ſmall province between Tanjour and Cochin, where the Portugueſe had a conſiderable fort; but the Dutch took it from them in 1662.

Cochin is a town 100 miles S. of Calicut, which the Dutch took from the Portugueſe in 1667.

Porcat comes after, and next *Calicoulan*, and *Coulan*, the laſt province of Malabar.

The Engliſh and Dutch have factories in the capitals, and beſt places of theſe provinces; the Dutch, who are not much more loved there, but more dreaded, than the Portugueſe, having forts at Coulan and Cochin, to aſſure themſelves of the pepper-trade, which is conſiderable there, and which their ſhips take in as they paſs by, continuing their voyage towards Surat, Perſia, and the Red ſea, where they ſell the beſt part of it, in exchange for ſeveral rich merchandiſes, which all theſe places furniſh, and with which they afterwards return to Batavia.

The commerce of theſe provinces is not much different from that of the reſt of Malabar; though there are natural productions proper to ſome, and not found in the others, which make the trade in ſome reſpects different.

In general, they afford pepper, cardamomum, lacca, ginger, tamarins, ambergreaſe, black and white rice, kerſeri, and catiang a kind of ſmall peas, ſantal wood, ſaltpetre, and ſeveral cotton cloths, but neither ſo fine, ſo white, nor ſo well painted as thoſe of Surat, Coromandel, and Bengal.

In Coulan there is alſo a pretty conſiderable pearl-fiſhery belonging to the King. Thoſe who fiſh for theſe pearls work all the week for themſelves, except on Friday, when they work for the maſter of the bark: towards the end of the fiſhery, the laſt eighth is for the King's farmer, beſides a duty paid him for all the ſmall pearls.

The Pearl, or Fiſhery coaſt.

This coaſt extends from Cape Comorin to Negapatan, having before it the iſlands of Manar and Ceylon; and it is in the ſtreight which ſeparates theſe iſlands from the continent that the pearl fiſhery is carried on. The interior part of the country is dry and barren; none of the legumes, and admirable fruits, which are found in other parts, being gathered there, except a little rice, which is ſcarce ſufficient for the ſuſtenance of the inhabitants; ſo that it was only for the pearl-fiſhery that the Dutch envied the Portugueſe.

Tuticorin, is the capital of this coaſt, but leſs remarkable for

extent and beauty, than for its pearl-fiſhery, and its inhabitants being the beſt fiſhers: thoſe of Calipatan are alſo in ſome repute; and it is from theſe two towns that the greateſt number of barks depart.

Tuticorin is ſituated 60 miles N. E. of Cape Comorin: but the Portugueſe, who made themſelves maſters of the fiſhery almoſt in the beginning of their eſtabliſhment in the Eaſt Indies, erected no fortification for the defence of this place. The Dutch, who took it in 1658, and who have ſince poſſeſſed it, in imitation of the Portugueſe, declare themſelves protectors only of the fiſhery; aſſiſting the natives with frigates, in order to give no umbrage to a people who are exceſſively jealous of their liberties. When the time of the fiſhery approaches, which is in April, or in the beginning of May, the *Naick*, or the ſovereign of the country, publiſhes the day and place of its opening, which is always done in concert with the Dutch company's officers, that they may ſend their ſhips there.

When the day is arrived, thouſands of men, women, and children, are ſeen to come from all parts, eſpecially ſome hundreds of divers in barks, all the reſt remaining on the ſhore in tents, during the 15 days the fiſhery continues, which reſembles much an encamped army, ſometimes 50 or 60,000 men being there together.

Before the fiſhery begins, the company's duties are regulated; and the company on its ſide engages to defend the fiſhers, in caſe of any attack, and to repair their veſſels, if any damage happens to them.

The duties of the naick are the firſt day's product of the fiſhery; every day's fiſhery being brought to land, and put under ſand till the heat of the ſun has putrified the oyſters, and looſened the pearls; which, when clean, are paſſed ſucceſſively through ſeveral ſieves; afterwards their place of ſale is ſpecified, which depends on the naick; and then a kind of fair is held from the month of June to the end of September.

The ſmalleſt are ſold by the weight for pearl ſeed, and the largeſt by auction to the higheſt bidder; ſome of them being ſold from 18 l. to 24 l. ſterling, and ſometimes more.

The coaſt of Coromandel.

This coaſt begins at Negapatan, where the fiſhery ends; extending to the river Ragund, and the town of Maſulipatan, in 16 deg. of N. latitude; ſome, however, give it more extent, and continue it as far as Bengal.

The commerce of the European nations upon this coaſt is very conſiderable, where they have great eſtabliſhments, forts, and factories; the ports and roads of the coaſt being the beſt of all the Eaſt Indies, and greatly reſorted by their ſhipping, when, during the winter, they are obliged to quit the coaſts of Guzarat and Malabar, where they cannot be in ſafety.

The principal European factories upon the Coromandel coaſt, are Pondicherry, belonging to the French, and the reſidence of their director-general in the Eaſt Indies; Negapatan, Niſipatan, otherwiſe Portapouli, Tegepatan, Saderaſpatan, Maliſpatman, Datſkeron, Bimlipatnam, Jaguervantze, Conjumelle, and Pelicate, belonging to the Dutch, who began in 1605 to trade on the coaſt of Coromandel, and who took Negapatan from the Portugueſe in 1651, as alſo Tegapatan. They have alſo a conſiderable factory at Golconda, the capital of the kingdom of this name, which contains a part of this coaſt; Maſſapatan, or Madras, belonging to the Engliſh; and Trincumbar to the Danes.

St. Thomas, which the French took in 1672 from the king of Golconda, and loſt the year after, may be reckoned the Portugueſe factory on this coaſt; but it is without a fort.

Beſides theſe factories, ſupported by forts, the Engliſh, Dutch, and French, have alſo forts at Maſulipatan, for the cotton trade, and in ſome other places of leſs conſequence.

Trincumbar, or *Tranquebar*, ſtands about 15 miles to the northward of Negapatan. This place is in the poſſeſſion of the Danes, who have a regular fort, built with ſtone, and ſurrounded with a deep moat. The town alſo, which is about two miles in circumference, is ſurrounded with a noble wall faced with ſtone, having large baſtions at proper diſtances mounted with cannon. The houſes which the Danes and other Europeans inhabit are of brick or ſtone, built all upon a floor, but commodious enough. The ſtreets are wide and ſtraight; being paved on the ſides with brick; but the houſes of the Indians are very mean, having clay-walls, and thatched roofs, as in moſt others towns of India. The garriſon is not anſwerable to ſo large an extent of ground, conſiſting only of about 150 Europeans, and ſome Indians, who are only fit to oppoſe ſoldiers like themſelves.

Porta Nova lies between 20 and 30 miles to the northward of Trincumbar, where the Dutch have a factory.

Fort St. David's, or *Tegapatan*, is about 15 miles to the northward of Porta Nova, in the latitude of 11 deg. 40 min. This place was purchaſed by the Engliſh Eaſt India company about 70 years ago. It has been ſince regularly fortified, and, next to Fort St. George, is a place of the greateſt conſequence to the Engliſh of any upon this coaſt; for here they have a very great trade for callicoes and muſlins.

Saderaſpatan is ſituated 40 miles S. of Fort St. George, where the Dutch have a factory.

Twenty miles northward of Saderaſpatan ſtands *Coblon*, the only ſettlement the Oſtend Eaſt India company had in India. From Coblon to *St. Thomas*, or *Meliapour*, is 10 miles; and this was once the moſt conſiderable place on the coaſt of Coromandel; but when the Portugueſe ſettled here, it was in ruins, and almoſt abandoned by the inhabitants.

Pondicherry, or *Pontcherry*, is ſituated in the territories of the Prince of Gingy, in 80 deg. of E. lon. and 12 deg. 27 min. of N. lat. 60 miles S. of St. George. It belongs to the French, who have a numerous garriſon here.

Out of the fort there is a conſiderable village of Negroes, in the midſt of which is the bazar; the warehouſes are large, being partly in the fort, and partly in the village.

The merchandiſes with which they are uſually filled, and which are deſtined for Europe, or for the commerce of the Indies, Perſia, and the Red ſea, are chiefly brought from Bengal, Surat, and the coaſt of Malabar.

At Pondicherry, however, and in its neighbourhood, are manufactured ſeveral white cotton cloths; thoſe which are painted are brought from Maſulipatan, being the moſt beautiful of this kind throughout India, and the moſt eſteemed in Europe.

From Coromandel alſo, by Pondicherry, are brought ſeveral ſilk ſtuffs, ſteel, cotton handkerchiefs, others of ſilk, diamonds, and other precious ſtones, from the mines of Golconda; ſpun and wool cotton, indigo, Maſulipatan and Niſapatan ſerges, an extraordinary quantity of rice, and other refreſhments.

The commerce of Coromandel is one of the moſt important of the Dutch in the Eaſt Indies, as may be judged by the great number of factories they have on this coaſt, and even in the capital of Golconda; but the extortions of the rajas, in the 17th century, obliged them to take up arms in their own defence; and, by the taking of Maſulipatan, they obliged the King of Golconda, not only to confirm for them their antient capitulations, but alſo to add more advantageous prerogatives, which are at preſent ſubſiſting.

1. That no merchant with whom the commiſſioners of the factories treat, ſhall be diſturbed in his perſon or goods, even upon the King's account, till the company firſt takes cogniſance of the matter.

2. That the weavers, painters, and other workmen employed by the company, ſhould not be obliged to lay aſide their work, even for the ſervice of the King, till ſuch time as they have fulfilled what they contracted.

3. That the company ſhall make uſe of ſuch brokers as they think proper, without being obliged to take thoſe of the King, or the rajas.

They have alſo another privilege, enjoyed by other Europeans as well as them, which is not to pay the duty of chappa-dellalla, that is, the ſtamp-cloth duty, which for the inhabitants of the country is 12 *per cent.*

The duties of entry are three and a half, and four *per cent.*

The merchandiſes which the Dutch import to Coromandel,

del, are ſpice, whoſe profits are very conſiderable, ſilver, and Japan copper, gold, Malacca tin, mercury, lead, vermillion, camphor, elephants teeth, ſandal, ſciapa, woollen cloths, and European ſtuffs, which they give in exchange for the articles above mentioned in Pondicherry.

The principal eſtabliſhment belonging to the Engliſh upon the coaſt of Coromandel, is *Madras*, or *Fort St. George:* as it is generally called from the Engliſh fort there, which ſtands about four miles to the northward of St. Thomas, in 13 deg. ſome odd min. of N. lat. and 81 deg. of E. lon. being near 4800 miles to the eaſtward of London.

The fort ſtands pretty near the middle of the white town, where the Europeans inhabit. There is an oblong ſquare, about a quarter of a mile in length, but not half ſo much in breadth. To the northward of the fort are three ſtraight handſome ſtreets, and as many to the ſouth; the houſes in the whole white town being computed at 120. There is a little ſuburb to the ſouthward, inhabited only by the black watermen and fiſhermen; and beyond this is an outguard of blacks, who ſerve to give intelligence to the fort; but there is no other fortification on this ſide. To the northward, adjoining to the white town, ſtands a much larger, called the black town, where the Portugueſe, Indians, Armenians, and a great variety of other people inhabit. This is built in the form of a ſquare, and is better than a mile and a half in circumference. It has alſo a river on the weſt, and the ſea on the eaſt; and to the northward a canal is cut from the river to the ſea, which ſerves for a moat on that ſide; at leaſt this was the ſtate of the place before it was taken by the French in 1746. Beſides the town of Madras, the Engliſh Eaſt India company have ſeveral of the neighbouring villages under their government, which yield them a conſiderable annual revenue, the whole having been purchaſed of the King of Golconda, when ſovereign of this coaſt. The company have alſo a houſe and garden at St. Thomas's mount, a hill ſeven or eight miles to the weſtward of Fort St. George. The governor is not only ſo of Fort St. George, but of all the ſettlements on the coaſt of Coromandel, and the weſt coaſt of Sumatra; for the perſon who preſides at Marlborough fort, or Bencoolen, is but deputy-governor there: the governor is alſo captain of the firſt company of ſoldiers, as the ſecond in council is of the next; and thoſe who bore the name of captain had but lieutenants commiſſions, and pay very lately. Beſides the lieutenant, there are two enſigns to each company.

As to the governor's ſalary, it is no more than 300 l. *per annum*. The great advantages they make is by their perquiſites, or by trading for themſelves. The other ſix of the council have ſalaries alſo from 100 l. to 40 l. *per annum*, according to their ſeniority; but they are uſually great merchants, and depend more on their trade than the company's allowance. There are alſo two ſenior merchants, who have 40 l. *per annum* each, and two junior merchants 30 l. *per annum*, five factors 15 l. and ten writers 5 l. *per annnm*. Theſe dine at the company's table, and have lodgings provided for them; but it is to be believed that no people in the world work ſo hard as the company's writers do for 5 l. *per annum*. The company allow the two chaplains of the fort 100 l. *per annum*, the ſurgeon or doctor of the fort has about 40 l. the judge-advocate 100 l. and the attorney-general no more than 23 l. The company have alſo two eſſay-maſters in their mint, whoſe ſalaries are 120 l. *per annum* each: as for other inferior officers, they are ſcarce worth mentioning.

The number of ſhips which arrive there every year directly from England upon the company's account, is uſually four or five, and ſometimes ſix.

The kingdom of Siam, that of Pegu, the Manilles, and China, are the places which the Engliſh ſhips of Madras moſt commonly frequent for their Indian commerce.

All the merchandiſes entering Madras, if not upon the account of the company, pay the duties of entry 5 *per cent.* of their value; and the commerce is there ſo conſiderable, that the annual product of this duty amounts often to upwards of 30,000 l. ſterling.

The merchandiſes ſent from Madras to the Manilles, are moſt kinds of cotton cloths, taffeties of Bengal of different colours, chints, and raw ſilk of Bengal of the firſt ſort. Their price is for the moſt part in a fluctuating condition, and much purſuant to the quantity of money brought to the Manilles from the South ſea in the Acapulco ſhips. Beſides theſe Indian merchandiſes, the Engliſh of Madras ſend alſo conſiderable quantities of thoſe of Europe, among others, camblets, cloths, ſerges, hats, worſted ſtockings, chryſtals, Flanders lace, and perpetuanas. When the cargo is made in Europe for the Manilles by the way of Madras, piaſters ſhould be added for purchaſing at Madras ſuch cottons and taffeties as are proper for the Manilles; beſides ſome tons of good wine, and ſome barrels of brandy, both in bottles, which ſell equally well among the Spaniards of the Manilles, and the Engliſh of Madras.

The merchandiſes brought from the Manilles to Madras are piaſters, ſulphur, and leaf-tobacco. Sometimes the Engliſh touch at China in their return, with the merchandiſe they get from the Spaniards, and exchange it for gold, in which they have a profit of 25 l. *per cent.*

Pelicat, or *Pullicat*, lies at the mouth of a river of the ſame name, about 23 miles from Madras. This place the Dutch have been in poſſeſſion of 100 years and upwards; being one of the firſt ſettlements they had on the continent of India. About a day's ſail of Pelicat lies *Caleſore*, where the Engliſh have a ſmall factory. This place is in the latitude of 16 deg. ſome odd min. N. and about 30 miles S. W. of Maſulipatan, the firſt conſiderable port in the kingdom of Golconda.

Golconda is the moſt conſiderable of all the kingdoms in that part of the Eaſt Indies, both for extent and trade. Beſides the antient dominion of the Kings of Golconda, it has been increaſed by a part of Biſnagar and Orixa, the one bordering upon Bengal, and the other upon the Mogul's territories, ſeparated by mountains from Malabar. Two principal things make this kingdom famous, the port of Maſulipatan, and the diamond-mines. See *Diamond*.

The greater part of Golconda is ſo fertile, that uſually every year there are two crops of rice, and ſometimes three; which make it one of its principal commodities. Cotton cloths, among others the painted callicoes of Maſulipatan, are not an indifferent object of trade for it; and it is inconceivable what quantities are yearly vended throughout Aſia, and even too much in Europe, where ſeveral ſovereigns, among others the Kings of Great Britain and France, have wiſely prohibited the uſe and conſumption in their territories.

The indigo of Golconda is not much inferior to that of Lahor, but not ſo good as that of Agra. The Dutch export uſually great quantities of it for Chiul and Dabul. Chryſtal, granates, topazes, agates, amethyſts, bezoar, betel, barley, as alſo ſteel, iron, and ſeveral kinds of refreſhments for ſuch ſhips as come to trade there, are likewiſe a part of its commerce.

Theſe refreſhments are ſo cheap, that a fowl coſts but a penny, and a ſheep 12 d. ſterling.

The commerce of Golconda, and the ports dependent thereon, is ſo advantageous to the Dutch, that, one year with another, they export from it to the value of 140,000 l. ſterling in merchandiſe; a part of which paſſes into Europe, and the other is diſtributed in India.

Maſulipatan is the principal port of the kingdom of Golconda, upon the coaſt of Coromandel, ſituated in 16 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. Its road for ſhipping, which is the ſafeſt in all India, brings merchants there from all nations; it being from thence that the greater part of the ſhips depart which go to Pegu, Siam, Aracan, Bengal, Cochinchina, the Red ſea, Madagaſcar, and the Manilles.

Though the ſame merchandiſes are brought from Maſulipatan, as from other parts of the kingdom; yet it is for the beauty of its painted callicoes, that it is ſo famous in Europe.

There are two ſorts, as at Surat, and in the reſt of the Indies, the one painted with the pencil, and the other only printed; but the painted ſort are by far ſuperior to the others.

The plant which ſerves to paint them, eſpecially red,

called chay, and is found only in the kingdom of Golconda, where it is in the ſame eſteem as cochineel is in Europe.

The advantage of cloths, either painted or printed here, is to become the more beautiful the more they are waſhed; the vivacity of the colours augmenting by the water, and even out-laſting the ſtuff.

At Maſulipatan are alſo found, ſalt, ſerges, ſome ſlight ſtuffs, and rice in greater abundance than in any other part of the coaſt.

The coaſt of Bengal.

Thoſe who bound the Coromandel coaſt by Maſulipatan, call the *Orixa coaſt* that which continues as far as Bengal; and even ſome comprehend therein the town of Pipley, though belonging to Bengal.

The ports of the kingdom of Orixa are all ſo bad, that Europeans trade there but little, or rather not at all; ſo that it will not be improper to paſs over to the kingdom of Bengal, one of the richeſt of the Eaſt Indies.

The kingdom of Bengal is the moſt eaſterly province of the Mogul's dominions; it lies upon the mouth of the Ganges, and is bounded by the provinces of Patna and Jeſuat on the north; the kingdom of Aracan on the eaſt; the bay of Bengal, and the province of Orixa, on the ſouth; by the provinces of Narvar and Malva on the weſt; extending near 400 miles in length, and 300 in breadth. Its foreign and domeſtic trade are very conſiderable; as may appear from the great number of Perſians, Abyſſinians, Arabs, Chineſe, Guzarats, Malabarians, Turks, Moors, Jews, Georgians, Armenians, and merchants from all parts of Aſia, who reſort there.

All the Chriſtian nations eſtabliſhed in the Eaſt Indies, alſo ſend their ſhipping there; and it is with the merchandiſes of Bengal that they partly make their returns to Europe, beſides what they export for their India trade.

The principal merchandiſes at Bengal are ſilks, pepper, rice, ſaltpetre, wood for dying, terra merita, lacca, yellow and white wax, indigo, but very bad, camphor, aloes, and gum gutta.

The towns of the greateſt commerce, and where the Engliſh, Dutch, and French have their beſt eſtabliſhments, are Fort William, Kaſſumbazar, Huegly, Pipley, and Baliſore; to which may be added Patna, the capital of a ſmall kingdom ſubject to the viceroy of Bengal.

Juxadavat is the capital of the Indian government, which is a large and populous city. *Dacca* is a place of ſome trade, ſituated on a branch of the Ganges, 125 miles N. E. of Huegly. It is upwards of 400 miles from Fort William to the city of *Patna*, which lies in 85 deg. of E. lon. and 26 deg. of N. lat. extending ſeven miles along the banks of the Ganges, and is a place of great trade for opium and ſaltpetre; but the Engliſh company lately withdrew their factory from this city. And it ſhould be obſerved, that there are many towns on both ſides the Ganges from Fort William to Patna.

Fort William, or the town of *Calcutta*, is the principal ſettlement belonging to the Engliſh company in Bengal; where there is a governor and ſix counſel, with other officers as at Madras and Bombay; to whom all the Engliſh factories here are ſubordinate. The fort is ſituated on the weſtern branch of the Ganges, in 87 deg. of E. lon. and 22 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. 130 miles N. E. of Baliſore, and 40 S. of Huegly. It is ſtrong, and well fortified; having a garriſon of European and Indian ſoldiers. The town is large, fair, and populous; being inhabited by many private Engliſh merchants, and ſeveral rich Indian traders, who ſupply the company with the commodities of the country.

The Engliſh are alſo eſtabliſhed at Huegly, Pipley, Dacca, and Baliſore; the French at Huegly and Pipley; and the Dutch at Huegly, Pipley, Baliſore, Kaſſumbazar, and Patna.

Baliſore is ſituated in 85 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 21 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the N. W. part of the bay of Bengal, 180 miles S. W. of Huegly, and 340 N. E. of Maſulipatan; where the Engliſh ſhips bound to Bengal uſually take up pilots.

Huegly, or *Ongli*, is ſituated on an iſland in the moſt eaſterly branch of the Ganges, about 100 miles up the mouth of the river; being a large town, chiefly inhabited by Indians and Portugueſe. It is the place of rendezvous for all nations who trade to Bengal; its warehouſes and ſhops being always filled with the richeſt merchandiſe of the Eaſt Indies; but each Indian ſect has its quarter in the bazars, mixing not together ſo much for the liberty of trade, as through a motive of religion, which hinders theſe ſuperſtitious people from contracting a familiarity with each other.

The Dutch factory at Huegly is large and magnificent, having both the air of a fortreſs and a palace. The director-general lives in a princely manner; and, next to Batavia, it is the place where the Dutch company appears with moſt power and magnificence.

Kaſſumbazar, or *Caſſumbazar*, is ſituated on the weſt branch of the Ganges, 70 miles north of Huegly; being a place from whence the Dutch have the greateſt quantity of ſilk, which they ſend down the Ganges to Huegly, and from thence partly to Japan, and partly to Europe; it being for this trade that they keep there a conſiderable factory, which however furniſhes them with ſeveral plain and ſtriped taffeties, and the moſt beautiful cotton cloths of Bengal.

One year with another, 22,000 bales of ſilk are gathered at Kaſſumbazar, each bale weighing 100 lb. whereof the Dutch company has only leave to purchaſe 6 or 7000 bales, the reſt being divided between the Tartars and the ſubjects of the Mogul, or remaining in the country for its manufactures.

At *Chapour*, in the diſtrict of Patna, the greateſt purchaſes of ſaltpetre are made, and it is alſo beſt refined there; it being from thence that the greateſt quantities which come from Bengal are brought; and it is entirely for this trade that the Dutch keep their factors there. The Engliſh had alſo a factory there; but it has been of late relinquiſhed.

It is neceſſary to obſerve, with regard to the merchandiſe brought from Patna and Kaſſumbazar, that they muſt be ready to deſcend to Huegly about the end of the rainy ſeaſon; the canals drying up two months after, and of conſequence the land-carriages increaſing the expence.

The merchandiſes proper for Bengal are Japan ſilver, copper, Malacca tin, vermillion, mercury, lead, tables, cabinets, and other varniſhed moveables, Japan or Chineſe porcelain, looking-glaſſes, cloths, and all ſorts of European merchandiſe, pepper, ſpice, areca, elephants teeth, Ceylon elephants, birds of paradiſe, and Ternate parrots, called louris.

The merchandiſes, either of the produce of the country, or brought from the neighbouring kingdoms, beſides thoſe above mentioned, with which Europeans uſually compoſe the cargo of their return, are ſpun and wool cotton, coffee, Maldive ſhells, muſk, ambergreaſe, ſalt, rice, common ſugar, and ſugar candy; wherewith the Dutch load ſhips every year, partly upon their own account, and partly by freight for the Indian merchants; their principal deſtination being for Perſia.

From Bengal are alſo brought borax, corn, gums, medicinal roots, embroidered coverings for beds, tapeſtry, and ſtuffs, ſent to China, Japan, Cambodia, Tunquin, and ſeveral other parts of the Eaſt Indies, as alſo to Europe; fruits, butter, honey, confects of ſeveral ſorts, diamonds, whereof there is an antient mine in the kingdom; and ſeveral other precious ſtones: as alſo ſlaves, either thoſe of the country, the poor often ſelling their children for a ſubſiſtence; or thoſe of Arracan, a neighbouring kingdom, whoſe inhabitants are more occupied in piracies than commerce, and whoſe principal trade conſiſts in ſelling their unhappy neighbours of both ſexes, whom they have reduced to ſlavery.

Though all theſe particulars make an opulent object of commerce for all the nations which trade to Bengal, it muſt be notwithſtanding confeſſed, that its manufactures, particularly moſt kinds of cotton cloths, are the merchandiſes which the ſhipping of the European companies bring from it in the greateſt quantity, and in which the Indians alſo drive a conſiderable trade.

The natives who trade moſt in Bengal, and through whoſe hands all the affairs of Europeans paſs, are the

Banians; who are all either merchants, brokers, bankers, or book-keepers. Several among them trade alſo by ſea, and have ſhips, which they either let out to be freighted, or on which they load their own merchandiſe.
It ſhould be obſerved, that the Dutch ſhips which go from Batavia to Bengal, or to Arracan, depart towards the end of the month of Auguſt, or ſome time in the month of September, to meet with the trade winds, as they clear the ſtreights of the Sunda, without which this navigation is difficult and dangerous.

The coaſt of Arracan, Ava, and Pegu.

Theſe kingdoms, which follow that of Bengal, and of which the coaſts of the latter join thoſe of Malacca, are more known in the Eaſt Indies by the pyratical courſes of the one, and by the great wars of the other with the King of Siam for the famous white elephant, than for their commerce with Europeans.
The Engliſh and Dutch, however, keep up ſome correſpondence with Arracan, upon account of the refreſhments their ſhips are obliged ſometimes to take there; yet without having any factories, tho' the King often invited theſe two nations to eſtabliſh themſelves in his territories.
The capital of the kingdom of Arracan is a town of the ſame name, ſituated on the N. E. part of the bay of Bengal, in 93 deg. of E. lon. and 20 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.
The kingdom of Ava is ſituated between the countries of Arracan on the north, and Pegu on the ſouth; but of no conſequence in trade.
The kingdom of Pegu is bounded by Ava on the north; by the mountains which ſeparate it from Laos on the eaſt; by Siam, and the bay of Bengal, on the ſouth; and by another part of the bay on the weſt. This country, like others between the tropics, is flooded when the ſun is vertical. It abounds in rice and wheat; it has figs, oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, bananoes, goyvas, durions, mangoes, tamarins, pine-apples, cocoa-nuts, and other tropical fruits: they have alſo pepper and ſugar-canes: there are great numbers of elephants in the country, which alſo furniſhes ſkins and furs, ſome rubies, ſaphires, and other precious ſtones. The King is arbitrary, and his ſubjects are of a copper colour.
The capital city is Pegu, ſituated on a river of the ſame name, in 97 deg. of E. lon. and 17 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 300 miles N. W. of Siam.
The Dutch ſend ſhips yearly to Pegu from their factories on the Coromandel coaſt, and from Bengal, laden with cotton cloths of the latter place; as alſo thoſe of Maſulipatan, and Meliapour, better known by the name of St. Thomas.
The inhabitants of Pegu prefer the cloths of Meliapour to all others, which they uſe for cloathing themſelves, without having any occaſion for a taylor, each piece making a complete habit, by twiſting them ſeveral times and ways about the body. The women cut them in four, and cover themſelves to the knees.
Pepper, cinnamon, nutmeg, ſantal wood, and paradiſe wood, are alſo brought there; in exchange for which are had ginger, gold, ſilver, precious ſtones, and pearls: the two latter are contraband commodities, and require the King's permiſſion to be either bought or ſold: rice is alſo in great plenty there, and the Dutch bring it to Malacca.
Bargains are concluded among the inhabitants of Pegu without ſpeaking one word: the purchaſer and vender give each other their hands covered with a handkerchief; and by the different motions of their fingers make known the price they offer, or will have for their merchandiſe.
Payments are uſually made in three months time, in gold, purſuant to its fineneſs; unleſs the trader is willing to be paid in ganzas, a mixed money of copper and tin, which each perſon has a liberty of trading with, by paying the King's duties.
There are ſome profits in this money by ſtaying ſome time in Pegu; gold, ſilver, precious ſtones, pearls, and other merchandiſe, being paid for in ganzas.

The coaſt of Malacca.

This coaſt is bounded by Siam on the north; by the bay of Siam and the Indian ocean on the eaſt; and the ſtreights of Malacca, which ſeparate it from the iſland of Sumatra, on the ſouth-weſt, being 600 miles long, and 200 broad; but in many places much leſs.
The town of *Malacca* is ſituated in 100 deg. of E. lon. and 2 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. Alphonſus Albuquerque took it from the King of Thor in 1511. The Dutch attacked it unſucceſsfully about 100 years after: but at laſt they expelled the Portugueſe in 1641, after a ſiege of ſix months, and have ever ſince remained maſters of it. Its port is one of the fineſt and ſafeſt of all the Eaſt Indies; for it may be entered at all times of the year, which is an advantage wherein other places are deficient.
As long as the town remained in the hands of the Portugueſe, it was one of the ſtaples for the Indian merchandiſe, and the magazine of the Eaſt, for all the Indian nations frequenting the ſea.
It yet ſupports its reputation, and its trade is pretty conſiderable, particularly in Surat, Coromandel, and Bengal cottons; which are ſold at Malacca, Andra, Giery, and on the rivers of Siaca and Pera. Several other merchandiſes are alſo met with there, part of which paſſes by land to Siam and Pegu.
The payment for theſe cottons, and the other merchandiſe which the Dutch bring there, is in gold and tin; whereby their profits are great in the other parts of India where they ſend them.
The number of Dutch families ſettled there are 2 or 300, and the other merchants are Maleſe, Moors, or Chineſe, which laſt interfere only in the retail of ſome ſmall commodities, as tea, ſugar-candy, and confects: but the others have always their ſhops well ſtocked with all the merchandiſe imported by the Dutch ſhipping.
It was not ſo much for the Malacca trade that the Dutch deprived the Portugueſe of this town, as for its admirable ſituation for China and Japan; beſides, that it commands all the ſtreight on which it is ſituated.
It is at Malacca that all the Dutch company's ſhips are to arrive, which come from China and Japan: it is there alſo that the diſtribution is made of all the rich merchandiſe of theſe places, partly for Batavia, and from thence to Europe; and partly for all the factories they have in the Eaſt Indies, at Bengal, upon the Coromandel coaſt, at Surat, in Perſia, and the Red ſea.
Ligor, and *Tenaſſerin*, are two ſmall kingdoms of the peninſula of Malacca, which depend on the King of Siam: but the Dutch have factories in them, and drive on a pretty good trade in tin and pepper.

The coaſt of Siam.

This coaſt extends from the 10th to the 25th deg. of N. lat. being near 1000 miles in length from N. to S. and from 1 to 200 broad.
The kingdom of Siam, even ſince Tunquin and Cochinchina were ſeparated from it, is one of the moſt powerful kingdoms of the Eaſt Indies.
Its boundaries are at preſent Cambodia to the eaſt; Laos to the north; Ava and Pegu to the weſt; and the gulph of Siam, to which it gives its name, to the ſouth.
Its capital is Seia-Juthaia, called variouſly by ſome Europeans Judha, Judia, Judea, and Odia; the Portugueſe call it Siam, and it is ſituated upon the Menam, a large river which empties itſelf into the gulph of Siam, four days journey from Seia-Juthaia. This river, like the Nile, overflowing the whole country in regular ſeaſons, makes it very fertile in all the neceſſaries of life, particularly in rice, whereof ſtrangers yearly take away ſeveral ſhip loads, which they ſell elſewhere with great profit. Large ſhips cannot aſcend the Menam, and therefore wait for their loading at the lower part of the river; middling veſſels advance as far as Bencock, five or ſix leagues higher; but none except barks and jonks can go as far as the capital.
There is ſcarce a part of Aſia but ſends merchants to Juthaia, and the Europeans who have factories there are the Engliſh, Dutch, and Portugueſe: the French had alſo a pretty conſiderable eſtabliſhment in 1686 at Bencock; but, by the revolutions of 1688, were obliged to quit it, and ſince that time their trade there is very conſiderable.
None but European merchants, the Chineſe, and Moors who are Mahometans, are privileged to have houſes

the towns; the Indians having them out of the walls, but all ſeparately; their quarters called camps being places where they both carry on their trade, and perform their religious exerciſes.

The Dutch are in moſt credit, and conſequently have the beſt trade. The factory they built there in 1634 is one of the moſt beautiful they have in the Eaſt; and their director-general holds one of the firſt ranks among thoſe which the company has in the Eaſt Indies.

Traffic is one of the principal profeſſions of the Siameſe; the King of Siam himſelf being one of the greateſt traders of his ſtate either abroad or at home.

His exterior commerce is principally to China, where he ſends yearly five or ſix large ſhips; to Japan two or three; to Tonquin, and Cochinchina, as many more; laſtly, he ſends ſome to all the coaſts of the Indies, eſpecially to Surat, and even to Perſia, where there are always ſome of his ſhips, though commanded chiefly by Chriſtians; the Siameſe being little experienced in the arts of navigation.

His interior commerce by his factors conſiſts not only in the precious merchandiſes imported by his ſhips, with which his warehouſes are always well ſtocked, and which he ſells at whatever price he pleaſes; but alſo in the different productions of his territories, whether he receives them as a tribute from his people, or has them cultivated in his demeſnes; ſo that in betel, and arrack only, both green and dry, plants growing in ſeveral parts of Siam, and much uſed by the Indians, who chew them continually, the King's factors drive on a conſiderable trade, whereby the cuſtom-houſe of Bencock, and the farming of the neighbouring gardens, are ſaid to amount yearly to upwards of 180,000 l. ſterling in revenues for the King.

The kingdom of Siam has ſeveral tin, lead, ſilver, and even gold mines; but the latter produces little, and the metal is of a very low ſtandard.

The tin-mines of Lagor are the moſt conſiderable; and this metal makes one of the beſt parts of the Dutch trade to Siam; the company having treated with the King for an excluſive privilege of its purchaſe.

It is with this tin that the Dutch ballaſt their ſhips, when they return into Europe; yet reſerving great quantities thereof for ſeveral parts of the Indies, where they exchange it for other merchandiſe with a very conſiderable profit.

The other merchandiſes exported from Siam, are timber for the building of ſhips, whereof the Dutch ſend great quantities to Batavia; ſtags, buffaloes, oxen, and tyger's hides, and ſkins; lacca, lead, ſapan wood, calembac, honey, wax, ſugar, betel, areca, pepper, rice, ſalt, varniſh, ſeveral odoriferous kinds of wood, tea from China and Japan, amber-greaſe, manufactures of the country, elephants teeth, ſalt-petre, gum-gutta, canes, cotton, ivory, eagle-wood, muſk, benjoin, and ſilk; but the three latter are brought there from Lahor, when this kingdom is not at war with Siam.

At Siam are alſo found precious ſtones, but Europeans seldom trade for them, their greateſt profit being in the other merchandiſe.

The foreign merchandiſe for the commerce of Siam, are ſilk ſtuffs, ſpice, all ſorts of Chineſe and Japan curioſities, divers European goods, gold and ſilver in bars; Surat, Coromandel, and Bengal cottons, whoſe profits would be immenſe, if the Indian manufacturers of theſe cloths did not bring them there themſelves, and take away all the advantage of the trade, by ſelling them cheaper than Europeans, who have them only at ſecond-hand.

To Siam are alſo imported red coral, yellow amber, quickſilver, ſandal, and woollen cloths. Pepper was formerly here a good commodity, but ſince its plantation in the kingdom, the Siameſe even furniſh ſtrangers with it.

As to the commerce of the Siameſe among themſelves, it abounds ſo with indolence, or rather probity, that in their bazars and markets, the vender neither reckons the money he receives, nor the purchaſer the commodity delivered to him.

The time for opening the bazars is from five o' clock in the evening to eight or nine.

The coaſt of Cambodia, or Camboya.

The kingdom of Cambodia is tributary to that of Siam, extending from the 9th to the 15th deg. of N. lat. The capital of Cambodia, to which Europeans give the ſame name as to the kingdom, called by the natives Ravecca, is ſituated 60 leagues from the mouth of the river Mecon, which empties itſelf into the gulph of Siam; and which, like the Nile and the Menam, overflows the country every year.

The Portugueſe for a conſiderable time had all its trade in their hands; but now it is open to all thoſe who are willing to trade to it.

The Dutch ſend there from Malacca, Bengal cotton cloths, and ſpun cotton.

The merchandiſe which may be exported from this kingdom are benjoin, lacca, wax, copper baſons, Chineſe fire-ſhovels; rice ſent to Quinam, where it is ſold to great advantage; and the hides of ſtags, oxen, buffaloes, and other animals; which, as well as at Siam, are ſome of the beſt and eaſieſt merchandiſe for ſale, upon account of the Dutch and Chineſe trade therein to Japan: but the Chineſe trade moſt to Cambodia.

The coaſt of Cochin-china.

This kingdom is ſituated between thoſe of Cambodia and Tonquin, upon a gulph of the ſame name: about 200 years ago it was a province to the latter, being upwards of 400 miles long, and 150 broad. The King is an abſolute monarch, and his ſubjects are pagans. The country abounds in elephants and rice: its principal trade with foreigners is that to China, and Japan, carried on by the Chineſe eſtabliſhed in Cochinchina, or thoſe of Canton: but the Dutch ſend there alſo ſome merchandiſe. The exports of the produce of the kingdom are gold, either from mines, or gathered in the ſand of ſome rivers; calambac wood found only in Cochinchina, and ſold for its weight in gold, even in the country, and of which there are three ſorts; that retaining the name of calambac, the moſt precious; aquila and calambouc ~~not~~ ſo good, but ſerving equally for medicine and perfumes; beſides pepper, ſent to China: ſilk gathered there in ſuch quantities that even the cordage of their gallies, and fiſhermens nets are made of it; very broad taffeties; ſugar, wax, areca, and betel; ſeveral ſhip-loads of rice: laſtly, birds neſts, the delight of all the Indians, which they uſe as a ſpice in what they eat, but it is more dear and precious than all others.

Silver is brought there from Japan; as alſo porcelain varniſhed works, and lacca; ebony and ivory from Chiampa: pearls from Anian; but the ſale of them and diamonds to ſtrangers is prohibited: in all other reſpects there is a free trade; and the Dutch, who ſend their ſhips there, trade in all theſe commodities, which they afterwards diſtribute in the reſt of Aſia.

Painted callicoes, ſpice, woollen cloths, ſeveral kinds of European merchandiſe, coral, yellow amber, vermillion, quickſilver, and pepper, are fit for this kingdom.

The coaſt of Tonquin, or Tunquin.

Tonquin was for a conſiderable time a province of China, when Cochinchina and Chiampa made a part of this province; but at preſent theſe two kingdoms are ſeparated from it; and Tonquin, much more ſtraitened than formerly, is bounded on two ſides by three provinces of China, which are Canton to the eaſt, and Invan and Quanſi to the north: on the weſt it touches the kingdom of Brama, and on the ſouth Cochinchina, and the gulph of the ſame name, lying between 101 and 108 deg. of E. lon. and 17 and 26 deg. of N. lat. being about 500 miles long, and 400 broad.

The chief town is Keccio, or Cachao: the monarchy is abſolute, and the religion paganiſm, as well as in Siam. It is not long ſince that the Tonquineſe renounced the Chineſe politicks, of cautiouſly trading with any foreign nation; ſo that now they not only permit other nations to come and trade with them, but alſo they ſend ſhips of their own to Siam, Batavia, and ſeveral other parts of the Eaſt Indies.

The beſt merchandiſe which can be brought by Europeans to Tonquin is gold or ſilver, particularly piaſters; tho' they want neither of theſe metals, having a ſufficiency

of

of the former from China, and of the latter from Japan. The other merchandiſes imported to Tonquin, are ſpice, pepper, quick-ſilver, vermillion, woollen cloths, and yellow amber.

The ſilk of Tonquin is produced in ſuch great abundance, that the poor and the rich equally cloath themſelves with ſeveral ſlight ſilk ſtuffs manufactured in the country, which are as cheap as thoſe made of hemp and flax in other countries.

The Dutch export much of this ſilk for Japan, which is more convenient than to bring there the ſilk of Perſia and Bengal, as they did before their trade was eſtabliſhed at Tonquin.

Muſk, tortoiſe ſhell, and pickled tortoiſe fleſh, aloes-wood; ſugar, in ſmall loaves of a pound, and half pound; porcelains, lacca, rice, and birds neſts, are alſo articles for the Tonquineſe trade.

They have oranges and citrons; but the latter are ſo acid, that they cannot ſell them to ſtrangers among the refreſhments they furniſh them abundantly with; however, they uſe this fruit themſelves, inſtead of aqua-fortis, for cleaning the copper, braſs, and iron they deſign to gild; as alſo for the dying of their ſilks, and the lixiviums of their cottons, which the juice of theſe citrons render of a gloſſy white colour.

The Tonquineſe are free, honeſt, and faithful in trade; differing much from the Chineſe, who pride themſelves in deceiving foreign merchants, and who uſe a thouſand artifices in the purchaſe or ſale of their merchandiſe. See *China*.

Beſides theſe countries, there are alſo the kingdoms of Aſem or Acham, and Boutan.

Aſem, is a kingdom of India, and one of the beſt countries of Aſia; the capital town of which is Chamdara. It is bounded by Boutan on the north; by China, on the eaſt; and by Patna on the weſt. In this country are found mines of gold, ſilver, lead, and iron. Silk is alſo gathered there in abundance, but coarſe; and the ſtuffs made thereof, tho' very gloſſy, cut, and are of little ſervice.

The lacca of Aſem is the beſt of all Aſia; but the gold is a contraband merchandiſe for exportation, tho' no money is coined of it, being always in ingots, which the people uſe in the interior commerce of the kingdom.

The ſilver money is of the ſize and weight of the rupees, and of an octogonal figure.

At Aſem two ſorts of ſalt are made, one with the greeniſh matter found upon ſtill waters; and the other with the leaves of the plant called Adam's fig.

It is alſo with the aſhes of this fig tree that the lixiviums for bleaching ſilks are made, which give them a beautiful luſtre; but as there is not enough for the bleaching of all their manufactures, ſuch ſilks as have been bleached by them are diſtinguiſhed from others, and are therefore dearer.

Another object of trade which is very conſiderable there, conſiſts in bracelets and tortoiſe-ſhell collars, or ſea ſhells, of the form of a hen's egg, which they wear on their legs and arms, and of which they conſume great quantities at the funerals of their parents; but the great men wear bracelets of coral or amber.

Boutan, is a kingdom of the Eaſt Indies bordering upon the Mogul's territories, very little known but by a caravan of merchants which departs yearly towards the end of December from Patna.

This caravan arrives in eight days at Gorroche-pour, the laſt town belonging to the Mogul, where the merchants take in proviſions for the reſt of their journey. From thence to the foot of the Naugrocel mountains, there are eight or nine days very troubleſome journey, and over the mountains eight or ten days, where it is that the inhabitants of the country, eſpecially the women, preſent themſelves to the travellers for carrying them, their merchandiſe and proviſions, to the bottom of the deſcent. The proviſions and merchandiſe are ſet on the backs of he-goats, who carry each about 150 lb. and the men are ſeated on a kind of ſaddle, which theſe poor people gird on their backs, three women ſucceſſively helping each other to carry one man.

On clearing the mountains there are oxen, camels, horſes,

and even ſedans for thoſe who fancy them, with which they go to Boutan, where a very conſiderable commerce of muſk is carried on, and where alſo is found the moſt excellent rhubarb, with abundance of martins, which afford very beautiful furs.

There is little gold found throughout this kingdom; but it is thought that there are mines of ſilver; and that it is of the metal of the country that the King of Boutan has his money ſtruck, which is of the weight and value of rupees, and of an octogonal form, with characters neither Indian nor Chineſe.

Their ſole manufactures are coarſe cloths, either all of hemp or cotton, with which they cloath themſelves in ſummer; and ſome ill woven cloths, not better than felts, which ſerve them in winter.

Remarks.

At the time of granting the charter for incorporating the Engliſh Eaſt India company in 1599, the Portugueſe, and the Hollanders, were in poſſeſſion of ſeveral large territories along the coaſt of India, as alſo in ſeveral other places of Aſia, proper for the proſecution of this trade: the former, indeed, had no company; but the latter had formed ſeveral companies ſo early as the year 1596, which were all incorporated together in 1602. The French eſtabliſhed a Chineſe company in 1660; and their preſent India company, which has ingulphed ſo many others, was firſt eſtabliſhed in 1664. But it was a conſiderable time before the Danes embarked in this trade; who were ſoon followed by the Oſtend company; as alſo by a company belonging to Sweden; and, ſo late as the year 1753, by the company of Embden, which may probably meet with ſucceſs under the patronage of his Pruſſian Majeſty, though the Oſtend company found ſo little protection from the emperor.

The united company of merchants of England trading to the Eaſt Indies, are in poſſeſſion of fort St. George, and fort St. David, two principal eſtabliſhments on the coaſt of Coromandel; fort William, in the bay of Bengal; together with the iſland of Bombay, on the weſt coaſt of the hither Peninſula of India; as alſo of St. Helena, an iſland in the Atlantic ocean: beſides which they have a trade, or factories, in Arabia, Perſia, China, Siam, Sumatra, and other iſlands of the Indian Archipelago: where, in purſuance of their charter, and of ſeveral acts of parliament, no Britiſh ſubjects are to repair to ſuch places of Aſia, Africa, and America, beyond the cape of Bona Eſperanſa to the ſtreights of Magellan, where any merchandiſe may be had.

The Portugueſe at firſt, in a manner, monopolized the whole trade to the Eaſt Indies: but the Dutch companies having united themſelves, fitted out ſtrong fleets which, being an overmatch for the Portugueſe, fell upon their ſhips wherever they met them; and took one place after another, till they hardly left the Portugueſe a ſafe or factory in India. The Dutch afterwards reduced ſeveral of the Indian iſlands to a ſtate of ſlavery: they meaſely, cruelly, and treacherouſly, expelled the Engliſh from Amboina: and though no people complained more of oppreſſion in Europe, which they even made a pretence for rebellion, caſting off their allegiance to their lawful ſovereign; yet, in a very ſhort time, they became the greateſt tyrants and oppreſſors that were ever known in the eaſt, or perhaps in any part of the univerſe, except the Spaniards in America: by which means, they have uſurped the dominions of ſeveral lawful princes, and eſtabliſhed themſelves at Batavia, in ſo formidable a manner, as to become the abſolute lords of the Indian ſeas; where they intimidated even the Mogul, plundered the Engliſh ſhips in time of peace, and very tyrannically aſſumed the property of all the ſpice iſlands to themſelves. Some of theſe ſpice iſlands actually belonged to the crown of England, particularly the Banda iſlands, by ſurrender of the Oran Cayas, or ſtates of Pooloroon and Lantor; at which time, if the Britiſh nation had exerted itſelf in behalf of her trade and empire at ſea, the Dutch had never been in a capacity of inſulting her coaſts. The ſpices are the baſis of the Dutch trade; being of more value to them than the mines of Potoſi to the Spaniards; for, in fact, they not only bring into their country Spa-

ſilver without the trouble of working the mines, but every other valuable merchandiſe the world can afford. It is generally ſaid, indeed, that it was the intereſt of the Engliſh to aggrandiſe the Dutch, in order to depreſs ſome popiſh powers, and defend herſelf: but had Great Britain obtained poſſeſſion of thoſe treaſures which the ſpices of India accumulate, ſhe would have been in no neceſſity of the Netherlands for a barrier: becauſe, power is an inſeparable attendant on riches; and if that little ſpot of ground, or rather mud, the ſeven provinces, are rendered ſo conſiderable by theſe advantages, what a glorious figure might Great Britain have made, if ſhe had been miſtreſs of the ſame opulent branch of commerce! But this invaluable loſs is to be attributed to the timidity, or avarice of ſome people about King James I. However, Cromwel inſiſted upon a reparation, trivial as it was; and, in the reign of Charles II. had not the nation been apprehenſive of the increaſing power of France, the Dutch had probably been compelled to reſtore the Banda iſlands, which they had ſo rapaciouſly, and ſo contradictory to all fiducial engagements, diſmembered from the crown of England.

The danger that threatens the ſettlements, belonging to the Engliſh Eaſt India company, from the power and proximity of thoſe belonging to the crown of France, is very great. Madraſs, or fort St. George, with the adjacent country, was purchaſed by the Engliſh Eaſt India company, of the King of Golconda; but the Mogul, afterwards making a conqueſt of the country, looked upon himſelf intitled to this, as well as the reſt of the towns in that kingdom: however, it became the ſeat of the Britiſh preſidency in the Aſiatic Indies; where four, five, or ſix ſhips, were generally ſent every year from England by the company, who alſo kept ſeveral trading veſſels in the country: the principal commodities purchaſed of the natives, for the uſe of the company, being callicoes, chints, muſlins, and ſometimes diamonds; which was an extenſive and advantageous commerce, enjoyed by the company, almoſt in an uninterrupted courſe, for upwards of 100 years.

The proximity of Madraſs to Pondicherry, being only twenty leagues diſtance, occaſioned it to ſuffer in ſome branches of its trade, ſince the peace of Utrecht; from which time, the French ſeemed to be more intent upon extending their commerce to, and in the Eaſt Indies, where they were become powerful competitors againſt the Britiſh company: but, notwithſtanding this claſhing of intereſt, Madraſs acquired ſome new advantages: the troubles in Perſia induced many Armenians to leave their country, and ſettle in India, where ſeveral of the moſt conſiderable fixed their reſidence and families in the preſidency of Madraſs: the irruption of the Morattaes in Carnatica, in the year 1740, was another event that brought ſeveral eminent and wealthy merchants to Madraſs; inſomuch, that the ſettlement was become the admiration of all the Aſiatic people, and the envy of all the European neighbours; for it had, a great number of years, brought in a clear annual revenue of 70,000 pagodas, or, reckoning each pagoda at 7 s. 8 d. 26,833 l. 6 s. 8 d. ſterling, by the duties on the trade of the Aſiatic inhabitants, and their conſumption; which was a ſum far exceeding the whole charges of the place, civil and military, according to the eſtabliſhment in peace: the neat gain, one year with another, on the head of profit and loſs in the Madraſs books, ariſing from the revenue, ſilver coinage, with the ſale of woollen and other European goods, amounted to near 90,000 pagodas, or 34,500 l. ſterling annually, after all charges, civil and military, of the coaſt were paid: beſides, the factory generally inveſted a million of pagodas, or 383,333 l. 6 s. 8 d. ſterling, in the commodities of the country, and uſually ſent 6000 bales of callicoes yearly to Europe; which brought a very great accumulation of treaſure to the proprietors of India ſtock.

There is no occaſion to repreſent in what an indefenſible condition this preſidency of the Eaſt India company was in the year 1746, when it was taken by commodore De la Bourdonnais; though ſuch had been the condition of it for eight years before: it is not neceſſary to enter into an examination why the neutrality offered by the French company, at the beginning of the war was rejected by the Engliſh company: nor why commodore Barnet was ſent to India with a ſquadron that ſeemed calculated only for a cruizing ſcheme; while the ſafety of the ſettlements, upon which depended the hopes of ſecuring the trade, appeared to be entirely unthought of, or, if thought for entirely neglected by the Engliſh company; though the French had ſet them a ſeaſonable example to the contrary at Pondicherry: nor is there room here to enter into an enquiry how the Britiſh preſidency fell into the hands of the French commodore: though it is proper to make a few obſervations on the loſs of the ſettlement.

Commodore de la Bourdonnais, at the reduction of Madraſs, obtained a booty of ſilver, woollen goods, velvets, copper, iron, lead, and ſtores for uſe and ſale, to the value of 73,000 l. in plate, furniture, mint neceſſaries, and other ſmall articles, 12,000 l. 1600 bales of callicoes, 7000 bags of ſalt-petre, and 800 landies of redwood, valued at 72,800 l. prime coſt; in all, 157,800 l. they alſo took the Princeſs Mary, with the Mermaid and Advice ſnows, employed in the ſervice of the company: to which might be added a much more conſiderable ſum, from the deprivation of ſo important a branch of commerce, and the loſs of revenues; beſides the expence of the public buildings, which coſt upwards of 60,000 l. and which the French intended to demoliſh, if they had not received freſh inſtructions, in conſequence of the Engliſh having taken Cape Breton; which cauſed the French to alter their meaſures, with the view of exchanging the one for the other.

What elſe could be expected, but the reduction of this valuable ſettlement, at a time when the garriſon, ill provided as it was in other reſpects, conſiſted only of 300 Europeans, of which there were no more than 200 effective men to be depended upon; beſides 80 ſailors; as alſo 200 Topaſſes, a black degenerate race of the Portugueſe, and of little uſe? What elſe but the reduction of ſuch a place muſt have been the conſequence, when attacked by a French officer of experience, at the head of 3200 Europeans, with 500 Coffries, as alſo a conſiderable number of Cephoys and Peons, the natives of the coaſt of Coromandel; aſſiſted with a ſquadron of ſhips, of ſuch ſuperiority as to intimidate commodore Peyton to diſappear with the Engliſh ſquadron, leaving the principal ſettlement belonging to the Engliſh Eaſt India company to fall an eaſy conqueſt to the French?

Since this reduction of fort St. George, the French have had their deſired opportunity of eſtabliſhing their intereſt among the natives of that part of the Coromandel coaſt: their trade has received a great augmentation: and their ſettlements are continued in the ſame defenſible ſituation, as Pondicherry was too fatally proved to be, by admiral Boſcawen, in 1748; though at the head of 3,690 ſoldiers, with 2000 Indians, 120 Dutch, and 148 artillery people; aſſiſted by a fleet of 9 ſhips of the line, 2 frigates, a ſloop, and 2 tenders, having 4580 ſailors aboard; the particulars of which diſcomfiture is perhaps to be attributed more to the neglect of the miniſtry, than that of the company.

It is certain, that during the laſt war, the French were too formidable for the Engliſh in the Eaſt Indies; where the ſafety of fort St. David was, at firſt, owing more to a diſperſion of the French ſquadron by a ſtorm, in which they loſt 1200 men; than to that poſture of defence it appeared to be in ſome time afterwards, when the French unſucceſsfully attacked it, with the hopes of the total extirpation of every Engliſh ſettlement on the coaſt of Coromandel. The French navy is continually increaſing, and not in ſuch an inperceptible manner as their policy formerly induced them to; but in the fair open face of day, without the dread of a ſecond Cromwel to threaten the burning of them upon their own ſtocks: their intereſt is every where extended with their power, and their commerce conſequently with both, eſpecially in India, where Madraſs has but an inconſiderable number of the 250,000 Aſiatic inhabitants left in its territory. If this is the caſe, the Britiſh government, as well as the Britiſh company, cannot be too diligent in retrieving their cha-

racter, and reſtoring their trade in India: the French are already too powerful along the coaſts of Africa: they are now invading the Britiſh ſettlements on the continent of America, aſſiſted by the ſtrength of the French coloniſts of Canada and Louiſiana, which are ſaid to amount to 200,000 men, who bid fair to procure the ſubverſion of the Britiſh fur trade with the Indians: this conſideration ſhould put the Engliſh upon their guard in every part of the world, and eſpecially in India, where they have had the mortification to find themſelves in the greateſt ſtate of debility; which, if properly executed, and carefully continued, may yet bid defiance both to the ſtrength and artifices of ſo potent an enemy, and ſo inſidious a rival.

Many objections have been made to the India trade; but more to the carrying on of that trade by excluſive companies. The trade is ſaid to be very prejudicial, as it is now driven; becauſe it exports European bullion, ſpends little of the product or manufactures of Europe, and brings in commodities perfectly manufactured, which hinder the conſumption of European goods, and diſcourage the wearing ſuch as are purchaſed with them: the chief profit thereof ariſing from underſelling the labour of the European poor, particularly the Engliſh; becauſe it is bought there cheaper, than, by reaſon of the value of the lands in England, and the price of proviſions, they are able to work here.

Upon theſe conſiderations, the Britiſh parliament made a law, in the 10th and 11th years of William III. to prohibit the wearing of wrought ſilks, bengals, ſtuffs mixed with ſilk or herba, of the manufacture of Perſia, China and India, and all calicoes painted, dyed, printed, or ſtained there. The reaſon of which was, the great detriment the nation received, as the trade was then managed, by exhauſting the treaſure thereof, and taking away the labour of the people, whereby many of the manufacturers were become exceſſively burthenſome and chargeable to their reſpective pariſhes, and others compelled to ſeek for employment in foreign parts.

The making this law gave a new life to the Britiſh manufactures, and would have given more if the true intent of the parliament had been anſwered: but it was not; for it neither kept the Britiſh treaſure at home, nor prevented thoſe commodities from being worn in Great Britain, as it was deſigned it ſhould, which made it much doubted whether any thing leſs than a total prohibition of their importation would do it: for though they were directed to be exported again, there is great reaſon to believe they are privately brought back both from Ireland, the Britiſh plantations, and other places to which they are ſent, to the loſs of the royal revenue, the prejudice of the Engliſh painters and ſtainers, beſides the injury to the Britiſh manufactures; otherwiſe, how came ſuch great quantities to be worn and uſed here, when the ſtock in hand has been ſo long ſince ſpent?

It has, however, been alledged, that by the exportation of thoſe manufactures again, more bullion in ſpecie is brought into England, than is carried out for the buying them in India: but this was never yet made out; though it would be much to the ſatisfaction of the people, who daily ſee that bullion carried away, and alſo for the honour of the company, that it was done.

But if the advocates for the company mean that the exportation of thoſe manufactures is a help to Great Britain in the balance of its trade, which muſt otherwiſe be paid in bullion; it may be anſwered, that the product and manufactures of Great Britain always have, and are ſtill ſufficient to ſupport the balance of its trade. As for white calicoes and muſlins, they have beat out the wearing of lawns, cambrics, and other thin German and Sileſia lawns; which has been the occaſion of turning many of thoſe looms to the woollen manufactures there, that were formerly employed in the weaving them; and has abated the exportation of great quantities of cloth; beſides the hinderance callicoes give to the conſumption of Iriſh and Scotch linens; the latter of which, in particular, being thin and ſoft, are as proper for dying, printing, and ſtaining, as they are, and may be made as white.

Therefore, it appears, that the Eaſt Indies is a bottomleſs pit for Engliſh bullion, which can never circulate to

England again: whereas, if it was ſent to any part of Europe, there might be ſome hopes, by the balance of trade, to return it; and when this bullion fails, that trade muſt ceaſe of courſe; which it may ſoon do, if the company carry out yearly as much as other trades bring in.

It has been objected, that the excluſive trade granted to the company is prejudicial to the nation; becauſe they do not carry on the Indian commerce in its full extent, which would be done by private traders, who would ſearch every port from the Perſian gulph to Japan for profit, which the company neglect. Beſides, there are other commodities which the company may trade in; and the tract of land within their charter is large enough to afford an advantageous commerce there, the profit whereof might be returned to Great Britain, in things no way injurious to its manufactures; ſuch as raw ſilk, indigo, pepper, ſalt-petre, ſpices, drugs, china-wares, coffee, tea, and many other things, if they were induſtrious to make diſcoveries, as private merchants would do if the trade lay open.

It may be remembered, that for many years before and after the revolution, there was great clamour and complaint againſt the old Eaſt India company for their oppreſſion, as well as monopoly, of a trade of ſuch extent, which includes ſo great a part of the globe, and ſo perfectly known by the Britiſh nation; and the parliament, when they borrowed 2,000,000 l. on the trade to the Eaſt Indies, did not think it the intereſt of England to ſettle that trade in an excluſive company, but in a regulated general ſociety, giving that trade to thoſe perſons who ſhould ſo advance that ſum for the ſervice of the public, to every perſon ſeverally by name, in proportion to his ſubſcription, however it may be now ordered, and carried on by the preſent company.

Dr. Davenant, who was a great advocate for carrying on the Eaſt India trade by an excluſive company, ſays, "That as to this trade in general, if all Europe by common conſent would agree to have no farther dealings to thoſe parts this ſide of the world by ſuch a reſolution would certainly ſave a great and continual expence of treaſure." He computes the gold and ſilver brought into Europe for about 200 years, to be 800 millions ſterling; and afterwards accounting for this immenſe ſum, concludes, that 150 millions of it has been carried away and ſunk in the Eaſt Indies; whereupon he expreſſes himſelf thus: "from whence I have reaſon to conclude, that the European nations had been richer by a full third than they are, if that trade had never been diſcovered and undertaken."

Sir Joſiah Child, a director of, and great advocate for the Eaſt India company, ſays, that in his time 25 or 30 of the moſt warlike ſhips, with 60 to 100 men each, were conſtantly employed in that trade by the Engliſh company: but for ſome years paſt, Mr. Wood ſays, he could not learn there were more than from 10 to 15. He ſays, it is probable this will be attributed to the duties and impoſitions on all goods imported, and the prohibition of Eaſt Indian and Perſian ſilks and ſtuffs: but he tells us that he is free to declare, that the company being the only perſons who can trade to the Indies, and the act of navigation preventing any Eaſt India goods being brought from France or Holland into Great Britain, they underſtand their own intereſt too well to carry on ſo large an extenſive a traffic as would be beneficial to the nation and not equally advantageous to themſelves.

All trades are carried on by ſelect companies with great prejudice to the nation than otherwiſe, as they exportleſs of its manufactures, and ſet their own price upon what they import at the expence of the people of Great Britain. Beſides, it appears, that the Engliſh companies have been more particularly injurious to the nation, in ſending over workmen of all kinds to India, for the improvement of the Indian manufactures, and thereby bringing the Europeans to the greater liking of them, for the enlarging of the company's gain, by the demand of theſe goods, inſtead of thoſe of the proper manufacture of Great Britain. The Indians knew little of dying goods, or ordering them ſo as to be fit for European markets, until the Engliſh company ſent Engliſhmen to teach them; wherein it muſt be granted that the

pany only conſidered their private advantage, though to the irretrievable loſs of the nation.

If this trade was laid open, it is apprehended, that a great number of ſhips, and thoſe the ſtrongeſt and moſt warlike, would be employed in this trade; which, by this means, would be more extenſive and enlarged in places already traded to, and to others hitherto unfrequented: conſequently more Britiſh ſubjects would find employment both at home and abroad: more Britiſh woollen and other manufactures would be exported; and Britons would have theſe goods much cheaper from thence for their own conſumption; and alſo thoſe which they reexport, whereby their traffic with them in foreign markets would be very much enlarged, and the conſumers of thoſe goods take them from Great Britain, which they now do from other nations. By this means likewiſe a very great coaſt-trade might be carried on, and Britiſh coarſe and fine cloths, and other manufactures, in all probability, be ſold in greater quantities than hitherto: and a very great profit would ariſe to the kingdom by the freight that Britiſh ſhips would be able to make, in carrying goods and paſſengers from one country to another; there having been inſtances of ſeparate trading ſhips, ſent out with very ſmall cargoes, which by trading from port to port in the Indies, and the freight they have made, have brought home cargoes of goods amounting to 10, 12, and 15 times the value of their outſet: upon which account many perſons ſeem deſirous of having the trade to India opened, that every Britiſh ſubject may enjoy the freedom of trade and navigation. See *Eaſt* India companies.

INDIAN *Iſlands*. See *Maldivia* Iſlands, *Ceylon* Iſlands, *Sunda* Iſlands, *Celebes*, *Moluccas*, *Banda* Iſlands, *Philippine* Iſlands, and *Ladrone* Iſlands.

INDIAN *America*, conſiſts of all thoſe nations who are independent of the European governments. There are great numbers in Spaniſh America, who never paid any allegiance to the crown of Spain; and ſome in the Braſils who never paid any ſubjection to the crown of Portugal. The Romiſh miſſionaries have made a great body of theſe people ſubordinate to themſelves: the Araucans, and ſome other nations in Peru, are a free and numerous people: the Moſkitos, on the bay of Honduras, never acknowledged the Spaniſh government; but have long owned themſelves ſubjects to the Engliſh, who carry on a great trade there for logwood, which the Spaniards conſtantly endeavour to interrupt and deſtroy. But the Indians on the northern continent of America are the moſt powerful and intereſting to Europeans: they are divided in the Britiſh and French intereſt: their trade is chiefly in furs and ſkins: but the Engliſh have been dilatory in gaining theſe Indians to their intereſt; while the French have been induſtrious in obtaining their friendſhip. Indeed, the trade with theſe Indian nations ſeems to be the great rivalſhip between the Engliſh and French in this part of the world: but it is evident, from the report made to the lords commiſſioners of trade and plantations, by the honourable William Keith, Eſq; governor of the province of Penſylvania, that the Engliſh have neglected their intereſt; the report being as follows.

"In obedience to your lordſhips commands, ſignify'd to me, by your letter dated at Whitehall the 19th of March 1717-18, which I received the 20th of October following, I have made what enquiry I could, relating to the progreſs which the French nation have made, in finding out, and ſecuring a paſſage from their ſettlement on St. Lawrence river, or Canada, to that on Mechaſippi: and as I have my information chiefly from the Indian traders, I ſhall not pretend to vouch any thing from my own knowledge, but ſimply lay the whole before your lordſhips, in the plaineſt manner that it could be collected from their verbal relations.

"But, firſt, I would entreat your lordſhips will pleaſe to obſerve, that from an article in the treaty of Ryſwick, between the Britiſh and French crowns, by which, all lands on any rivers in America, the mouths or outlets whereof were then in poſſeſſion of either nation, are confined to that nation, as high as the firſt ſources of thoſe rivers; the French, by virtue of the Sieur de la Salle's

expedition and diſcoveries, now claim all the lands to the north and weſtward of the Britiſh colonies, from Canada along the lakes, unto the mouth of the river Mechaſippi. But as it is hard to imagine that ſuch a conceſſion was ever intended by the aforeſaid article; becauſe it is not only inconſiſtent with the antient grant from the crown to the proprietors of Carolina, but alſo with the ſecurity of all his Majeſty's colonies on this continent of America; I only ſubmit it to your lordſhips view, and ſhall proceed to the narrative as follows.

He then proceeds to give an account of the French intercourſe in North America, much in the ſame manner as is repreſented under the article of French America: after which he proceeds thus.

Having, above, given your lordſhips the moſt full and perfect account, that I could poſſibly diſcover, of the ſeveral routes which the French take from St. Lawrence to Mechaſippi; I ſhall, in the next place, proceed to lay before you, the ſtate of the ſeveral Indian nations, with reſpect both to the Engliſh and French, according to the beſt information I could get from the ſame perſons.

It has ever been the policy of the French in thoſe parts, in time of war, as well as peace, to uſe their utmoſt endeavours by all manner of means, to bring over any ſort, or all kinds of Indians into their intereſt: but as it is in vain to perſuade an Indian to think otherwiſe, than that thoſe are his beſt friends, who can help him to the beſt bargain, the Iroqueſe, or five nations, have hitherto been preſerved by the Dutch and Engliſh at New York, chiefly on account of finding better markets there, than with the French. Nevertheleſs, by the artifices of their Jeſuit miſſionaries, they daily continue to debauch them from the Engliſh intereſt; inſomuch that, of the whole number of Iroqueſe now remaining, which does not exceed 2000 fighting men, the French have drawn over 700 to inhabit among them; 400 ſeated at the fall of St. Louis, on the ſouth ſide of St. Lawrence, and 300 on the north ſide.

The reſt of them are planted chiefly along the lake Ontario, at ſome diſtance from it. I am told, there are no Indians in the French intereſt on this ſide of St. Lawrence, nearer than the Miamis, or Twoittois, as the Iroqueſe call them: they are in number about 2000, ſettled chiefly on the fore-mentioned river Miamis, flowing into the lake Erie, and on or near the branches of the river Onabache.

The gaining of this one nation would be of great importance to the Engliſh intereſt; and, as I am informed, it might be eaſily done at this time, if any offer was made of trading with them, and of building a fort upon lake Erie, where the French as yet have no ſettlements; tho', probably, they will ſoon go about to have one, upon the account of thoſe people, as well as to render their paſſage thro' that lake more eaſy and ſafe.

The Ilionis are about 3000 men, on or near the river of that name. The Miſſilimakinaes or Ontawaes were formerly 3000, but now are ſcarce 500. The Nokes 100. The Felleſavoins 200. The Sakes 200. The Puans 600. All theſe joined the French againſt the Iroqueſe in the laſt war; and all of them, except the Miamis, are ſeated about, or near the lake Ilionis, which is now commonly called by them Mechegan, and on the river that runs into it, and on the lake Puans, and the river Ilinois.

There are alſo diverſe other nations between Mechegan and Mechaſippi, as the Renards or Foxes, Maſſekotins, Kikapous; but theſe being farther off, did not join the French againſt the Iroqueſe.

Upon Mechaſippi, and the branches of it, there are many great nations, eſpecially to the weſt, as the Miſſouris, Ozages, Acanſias, who are different from thoſe of Acanſa on the eaſt, with many more, not leſs, as is affirmed, than 60000 men; with all whom, it is ſaid, the French have peace, and ſome alliance.

On the other hand, all the Engliſh, to the northward of Carolina, have not 1500 men in their intereſt, except the Iroqueſe. In New England and Connecticut, they were very few. In New York, only the river Indians, beſides the Iroqueſe. In Jerſey and Penſilvania, their

own,

own, or home Indians, called Delawares, are exceedingly decreaſed; and, being in ſubjection to the Iroqueſe, take their rules from them. In Maryland and Virginia, there are few, excepting thoſe towards the S. W. whom colonel Spotſwood, with great induſtry, has lately gained by treaties and hoſtages. Thoſe of Carolina, and the nations lately in friendſhip with them, have been very numerous: but the Iroqueſe, whether prompted by the French, or by what other motive is unknown, have, of late years, made great inroads upon them, and cannot as yet, by any endeavours of the Engliſh, be diverted from it. But of thoſe nations to the ſouthward, and of their ſtrength and intereſt, the beſt accounts will naturally come from Virginia and Carolina.

I come now, in obedience to the laſt part of your lordſhips commands, on this ſubject, humbly to offer my ſentiments of the methods which may be taken, in order to prevent the inconveniencies, unto which his Majeſty's plantations, on the continent of America, and the trade of Great Britain, may be ſubjected by ſuch a communication between the French ſettlements.

Tho' it may be juſtly ſaid, that we exceed the French in the improved value of our ſettlements, upon this continent; yet, from the above account it is plain, that we come far ſhort of the induſtry which they uſe in cultivating a neceſſary correſpondence and friendſhip with the natives, without which our farther progreſs to the weſtward will ſoon be circumſcribed; and we ſhall be under daily apprehenſions of loſing what we already poſſeſs. But ſince this friendſhip is, by experience, no otherwiſe to be acquired than by trade, it will neceſſarily follow that this trade ought to be encouraged and extended, with the utmoſt care and diligence. And that this may be done to the public advantage, as well as to that of particulars, it will be proper to conſider the nature of this trade, with reſpect to Great Britain, to the colonies where it muſt be carried on, and to the French who are our rivals in it.

The trade itſelf conſiſts in the exchange of a very few ſimple commodities; they take from us the woollen manufactures of Britain, gun-powder, ſhot, fire-arms, and trinkets; for which, we receive in barter, furs and ſkins: and this being almoſt a total exchange of Britiſh produce or manufacture, thro' the hands, and by the navigation and labour of Britiſh ſubjects in thoſe colonies, ſuppoſe it only for an equal quantity, in value of goods, which are either wanted at home, or may be juſtly placed to Great Britain's credit, upon the ballance of a trade with foreign countries, it will unavoidably follow, that Britain muſt gain in proportion to the magnitude or extent of the trade in general; and therefore we may conclude, that it ought not only to be encouraged, but eſtabliſhed upon an equal foot, throughout all theſe colonies, as they are inhabited by Britiſh ſubjects, carrying on a Britiſh intereſt, without any diſtinction made, or regard had to their particular ſettlements or ſocieties, as ſeparate governments.

With reſpect to the colonies, this trade will enrich particulars in proportion to the quantity they deal in, and the profit it brings, which of late years, has been ſo conſiderable, that it has tempted the trading intereſt of ſome colonies, to purſue that gain, with an unreaſonable deſire of cruſhing their neighbours: but this practice is by all means to be diſcouraged from Great Britain, as highly deſtructive to the public intereſt, both with reſpect to trade, and the advancement, as well as ſecurity of the Britiſh dominon on this continent.

Laſtly, if this trade could be carried on with a public ſpirit, and juſt regard to a national intereſt, as appears to be abſolutely neceſſary, for maintaining what we have already got, the French, who cannot furniſh theſe commodities, compared with us, either in quantity or value, could have no hopes of diverting the Indians from trading with us, and conſequently depending firmly upon us. We ſhould not, then, have the traders of New York jealous of, and uneaſy at the profits gained by the traders of Virginia; nor theſe again of the improvements which may poſſibly be made in Carolina: but every colony would find a ſolid and certain advantage, by an union among them, according to their ſituation, power, and ability to

advance their trading ſettlements, weſtward, upon the lakes and adjacent rivers; where thoſe vaſt nations of Indians would ſoon perceive, by our united intereſt, power, and traffic, that we were far preferable to our rivals the French, and every way much fitter to be choſen for their friends and allies. And in order to carry on this great deſign, I humbly conceive it will be proper, that a complete body of inſtructions be carefully compoſed, to be ſent to all the governors on this continent; where, amongſt other things, it may be directed,

1. That, in order to prevent the Indians being impoſed upon, and abuſed by looſe and over covetous perſons, trading promiſcuouſly amongſt them, which was the chief unhappy cauſe of the late deſtructive war in South Carolina; the governor ſhall uſe his utmoſt endeavours, with the advice of the council and aſſembly, to put the Indian trade, carried on by the inhabitants, under ſuch wholeſome and juſt regulations, as that the traders may not have it in their power to cheat and impoſe upon the Indians in any ſort, without being made accountable for it under high penalties. Provided always, that no reſtriction ſhall be made to prohibit or interrupt any of his Majeſty's ſubjects, in other of his colonies, from trading as freely with any foreign Indians, as the inhabitants of that colony can or may do themſelves. And in caſe they ſhall diſcover any abuſe to have been committed upon any Indian whatſoever, by any perſon or perſons, inhabitants in, or belonging unto any other of his Majeſty's colonies, complaint ſhall be forthwith made to the governor of that colony, whereunto the offender belongs, and he ſhall cauſe reſtitution to be made, and juſtice to be done, according to the nature of the offence.

2. That all poſſible encouragement be given towards carrying on a fair trade with the Indian nations, ſo that it may be extended as far weſtward upon the lakes and rivers behind the great mountains, as the ſituation and ability of the colony will permit: and when any proper place ſhall be diſcovered for the building of a fort, and ſettling a garriſon, in order to protect the trade, a report thereof ſhall be made to your lordſhips, with the circumſtances and reaſons for ſo doing.

3. That the governor ſhall, with all his induſtry and might, endeavour to make treaties and alliances of ſtrict friendſhip with as many Indian nations as he poſſibly can, always taking ſpecial care to ſtipulate and ſecure peace, not only between them and the colonies under his direction, but alſo between them and all the Engliſh colonies, and likewiſe with all the Indians under any league of friendſhip with any of the ſaid colonies. And that this may be the more effectually done, his Majeſty may pleaſe to direct and order, in a more eſpecial manner, by public proclamation, or otherwiſe, as ſhall ſeem meet, that all perſons travelling from the ſettlements of any of his Majeſty's colonies, into the woods, in order to diſcover and trade with any Indian nation, or nations whatſoever; if ſuch perſon ſhall happen accidentally to meet or encounter with any of his Majeſty's ſubjects, travelling from any other colonies or ſettlements upon the ſame deſign of trade or diſcovery, then, and in that caſe, ſuch perſons ſhall be obliged, and are ſtrictly commanded, under the higheſt pain of his royal diſpleaſure, to treat one another with civil humanity and kindly aſſiſtance, without giving or the other, upon either part, the leaſt interruption or hindrance in their ſaid reſpective deſigns of friendly intercourſe and traffic with the Indians; but, on the contrary, by their open and free behaviour, as well as diſcourſe, to convince the Indians, as much as in them lies, that all the Engliſh ſubjects upon this continent, howſoever diſtinguiſhed into governments, yet are but one people, under one King, who has commanded them, his ſubjects, to take all opportunities to ſhew his love and affection to all the Indian nations; and that whichſoever of them will make any league of friendſhip, with any one of the governments in theſe parts, are thereby entitled to his Majeſty's protection, and to the friendſhip, as well as aſſiſtance of all other governments, and of the Indian nations in alliance with any of them.

4. That, if any Indian nation, in league of friendſhip with any of his Majeſty's colonies, ſhall, in breach

thereof, preſume to make war upon, plunder, or in any other ſort moleſt any other Indian nation, who at the ſame time ſhall be in friendſhip with, and under the protection of any other of his Majeſty's colonies; then that colony, unto which ſuch offenſive Indians are bound by treaty, ſhall uſe their utmoſt endeavours, by threatnings as well as promiſes, to oblige the ſaid Indians to make reaſonable ſatisfaction for their breach of faith, to the contentment of the party aggrieved: and in caſe of meeting with any difficulty in bringing ſuch Indians to reaſon, the governor ſhall repreſent the ſame to his Majeſty forthwith, in order to receive farther direction therein.

5. To the end that all the governors of his Majeſty's plantations on the continent, be each of them, for their better direction, particularly acquainted with the ſtate of every other government relating to the Indians, let every one be order'd, upon his making any alliance or treaty with any Indian nation whatſoever, immediately to communicate the nature, import, and date of ſuch treaty unto all his fellow-governors upon the continent.

Such a correſpondence and harmony being once eſtabliſh'd, the trade might be eaſily ſecur'd and protected, by erecting four ſmall forts: the firſt upon lake Erie, near to the above-named Indians the Miamis: the ſecond on the lake Ontario, near to the Iroqueſe: the third on the head or higheſt fountain of Powtowmack river, which divides the colonies of Virginia and Maryland: and the fourth towards the head of Suſquehannah river, which runs thro' Penſilvania into the bay of Cheſeapeak.

The two firſt of theſe forts would not only ſecure all the Indians on this ſide Carolina to Canada, which are ſettled to the eaſtward of the lakes; but alſo open a trade with the above-mentioned great and numerous nations to the weſtward, whoſe communication by water would render the traffic eaſy. And becauſe the diſtance between the Engliſh ſettlements in theſe colonies, and the lakes, is too great, without the refreſhment as well as ſecurity of a middle ſtage or reſting-place, the other two forts would effectually anſwer that end to all the traders belonging to any of the colonies northward of Carolina.

I humbly conceive, that each fort will require a company, or garriſon of 50 men in the King's pay to be under the direction and command of the governors, his Majeſty's commanders in chief, in the reſpective colonies: that upon lake Erie, to be under Virginia; that upon lake Ontario under New York; that upon Potowmack under Maryland; and that upon Suſquehannah under Penſilvania.

To conclude, I cannot foreſee any thing which would interrupt the execution of this ſcheme, but the emulation in trade, that is kept up among the Engliſh colonies. For which reaſon, it ſeems neceſſary, that ſome method be projected, whereby each colony ſhall be obliged to bear its proportionable ſhare of the expence which the crown of Great Britain will be at, in building forts weſtward among the Indians, and ſubſiſting garriſons. For, if this was done at the public charge, equally for the protection of all, none would have any pretence to be diſtinguiſhed particularly in their claim to this trade. And if Great Britain does not imitate the French, in making their correſpondence with the Indians a national concern, whereby the government and maintenance of all forts and garriſons ſhall remain in the hands of the crown, the ſucceſs is very much to be doubted, from the variety of interruptions, which we may continually expect to meet with among ourſelves, as well as from the French, who have but one intereſt principally in view, and ſteadily purſue it with great application.

But, from the little knowledge and experience which I have of the Engliſh American colonies, I do not expect that this project, however juſt in itſelf, will generally pleaſe; wherefore I ſhall not preſume to inſiſt farther, or to put any other value upon it, than that I have, according to my duty, without prejudice or partiality, faithfully endeavoured to obey your lordſhips commands: And it is with great ſubmiſſion, that I beg leave to ſubſcribe myſelf,

Right Honourable,

Your Lordſhips moſt humble

And moſt obedient Servant.

W. KEITH.

Leſt it ſhould at any time be repreſented to your lordſhips, that, in imitation of the French, a ſociety may be incorporated, and a company erected for carrying on the trade upon this continent, with the Indians; I muſt beg leave to obſerve, that ſuch a privilege or immunity would certainly become a very heavy burden upon, and a great diſcouragement to the planting, as well as trading intereſt of every one, and of all theſe colonies, who, from the taſte they have of Engliſh liberty, are naturally averſe to all monopolies, and will hardly ever be reſtrained by the maxims or examples of a French government. Beſides, any reſtriction upon the inhabitants of theſe colonies, would altogether deſtroy the intent and deſign of the above ſcheme, which is founded upon reaſoning after this manner.

That under a good regulation of government, the relative advantages which ſubſiſt between any ſtate and its colonies abroad, are reciprocal. For,

As the ſtate has unqueſtionably a right, and moſt certainly ought to regulate the trade of its colonies for publick advantage; ſo the colonies have at leaſt an equal, if not a preferable claim to the ſubſiſtence and ſmaller profits which ariſe from that trade, to thoſe who muſt be employ'd in carrying it on.

That, where any public intereſt will be moſt effectually carried on, by the united ſtrength of many adjacent colonies, ſuch an union ought carefully to be eſtabliſhed with equality among them; and every thing tending to weaken or obſtruct this union, is to be conſidered as prejudicial to the public.

That the Indian nations upon this continent are not to be gain'd otherwiſe than by trade; and this trade cannot be managed to any purpoſe, without the mutual aſſiſtance and concurrence of all the Engliſh colonies. But, from the different conſtitutions, and particular intereſts of thoſe colonies, ſuch a regulation is not to be obtained without the authority of Great Britain."

The enormous ſtrides which the French have lately taken, ſeem to certify this report; and might have been more plainly foreſeen ſo long as the year 1751, when the Engliſh were told of the preparations which the French were making to engroſs all the trade of the Indians to themſelves: for in that year we were informed, that God in his Providence, ſeemed to be opening the door for the introducing the light of the goſpel among the ſix Mohawk nations wider than ever before. And if the Engliſh did not fail of doing their part, there was a proſpect of great things being done. It was evident the French were then exerting themſelves in an extraordinary manner, to draw all theſe nations over to them, and engage them in their intereſt. The King of France made extraordinary proviſions for them, that very large and liberal preſents may be made them in Canada. And they were indefatigable in their endeavours, in the labours of their emiſſaries, and all the ways they could deviſe. They were building forts in all the parts of America to the weſt of the Engliſh, in the carrying places between the lakes and rivers, and in all the moſt important places, where they might have the greateſt advantage to bring the Indians into dependence, and to draw their trade. Colonel Johnſon, and Major Lydius, who probably were beſt acquainted with the ſtate of theſe Indians, of all the ſubjects of the Britiſh crown, ſaid in the time of the treaty of Albany, That "it was a gone caſe; and that it was a thing beyond all doubt or diſpute, that unleſs ſomething extraordinary was ſpeedily done, and what was never like to be done, theſe nations were loſt to the Britiſh intereſt." By ſome accounts, abundantly confirm'd, about one half of the Onoontauguas actually left their old habitations, and went to live in Canada, the French having provided lands for them: and many others of the far nations were reſorting to ſettle there: An eminent Mohawk told an Engliſh trader, that the Quinquabs, the Onoontauguas, and the Chonuntoowaunces or Senecas, were generally in the French intereſt. He ſaid they indeed come to Albany and treat with the Engliſh as friends; but then go directly to the governor of Canada, and tell him all that has paſſed: they ſpeak, ſays he, ſmooth words, plea-

ſant words to the Engliſh; but their hearts are with the French. He ſaid concerning the Senecas, who are vaſtly the biggeſt of the ſix nations, that the governor of Canada was always there, meaning by his emiſſaries. Four Indians, who were related either in blood or marriage to ſome of the Engliſh, told them that the Indians that uſed formerly to be on their ſide, were continually in great multitudes flocking to Canada to dwell there. They ſaid that all the nations about the lakes that uſed to be friends to the Engliſh, had lately left them and had entered into alliance with the French.

Thus abundant and indefatigable are that nation, who underſtand their own intereſt ſo well, in their endeavours to gain all the Indian nations in North America, to eſtabliſh them in their intereſt, and to alienate them from the Engliſh. A trader was credibly informed while at Albany, that the Indians gave that as one reaſon why they left the Engliſh, and joined themſelves to the French, that they could not live with the Engliſh, they gave them ſo much rum, which they found by experience waſted them exceedingly.

The French have long threatened to drive the Engliſh colonies into the ſea: the Engliſh coloniſts on the northern continent of America are about one million of people, which number is equal to one half of Ireland or Scotland, and they ought for many reaſons to be ſtrongly protected. See *Britiſh* and *French* America, under Great *Britain* and *France*.

INDIA *Proper*, is ſituated between 66 and 92 deg. of E. lon. and between 7 and 40 deg. of N. lat.

INDIAN, or *Eaſtern Ocean*. See *Eaſtern* and *Ocean*.

INDIA *houſe of Spain*, is a court at Seville, under the direction of ſeveral commiſſioners, for the management of the Spaniſh Weſt India trade, and the navigation of that kingdom. See *Spain*.

INDIAN *wood*, called alſo *Jamaica* and *Campeche wood*, is taken out of the heart of a large tree growing plentifully in the iſland of Jamaica, and on the coaſt of Campeche, uſed in dying; its decoction being very red. See *Logwood*.

It has been obſerved, that putting ſome of this decoction into two bottles, and mixing a little powder of alum with the one, it will become of a very beautiful red, which will hold; the other in a day's time becoming yellow, though both bottles were ſtopped from the air alike; and if a little of the ſame decoction is expoſed to the air, it will become black as ink in the ſame ſpace of time.

The leaves of this tree ſometimes ſupply the place of ſpice, giving a very high ſeaſoned taſte to the meats and ſauces they are mixed with; having the ſcent of laurel, but much ſweeter. They are alſo uſed in medicine, either by way of fomentation for the cure of the palſy, and other diſorders proceeding from colds; or by bathing to fortify the nerves, and expel any ſwelling in the legs after malignant fevers.

The fruit of the ſame tree, called Jamaica pepper, or allſpice, is a real ſpice, being ſo aromatic as to ſupply the place of cloves, nutmeg and cinnamon, as it retains ſomething of the three together.

INDICUS *Coculus*, or *Coculus Indiæ*. See *Cuculi*.

INDICUS *Coſtus*. See *Coſtus* Indicus.

INDIES, *Eaſt and Weſt*. See *India*.

INDIGO, or *Indico*. A dying drug of a deep blue colour, brought from the Eaſt and Weſt Indies; being drawn from the leaves and ſtalks of a plant, called *anile* or *anele*, Indian weed, geſtum Indicum, blue weed, and indigo.

There are ſeveral kinds of indigo; the beſt is that called Serquiſſe, from the name of a village 24 leagues from Surat, where it is prepared; the beſt being in flat pieces of a moderate thickneſs, pretty hard, clean, light enough to ſwim in the water, inflammable, of a fine deep blue or purple colour, marked a little on the inſide with ſilver ſtreaks, and appearing reddiſh when rubbed on the nail. Indigo is uſed among painters, who grind and mix it with white, to make a blue colour; for without that mixture it would paint blackiſh: they mix it with yellow, to make a green colour. It is alſo uſed in dying, and by the laundreſſes, to give a bluiſh caſt to their linen.

Indigo is cultivated in ſeveral parts of the continent of America, and in the Antilles iſlands; but the beſt ſort is that brought from Guatimala, St. Domingo, and Jamaica. In the Mogul's territories, there are alſo conſiderable plantations of it in the neighbourhood of Biana, Indoua, and Coſſa, near Agra. There are alſo ſome in the kingdom of Golconda; and the Dutch bring it from Brampour, and Bengal, but it is the worſt ſort of indigo prepared in the Eaſt Indies.

When the indigo is too weighty for its bulk, ſome fraud may be well ſuppoſed to have been uſed; as firſt, when the plant is too much pounded in the mortar; ſecondly, when aſhes, earth, ſand, or ſlate are mixed with it: the firſt fraud is diſcovered by the colour which is blackiſh, and by the weight which augments conſiderably; the ſecond, by diſſolving a ſmall portion in water, which if pure, diſſolves entirely; but otherwiſe the foreign matter ſinks to the bottom of the glaſs.

Six ſorts of indigo are ſold at Amſterdam; that of Serquiſſe, Guatimala, Jamaica, Java, St. Domingo, and indigo Lauro: the former is worth about 2 s. 6 d. ſterling *per* lb. and that of Guatimala about 4 s. 6 d. *per* lb.

By the ſtatute of the 21ſt of George II. reciting, That as the making of indigo in the Britiſh plantations in America would be advantageous to the Britiſh nation, great quantities being uſed in dying Britiſh manufactures, which were then furniſhed from foreign parts, the ſupply whereof was at all times uncertain, and the price frequently exorbitant: and as the culture of it was found to ſucceed ſo well in the provinces of South and North Carolina, there were reaſons to hope, by a proper encouragement, that the ſame might be encreaſed, and improved to ſuch a degree, as not only to anſwer all Britiſh demands, but alſo to furniſh conſiderable quantities to foreign markets: it was therefore enacted, That all perſons who ſhould furniſh conſiderable quantities to foreign markets, or ſhould legally import into Great Britain, directly from any of the Britiſh colonies in America, any good or merchantable indigo, free from any falſe mixtures, and fit for dyers uſe, being the product of the colony from whence the ſame was imported, ſhould be entitled to 6 d. for every pound thereof, to be paid out of the cuſtoms, upon demand, by the collector of the port, where the ſame ſhould be imported. That if any perſon ſhould make entry of foreign made indigo, under the name of Britiſh plantation made, or ſhould mix any foreign indigo, or other falſe mixture with that made in the Britiſh plantations, in order to claim the premium, he ſhould forfeit all ſuch indigo; and double the value thereof ſhould be forfeited by the perſon making ſuch mixture.

That no certificate ſhould be granted for the ſaid præmium upon indigo, that was not good and merchantable, and free from any falſe meaſure.

That if any Britiſh plantation-made indigo ſhould be exported from Great Britain, the exporter, before the entry thereof, ſhould pay to the collector, or chief officer of the cuſtoms of the port the whole of the premium, over and above any duty ſuch indigo is ſubject to at exportation by any former act.

That if any perſon ſhould be found fraudulently to export ſuch indigo, without paying the ſaid premium as aforeſaid, he ſhould forfeit the indigo, and double the value thereof.

That this act ſhould be in force for ſeven years, to commence from the 25th of March 1749, and from thence to the end of the next ſeſſion of parliament.

INDRAPORE. A Dutch ſettlement on the weſt coaſt of Sumatra, in the Eaſt Indies, ſituated in 99 deg. of E. lon. and 20 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. 160 miles N. W. of Bencoolen.

INDULT, or *Indulto*, is a duty which the King of Spain receives from the merchandiſes of private perſons which are brought from America, on board the flota, or galleons: the word ſignifies ſafe paſſage, and the duty is about 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ *per cent*.

INDUS. A river of Aſia, riſing in the mountains which ſeparate Tartary from India, and running from the N. to the S. W. paſſes through the provinces of Cafimere, Attock

Attock, Multan, Bukor, and Tatta, diſcharging itſelf by ſeveral channels into the Indian ocean, a little below the city of Tatta. It is a noble deep and navigable river for veſſels of conſiderable bulk; but the mouth of it is ſo choaked up with ſand that ſhips cannot enter it. The Sha Nadir made this river the boundary between India and Perſia.

GERAM. A Britiſh factory in India, ſubordinate to the government of fort St. George. See *India*.

GOT. A maſs, or lump of gold, or ſilver, from the mines, melted down and caſt in a ſort of mould, but neither coined nor wrought.

GROSSER. See *Foreſtalling*.

K. A liquor uſed for writing on paper or parchment; being commonly a compoſition of vitriol, galls, gum arabic, and water; but printing ink is made of nut oil, linſeed oil, turpentine, and lamp-black.

Indian or Chineſe ink, is an admirable compoſition, in vain attempted to be imitated in Europe. It is not fluid like common writing ink, but ſolid like mineral colours, though much lighter. The Chineſe make it of all figures; but the moſt uſual is rectangular, about a quarter of an inch thick: ſome of the ſticks are gilt, with the figures of dragons, birds, and flowers; in order to which they have little wooden moulds, ſo curiouſly wrought that Europeans can hardly equal them in metals.

The Chineſe make it with ſmoke-black of different kinds; but the beſt is ſaid to be made of the ſmoke of fat pork, burnt at a lamp: they mix a kind of oil with it, to make it more ſmooth; adding other odorous ingredients to take away the rankneſs of the ſmell; and after they have mixed it into a paſte of a proper conſiſtence, they put it into a mould to figure it.

LAND, implies any thing ſituated in the main land, or heart of a country, far from the ſea-coaſts.

Hence, inland bills in traffic, are ſuch bills as are payable in the ſame land wherein they are drawn. See *Bill*, and *Exchange*.

LAND *Duties*. See *Duty*.

LAND *Goods*, or *Goods Inwards*. See *Goods*.

N. A public houſe of entertainment for travellers.

-holder. A perſon who keeps an inn.

-holders company of London, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 6th of Henry VIII. dated the 21ſt of December 1515, by the title of The maſter, wardens, and company of the art or myſtery of innholders of the city of London; conſiſting of a maſter, 4 wardens, 20 aſſiſtants, and 139 liverymen; who have a beautiful and convenient hall in Elbow-lane, wherein they tranſact their buſineſs, and their fine is 10 l. on admiſſion.

LAYING. See *Vencering*, and *Marquetry*.

INKEITHING. A port-town of Scotland, in the county of Fife, ſituated in 3 deg. 15 min. of W. lon. and 56 deg. 5 min. of N. lat. on the north ſhore of the frith of Forth, 10 miles N. W. of Edinburgh.

KINGS. Lands recovered from the ſea by draining and banking.

LAMO. A ſort of cotton brought from Egypt, by the way of Cairo.

OLVENT. A term applied to ſuch perſons as are incapable of paying their debts: thus, a perſon dying, and not leaving effects ſufficient to pay his debts, is ſaid to die inſolvent. See *Bankrupt*.

SURANCE, or *Aſſurance*, is a ſecurity given in conſideration of a ſum of money paid in hand, to make good ſhips, merchandiſe, and houſes, to the value of that for which the premium is received, in caſe of loſs by ſtorms, pirates, fires, or the like.

It is obſerved in hiſtory, that Claudius Cæſar, the Roman emperor, was the firſt that brought in this cuſtom of inſurance, whereby the danger and adventure of voyages is divided, repaired, and borne by many perſons conſenting, and agreed upon between them, what part every man ſhall be contented to inſure, make good and pay, if any fire or caſualty ſhall happen to the ſhip and goods adventured; to the end that merchants might enlarge their traffic and commerce, and not adventure all in one bottom to their ruin, but that the ſame might be anſwered

by many, and thereby the misfortune made the eaſier: and this cuſtom coming to the knowledge of the inhabitants of Oleron, was recorded by them, and ſet down for a law, and practice to be obſerved thro' all the ſea-coaſt towns of France; having been before uſed in England.

An office of inſurance was erected by the ſtatute of the 43d of Q. Elizabeth, and a court for deciding differences ariſing upon policies of inſurance in London: but any man, at this day, may make a private policy of inſurance, which ſhall be as good and effectual in law, to all intents and purpoſes, as one made and entered in that office; and when this court held cognizance, ſuch a policy might, as well as now, be ſued at the common law. Tho' it has been held, that by the making of an office policy, theſe advantages may enſue; if the policy of inſurance be loſt, and the ſame be entered with the regiſter of the office, the entry is ſufficient to make the parties anſwerable; but a private policy loſt is like a deed burnt, and unleſs there be ſtrong evidence of it, as a copy or the like, it will be of little value, ſo that there will remain nothing but an equitable relief in chancery.

There is no fixed or certain price for inſurances, which riſe and fall according to the ſtate of the nation in peace or war, the ſituation of the place, ſeaſon of the year, and other various occurrences: in former times, the rates of inſurance on a good ſhip, from London to Amſterdam was but three *per cent.* to Denmark four, and Sweden five; to Gibraltar and Malaga ſix and ſeven; to Ruſſia nine; to Venice ten; the Weſt Indies twelve; and to any port or place in the Eaſt Indies, China, Perſia, or beyond the Cape of Good Hope, was ſixteen *per cent.* but in the war, during the reign of King William, the premium of inſurance on a good ſhip for the like voyage, was above twenty *per cent.* and ſo of other voyages in proportion.

As goods and merchandiſe are commonly inſured, ſo likewiſe are the ſhip's tackle and furniture; though, in regard there ſeldom happens a voyage but ſomewhat is miſſing or loſt, a great premium is generally given in theſe caſes. And when a ſhip at ſea hath been long miſſing, and no advice can be had where ſhe is, the premium, eſpecially in time of war, will be very high, ſometimes thirty or forty *per cent.* But then theſe words are inſerted in the inſurance, loſt or not loſt; and in ſuch caſe, tho' it happens that at the time the ſubſcription is made, the ſhip is caſt away, yet the inſurers muſt anſwer: but if the party who cauſed the inſurance to be made, actually ſaw the ſhip wrecked, or had certain intelligence of it, ſuch ſubſcription will not be obligatory, for the ſame ſhall be accounted a meer fraud. So likewiſe if the aſſured, having a rotten veſſel, ſhall inſure upon the ſame more than ſhe is worth, and afterwards give order that going out of the port the ſhip ſhould be ſunk or wrecked, this will be adjudged fraudulent, and not oblige the inſurers to anſwer.

By the ſtatute of the 12th of Queen Anne, and the 4th of Geo. I. it is felony wilfully to caſt away or deſtroy a ſhip, to defraud the owners.

It is ſaid that very few inſure the whole ſhip, but ſubſcriptions are uſually for ſums certain, as 100 l. 500 l. or 1000 l. at the rate or premium current, which, when the adventure is borne, the inſurers receive; but if a loſs happen the premium is deducted, together with the uſual abatement, and then the inſured receive about eighty *per cent.* in common caſes. In the caſe of an inſurance loſt or not loſt, in the year 1583, there was a rich ſhip called the St. Peter, coming from the Eaſt Indies for Liſbon, miſſing a long time, and inſurance was made upon her at Antwerp and other places, at thirty *per cent.* Within three years after, there arrived at Liſbon a ſmaller ſhip, very richly laden, which was made of the other ſhip that was caſt on ſhore in a certain iſland abroad; and thereupon diverſe controverſies aroſe between the owners of the goods, and aſſurers, as alſo the maſter and mariners: at laſt it was adjudged by the ſea laws, that the maſter and mariners ſhould have one third part, and the aſſurers ſhould come in for ſo much *pro rata* as they had aſſured, all charges deducted, and the ſhip to be the owners of the former ſhip; with the like conſiderations as aforeſaid.

If a man inſures goods to the value of 5000 l. and he hath but 2000 l. remitted; now he having inſured a real adventure, by the law-marine all the inſurers muſt anſwer *pro rata*, if a loſs happens: but this is more by the cuſtom of merchants than by law; and ſome perſons are of opinion, that the firſt ſubſcribers who underwrit ſo much as the real adventure amounted to, are only to be made liable; and the reſt remitting their premiums, 10 s. *per cent.* being deducted out of the ſame for their ſubſcriptions, are to be diſcharged.

In caſe a merchant ſhall inſure a ſhip generally, and in the policy it is expreſſed of ſuch a burthen, the ſhip happens then to be loaden, and afterwards miſcarries; the inſurers ſhall not anſwer for the goods, but for the ſhip only, that is named. But where goods are inſured, it matters not in the policy of aſſurance, whether the particular wares and goods are named; but commonly mention is made of the principal wares, and all other commodities laden or to be laden by the inſured, for his account, or any other. Yet when an inſurance is upon any particular goods and merchandiſe, it muſt be declared particularly by the mark of the goods belonging to ſuch a merchant; and if there be more of the ſame mark, the number is added; and where the number is alike, the weight may diſtinguiſh the ſame; ſo as to be rightly anſwered, if any loſs happen.

If a ſhip be inſured from the port of London to any place abroad, and before the ſhip breaks ground, ſhe happens to take fire, and is burnt, the aſſurers in ſuch caſe are not obliged to anſwer; for the adventure did not begin till the veſſel was gone from the firſt port: if in the policy of inſurance the words *at and from the port of* London had been inſerted, there the inſurers would have been anſwerable for ſuch a misfortune. And if on ſuch an inſurance, the ſhip had broke ground, and afterwards been driven by ſtorm back to the port of London, and there had took fire, the inſurers muſt have anſwered; becauſe the very breaking of ground was a commencement of the voyage: and the port of London extends from the North Foreland in the Iſle of Thanet to London-bridge.

Where any merchant inſures merchandiſe from London to St. Lucar, until it be laid on ſhore at Sevil; this adventure is as well in the ſmall ſhips, lighters, or boats, in which it is carried up to the city of Sevil till the unlading thereof there, as the ſame was in the ſhip whereby the ſaid merchandiſe was tranſported from the port of London to St. Lucar; and any damage, either totally or in part, is to be anſwered by the aſſurers accordingly. If goods are inſured in a certain ſhip bound to any foreign parts, and in the voyage it happens ſhe becomes leaky, or receives other damage, and the ſupercargo on board and maſter agree to freight another veſſel for the ſafe delivery of the goods; and then after her relading the ſecond veſſel miſcarries, the aſſurers are diſcharged, without a ſpecial clauſe to make them liable: but if there be theſe words, The goods laden to be tranſported and delivered at ſuch a place, by the ſaid ſhip, or by any other ſhip or veſſel until they be ſafely landed, then the inſurers muſt anſwer the misfortune happening.

If a merchant freights a ſhip with wool, which occaſions a forfeiture of ſhip and lading, being contrary to law; or if he lades contraband goods knowingly, and afterwards inſures the ſame, if they are ſeized by the King's officers, the inſurers are not compellable to bear the loſs: tho' where any goods inſured, are not contraband at the time of the lading and inſurance, but become ſuch by ſome poſterior act or declaration, if they are then ſeized, the inſurers are anſwerable. And if goods be lawfully inſured, and afterwards the veſſel is diſabled, by reaſon of which, with the conſent of the merchant, they are put into another ſhip, which after arrival, proves an enemy's ſhip, and by reaſon thereof is ſubject to ſeizure; in this caſe the inſurers ſhall anſwer, for that is ſuch an accident as is within the intention of the policy of inſurance, where the policy mentions againſt dangers of the ſea, enemies, or otherwiſe, as policies generally do: but perſons inſuring, or undertaking to deliver prohibited goods, are to forfeit 500 l. by the 4th and 5th of William and Mary.

A merchant inſures his goods to a port abroad, and ther
to be landed; the factor after arrival of the ſhip, ſells th
cargo aboard, without ever unlading the ſhip; and th
buyer of the goods contracts for the freight of them fo
ſome other port, but before the ſhip breaks ground, th
is by ſome accident deſtroyed; in this caſe the aſſured a
buyer are left without remedy: for the property of th
merchandiſe being changed, and freight contracted
novo, the ſame amounts to as much if the goods had be
landed. By the laws of Antwerp, the adventure is to b
borne by the inſurers fifteen days after the ſhip's arrival
port.

In an action brought upon a policy of inſurance of goo
from London to Naples, warranted to depart with co
voy; it appeared that the ſhip departed with convoy, b
was ſeparated by ſtreſs of weather, and putting into To
bay, was there detained by contrary winds; afterwar
the maſter of the ſhip, expecting to meet the men
war that were convoy, ſailed out of the harbour, b
could not find them by reaſon of the badneſs of the we
ther, and the ſhip was taken by the enemy. It w
here argued, that no more was intended than a departu
with convoy at the firſt ſetting out of the river, whi
being provided by the inſurers, they had fulfill'd th
warranty; but on the other ſide it was inſiſted, that
the words of the policy the ſhip ought to go all the w
with convoy, and not only out of the mouth of the ri
where there is no danger; for that could never be
meaning of the parties, and that ſhe ſhould be left at
where is danger: but it was adjudged in this caſe, that
depart with convoy, means only that the ſhip ſhall le
the port, and ſail with the convoy, without any w
default in the maſter; and the maſter having done all t
could be done, notwithſtanding which the ſhip is tak
therefore the inſurers are anſwerable. It would be oth
wiſe, if by the maſter's default the ſhip had been ſepara
and taken; then the inſurers would not have been li

In order to the receiving and recovering of money inſur
upon policies of inſurance; when the perſons inſ
have received advice of the loſs of the ſhip or goods, t
are to make application to the inſurers, and produce t
vouchers, witneſſes, or evidences concerning the ſaid l
declaring the manner and place, the cauſe, with all
cumſtances thereof, and all ſuch proof as by letters
other means they can attain unto; with which, if
inſurers are ſatisfied, they will pay the money without
ſcruple, deducting the premium, nor can they make
objection to it, unleſs they have ſome reaſonable gro
to found it upon, as contrary intelligence, or the l
In which caſe, the parties who have inſured the ſa
muſt wait a convenient time, according to the diſta
of the place where the ſhip is affirm'd to be loſt,
more certain advice can be obtained by the inſurers a
it; or if nothing can be heard of the ſhip in any rea
able time, then the inſurers are obliged forthwith to
the money: but if, after that, it ſhould happen that
ſhip ſhould arrive ſafe, the inſurers in ſuch caſe
have the money returned them. And when it happ
that ſome part only of the goods are loſt, as in the ca
ejections in a ſtorm, or other ſuch accidents; then
inſurers make an average of it, and each man pay
much *per cent.* in proportion to the ſum for which he
ſcribed.

Where goods are redeemed from a pirate, all the inſ
muſt pay contribution, becauſe the redemption is m
for the ſafety of all; ſo it is where goods are wet, or
ceive damage by any other accident: and by the ma
laws, if it be abſolutely neceſſary to lighten a ſhip,
her eaſy entrance into harbour, or a channel, two
of the loſs ſhall fall upon the goods, and the third
upon the ſhip; except the ſhip is of greater value
the lading, and the charge of the goods be not the
of her inability to enter, but ſome bad quality proc
ing from the ſhip it ſelf; or it is otherwiſe provided,
the goods ſhall be fully delivered at the port appo
for them.

Aſſurances may be made on mens heads, as well as
and goods; as if a man is going for the Streights, o
any port in the Mediterranean ſea, and is in dange

being taken by the Moors or Turkiſh pirates, and ſo made a ſlave, whereby a ranſom muſt be paid for his redemption, he may advance a premium accordingly upon a policy of aſſurance; and if he is taken, the inſurers muſt anſwer the ranſom ſecured.

Some particular obſervations in making inſurances.

1. The party who cauſes the aſſurance to be made, ought to be a perſon well known for his honeſt and fair dealing. 2. The maſter of the ſhip and mariners ſhould likewiſe be honeſt, and of experience, to avoid the danger of barratry, or embezzling the goods, and other accidents. 3. The inſurer muſt take notice of the goodneſs of the ſhip, and of her ſailing, eſpecially making her voyage alone; and whether ſhe be old or new built, and the price of the aſſurance to be accordingly. 4 To know by the map or ſea-charts the place or country, and how far diſtant where the ſhip is to ſail, and the dangers of known rocks and ſands. 5. To have regard to what wind muſt ſerve, and the right ſeaſon of the year, which makes a difference in the price of aſſurances; an eaſt or north eaſt wind driving from the land for Spain, is the leaſt dangerous, and leſs money is paid than where a ſhip comes by contrary winds from thence to land: in the winter, two in the hundred is given more than in ſummer; except it be by calms in places of danger, as in the Streights infeſted with Turkiſh pirates; the like for ſhips bound for ſeveral ports, more ſubject to caſualties. 6. To conſider the places of hoſtility abroad, where the ſhip muſt unlade or touch, the hazard of general or particular embargoes on ſhips, and the likelihood that they may be detained by foreign princes and ſtates. 7. The inſurer is to take care not to inſure for unlawful places of trade, or queſtionable between princes; and in ſuch caſe he may demand as much, or near it, as is paid upon adventures loſt or not loſt. 8. To know upon what kind of goods or merchandiſe he aſſures; whether on wine, oil, ſalt, raiſins, or ſuch like periſhable wares; or upon other ſtaple commodities, as cloths, lead, tin, and the like, which are not ſubject ordinarily to averages as the other. 9. The ordnance and munition the ſhip is provided with, are to be inſpected and known, ſo as not to inſure upon the bottom of a ſhip, but with good advice. 10. If the aſſurer aſſures upon any particular goods marked, he ſhould know whether they are laden in the bottom of the ſhip, where there is danger of wetting and ſpoiling; or above on the deck, where there is danger from pirates, or of caſting overboard; about the middle is the beſt. 11. To be adviſed not to inſure beyond the limitation of his knowledge, by the means of others, as from Liſbon to Braſil, in ſuch voyages, whereof he cannot have timely notice. 12. And laſtly, to be provident in the contributions and averages, to anſwer for no more than is his due to pay, wherein it is neceſſary to have an inſpection of the bills of lading, and other papers.

The knowledge of theſe ſeveral particulars is not only of great uſe to all inſurers of ſhips, but alſo to the merchants aſſured, in their prudent and ſafe freighting and adventuring their goods and merchandiſes to ſea.

Though inſurance was intended for the encouragement and ſecurity of trade, it has been frequently turned into a wager, to the great prejudice of commerce, by dagging, or inſuring intereſt or no intereſt. This has given occaſions to ſome perſons to inſure their ſhips only to have them deſtroyed, and to make an advantage of their inſurances; which gave riſe to an act of parliament paſſed in the 19th year of George II. for regulating the inſurance on ſhips belonging to Great Britain, and on merchandiſes or effects laden therein; whereby theſe hazardous inſurances were prohibited: and it was declared, that it ſhould not be lawful to make re-aſſurance, unleſs the aſſurer ſhould be inſolvent, become a bankrupt, or die; in either of which caſes ſuch aſſurer, his executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns, might make re-aſſurance to the amount of the ſum before inſured; provided it be expreſſed in the policy to be a re-aſſurance. See *Bottomry*.

Inſurance offices in the city of London.

INSURANCE *offices on ſhips.* Theſe two ſocieties, purſuant to an act of parliament of the 6th of George I. dated the 22d of June 1720, were ſeparately incorporated by letters-patent; the one by the name of "The "Royal Exchange aſſurance, for inſuring of goods, mer-"chandiſe, and ſhips at ſea, and for lending money on "bottomry;" and the other by the name of "The Lon-"don aſſurance company:" by which names they were to have perpetual ſucceſſion, with a power to ſue and implead, be ſued and impleaded, anſwer and be anſwered, in courts of record, or elſewhere, touching or concerning the tranſactions of the corporations; to have each of them a common ſeal; and to purchaſe lands, houſes, or the like, in mortmain, to the amount of 1000 l. *per annum* each; and to grant, alien, or demiſe the ſame at pleaſure.

In conſideration of the premiſes, each corporation was to advance to the King the ſum of 300,000 l. without intereſt, for the term of 31 years. Towards raiſing this ſum, and paying all juſt demands that ſhould be made upon their reſpective policies, each company was impowered to raiſe a certain ſum, to be called the ſtock of the corporation; and in caſe the government ſhould think fit to repay the aforeſaid ſum of 300,000 l. within or before the expiration of the term above mentioned, that then the corporation ſhould ceaſe, and become void in all reſpects, as if the ſame had never ſubſiſted.

By a ſecond charter, they are impowered, not only to inſure houſes, goods, ſhips, and the like, from fire, but likewiſe to inſure lives.

The INSURANCE *offices on lives*, is in Serjeant's inn, Fleet-ſtreet; and was incorporated by letters patent of the 4th of Queen Anne, dated the 25th of March 1706, by the name of "The amicable ſociety for a perpetual aſſurance-"office." The number of members, not to exceed 2000, are impowered to purchaſe lands, tenements, and the like, to the amount of 2000 l. *per annum*, the ſame to alien at pleaſure, to ſue, and to be ſued, and to have a common ſeal alterable at diſcretion.

Each member of this ſociety originally paid, during the life of the perſon inſured upon, the ſum of 6 l. 4 s. *per annum*; out of which, for the firſt year of the incorporation, was divided 1-6th part of the ſeveral payments or contributions, among the nominees of the members that died in the ſaid year; which dividend increaſed proportionably till the year 1710, when they divided 10,000 l. among the nominees, which is to be yearly continued, with an addition of ſo much as the general court ſhall deem proper: but in caſe the number of members ſhall not amount to 2000, then the annual dividends to be made in proportion to the yearly payments of 6 l. 4 s. for each of the reſpective members.

And for the more effectual ſupport of this ſociety, it is, by a ſupplemental charter, dated the 16th of January 1729, ordained, that all and every of the members, or their nominees, that ſhall be in arrears to the corporation for a year and a quarter, and who, upon proper notice thereof given in the London Gazette, ſhall omit payment thereof for three months after, every ſuch member ſo offending ſhall be excluded the ſociety, and deprived of all benefits ariſing thereby, as if he, ſhe, or they had never belonged to the ſame.

The ſum, as already mentioned, appointed by their charter to be paid by the members of the ſociety, is 6 l. 4 s. *per annum* each, and the ſum to be divided among the yearly claimants 5 l. The ſurplus of 1 l. 4 s. is improved for the benefit of the corporation for granting annuities upon lives to their own members; by which, and other good management, the ſociety have a ſtock of above 30,000 l. whereby they are not only enabled to defray all the expences of the ſociety, but likewiſe to reduce the annual payments of the members from 6 l. 4 s. to 5 l. each; and beſide this, the company divide above 700 l. *per annum*, or ſo much thereof as is required, when the dividend, by a great mortality, does not amount to 100 l. for each claim, to pay each claimant 100 l. whereby all reſtrictions are effectually prevented, and the corporation kept in a flouriſhing condition; which, by the good footing it is on at preſent, it is not to be

doubted but it will improve to the great advantage of the members.

The INSURANCE *offices againſt fire.* The ſeveral inſurance offices againſt loſſes by fire have been very ſeaſonably and providentially eſtabliſhed: the firſt whereof, called the *Friendly ſociety*, was erected in 1684, for inſuring houſes; which is done on brick-buildings at the rate of 9 s. 4 d. *per cent.* for ſeven years, and double that ſum on thoſe of wood: but, beſides this certain charge, the inſured are obliged to contribute to the payment of all loſſes that may happen; in order to which they make a depoſit of 6 s. 8 d. *per cent.* and ſo much thereof as remains undivided at the expiration of the ſeveral inſurances is returned to the reſpective proprietors. For ſecuring the payment of all loſſes by fire, a conſiderable ſecurity in land is ſettled by truſtees; and, for extinguiſhing fires, the ſociety continually keep in their ſervice 22 firemen, who wear the company's badge, and are annually cloathed.

The hand-in-hand fire-office was erected in the year 1696, by about 100 perſons; who, mutually agreeing to inſure one another's houſes, from loſs by fire, by an amicable contribution, entered into a deed of ſettlement for that purpoſe; which being ſigned by every perſon deſirous of becoming a member, he or ſhe is thereby admitted into the joint contributionſhip, and becomes an equal ſharer in profit and loſs, in proportion to his, her, or their reſpective inſurance; which deed of ſettlement was inrolled in chancery, the 24th of January 1698. This office being calculated for the mutual eaſe and advantage of all the contributors, they inſure houſes and chambers at the following eaſy rates. The depoſite money on ſtone or brick houſes is 10 s. *per cent.* and double on thoſe of timber; with a premium of 2 s. *per cent.* on brick or ſtone, and double on timber buildings, for any ſum not exceeding 1500 l. and for any ſum from 1500 l. to 2000 l. 4 s. *per cent.* on brick and ſtone, and double on timber for any term of years not exceeding ſeven. But a ſum exceeding 2000 l. is not to be inſured on any building, without the approbation of a general court: and for the more effectual preventing the office from being impoſed upon, they inſure only 3-4ths of the value of each houſe. This company, for the extinguiſhing of fires, keep in their ſervice 30 firemen, who are annually cloathed, and have each a badge.

The ſun-fire office was projected by John Povey, about the year 1706, for inſuring merchandiſe and houſhold-goods, as well as houſes, from fire, which till then was never done; but the ſociety was not erected till 1710. This ſociety not confining themſelves, like other offices, to inſure houſes, goods, wares, and merchandiſes, within the bill of mortality only, have, for the advantage of the inhabitants of Great Britain in general, extended their inſurance to all parts of the iſland. The ſociety has a fund of 48,000 l. for the ſafety of the inſured; who pay for ſums from 300 l. to 1000 l. the annual premium of 2 s. *per cent.* for common inſurances, 3 s. *per cent.* for hazardous inſurances, and 5 s. *per cent.* for doubly hazardous inſurances: but from 1000 l. to 2000 l. the firſt inſurance is 6 d. *per cent.* more, the ſecond 1 s. more, and the third 1 s. 8 d.: and from 2000 l. to 3000 l. the firſt inſurance is 1 s. *per cent.* more, the ſecond 2 s. *per cent.* and the third 1 s. 6 d. Under the article of common inſurances, are to be underſtood all bricks or ſtone buildings, not inhabited by the hazardous trades, nor ſtored with hazardous goods: under that of hazardous inſurances are to be underſtood timber and plaiſter buildings, and goods and merchandiſe therein called hazardous: and under the head of doubly hazardous are to be underſtood all thatched timber, or plaiſter buildings, wherein hazardous goods or trades are depoſited, or carried on. The hazardous trades are apothecaries, chemiſts, bread and biſcuit bakers, ſhip and tallow-chandlers, ſtable-keepers, innholders, and malt-houſes; and the hazardous goods are, hemp, flax, tallow, pitch, tar, turpentine, hay, ſtraw, fodder of all kinds, and corn unthreſhed. To this office belong 30 firemen, and 20 porters, to aſſiſt the inſured in caſe of fire.

The union fire-office was erected in 1714, for inſuring of goods and merchandiſe; being upon the ſame foot, in all reſpects, as that of the hand-in-hand fire-office; except that, inſtead of houſes, they only inſure goods and merchandiſe, for certain premiums and depoſits for ſeven years; being 2 s. *per cent.* and 10 s. depoſit, for any ſum from 100 l. to 1000 l. for common inſurances on brick houſes; 3 s. *per cent.* and 15 s. depoſit, for common inſurances on timber houſes; 4 s. *per cent.* and 20 s. depoſit, for hazardous inſurances on brick houſes; 6 s. *per cent.* and 30 s. depoſit, for hazardous inſurances on timber houſes; 6 s. *per cent.* and 30 s. depoſit, for double hazardous inſurances on brick houſes; and 9 s. *per cent.* and 45 s. depoſit, for double hazardous inſurances on timber houſes; but from 1000 l. to 2000 l. and from 2000 l. to 3000 l. higher premiums are to be paid, though the depoſits are the ſame. And to this office belong 24 porters.

Weſtminſter fire office was erected in 1717, being exactly ſimilar to the Hand-in hand ſociety; and this company keep 18 firemen.

The eſtabliſhments of theſe ſeveral offices of inſurance from fire have been extremely beneficial to ſociety: no thing was ever ſo well calculated for the encouragement of trade; nor was there ever any ſcheme ſo well adapted for the ſecurity of private property. Theſe ſocieties ſeem to have ſprung from the ſource of humanity; they are the happieſt bands of amity; they are the promoters of induſtry, and the ſupporters of diſtreſs: in effect they ſeem to be a concatenated chain of mutual friendſhip, aſſiſtance, and protection, againſt one of the most terrible accidents of life, againſt one of the greateſt enemies of trade, and againſt the moſt ravaging ſpoiler of property. To the erection of theſe companies, the preſent grandeur and augmentation of the buildings of London and Weſtminſter in particular, and of all other cities and towns in general throughout England, are to be principally attributed; for the number of houſes inſured in the Hand-in-hand fire-office only, in 1735 amounted to 45,873, and the ſum inſured therein to 11,612,000 l.

INTAGLIOS. Precious ſtones, having the heads of great men, inſcriptions, and the like, engraven on them; ſuch as are frequently ſet in rings and ſeals.

INTENDANT. One who has the conduct, inſpection and management of any thing.

This is a title frequent among the French: they have intendants of the marine, who are officers in the ſea-ports, whoſe buſineſs is to take care the ordinances and regulations relating to ſea-affairs be obſerved: intendants of the finances, who have the direction of the revenues: intendants of provinces, who are appointed by the King to take care of the adminiſtration of juſtice, policy, and finances in the provinces: as alſo intendants of buildings and houſes.

INTEREST. A ſum of money, reckoned for the loan or forbearance of ſome other ſum, lent for, or due at a certain time, according to ſome certain rate. In reſpect whereof, the ſum lent or forborn is called the principal, becauſe it is the ſum that procreates the intereſt, or from which the intereſt is reckoned.

Simple INTEREST, is that counted from the principal only.

Compound INTEREST, is that counted, both from the principal and the ſimple intereſt forborn; called alſo intereſt upon intereſt; which ariſes from the principal and its intereſt put together, as that intereſt becomes due.

Lunary INTEREST, is a term in the port towns of the Levant, for the uſurary intereſt which the Jews exact from ſuch Chriſtians as have occaſion for their money, either upon the account of trade, or paying the extortions of the Turkiſh officers in theſe port-towns. They are called lunary, becauſe paid at ſo much *per cent.* every moon; and the Turkiſh months not being ſolar like those of the Chriſtians, augments the intereſt by upwards of 1-3d *per cent.*

According to the various uſes of money, the lending of intereſt is ſaid to be the moſt unnatural, becauſe removed from the deſign of its firſt inſtitution, which was to pledge in buying; but, notwithſtanding, it is certainly no leſs advantageous both to lenders and borrowers: nor is it accounted by any but enthuſiaſtical heads, a leſs

rantable uſe than any other that is made of money; lending and borrowing money upon intereſt being a thing practiſed, under moſt, if not all the governments in the trading part of the world.

The two material things to be conſidered in borrowing and lending at intereſt, not to mention ſecurities, are, firſt, the rate of intereſt; ſecondly, the time of payment.

The rate of intereſt is the ſum given for the uſe of 100 l. for one year; and this is in ſome places more, in others leſs, which is generally proportioned to the plenty or ſcarcity of money and trade, or dearneſs or ſcarceneſs of things.

Thus, in Italy and Holland, the rate is 3 l. *per cent.* in Sweden 6, France 7, Spain and Barbadoes 10 l. Ireland but 6 l. and Turkey 20 *per cent.* From which different rates the ingenious Sir Joſias Child makes many curious remarks, in his diſcourſe concerning trade; to which the reader is referred, who is curious in this affair, or inquiſitive after the policy of theſe matters, and would be inſtructed in them; being a treatiſe deſigned for practice.

By an act paſſed in the 4th year of the reign of Queen Anne, intereſt bonds for cuſtoms, additional duties, or the like, not paid according to the conditions thereof, are to be chargeable with intereſt at 6 l. *per cent. per annum*, from the time due till the actual payment, unleſs the treaſury ſhould judge it reaſonable to be remited.

By an act paſſed in the 12th of Queen Anne, it was enacted, That intereſt taken upon any contract for loan of money, or any commodities, ſhould not be above the rate of 5 l. *per cent. per annum*; all bonds, &c. for more than the ſaid intereſt, to be void; and the perſon taking ſuch intereſt, to forfeit treble the value of the money ſo lent; but not to prejudice parliamentary ſecurities, which are now reduced to 3 *per cent.* See *Funds*, *Loan*, and *National Debt.*

It was thereby alſo enacted, That no ſcrivener, ſolicitor, or broker, ſhould take above 5 s. *per cent.* premium, or above 12 d. over and above the ſtamp-duty, for making or renewing a bond, under the penalty of forfeiting 20 l. with coſt of ſuit, and half a year's impriſonment; the half to the King, the other to the proſecutor.

INTERLOPER, is ſaid of thoſe merchant-ſhips which ſtrive to carry on an indirect and clandeſtine commerce with contraband merchandiſe; or bring lawful merchandiſe into ſuch places as are not free for ſtrangers to trade in; but they are alſo called adventurers or buccaneers.

INTERLOPERS alſo ſignify, among ſuch Europeans as have companies of commerce, the private ſhips of theſe nations which ſtrive to trade in the extent of the conceſſion of their companies, without having obtained a licence from the parties concerned, or the directors.

None but the Engliſh had interloping ſhips of this laſt kind; but the former are very common in France, England, and Holland, particularly for the trade along the coaſts of Terra firma in Spaniſh America, and the South ſea.

The commerce of interloping ſhips is always very lucrative; the merchandiſe with which they are laden being uſually ſold at a very dear rate, and thoſe they have from the country they trade to, being generally cheap; beſides, they pay no duties, which is a very conſiderable matter: but the danger is great, being not only attended with the confiſcation of ſhips and cargoes, or the impriſonment of the ſailors, when ſurpriſed by the guarda coſtas; but alſo very often with the loſs of life, in conſequence of the ſtrict charge from the crown of Spain for admitting no foreigners to trade in the Spaniſh Weſt Indies.

INTERSOIL, in huſbandry, the laying one kind of ſoil or earth upon another.

INTRINSIC. A term applied to the inner, real, and genuine values and properties of any thing; in oppoſition to their extrinſic, apparent, or popular values.

INVENTORY, in law, a catalogue, or repertory, orderly made of all the goods and chattels of a perſon dead: but, in trade, it is a liſt, or particular valuation of goods by way of appraiſement.

INVERNESS. A port-town of Scotland, capital of the county of Inverneſs, ſituated in 4 deg. of W. lon. and 57 deg. 36 min. of N. lat. at the mouth of the river Neſs, on Murray frith, 106 miles north of Edinburgh.

INVOYCE, or *Invoice.* A liſt or account of commodities, with their value, cuſtoms, proviſion, and charges, ſent by a merchant to his factor, or correſpondent in another country.

The invoice is made out in the money of the country where the merchandiſes are purchaſed, or from what country they are ſent; being intended for the government of the ſeller, that he may ſo diſpoſe of ſuch commodities as to leave a reaſonable profit, ſuitable to the time that principals, for whoſe account they are, may be out of their money. However, it is cuſtomary for an additional charge to be made upon invoices, to procure a larger profit upon their ſales.

Book of INVOICES. See *Book*-keeping.

JOANNA. One of the iſlands of Comorra, ſituated in 45 deg. of E. lon. and 12 deg. of S. lat. between the N. W. part of Madagaſcar and Zanguebar in Africa; where the Eaſt India ſhips bound for Bombay in India frequently touch, and take in water and freſh proviſions; it being a plentiful country, and the people very ready to ſupply them.

JOBBER. A perſon who undertakes jobbs, or ſmall pieces of work; but in ſome ſtatutes it is uſed for a perſon who buys and ſells cattle.

JOHN'S, St. or *St. John's*, one of the Phillipine iſlands, in the Eaſt Indies, lying in 126 deg. of E. lon. and 7 deg. of S. lat. eaſt of Mindanao, from which it is ſeparated by a narow ſtraight. See *Philippine* iſlands.

JOHN'S, St. An iſland in the bay of St. Lawrence, in North America, ſituated in 65 deg. of W. lon. and 47 deg. of N. lat. having Nova Scotia on the S. and W. and Cape Breton on the E. See *French* America.

JOINER. An artificer in joinery, or moſt curious part of wood-work; as in cabinets, wainſcotting, and the like. The French call it *menuiſerie*, from *minutaria*, ſmall work; whereby it is diſtinguiſhed from carpentry, which is the larger and leſs curious work. See *Carpenter.*

JOINERS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 13th of Queen Elizabeth, dated the 18th of April 1569, by the name of The maſter, wardens, and commonalty of the faculty of joiners and cielers of London.

They are governed by a maſter, 2 wardens, and 24 aſſiſtants, with a livery of 323 members; who have a handſome hall in Friers-lane, Thames-ſtreet; and their fine of admiſſion is 8 l.

IONIAN *ſea.* A part of the Mediterranean.

JORDAN. A river of Aſiatic Turky, in the province of Judea, or Paleſtine, riſing in Mount Libanus, and runs S. quite through the country, a courſe of about 150 miles, forming two lakes; the firſt, which is almoſt dry in ſummer, called the ſea of Gallilee, the lake of Tiberias, and ſometimes the lake of Genezareth, being about 12 miles long, and 8 broad; the other called the Dead, or Salt ſea, where Sodom and Gomorrah ſtood, is about 70 miles long, and 16 broad: but the ordinary channel of the river Jordan is not above 20 yards broad at preſent, and diſcharges itſelf into the lake called the Dead ſea.

JOSEPH. A kind of cotton, of indifferent quality, brought from the Levant.

JOSSELASSAR. One of the ſorts of ſpun cottons brought from Smyrna.

JOURNAL, in merchant-accompts. See *Book*-keeping.

JOURNAL, in ſea-affairs, is a regiſter kept by the pilot, wherein notice is taken of every thing that happens to the ſhip from day to day, and from hour to hour, with regard to the winds, the rhumbs, the rake, and ſoundings, in order to enable him to adjuſt the reckoning, and determine the place where the ſhip is.

JOURNEYMAN, antiently ſignified a perſon who wrought with another by the day; though now, by the ſtatute, it extends to thoſe likewiſe who covenant with another in their occupation or trade by the year, without expecting any other profit than being paid a certain ſum for their wages.

By the ſtatute of the 22d of George II. after reciting an act made in the 1ſt of Anne, the preamble runs thus: That

That many perſons employed in the making of hats and felts, and in preparing and working up the manufacture of fur, hemp, flax, mohair, and ſilk, and alſo the manufactures made up of wool, fur, hemp, flax, mohair, cotton, or ſilk, or ſome of them mixed with one another, were of late guilty of divers frauds and abuſes, by purloining and embezzling the materials with which they had been entruſted. It was therefore enacted, That if any perſon hired, or employed to make up any felt or hat; or to prepare or make up any woollen, linen, fuſtian, cotton, iron, leather, fur, hemp, flax, mohair, or ſilk manufactures; or any manufactures made up of wool, fur, flax, cotton, mohair, or ſilk; or of any of the ſaid materials, mixed with one another; ſhould purloin, embezzle, or otherwiſe unlawfully diſpoſe of any of the materials with which he ſhould be entruſted, whether the ſame were or were not firſt wrought up; or ſhould reel falſe or ſhort yarn, and be convicted by the oath, or affirmation of a quaker, by the owner, or other credible witneſs, or by ſelf confeſſion, before any juſtice for the county or place, where the offence ſhould be committed, or the party reſide, the juſtice ſhould commit him to the houſe of correction, or other public priſon of the place, to be kept to hard labour for 14 days, and to be once publicly whipped; and, in caſe of a further conviction, upon a ſecond or other ſubſequent offence of the ſame kind, the juſtice ſhould commit him in like manner, for any time not exceeding three months, nor leſs than one month, to be kept to hard labour, and alſo to be publicly whipped twice, or oftener.

That if any perſon ſhould be convicted as aforeſaid, of buying, receiving, or taking by way of gift, pledge, ſale, or exchange, or in any other manner, from any other perſon whom he knows to be hired or employed to make or prepare any of the ſaid manufactures, any thrums, or ends of yarn, or any other materials of wool, furs, hemp, flax, cotton, iron, or any other leather, mohair, or ſilk, whether the ſame was or was not firſt wrought up, the conſent of the employer not being firſt had; or of buying or receiving, in any manner whatſoever, from any other perſons any of the ſaid materials, whether the ſame were or were not firſt wrought up, knowing them to be purloined or embezzled, he ſhould forfeit 20 l. for the firſt offence; and, on non-payment thereof immediately, the juſtice ſhould commit him to the houſe of correction, or other public priſon, as aforeſaid, to be kept to hard labour for 14 days, unleſs the forfeiture was ſooner paid; and if the ſame was not paid within two days before the expiration of the ſaid term, he ſhould be publicly whipped, once or oftener: and, in caſe of further conviction, upon a ſecond or other ſubſequent offence of the ſame kind, he ſhould forfeit 40 l. and, on non-payment thereof immediately, he ſhould be committed and kept to hard labour, for any time not exceeding three months, nor leſs than one month, unleſs the forfeiture was ſooner paid; and if the ſame ſhould not be paid within ſeven days before the expiration of the term of commitment, he ſhould be publicly whipped twice or oftener, as the juſtice ſhould order, and the ſaid forfeitures, after ſatisfaction was made thereof to the party injured, with coſts of proſecution, ſhould be equally diſtributed among the poor of the pariſh where the offender ſhould reſide.

That if any perſon ſhould be hired or employed to prepare or work up any of the manufactures before mentioned for any one maſter, and ſhould neglect or refuſe the performance thereof, by permitting himſelf to be frequently retained by any other perſon, before he ſhould have completed the work he was firſt hired to perform, and which was firſt delivered to him, being convicted thereof, he ſhould be ſent to the houſe of correction, and there kept to hard labour for any time not exceeding one month.

By the ſtatute of the 12th of George I. to prevent unlawful combinations of workmen employed in the woollen manufactures, and for the better payment of their wages, it was enacted, That all contracts or agreements, and all by-laws that are or ſhould be made, or entered into by any wool-comber, or weaver, or journeyman wool-comber, or journeyman weaver, in any place within the kingdom, for regulating the ſaid trade, or ſetting the prices of goods, or for advancing their wages, or for leſſening their uſual hours of work, was declared to be illegal, and void to all intents and purpoſes.

That if any perſon retained or employed as a woolcomber, weaver, or ſervant, in the ſaid art, ſhou'd depart from his ſervice before the end of the time for which he was hired, or ſhould quit or return his work before finiſhing the ſame according to agreement, unleſs upon ſome cauſe to be allowed by two juſtices, he ſhould be committed to the houſe of correction, to be kept to hard labour for any time not exceeding three months; and if any of the ſaid perſons ſhould be convicted of wilfully damnifying or deſtroying, without the conſent of the owner, any of the goods or work committed to his charge, or wherewith he or they ſhould be entruſted, he ſhould pay double the value thereof to the owner, to be levied by diſtreſs and ſale of his goods and chattels by warrant from two juſtices; and for want of ſufficient diſtreſs, ſhould be committed to the houſe of correction, to be kept to hard labour for any time not exceeding three months, or until ſatisfaction be made.

That every clothier, ſerge-maker, or woollen or worſted ſtuff-maker, or perſons concerned in making the ſaid manufactures, ſhould pay to all perſons employed by them in the woollen manufacture, the full wages, or other price agreed on, in lawful money of the kingdom, and not in goods, or by way of truck, or in any other manner than in money, nor ſhould make any deduction from ſuch wages, or price, on account of any goods ſold or delivered previous to ſuch an agreement by any perſon whatſoever; and, for the more eaſy recovery of ſuch wages or price, any two or more juſtices within their reſpective juriſdictions, upon complaint made, ſhould ſummon the offender, and for non-payment thereof in money, or ſufficient ſatisfaction given to the party grieved, they ſhould iſſue their warrant for levying the ſame by diſtreſs and ſale of the offender's goods and chattels, tendering the overplus to the owner; and for want of ſufficient diſtreſs, ſhould commit the party to the common goal, without bail or mainprize, for ſix months, or until ſuch ſatisfaction be made.

That if any perſons concerned in the woollen manufacture ſhould pay any perſons employed by them the wages, or price agreed on either in goods, or by way of truck, or in any other manner than in money, they ſhould forfeit 10 l. to the informer. And reciting, that whereas it was neceſſary, that the ſaid proviſions and regulations in the ſaid laſt in part recited act, ſhould be extended to journeymen dyers, journeymen hat-preſſers, and all other perſons employed in the woollen manufactures of the kingdom; and alſo to journeymen, ſervants, workmen and labourers, employed in the making of felts or hats, and in the manufactures of ſilk, cotton, mohair, fur, hemp, flax, linen, fuſtian, iron, and leather, or any manufactures made up of wool, fur, hemp, flax, cotton, mohair, or ſilk, or any of the ſaid materials mixed one with another; it was therefore enacted, That the ſaid ſeveral before recited clauſes in the ſaid act of the 12th of George I. and all the proviſions, pains, and penalties therein, ſhould extend to all perſons employed in or about any of the woollen manufactures of the kingdom; or the making of felts or hats, or in any of the manufactures of ſilk, mohair, fur, hemp, flax, linen, cotton, fuſtian, or leather, or in any manufactures made up of wool, fur, hemp, flax, cotton, mohair, or ſilk, or of any of the ſaid materials mixed one with another, in as full and ample manner as the ſame are declared to extend to the reſpective perſons therein named.

IPECACUANHA. A little wrinkled root, about the thickneſs of a moderate quill, brought from ſeveral parts of the Weſt Indies; of which there are four kinds, the brown, the black, the grey, and the white.

The grey is moſt eſteemed in phyſic; though the brown is moſt uſed, as being eaſieſt had: this latter is much twiſted, difficult to break, of a ſharp bitter taſte, and grows plentifully about Carthagena. The root of the grey ipecacuanha is longer than any of the other ſorts,

more violent in its operation. It comes from Peru by the way of Porto Bello, where the Spaniards call it bexugillo. The white ipecacuanha grows in Brazil and Martinico, which differs from the others, not only in colour, but alſo in figure, being leſs twiſted or rugged, and more reſembling the root of white dittany.

The ipecacuanha is purgative and aſtringent; it is alſo a gentle vomitive, and is found one of the beſt and ſureſt remedies hitherto diſcovered for a dyſentery. There are divers falſe ſpecies of ipecacuanha, or roots; which, on account of their external appearance, bear the denomination of ipecacuanha, and are ſometimes ſold for it. Dr. Douglas mentions two; the one white, reſembling the true white, only larger in ſize, ſtraighter, and ſofter to touch: the other brown, of a deeper colour than the true brown, and ſometimes mixed with red; whence it has alſo been called red ipecacuanha; both of which are produced in Maryland and Virginia, where they are uſed as vomitives by the lower ſort. But Sir Hans Sloane has diſcovered, that the latter is no other than the root of poiſonous apocynum, deſcribed by him in his natural hiſtory of Jamaica.

SWICH. A borough and port-town of Suffolk, ſituated in 1 deg. 16 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 12 min. of N. lat. on the river Orwel, 24 miles S. E. of Bury.

ELAND is an iſland of the Atlantic ocean, ſituated between 5 and 10 deg. of W. lon. and between 51 and 56 deg. of N. lat. It is ſeparated from part of England and Scotland by St. George's, or the Iriſh channel, on the eaſt; has the Scotch weſtern iſlands on the north and north-eaſt; the mouth of St. George's channel on the ſouth; and the Atlantic ocean on the weſt. It is divided into four large provinces, as Ulſter on the north, Leinſter on the eaſt, Munſter on the ſouth, and Connaught on the weſt; which are ſubdivided into 32 counties, and every county into baronies; being 250 miles long, and 150 broad; diſtant from Holy-head in North Wales 50 miles, and from Galloway in Scotland 15 miles.

It may be ſaid of the country in general, that it has as good paſture as any in Europe, and abundance of corn. Their cattle indeed are generally ſmall; but thoſe brought from England thrive exceedingly well. Here are a great many iron mines, quarries of ſtone, marble, ſlate, coal, and ſea-coal; but their principal fuel is turf, except in the towns near the ſea-coaſt, which are ſupplied with coal from England and Scotland.

Their chief commodities for exportation are linen cloth, cattle, hides, tallow, ſalt beef and pork, butter, cheeſe, honey, wax, ſalt, hemp, timber, pipe-ſtaves, woollen cloth, as coarſe rugs, ſhag mantles, freezes, ratteens, and camblets, with a variety of fiſh, and ſome lead.

Their importations from Great Britain are lead, pewter, ſea coal, hops, fine woollen cloth and hats, rich ſilks, ribbons, gold and ſilver lace, cutlery wares, tobacco, ſugar, and moſt of the plantation goods; as alſo muſlins, calicoes, China ware, tea, coffee, and other Eaſt India goods.

The inhabitants of Ireland are about two millions; but three parts in ſeven are Papiſts, whoſe religion is tolerated. The government is in the Lord Lieutenant, or Lord Deputies, and privy council: they have alſo a parliament; but their laws muſt be approved by the King of Great Britain in council, before they can be enacted; and an act of parliament in Great Britain will repeal or annul any of their laws. There is uſually a body of 12,000 men kept in pay on the Iriſh eſtabliſhment; but there is ſcarce any of the natives of that country among them, eſpecially in the infantry. But in this fruitful country the common people find ſuch difficulty to procure a livelihood, that many thouſands of them have transported themſelves of late years to the American plantations; and many of them enter as ſoldiers into the French ſervice, which has been often very prejudicial to Great Britain.

The province of Ulſter contains the counties of Donegal, Tyrconnel, Londonderry, Antrim, Tyrone, Fermanagh, Armagh, Down, Monaghan, and Cavan. The province of Leinſter contains the counties of Louth, Meath, Eaſtmeath, Weſtmeath, Dublin, Kildare, King's county, Queen's county, Wicklow, Catherlough, or Carlow, Wexford, and Kilkenny. The province of Munſter contains the counties of Waterford, Tipperary, Cork, Limerick, Kerry, and Clare. And the province of Connaught contains the counties of Galway, Roſcommon, Mayo, Sligo, and Antrim.

Dublin is the capital of the kingdom, lying in the province of Leinſter, in 6 deg. 25 min. of W. lon. and 53 deg. 16 min. of N. lat. at the mouth of the river Liffy, near the Iriſh channel, 60 miles weſt of Holyhead in Wales, and 270 miles N. W. of London. It is a large and populous city, pleaſantly ſituated, in view of the ſea on one ſide, and a fine country on the other. It contains between 2 and 300,000 inhabitants; has a noble cuſtom-houſe, a grand college or univerſity, the linen-hall for carrying on the linen-trade, but no exchange as in London or Briſtol; the merchants aſſembling in the Tholſel or Guildhall of the city for carrying on their commercial affairs, which of late years have been in a very increaſing condition; whereby the city is greatly increaſed, both in buildings, people, and manufactures.

The government of this city is in a lord mayor, 2 ſheriffs, 24 aldermen, and 112 common council men. The lord mayor and ſheriffs are elected by the aldermen alone; who fill up likewiſe all vacancies in their board by elections among themſelves, excluſively of the commons and citizens. The commons of the city are thoſe who have ſerved the office of ſheriff, and 96 perſons elected by the aldermen, from a double return made to them from the 25 ſubordinate corporations of the city.

The lord mayor and aldermen have the election of treaſurer in themſelves alone; thoſe of recorder and other officers, in the city; and the diſpoſal and management of the city-revenues in them, conjunctly with the ſheriffs and commons, who are all of them in reality elected by the aldermen.

The juſtices of the peace are the lord mayor, recorder, and ſuch of the aldermen who have ſerved the office of lord mayor, or who after their election have been excuſed that office; of the former there are now eight, and of the latter no leſs than ſeven.

The firſt charter to this city was granted to people who were free, and who knew the value of liberty—to the citizens of Briſtol, who were encouraged to ſettle here by the grant of a free and popular government, in which every freeman had a ſhare; in which a perfect equality was preſerved; in which there was no raſh pre-eminence or power, but what was owing to the appointment of the citizens, who were the electors of all their magiſtrates, and who, without any common council, made by-laws, and tranſacted every other buſineſs of government.

The freemen of Dublin, in number about 3000, who are not of the common council, are allowed no voice or controul in the general aſſemblies of the city, no votes in the election of their magiſtrates, no abſolute choice of their repreſentatives in common council, no one right or privilege diſtinct from thoſe of the inhabitants of the city, who are not admitted in franchiſes.

The lord mayor, and ſeveral companies of tradeſmen, every three years, make a very magnificent appearance, all richly habited on horſeback, which is vulgarly called the fringes: but it is properly the franchiſes, the liberties of the city being at this time ſurveyed; when a man rides into the water at low water mark, and throws an arrow as far as he is able into the ſea; ſo far being within the juriſdiction of the city; and the lord mayor may cauſe any ſhip to be arreſted within that diſtance.

Cork is the capital of the province of Munſter; ſituated on the river Lee, 126 miles S. W. of Dublin, and 50 miles S. of Limerick; being the next principal port in the kingdom to Dublin; lying in 8 deg. 25 min. of W. lon. and 51 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. It is large and populous; much frequented by foreign ſhipping, where they are victualled with ſalt beef, pork, and biſcuit.

Waterford is alſo a city and port in the province of Munſter, ſituated on the river Sure, 8 miles N. of the ſea, and 25 miles S. of Kilkenny, in 7 deg. of W. lon. and 52 deg. 12 min. of N. lat.

Wexford is a large ſea-port of Leinſter, ſituated on a bay of the Iriſh channel, at the mouth of the river Slaney, 65 miles S. of Dublin, in 6 deg. 25 min. of W. lon. and 52 deg. 15 min. of N. lat.

Limerick is a large city, and the capital of Munſter, ſituated on the river Shannon, in 8 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 52 deg. 35 min. of N. lat. 52 miles N. of Cork, and 100 S. W. of Dublin.

Kinſale is an excellent harbour, and a town of good trade; lying in the county of Cork, on the river Bandon, 14 miles S. of the city of Cork.

Dundalk is a port-town, in the county of Lowth, and province of Leinſter; ſituated on a bay of the Iriſh ſea, to which it gives its name, 18 miles N. of Drogheda, in 6 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 54 deg. 5 min. of N. lat.

Drogheda is alſo a port-town in the county of Lowth, ſituated on the river Boyne, 5 miles N. W. of the Iriſh channel, and 23 N. of Dublin.

Colerain is a place of great trade in linen, being in the county of Londonderry, and province of Ulſter; ſituated on the river Ban, in 7 deg. of W. lon. and 55 deg. 10 min. of N. lat. 5 miles S. of the ſea, and 25 miles N. E. of Londonderry.

Londonderry is the capital of Ulſter, ſituated in 7 deg. 40 min. of W. lon. and 54 deg. 52 min. of N. lat. on the river Mourn, near its mouth, 5 miles S. of the lake of Loughfoyle, 104 miles N. W. of Dublin, and 50 miles W. of *Carrickfergus*, which lies on a bay of the Iriſh channel of the ſame name, 14 miles E. of Antrim, and 85 N. of Dublin.

Carlingford is a port-town, remarkable for its fine oyſters; ſituated on a bay of the ſame name, in the county of Lowth, 22 miles N. of Drogheda: and the principal town of Connaught is *Galway*.

Theſe are the moſt conſiderable ſea-ports; but there are many others, as well as ſome inland places of trade; as, in Ulſter, there are the towns of Donnegal, Balyſhannon, Raphore, Antrim, Carrickfergus, Belfaſt, Liſburne, Clogher, Dungannon, Altmore, Inniſkilling, Armagh, Downpatrick, Newry, Drummore, Garret-Evelyn, Monaghan, Cavan, and Kilmore. In Leinſter are the towns of Atherdee, Longford, Laneſborough, Granard, Ardagh, Navan, Athboy, Trim, Dulek, Athlone, Mullingar, Ratoagh, Newcaſtle, Bray, Kildare, Naas, Athy, Philip's-town or Kingſton, Maryborough, Oſſory, Wicklow, Carlow, Laughlin, Tulla, Enneſcorthy, Roſs, Kilkenny, and Gowran. In Munſter are Tipperary, Caſhel, Clonmel, Carrick, Thurles, Tuam, Cloyne, Bandon, Mallow, Bantry, Roſs, Baltimore, Clear Cape, Kilmallock, Aſkeaton, Charleville, Kerry, Aghadeo, Tralley, Ardfort, Clare, and Killaloe. And in Connaught are Aghrim, Clonfert, Athenree, Loughrea, Roſcommon, Elphin, Abbybeyle, Caſtlebar, Sligo, Killony, Belclare, Ballaghy, Letrim, and Carrickdrumras.

The country is well watered by the Shannon, Boyne, Liffy, Lee, Blackwater, Sure, Barrow, Slaney, Mourne, Ban, Newrywater, and ſome other rivers.

The chief lakes are Lough-hearn, in Fermanagh, 30 miles long, and 10 broad: Lough-neagh, lying between Antrim and Tyrone, 20 miles long, and 10 broad: and Lough-foyle, near Londonderry, which has a communication with the ſea: beſides, the natives have much improved their inland navigation, by cutting navigable canals; nor is there any country that abounds more in ſpacious bays and commodious harbours.

It has been obſerved by ſome, that Ireland is treated by the Engliſh as a conquered country, in nothing more than in matters of trade; and that they are in a manner compelled to ſuppreſs and prohibit the exportation of the Iriſh manufactures, to prevent the ruin of their own.

It is certain, that the Iriſh have not only wool and fullers earth in as great perfection as the Engliſh, but have abundantly the advantage of them in the manufacturing it. Their ſituation alſo for an extended trade is more advantageous than that of any other nation in Europe, their harbours being many and commodious. Their inhabitants likewiſe are numerous and hardy, inured to want and labour, eaſy to feed, and able upon poor fare to run through a great deal of work. All the neceſſaries of life in that country are at lower prices than they are in any other on this ſide the globe; the people are incumbered with very few taxes, and their labour is cheaper than that of any of their neighbours. Theſe circumſtances conſidered, may perhaps in ſome meaſure juſtify the Engliſh for preventing the Iriſh from running into the Britiſh manufactures: but, to make them ſome compenſation, they are admitted, not only to bring their wool to England, but alſo to manufacture it in part, that is, to ſpin it; and very great quantities of their yarn are ſpun and imported into Great Britain in a year; an act of parliament being lately paſſed to open the port of Great Yarmouth for the importation of wool and woollen yarn from Ireland, the motive to which is ſignified in the preamble, to be of great utility and advantage to the woollen manufacturers in England, by rendering the conveyance of theſe materials to the ſeveral towns and places where the ſaid manufactures are carried on, more cheap, eaſy and expeditious.

The Iriſh, on the other hand, who think the reſtrictions in regard to the woollen manufacture a hardſhip upon them, have long clandeſtinely exported their wrought wool to France; which perhaps has proved more prejudicial to England, than if they had been permitted to manufacture it at home. But, conſidering theſe reſtraints, it is no wonder the trade of Ireland is contracted, compared to what it would have been otherwiſe. The common trade of Ireland, therefore, excepting the article of linens, is to be conſidered as almoſt confined to the proviſions which are the produce of their lands; of which, they have extraordinary plenty, ſo have they a very great and profitable trade for them. They trade conſiderably to Flanders and the Low Countries, eſpecially for butter; of which the Flemings buy vaſt quantities, as well as tallow and leather; inſomuch that the Iriſh ſend many ſhips at a time to Oſtend laden wholly with butter. They have a conſiderable trade with France alſo for their barrelled beef, with which the French victual their men of war, and ſuch of their merchant-ſhips alſo that are bound for long voyages, beſides the returns they make from thence for their wool.

As for their herrings, of which they catch great quantities on the coaſt from Belfaſt to Londonderry, they chuſe to ſend them to Spain and Portugal. With regard to their linen manufacture, which is ſo exceedingly increaſed of late years, they, as well as the Scotch, ſend vaſt quantities to the Britiſh colonies, and import it into England duty free.

The Iriſh alſo build very good ſhips; and many English merchants chuſe to build there, their oak being very good and plentiful.

They have all their coals, except a few in Kilkenny, which is far within land, from England; alſo all their copper, block-tin, and lead, from Lancaſhire, Cornwall, Devonſhire, and Yorkſhire.

They import their hops, and the greateſt part of their Weſt India commodities, with all the bulk of their mercery, grocery, and haberdaſhery wares, alſo from England.

From hence it appears, that the Engliſh are conſiderable gainers even in theſe few branches of trade: but when they demonſtrate that the politeneſs, the gaiety, and power of the Britiſh court, allure all thoſe that are ſtudious, either of improvement, pleaſure, or preferment, and drain from thence the penny rents of moſt of the eſtates of that kingdom; and when it is conſidered that every increaſe of their wealth, will greatly enlarge the inlet of their money, and increaſe the Engliſh drafts upon them, it muſt be acknowledged, that theſe circumſtances, together with the reſtriction on the exportation of their wool, and the other advantages which England already has of them in trade, will cauſe all or moſt part of their acquiſitions, on the general balance, to center in England.

To evince this truth, they annually ſend to England

preſent,	*L.* 10
For coals	9
For corn	
For broad cloths, Eaſt India goods, and mercery wares, hops, toys, and ſuch like	25

England has much of their wool raw and unmanufactured; which, as appeared by the regiſter thereof at the cuſtom-houſe for the year ending 1723, amounted to, yarn included, 271,291 ſtone; which becauſe of the monopoly, the Engliſh buy in Ireland at 6 s. *per* ſtone, in all 81,382 l. firſt coſt. This, by the art and labour of Engliſhmen, is converted into cloths, kerſies, ſtuffs, and other manufactures; and, by a reaſonable conjecture, is a means of ſaving, or gaining annually, over and above the firſt coſt - 750,000

By the expence of Iriſh outliers in England 600,000

So that the Engliſh are gainers or ſavers by this trade with Ireland *per annum* - 1,780,000

Now, if the gain of England, on the general ballance of her trade with all the world, is no more than 2,000,000 l. yearly, according to the ingenious Dr. Davenant, and others; how would the Engliſh have been able to ſupport themſelves with matter for ſuch an exceſs of luxury and profuſion, as has been lately known, and at the ſame time have maintained ſuch long and expenſive wars, had not the wealth they received annually from Ireland fed them with money?

Since then every addition to the wealth of the inhabitants of Ireland, will, as is urged by her advocates, enlarge the remittances of their money to England; ſince every acquiſition which they make by trade is at laſt to center among the Engliſh; and ſince it is evident, without employing them, it is impoſſible for the Engliſh to recover the trade they have loſt, what ſhould hinder them from making a proper uſe of the Iriſh, from ſetting them up as inſtruments to increaſe the Britiſh wealth, and to prevent the riſe of any others, to whom the trade of the univerſe might prove a fatal acceſſion of power, much to be dreaded by the reſt of Europe?

But how far the Iriſh manage their own trade at preſent, is to be ſeen in the following

Abſtract of the exportations and importations of Ireland for the year ending the 25th of March 1725, *eſtimated at a medium of the ſelling price for that year.*

By and from	Exports. *L.*	Imports. *L.*
South Britain, Wales, Guernſey, and Jerſey -	476,652	441,799
North Britain, and the Iſle of Man - -	21,250	31,003
Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Hamburg -	4,249	74,300
Holland and Flanders -	52,618	70,048
France - -	214,422	141,650
Spain and the Canaries, Portugal, Genoa, and Leghorn	149,984	60,959
Plantations -	96,825	
Total *L.*	1,053,782	819,761

Having thus conciſely run through the chief branches of trade in Ireland, and ſet forth the greivances complained of by the Iriſh, it may be proper to mention a propoſal which has been made for incorporating Great Britain and Ireland together; to make one kingdom in all reſpects, as to parliament, trade, and taxes.

This propoſal of incorporation has long been the wiſh of many perſons of both kingdoms: and it is ſaid, that inexpreſſibly great would be the benefit on both ſides. The Iriſh would ſhare in the advantage of the Britiſh trade, and the Engliſh in theirs. By permitting them to get rich at the expence of the French, they would be enabled to eaſe the Engliſh of the worſt and heavieſt of their taxes; whereas at preſent the French, by the unaccountable infatuation of the Engliſh, get rich at their expence. By this mutual benefit, neither kingdom would be looked upon as foreign to the other; but the goods of both would be imported duty free, or perhaps be conſidered only as coming coaſtwiſe. The hoſtile prohibition againſt wearing or uſing the produce of either kingdom, would be repealed; and all that unnatural war between the commerce of the two nations would be at an end; which would be attended with theſe further happy conſequences, that many of the neceſſaries of life would be imported cheaper into England, than they now can be purchaſed; which would be a great advantage to the merchant and manufacturer: and many more of the luxuries, ornaments, and delicacies of life, would be exported from England into Ireland: for moſt certain it is, that, in proportion as Ireland grew rich, the natives would take the richeſt of their cloaths, furniture, plate, jewels, equipage, aud the like, from England. The inducements, likewiſe, of being near the parliament, the court, and the public funds, would bring many more Iriſh families to reſide and ſpend their fortunes in England than at preſent. In ſhort, whatever wealth Ireland would draw from other countries, by its produce, manufactures, and happy ſituation, would all center in England.

By ſeveral ſtatutes, hemp or flax, and all the productions thereof, as thread, yarn, and linen, of the growth and manufacture of Ireland, may be imported by Britiſh or Iriſh directly into Great Britain, free of all duties, upon certificate of the officers of the port where ſhipped, expreſſing the marks, number, tale, or weight of the ſpecies in each bale or parcel mentioned in the bill of lading, with the name and place of abode of the exporter from Ireland, and of the perſon who ſhall have ſworn the goods are the manufacture of Ireland, and where and to whom in England conſigned; and oath of the maſter, that the goods are the ſame mentioned in ſuch certificate.

But, by the 5th of George I. wrought ſilks, ſtuffs, &c. muſlins and callicoes of the manufacture of Eaſt India, China, or Perſia, may not be imported into Ireland, but from Great Britain; upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, with the ſhip, and furniture.

By the 6th of George II. no ſugars, paneles, ſyrups, or molaſſes, of the product of any of the plantations in America, nor any rum or ſpirits of America, except of the growth and manufacture of his Majeſty's colonies there, may be imported into Ireland, unleſs ſhipped in Great Britain in ſhips legally navigated, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, together with the ſhip and all her furniture.

Any perſon aſſiſting in the unlawful landing, or receiving any of the aforeſaid goods ſo landed, are to forfeit treble their value; and for obſtructing officers 50 l. and to ſuffer three months impriſonment.

Maſters of ſhips, being his Majeſty's ſubjects, receiving any of the aforeſaid goods on board, in order to land the ſame, contrary to the true intent of this act, are to forfeit 100 l.

It is certainly neceſſary for Great Britain to maintain a friendly correſpondence with Ireland; and nothing is more likely to anſwer this end, than the encouraging the linen manufacture there, which it is highly the intereſt of the Britiſh people to promote, and of the Iriſh people to ſet upon; being for the moſt part of another nature than what is made either in North or South Britain; for, beſides the employment it will give to the poor, large tracts of land will be taken up for raiſing hemp and flax, both which thrive well in many parts of that kingdom. On the other hand, the low labour of Ireland being employed on that manufacture, it will no way prejudice that of Great Britain, but make the Iriſh better able to trade with the Engliſh, for ſuch things wherewith they are ſupplied by the latter; it being undoubtedly the intereſt of Great Britain, that all thoſe nations ſhe trades with ſhould grow rich, by any methods that do not make her poor; and more eſpecially Ireland, whoſe profits are generally ſpent in England.

After the fear that the value of the Britiſh lands would be leſſened by the improvement of Ireland, had produced a deſtructive prohibition of Iriſh cattle; the people of that country being neceſſitated to find out ſome other employment for their lands, turned their thoughts to the breeding of ſheep, and raiſing a growth of wool. No ſooner was this effected, but a prohibition enſued on the part of Great Britain, to export the manufactures made of that wool. This prohibition on the Iriſh tended greatly to

ruin the woollen trade of Britain, and raiſe that of France; for unleſs the Iriſh are ſuffered to export woollen goods, they muſt ſell their raw wool to the beſt bidder, and that is France; one pack of Iriſh wool working up two packs or more of French wool; which is double the damage to Great Britain, that the opening the exports from Ireland would be. France, by leſſening her taxes in time of peace, enabling thereby her people to work cheap, could afford to give large prices for Iriſh wool, and become the chief market for it; having thereby raiſed for exportation an immenſe cheap ſaleable manufacture, which their own wool was not capable of doing. As this increaſed, that of Great Britain declined: and though the caſe is ſo at preſent; yet ſtill this fear, or rather infatuation, about the value of the lands in Great Britain, makes the Britiſh government perſiſt in a prohibition, that not only hurts the Iriſh, and ruins the Britiſh ſubjects, but enriches the French: for, as the caſe now ſtands, either Ireland or France muſt have the woollen manufacture; Britain, by reaſon of its heavy taxes, and monopolies, that make labour dear, being inferior to both. The Iriſh export clandeſtinely ſome camblets to Liſbon, and underſel the French; therefore the Iriſh can recover the woollen trade out of their hands. And ſhall Great Britain compliment the French with a trade that ſhe denies her own ſubjects? Nay, moſt of what Ireland gets centers at laſt in England; and ſhall the Engliſh refuſe ſuch a ſum which the Iriſh would ſnatch from their enemies, and preſent to Great Britain?

IRIS. A very common plant, well known in England, France, Italy, Portugal, and other countries; having its name from the colour of its flower, which imitates in ſome reſpect the iris, or rainbow; but that of Florence is in moſt eſtimation.

The root of this plant is uſed by perfumers for making the powder of iris; by dyers, for giving their cloths and ſtuffs a good ſmell; by confectioners, for confects; by bleachers, for making their lixiviums odoriferous; by phyſicians, who preſcribe it in ſome remedies; by ſurgeons and apothecaries, who apply it as an ingredient in ſome unguents; and laſtly, by perſons for making their breath ſweet and agreeable; but, beſides the various uſes of the root, a green colour is extracted from its blue flowers, which ſerves for painting in miniature.

IRON. A hard, fuſible, and malleable metal; of great uſe in the affairs of life; conſiſting of an earth, ſalt, and ſulphur, but all impure, ill mixed, and digeſted, which renders it extremely liable to ruſt. It is the hardeſt, drieſt, and moſt difficult to melt of all metals; but it is ſoftened by heating it often in the fire, hammering it, and letting it cool of itſelf; and it is hardened by extinguiſhing it in water. See *Hardening*.

It may be rendered white, by cooling it in ſal armoniac and quicklime; but the ſtrongeſt temper of iron is ſaid to be that which it takes in the juice of ſtrained worms. See *Tempering*.

Iron has a great conformity with copper; and the two are not eaſily ſeparated, when ſoldered together; whence ariſes that uncommon friendſhip, which poets feign between Mars and Venus. See *Copper*, and *Vitriol*.

It has likewiſe ſo great a conformity with the loadſtone, that Rohault ſays it is itſelf an imperfect one; as alſo, that if it be a long time expoſed in a certain ſituation, it becomes a real loadſtone, and mentions the iron in the ſteeple of Notre Dame at Chartres as an inſtance. See *Magnet*.

There are ſeveral kinds of iron, which have properties very different from one another; as, Engliſh iron, which is coarſe, hard, and brittle, fit for fire bars, and ſuch uſes: Swediſh iron, which is a fine tough ſort, will beſt endure the hammer, is ſofteſt to file, and in all reſpects the beſt to work upon: Spaniſh iron, which would be as good as the Swediſh, were it not ſubject to red-ſear; that is, to crack betwixt hot and cold: German iron, commonly called in England Dort ſquare, becauſe brought thither from Dort, and is wrought into bars of three quarters of an inch ſquare; being a coarſe iron, and only fit for ordinary uſes.

There is another ſort uſed for making of wire, which is the ſofteſt and tougheſt of all, and not peculiar to any country; but indifferently made where-ever iron is found, though of the worſt ſort; for it is the firſt iron that runs from the mine ſtone, when it is melting, and is reſerved purely for the making of wire. See *Wire*.

Generally ſpeaking, the beſt iron is that which is ſofteſt and tougheſt, and, when it breaks, is of an even greyiſh colour, without any of thoſe glittering ſpecks, or any flaws or diviſions like thoſe ſeen in broken antimony.

There are a great number of iron works in moſt parts of England; but thoſe in the foreſt of Dean, in Glouceſterſhire, are in the moſt repute; where the ore is found in abundance, differing much in colour, weight, and goodneſs.

The beſt, called bruſh ore, is of a bluiſh colour, very ponderous, and full of little ſhining ſpecks, like grains of ſilver; affording the greateſt quantity of iron; but being melted alone, produces a metal very ſhort and brittle, and therefore not fit for common uſe. For the remedying whereof, the workmen make uſe of another ſort of material, termed cynder, which is nothing but the refuſe of the ore, after the metal has been extracted; and which being mingled with the other, in a due quantity, gives it that excellent temper or toughneſs, which cauſes this iron to be preferred to any brought from foreign parts.

When the furnaces are once at work, they keep them conſtantly employed for many months together, never ſuffering the fire to ſlacken night or day, but ſtill ſupplying the waſting of the fuel, and other materials, with freſh poured in at the top: charcoal is uſed altogether in this work, as ſea-coal will ſcarcely do.

From theſe furnaces the workmen bring their ſows and pigs of iron, as they call them, to their forges, where it is wrought into bars.

A very conſiderable trade in iron is carried on at Amſterdam, particularly of Swediſh, Spaniſh, and Liege iron.

The 100 lb. of Swediſh iron in large or ordinary bars, is uſually ſold for about 12 s. ſterling.

The 100 lb. of Spaniſh iron, for about 12 s. 3 d. ſterling.

The 100 lb. of Liege in rods, for about 11 s. 6 d. ſterling. See *Sweden*.

By the ſtatutes of the 28th Edward III. and 5th and 6th Will. III. iron made in Great Britain, except of Britiſh ore, or brought into Great Britain and there ſold, is not to be exported, upon forfeiture of double the value to the King.

By an act paſſed in the 12th year of Charles II. armour, bandeliers, bridle-bits, halbert-heads, and ſharps, holſters, muſkets, carbines, fowling-pieces, piſtols, pike-heads, ſword or rapier blades, ſaddles, ſnaffles, and ſtirrups, may be exported by any perſons.

By the ſtatute of the 23d of George II. reciting, That as the importation of bar iron from his Majeſty's colonies into the port of London, and the importation of pig iron from the ſaid colonies into any part of Great Britain, and the manufacture of ſuch bar and pig iron in Great Britain would be a great advantage, not only to the ſaid colonies; but alſo to the kingdom, by furniſhing the manufacturers of iron with a ſupply of that uſeful and neceſſary commodity, and by means thereof large ſums of money then annually paid for iron to foreigners would be ſaved to the kingdom, and a greater quantity of the woollen and other manufactures would be exported to America in exchange for iron: it was therefore enacted, That the duties then payable on pig iron, made in and imported from his Majeſty's colonies in America, into any port of Great Britain, ſhould ceaſe; and that no duty ſhould be payable upon bar iron made in and imported from the ſaid colonies into the port of London.

That no ſuch bar iron ſo imported into the port of London ſhould afterwards be exported, or be carried coaſtwiſe, to be landed at any other place in Great Britain, except for the uſe of his Majeſty's dock-yards, upon pain that the ſame, and the veſſel, ſhould be liable to ſeizure and ſeizure, as prohibited and uncuſtomed goods clandeſtinely exported or imported, or the veſſel in which the ſame ſhould be exported or imported,

then liable to by law; and alſo upon pain that the exporter, and maſter and mariners of the veſſel, ſhould be ſubject to the like penalties and puniſhments as the maſter or mariners of the veſſels laden with prohibited and uncuſtomed goods, or goods clandeſtinely exported or imported, were then liable by law; and that no officer of the cuſtoms ſhould grant any coquet, for exporting or carrying coaſtwiſe any ſuch bar iron ſo exported, except for the uſe of his Majeſty's dock-yards, upon pain of forfeiting 200 l.

That no ſuch bar or pig iron ſhould be imported duty free as aforeſaid, unleſs the ſame ſhould be ſtamped with ſome mark denoting the colony or the place where the ſame were made, and unleſs the importer ſhould produce ſuch certificate to the chief officer of the cuſtoms at the port where the ſame ſhould be imported, and unleſs oath be made by the maſter of the veſſel, before ſuch officer, which he is to adminiſter without fee, that the ſaid iron is the ſame mentioned in the certificate.

That no mill or other engine for ſetting or rolling of iron, or any plateing forge to work with a filt-hammer, or any furnace for making ſteel, ſhould be erected or continued, in any of his Majeſty's colonies in America, upon pain that every perſon offending therein ſhould, for every ſuch mill, forge, or furnace, forfeit 100 l.

ON is alſo the name of an Arabian meaſure for ſilks, being 3 4ths of an Engliſh yard.

the refining of IRON, ſee *Refining*.

the converſion of IRON *into ſteel*, ſee *Steel*.

arping IRON, ſee *Harping*.

ON *moulds*. Yellow lumps of earth, or ſtone, found in chalk-pits, about the Chiltern-hills in Oxfordſhire; being in reality a kind of indigeſted iron ore.

ON *ſick*, is applied to a ſhip or boat, when her bolts, nails, or ſpikes, are ſo eaten with ruſt, that they make hollows in the plants, whereby the ſhip leaks.

ONMONGER. A perſon who deals in various ſorts of iron wares, as alſo in moſt ſorts of braſs work, for houſhold furniture, and other uſes.

ONMONGERS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 3d of Edward IV. in 1464, by the appellation of The maſter and keepers, or wardens and commonalty, of the art or myſtery of ironmongers in London; conſiſting of a maſter, two wardens, and the whole livery are aſſiſtants, which contains 84, whoſe fine is 15 l. They have an elegant hall in Fenchurch-ſtreet, where they tranſact their buſineſs, with a great eſtate; out of which, according to the directions of ſeveral donors, is annually paid to charitable uſes, about 800 l.

Beſides this great charity, Mr. Thomas Betton, a Turky merchant, by will, in the year 1724, deviſed to the company in truſt about 26,000 l. one moiety of the profits thereof to be perpetually employed in the redemption of Britiſh captives from Mooriſh ſlavery; and the other half to be equally diſtributed between the poor of the company, and the ſeveral charity-ſchools, within the city and liberties thereof.

QUOIS, or the five Indian nations in North America, who are in alliance with the Engliſh. Their country is bounded by Canada on the north, by the Engliſh plantations of New York and Penſilvania on the eaſt and ſouth, and by the lake Ontario or Frontenac on the weſt; where they have long ſerved as a barrier to the northern Britiſh colonies againſt the French, and their Indians of Canada: but it is ſaid the French have lately prevailed on the Mohawks, one of the five nations, to revert their ancient allies the Engliſh. See *Indian* America.

S. A great river, which runs from ſouth to north through Ruſſia, falls into the river Oby, and makes part of the boundary between Aſia and Europe.

N. A port-town of Scotland, in the bailiery of Cunningham, ſituated in 4 deg. 40 min. of W. lon. and 55 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. at the mouth of the river Irvine, on the frith of Clyde, 15 miles E. of the iſle of Arran, and 63 miles weſt of Edinburgh.

LLE. A colour partaking of white and yellow, or rather a well ſcoured yellow; of which there are different kinds, as the pale, clear, golden, and dark iſabelle.

ISING *Glaſs*. See *Ichthyocolla*.

ISLAND, or *Iſle*. A tract of dry land, encompaſſed with water, either with the ſea, a river, or lake: in which ſenſe iſland ſtands contradiſtinguiſhed from continent, or terra firma. See *Continent*.

Some conclude from Gen. x. 5. and from Eccl. xxiii. that iſlands are as ancient as the world; and that there were ſome at the beginning. Whatever becomes of the proof, it is by no means probable, that the large iſlands, far remote from the continent, are new; or that they either aroſe out of the ſea, or were torn from the main land. Nor is it leſs certain, that there have been new iſlands formed, by the caſting up of vaſt heaps of clay, mud, and ſand; as that, for inſtance, of Tſongming, in the province of Nanquin in China; or by the violence of the ſea, which has torn off large provinces from the continent, as the ancients imagined Sicily, and even Great Britain, to have been formed. It is alſo certain, that ſome have emerged above the waves, as Santorini formerly, in the Levant, and three other iſles near it lately; the laſt in 1707, which roſe from the bottom of the ſea after an earthquake, that was ſuppoſed to have looſened it from its hold.

Several naturaliſts are of opinion, that iſlands were formed at the deluge; others think they have been rent and ſeparated from the continent by violent ſtorms, inundations, and earthquakes. Theſe laſt have obſerved, that the Eaſt Indies, which abound in iſlands more than any other part of the world, are likewiſe more annoyed with earthquakes, tempeſts, lightening, and volcanos, than any other part. Varenius thinks moſt of theſe opinions true, in ſome inſtances, and believes that there have been iſlands produced each of theſe ways. St. Helena, Aſcention, and other ſteep rocky iſlands, he ſuppoſes to have become ſo, by the ſea's overflowing their neighbouring champaigns. By the heaping up large quantities of ſand, and other terreſtrial matters, he thinks the iſlands of Zealand, Japan, and others, were formed. Sumatra and Ceylon, and moſt of the Eaſt Indian iſlands, he rather thinks were rent off from the main land; and concludes, that the iſlands of the Archipelago were formed in the ſame way, imagining it probable that Deucalion's flood might contribute towards it.

ISLE *de Dieu*. An iſland in the bay of Biſcay, on the coaſt of France, ſituated in 2 deg. 5 min. of W. lon. and 40 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. 14 miles W. of the coaſt of Poitou.

ISLE *of France*, is an iſland in the Indian ocean, ſituated in 56 deg. of E. lon. and 20 deg. of S. lat. 400 miles E. of Madagaſcar, and about 60 miles from the iſle of Bourbon; formerly ſubject to the Portugueſe, who called it Il ha do cerno: it was afterwards in poſſeſſion of the Dutch, who called it Mauritius; but it is now ſubject to the French, who gave it the name of the Iſle of France. See *Madagaſcar*.

The Portugueſe never had an eſtabliſhment in this iſland. The Dutch had only a ſmall fort for the ſafety of thoſe they ſent to cut wood; but the French have eſtabliſhed a ſtaple there for the conveniency of their India company.

This iſland is about 45 miles in circumference; the ſoil is very good and fertile, producing equally Indian and European fruits. Its air is alſo very wholſome, and fit for refreſhing fatigued ſeamen; but the principal utility, for which it was made choice of by the French company, conſiſts in its two ports.

ISOLA. A port-town of Italy, in the Hither Calabria, ſituated on the Mediterranean, in 18 deg. of E. lon. and 39 deg. of N. lat. 15 miles S. of St. Severino.

ISPAHAN, or *Iſpahan*. The capital city of Perſia, ſituated in 50 deg. of E. lon. and 32 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. See *Perſia*.

ISSEL. A river of the united Netherlands, which, riſing in Weſtphalia, runs north by Doeſburg, and afterwards by Zutphen and Deventer, dividing Gelderland from the provinces of Overyſſel and Zutphen; and diſcharging itſelf into the Zuider ſea, near Campen.

ISTHMUS. A narrow neck of land, which ſeparates two ſeas, and joins a peninſula to ſome other country; as the

isthmus of Suez, which joins Africa to Asia; and the isthmus of Darien, which joins North and South America.

ITALY, according to common observation, resembles a boot, or leg with part of the thigh; and extends in length from the N. W. to the S. E. that is, from the foot of Mount St. Bernard, a mountain of the Alps, to the city of Oranto, 600 miles in a direct line. The breadth is very unequal; for measuring the boot-top under the Alps, it is at least 400 miles, in the calf of the leg about 120, and towards the instep about 80 in breadth; extending from 38 deg. 20 min. to 47 deg. of N. lat. and from the 7th to the 19th deg. of E. lon. It is bounded by the Alps, which separate it from France, Switzerland, and Germany, towards the north and north-west; by the gulph of Venice, or the Adriatic sea, and the country of Trent, towards the east; by the Ionian sea, and streight of Messina, towards the south; and the Tuscan sea, towards the west.

The seas which encompass Italy on three sides, are the Adriatic, the Ionian, and the Tuscan. There are also abundance of fine lakes, as Major, Lugano, Como, Isco, and Garda in the duchy of Milan; Trasimene, Perugia, Vulsin, and Bracciano in Tuscany; and Fucin Fundi, Castello-Gandolpho, and Calano in the Campania of Rome. Besides, there are a multitude of lesser streams; which having their source in the Appenines, fall either into the Tuscan or Adriatic seas; the principal rivers being the Tiber, Po, Arno, Mincio, Adda, Adige, and Volturno.

Italy may be considered under three grand divisions. Upper Italy, containing the principality of Piedmont; to which may be added Savoy, though on this side the Alps; the duchy of Montferat, the territories of Genoa, duchies of Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, and the territories of Venice. Middle Italy, containing the dominions of the Pope, and the Great Duke of Tuscany; in which may be comprehended the territories of Lucca. The Lower, or Southern part of Italy, consisting of the kingdom of Naples.

1. *The countries subject to the King of Sardinia.*

Savoy is bounded by the lake, and territories of Geneva, towards the north; by Piedmont, from which it is separated by the Alps towards the east and south; and by Dauphine, and Lionois in France, towards the west. Its provinces are seven; the duchy of Savoy properly so called, the county of Geneva, the duchy of Chablais, the barony of Fossigny, the county of Taraintaise, the county of Maurienne, and the duchy of Aouste; the capital city being Chamberry, situated in 5 deg. 45 min. of E. lon. and 45 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. 90 miles north-west of Turin, and 45 south of Geneva.

The common people of this country are exceeding poor; which does not proceed so much from the barrenness of the country, being more fruitful in many parts than Switzerland; but from the despotic power of the prince and great lords, whose vassals the peasants are, being not allowed a subsistence out of the lands they manure. So great is the scarcity of corn in several villages, that travellers relate, it is a rarity to meet with a piece of bread, and that they have been forced to content themselves with a glass of wine, and a few chesnuts, the usual food of the natives, at their inns upon the great road. Their poverty therefore obliges many of the natives to go abroad; so that Savoyard chimney sweepers, pedlars, and raree-showmen, are seen in every part of Europe. The country however produces wine, and some corn, apples, pears, and other fruits. They have also large herds of black cattle, goats, hogs, venison, and wild fowl in the woods and mountains; as also plenty of fish in their lakes and rivers. There are also large woods of fir-trees, which afford masts, pitch, and tar for shipping; they have some oak timber; besides marble, stone quarries, and coal-pits; likewise in several places mineral waters, and hot baths; of which those at Aix are most resorted to. They have also several salt pits, and fountains, which furnish them with good white salt. In Fossigny there are allum mines, and the valley of Aouste affords a good sand for making crystal glasses.

The principality of *Piedmont* extends 100 miles in length from north to south, and about 70 miles in breadth from east to west; being generally computed to be 300 miles and upwards in circumference. It may be divided into eight parts or provinces; as Piedmont Proper, the marquisate of Saluzzo, the county of Asti, the lordship of Verceil, the principality of Masserano, the marquisate of Ivrea, and the vallies of the Vaudois; the capital city being Turin, situated in 7 deg. 16 min. of E. lon. and 44 deg. 55 min. of N. lat. at the confluence of the rivers Po and Doria, 100 miles S. W. of Milan, 150 S. E. of Lyons, and 100 miles N. W. of Genoa; it is of a square figure, three miles in circumference, much admired for its buildings, and the residence of his Sardinian Majesty.

This country lies between the Alps on one side, and the Appenine hills on the other; but is not incumbered with barren rocks and mountains, as its neighbours of Savoy and the state of Genoa are. On the contrary, there is not a more desirable climate, a pleasanter, or more fruitful province in Italy, abounding in corn, wine, fruits, rice, cattle, and fowls of all kinds, excellent cheese, silk, flax, hemp, and minerals; but the crop is sometimes destroyed by storms of hail, which are called the plague of Piedmont, when almost ready for the sickle. In plentiful years they export great quantities of corn and rice, as well as cattle, silk, linen cloth, wrought iron, and paper, insomuch that no country of its dimensions yields so great a revenue to its prince; what they want most is a large breed of horses, with which they are supplied from Germany.

The dominions of the King of Sardinia lying southward of Piedmont are the counties of Nice, Tende, Broglio or Bueil, with the principalities of Oneglia and Barcelonetta.

The county of *Nice* is bounded by the marquisate of Saluzzo on the north; by the county of Tende, and the territories of Genoa, on the east; by the Mediterranean on the south; and the county of Broglio or Bueil, and Provence, on the west. The country produces plenty of oil and wine, though but little corn, being very mountainous.

The city of Nice stands on the Mediterranean, in a pleasant plain, at the foot of the Alps, 10 miles to the N. of Antibes, and 60 to the S. of Pignerol; being defended by a strong castle, situated on a rock, which commands both the town and the harbour.

Villa Franca is situated on the same shore, about 5 miles to the E. of Nice. It seems to have a better harbour, and is defended by two forts.

The county of *Tende* is bounded by Piedmont on the north, by the territories of Genoa on the east, and by the county of Nice on the south and west; the chief town whereof is Tende, situated at the foot of the Apennine, about 30 miles to the north of Villa Franca, and hath a castle for its defence.

The county of *Broglio*, sometimes reckoned part of the county of Nice, is bounded by the valley of Barcelonet on the north, by the county of Nice towards the east, and by Provence in France on the south and west; the chief town whereof is Broglio, situated on the frontiers of Provence, about 30 miles to the north of Nice.

The principality of *Oneglia* lies on the Mediterranean, encompassed on three sides by the territories of Genoa, being about 25 miles in length, and 8 in breadth; the chief town Oneglia, situated on the sea, about 70 miles S. E. of Turin. It is a populous trading place, and the country about it abounds in oil and fruits.

The King of Sardinia's dominions which lie to the eastward of Piedmont are the duchy of Montferat, the Alexandrin, the Vigevano, and the Lomelin in the Milanese.

The duchy of *Montferat* is bounded by the lordships of Verceil on the north, by the Alexandrin on the east, by the territories of Genoa on the south, and by the county of Asti on the west; the chief towns whereof are Casal, Ponteora, Lucedia, Acqui, Nice de la Paille, Trino, and Alba.

The *Alexandrin* lies between the territories of Genoa and Milan on the south and east, and Montferat on the

north-weſt; the chief towns whereof are Alexandria and Boſco.

The *Vigevano* lies between Novara on the north, Milan on the eaſt, and Lomelin on the ſouth; the chief towns whereof are Vigevano and Mortara.

The *Lomelin* lies to the ſouth of Vigevano; the chief towns whereof are Valencia, Lumello, and Freſcarolo.

The valleys of *Seſſia* lie between the river of the ſame name, and the lake Major.

The duchy of Montferat, the Alexandrin, the Vigevano, and Lomelin, are pleaſant fruitful countries, watered by the river Po, yielding corn, wine, and oil; and as they are contiguous to Piedmont, are a very valuable addition to the King of Sardinia's dominions.

The ordinary revenues of this prince are uſually computed at 500,000 l. ſterling *per annum*; but this ſeems to be no more than an uncertain gueſs, as he does not too much oppreſs his ſubjects, by laying on them duties greater than they can bear, and thereby diſcourage them from cultivating and improving their lands to the beſt advantage, which would in the end redound to his own loſs. See *Sardinia*, under *Italian* iſlands.

2. *The republic of Genoa.*

Genoa extends along the Mediterranean from the river Var to the Magra, 150 miles in length, but not above 20 in breadth, and in ſome places ſcarce 10. It is bounded on the land-ſide by the Alps, and Apennine hills, which ſeparate the Genoeſe from the county of Nice, Piedmont, Montferat, the Milaneſe, and Parma, on the weſt, north, and north-eaſt. It is bounded by the duchy of Florence towards the eaſt, and by the Mediterranean on the ſouth.

The country lying thus open to the ſouth ſun, and the rocks and mountains covering it from the north winds, the air is much warmer than in the neighbouring country of Piedmont, and in ſummer it is exceſſive hot. The tops of the mountains are perfectly bare, having neither wood nor herbage upon them; but the bottom, and ſouth-ſide of the mountains, are well planted with vines, olives, mulberries, and other fruit-trees, and in ſome places with palm-trees; the laſt of which are ſeldom found in other parts of Italy; but the ſoil yields ſcarce any corn, nor have they great plenty of fiſh in their ſeas; or rather, as ſome relate, theſe ſeas are ſo tempeſtuous that the fiſh are not eaſily taken here.

The chief city is Genoa, ſituated in 9 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and in 44 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. part of it on a level ſtrand near the ſea, but riſes gradually to the top of the hill, like the ſeats of a theatre, and affording a fine proſpect from the ſea. The circumference of the city is 6 miles, containing 30 pariſh-churches, 20 colleges, and as many convents and religious houſes. The harbour is large and deep, but expoſed to the ſouth-weſt wind; only there is a mole for the ſecurity of their galleys and ſmall veſſels.

The other principal towns are Gavi, Cogereto, Varagio, Noli, Albenga, St. Lorenzo, Taggia, St. Remo, Ventimiglia, Oneglia, Final, Sarzana, Lerce, Spezza, Porto Venere, Monteroſſo, Seſtri, Lavagne, Rapallo, Porto Fino, Rugneto, Torriglia, Vergagny, and Chivari.

Cogereto, is a little port-town 15 miles ſouth weſt of Genoa, and not worth mentioning, but that it is ſaid to be the place of the birth of the famous Columbus, who diſcovered America.

Varna, at the bottom of a bay about 30 miles ſouth-weſt of Genoa, is one of the largeſt towns in the Genoeſe territories, to which the King of Sardinia ſometimes ſets up a claim. Noli is ſituated on the ſame coaſt, with a canal defended by a caſtle, and two forts, and may be reckoned a tolerable harbour on a coaſt where none are good. Albenga is on the ſame coaſt, formerly eſteemed a conſiderable city, and a pretty good harbour. St. Remo is pleaſantly ſituated 15 miles to the weſt of Oneglia. Ventimiglia is a port-town, ſituated at the mouth of the river Rota; and Monaco is the capital of a little principality, belonging to the family of Grimaldi, defended by a caſtle, and has a harbour.

The towns ſituated to the eaſt of Genoa are Rapallo, on a bay of the ſame name, 16 miles S. E. of Genoa, famous for the excellent oil produced in the country about it: Lavagne, 25 miles S. E. of Genoa: Borgheto, the capital of a marquiſate: Sarzana, the eaſt boundary of the ſtate of Genoa, a large populous town of good trade: and Porto Venere, 7 miles to the ſouth of Sarzana, upon the gulph of Spezza, eſteemed a good harbour, and defended by a fort.

The Genoeſe are reputed to be ſagacious, and dextrous in buſineſs; all their nobility and gentry applying themſelves to trade, and are better acquainted with the myſteries of over-reaching and cozening thoſe they deal with, than the gentry of other countries, who are ſeldom obſerved to be guilty of ſuch practices.

The legiſlative authority in the republic of Genoa, is lodged in the great council or ſenate. The adminiſtration of the government is committed to the Doge or Duke, with the councils called the ſigniory, college, an aſſembly ſtyled the council, and an aſſembly compoſed of the ſigniory, and college united in one.

As to their naval ſtrength, it is dwindled to nothing. Their fleet, which formerly obtained ſo many glorious victories over the Venetians, Turks, Spaniards, and ſettled ſo many colonies in Aſia, is now reduced to ſix galleys; and when they would have made an addition to them of four more, the French King ordered them to deſiſt, at their peril.

The ordinary revenue is computed to amount to 200000 l. ſterling *per annum*; but, upon an extraordinary occaſion, the great men muſt ſubmit to be taxed in proportion to their wealth.

There is a bank at Genoa, whoſe fund is part of the public duties, which are appropriated to pay off the debts of the republic; from whence it is natural to think the projectors of the Engliſh ſinking-fund took the hint.

The Genoeſe country being but a barren ſpot, they uſually have two or three years proviſions of corn, wine, oil, and other neceſſaries in their magazines, which the magiſtrates ſell out at reaſonable prices in ſcarce years, to the people.

The republic of Genoa for a long time diſputed with that of Venice the empire of the Mediterranean, and the commerce of the Levant; but ſince the famous victory of Chiozza, whereby the Doge Andrew Contarini ruined the naval force of the Genoeſe, they ceaſed being rivals of the Venetians, after they had been ſo near 300 years. It is however certain, that it is only in the commerce of the Levant, that they come ſhort of the Venetians; having the advantage over them throughout the reſt of Europe, eſpecially in Spain; and becauſe otherwiſe it is by Genoa, that foreigners trade to all parts of Lombardy.

The different kinds of ſilk the Genoeſe bring from Meſſina, and other ports of Sicily, with the beautiful and rich ſtuffs manufactured at Genoa, conſtitute its greateſt trade; the Genoeſe having ſeveral veſſels arrive yearly in their port; who make part of their cargo conſiſt in their manufactures, which are plain velvets, black and coloured; others with large flowers, whoſe ground-work is of gold, ſilver, and ſilk; damaſks of all colours in great eſteem, ſatins, carpets, cloths of gold, ſilver, and ſilk; their other commodities are olives, oil, all ſorts of confects, Genoa points, ſtockings, gloves, patterns for ſilk breeches and waiſtcoats, ribbons, gold and lace, paper, ſoap, rice, figs, almonds, anchovies, white marble, lemons, perfumes, Italian cream of tartar, Parmeſan cheeſe, red coral, coffee, cottons, and all the drugs for medicine and dying which are brought from the Levant.

The commerce of the Genoeſe to Smyrna is now but inconſiderable, where notwithſtanding they always keep a conſul.

In the flouriſhing times of this republic it was miſtreſs of ſeveral iſlands in the Archipelago, and poſſeſſed ſeveral towns on the coaſt of Greece, and the Black ſea. Pera, one of the ſuburbs of Conſtantinople, was even under its juriſdiction, which facilitated its commerce to the Levant; but the declining of its ſtrength, and the loſs of ſo many ſtates, cauſed the ruin of its commerce in thoſe of

the Grand Signior, where but few of its ſhipping now appear under the French flag.

When foreign ſhips arrive in the port of Genoa, the merchandiſes they are laden with are depoſited in a large magazine, called *Porto Franco*, or free port; becauſe the merchandiſes which enter there to be ſold, or to go out, without having been ſo, pay no duty of importation or exportation; merchants paying theſe duties only to the cuſtomhouſe of the republic, in proportion to the vent they make of their goods, and being allowed to reimbark them in default of ſale, without the obligation of diſcharging any impoſt. See *Corſica*, under *Italian* iſlands.

3. *The duchies of Milan and Mantua, ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.*

The duchy of *Milan* is bounded by Switzerland on the north; by the territories of Venice, and the duchies of Mantua and Parma, towards the eaſt; by the Apennine mountains, on the ſouth; by the King of Sardinia's dominions, on the weſt; being about 80 miles in length from north to ſouth, 60 in breadth from eaſt to weſt, and 300 in circumference.

It is well watered with lakes and rivers; the whole country being one fruitful plain, abounding with corn, wine, and delicious fruits, intermixed with great numbers of fine towns and villages.

Milan, the chief city of the Milaneſe Proper, and firſt diviſion, is ſtyled the Great; and that very juſtly, if its dimenſions, multitude of inhabitants, magnificence of churches and palaces, manufactures, and commerce, be conſidered. It ſtands upon the little river Olana, in 9 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 45 deg. 25 min. of N. lat. 250 miles N. W. of Rome, and 100 N. E. of Turin; having the advantage of two navigable canals, by which it has a communication with the rivers Adda and Teſin. It is ſuppoſed to contain 300,000 ſouls; among whom are great numbers of nobility and gentry, as well as merchants.

Milan affords gold thread; flowered velvets, whoſe ground-work is of gold, ſilver, or ſilk; ſeveral beautiful ſilk ſtuffs, and prepared ſilk; of which great quantities are conſumed in the manufactures of France; beſides ſteel, iron ware, and fine cryſtal works.

The civil government of Milan is lodged in the ſenate, conſiſting of prelates, doctors of law, and gentlemen of the country, who are however ſubject to the controul of the Auſtrian vicar-general.

The ſecond ſubdiviſion of the Milaneſe, is the *Paveſe*; which lies to the ſouth of Milaneſe Proper; the ſoil whereof affords ſuch plenty of corn, wine, and the moſt delicious fruits, that it is called the garden of the Milaneſe.

The 3d ſubdiviſion of Milan is the *Lodeſan*; abounding in rich paſture, and large herds of cattle, and is famous for its cheeſe: the chief towns whereof are Lodi, and Lodi Vechio.

The *Cremoneſe* is a ſmall province to the eaſtward of the Lodeſan; from which it is ſeparated by the river Adda, and abounds in corn, wine, flax, and fruits. The chief towns are Cremona, Caſal Maggiore, and Soncino.

Comaſco, the 5th ſubdiviſion of the Milaneſe, lies north of Milaneſe Proper; the chief towns are Como, Lecco, Bellamo, and Fort de Fuentes.

The 6th is *Anghiera*, ſituated on each ſide of the ſouth part of the lake Maggiore; the chief towns are Anghiera, Arona, Orta, Palanza, Canobio, Ugona, and Domo d'Oſcella.

The little province of the *Novareſe* is bounded by the diſtrict of Anghiera on the north, by the Milaneſe Proper on the eaſt, and by the King of Sardinia's territories on the ſouth and weſt; the chief town being Novara.

The *Tortoneſe* lies to the eaſt of the Alexandrin; and the chief town is Tortona.

The diſtrict of *Bobbio* lies between the Paveſe on the north, and the Apennine hills, which ſeparate it from the territories of Genoa, on the ſouth; the chief town being Bobbio.

The conſtant revenues of the duchy of Milan are computed at 300,000 l. ſterling *per annum*.

The duchy of Mantua is bounded by the Breſcian and Veroneſe, part of the territories of Venice, on the north; by another part of the Venetian dominions, and the Ferrareſe, on the eaſt; by the duchies of Modena and Mirandola on the ſouth; and by the Cremoneſe, in the duchy of Milan, towards the weſt; being divided into the duchy of Mantua Proper, that of Guaſtalla, the county of Novellara, the duchy of Sabionetta, the principalities of Bozolo, Caſtiglione de la Stivere, and Solferino. The whole is about 50 miles in length; but of very unequal breadth, in ſome places upwards of 30 miles, and in others not 7. The chief towns are Mantua, Borgoforte, Governolo, Oſtiglia, Gonzaga, Goïto, Luzara, Viadana, Guaſtalla, Novellara, Sabionetta, Bozolo, Caſtiglione de la Stivere, and Solferino.

The city of Mantua ſtands in the middle of a morass formed by the river Mincio, about 80 miles to the eaſt of Milan, and as many ſouth-weſt of Venice, the ſituation rendering it very unhealthful in the hot ſeaſon. It joins the continent by a cauſe-way 300 paces long on the ſide of Cremona, and by two other 5 or 600 paces long towards the north, with forts and drawbridges for the defence. It is between 4 and 5 miles in circumference, and ſuppoſed to contain 50,000 inhabitants. The town is a place of good trade; their ſilk manufacture particularly has a great reputation all over Europe; and it is from this city thoſe glorious Italian ſilks, called mantuas, take their name, which the Engliſh find more difficulty to imitate than any other.

The country of Mantua abounds in corn, fruits, flax, ſilk, and excellent paſture; but has little good wine.

4. *The duchy of Modena.*

Under the name of the *Modeneſe* are comprehended the duchies of Modena, Mirandola, Reggio, the marquiſate of Scandiano, and the principalities of Corregio and Carpi. It is bounded by the Mantuan towards the north, by the Bologneſe towards the eaſt, by the Appenine hills towards the ſouth, and by the Parmeſan on the weſt: extending about 60 miles in length from N. to S. and 50 in breadth from E. to W. the chief towns Modena, Boſtia, Finale de Modena, Frigano, Carfagnano, Mirandola, Concordia, Reggio, Rubiera, Berſello, Scandiano, Corregio, Carpi, Saſſuolo, and St. Martin de Eſte; all ſubject to the Duke of Modena, who is now alſo governor of Milan, under the Empreſs-Queen of Hungary.

The city of Modena is the capital, ſituated in 11 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 44 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. 40 miles S. of Mantua, and 20 N. W. of Bologna, in a pleaſant fruitful country, but not well built, or very populous. It has a trade in ſilk manufactures, velvets, and ſtuffs.

Reggio is the capital of a duchy, and ſtands about 12 miles N. E. of Modena; being a populous trading town better built than Modena, and ſubject to the ſame prince, whoſe revenues are computed to amount to 100,000 *per annum*.

5. *The duchies of Parma and Placentia.*

The duchy of *Parma*, including the *Plaiſantin*, is bounded by the Cremoneſe, and Lodeſan, on the north; by the duchy of Reggio, towards the eaſt; by the territories of Genoa, and Modena, on the ſouth; and by the Paveſan, and the Bobbion, on the weſt; extending 70 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. The chief towns are Parma, Caſtel Guelpho, Fornovo, Corneglio, Piacenza, Nibiano, Borgo St. Domino, Florenzolo, Colorno, Maggiore, Buſſeto, Borgo de Val de Taro, Bardi, Compano, now ſubject to the infant Don Philip, brother to the Kings of Spain, and of the Two Sicilies.

The duchies of Parma and Placentia are allowed to be bleſſed with a fine air, and fruitful ſoil. They abound alſo in cattle of all kinds; and the wool of their ſheep not inferior to any in Italy. Their cheeſe is excellent, and they have plenty of the beſt oil, wine, rice, corn, and fruits; truffles, a delicious root without ſtems, like plants, are found alſo here; and they have ſome mines of copper and ſilver; but the revenue is not ſufficient to maintain its prince.

The city of Parma is ſituated on a river of the ſame name, in 11 deg. of E. lon. and 44 deg. 45 min. of

lat. 45 miles N. W. of Bologna, 60 N. E. of Genoa, and 65 S. E. of Milan; it is three miles in circumference, and eſteemed a ſtrong town.

The city of Placentia, or Piacenza, is 30 miles N. W. of Parma, about half a mile ſouth of the river Po, in a fruitful plain, well watered with rivulets, being 3 miles in extent.

6. *The grand duchy of Tuſcany.*

The duchy of *Tuſcany*, or *Florence*, is bounded by the Pope's territories on the north, eaſt, and ſouth-eaſt; by the Tuſcan ſea on the ſouth-weſt; by the territories of Genoa and Modena on the north-weſt; extending 100 miles in length, and about as many in breadth, being pretty near ſquare. It is uſually divided into three parts, the Piſan, the Florentin, and the Sienneſe.

The *Piſan* is bounded by the Florentin, and the republic of Lucca, on the north and eaſt; by the Sienneſe on the ſouth-eaſt, and the Tuſcan ſea on the ſouth-weſt; the chief towns being Piſa, Leghorn, and Volterra.

The city of Piſa is 4 miles ſouth of the ſea, 10 north of Leghorn, and 40 weſt of Florence. It is the largeſt town in Tuſcany next to Florence; being divided almoſt into two equal parts by the river Arno, whereof the ſides lined with a ſloping wall form a mighty commodious quay, where ſhips of burden formerly unloaded their merchandiſe; but the mouth of the river being now choaked up, it is only navigable for ſmaller veſſels. This town formerly maintained powerful fleets, and diſputed the ſovereignty with the Genoeſe and Venetians. It made a conqueſt alſo of the iſlands of Sardinia and the Baleares, reduced the city of Carthage, and was of great ſervice againſt the infidels in the holy land; but being ſubdued by the Florentines, and the ſeat of the government removed, the town became deſerted, the buildings decayed; nor does it ſeem to be in the power of the Great Duke to reſtore it to its former happy ſtate; though this has been attempted by ſometimes making it the reſidence of the court, and granting extraordinary privileges to the citizens.

Leghorn, or *Livorno*, is ſituated in 11 deg. of E. lon. and 33 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. in a low ground on the Tuſcan ſea, 40 miles weſt of Florence, and 150 north-weſt of Rome; being one of the beſt harbours in Italy, and ſurrounded with a wall, and other fortifications, for its defence.

All merchandiſe ſent up the country, of which there are great quantities, are clogged with impoſitions as ſoon as they leave Leghorn. All the wines, oils, and ſilks, muſt make their way through a variety of duties before they reach the port: and though this muſt enhance the price of them to the foreign merchant, yet the labouring oar falls altogether on the natives; for the port is free, which has made it rich and populous; foreign merchants reſorting there from all nations, particularly the Engliſh and Dutch, as alſo the French and Spaniards, with ſome Armenians, Jews, and Turks.

The Engliſh and Dutch are thoſe who trade there moſt; Leghorn being properly the ſtaple of all the merchandiſe they bring from the Levant and the Weſt.

Moſt of the trade paſſes through the hands of Jews and Armenians, who are generally brokers and factors there for all nations; their brokerage-fees being half *per cent.* for ſales and purchaſes; they have half *per* 1000 for exchanges, and a fourth *per cent.* for inſurances of money.

The duchy of *Florence* is bounded by the Bolognois, and Romania, towards the north; the duchy of Urbin, and Romagna, towards the eaſt; by the Sienneſe on the ſouth; by the Piſan, and the republic of Lucca, towards the weſt. The chief towns are Florence, Fieſoli, Pratolino, San Martino, Scarperia, Fiorenzola, Pietra Mala, Piſtoia, Prato, Poggio imperiale, Empoli, St. Miniato al Tedeſca, Barbarino, Colle, Pougibond, Monte Pulciano, Marciano, Cortona, Arezzo, Burgo St. Sepulchro, Val Ombroſa, and Anciſa.

The city of *Florence* lies in a fruitful valley on the river Arno, in 43 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. 36 miles to the eaſt of Piſa, about as many to the north of Sienna, and 120 north of Rome, in a moſt deſirable ſituation, encompaſſed with beautiful hills on three ſides, full of villages, country-ſeats, gardens, groves, and woods of olives riſing gradually till they join the higheſt mountains of the Apennines; and towards the weſt lies that rich valley watered by the river Arno, which extends as far as Piſa, abounding in corn, wine, oil, and all manner of delicious fruits. The town is of a round form, about 6 miles in circumference, encompaſſed with walks, and other fortifications, and defended by three citadels.

The nobility and gentry think it not beneath them to apply themſelves to trade, and the laſt great Great Duke himſelf was ſaid to be one of the moſt conſiderable merchants in Europe; nay, the gentry ſell their own wines by retail out of doors, though not in their houſes, and even hang out a broken flaſk for a ſign at their court-yards.

Fiorenzola is a large town, ſituated in a valley, about 30 miles to the north of Florence, conſiderable on account of its trade.

The *Sienneſe* is bounded by Florence Proper towards the north, by the territories of the Pope on the ſouth and eaſt, and by the Tuſcan ſea on the ſouth-weſt; being about 60 miles in length, and as many in breadth. The chief towns are Sienna, Maſſa, Caſtiglione, Buriano, Groſſetto, Monte Alcino, Pienza, Sanquirico, Savona, Radicoſani, and Chiuſi.

The city of *Sienna* ſtands in a healthful air, 36 miles to the ſouth of Florence, pleaſantly ſituated on an eminence in an exceeding fruitful country; being about 4 miles in circumference.

Beſides the rich manufactures of gold, ſilver, and ſilk, as brocades, ſatins, damaſks, velvets, and fine woollen ſtuffs, ſuch as light ratines of all colours, and black drap ſerges made in the manufactures of Piſa, Florence, Lucca, and other towns of Tuſcany, or the neighbouring ſtates; there are alſo to be met with there ſilks of all ſorts, olives, and other commodities produced in the country, except oils which are brought from Gallipoli and Apulia, the exportation of thoſe of the country being prohibited; to which may be added ſpun and wool cotton, coffee which comes there by the way of Alexandria, alum, Roman aniſe, fine lacca, white, black, and red marble, red coral, ſoap, and Florence wines.

The French carry on two ſorts of trade at Leghorn; the one conſiſts in the merchandiſe they either import or export, the other in the freighting of French ſhips upon the account of other nations. The latter is of little conſequence upon account of the expences of being under the French flag; which amount to near 9 *per cent.* when thoſe of other nations amount hardly to 2 *per cent.*

As to their commerce in merchandiſe, the moſt conſiderable was formerly that of their cloths; but it is now much fallen by means of the Engliſh ſelling theirs at a cheaper rate.

The annual revenues of the Great Duke are computed to amount to 500,000 l. *per annum.*

The reſt of Tuſcany belonging to other princes and ſtates, are the territories poſſeſſed by the republic of Lucca, the State delli Preſidii, formerly poſſeſſed by the Spaniards, the principality of Piombino, the domain of the houſe of Cibo, and laſtly the marquiſite de Fos di Novo.

The city of *Lucca* is ſituated in the middle of a fruitful plain, about 15 miles over, near the river Secchia, 10 miles to the north of Piſa, and 12 to the eaſt of the Tuſcan ſea; being of an oblong form, 3 miles in circumference, and encompaſſed by a wall, defended by 11 baſtions, and other fortifications.

Viareggio is a little port, about 10 or 12 miles to the weſt of the city of Lucca; Orbitello is ſituated on the Tuſcan ſhore; Port Hercole is a large town and harbour on the Tuſcan ſea; and Piombino is a ſtrong fortreſs and harbour once ſubject to the Spaniard.

7. *The republic of Venice.*

The Venetian dominions in Italy are bounded by the country of the Griſons, Trent, and Tyrol, towards the north; by Carniola, and the gulph of Venice, on the eaſt; by Mantua, and Ferrara, on the ſouth; and by the duchy of Milan, on the weſt; being about 180 miles

in length from eaſt to weſt, and 100 in breadth towards the eaſt-end, but ſcarce half ſo broad on the weſt part, and of a very irregular figure.

Theſe Venetian territories are uſually divided into thirteen provinces, the Dogado, the Padouano, the Poleſino de Rovigo, the Veroneſe, the Breſcian, the Bergamaſco, the Cremaſco, the Vicentin, the Treviſana, the Feltrino, the Belluneſe, the Cadorino, and the port of Friuli.

Venice, the capital city of this ſtate, is ſituated in 13 deg. of E. lon. and 45 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. in the Lagunes, 5 miles from the continent. Theſe Lagunes are ſuppoſed to have been originally marſhy grounds, which the ſea encroached upon, leaving here and there ſome little iſlands, on which the fiſhermen of Padua built their huts in the fifth century; when the Goths and Vandals over-running Italy, ſeveral conſiderable families of Padua, Aquileia, and other neighbouring cities, obſerving the advantageous ſituation of theſe iſlands, that they could neither be approached by ſea or land by an enemy, retired hither with their effects, and laid the foundation of this great city. The water of theſe Lagunes is ſo very ſhallow, that it will not admit of veſſels but in certain channels marked out with ſtakes, and which the government are at great charges in keeping clear by mills, and other engines: on the ſide towards the Adriatic there is a long bank of earth, called the Lido, extending 40 or 50 miles in length, which breaks the fury of the ſea, and makes theſe waters calmer in blowing weather than they would otherwiſe be: nor are there more than two or three paſſages by which the city can be approached that way; and theſe ſo difficult, that if the buoys and other ſea-marks were removed, their pilots would find a difficulty in entering them. The number of the inhabitants, according to ſome, is 130,000; and, according to others, 300,000; of which the firſt ſeems neareſt the truth.

The iſland of Muran is ſituated about 2 miles N. E. of Venice, and is one of the largeſt and pleaſanteſt iſlands in the Lagunes; the chief town is of the ſame name. Here was the famous manufacture of Venice glaſs, which brought in a conſiderable profit to the republic before other nations learned the art; but they are now equalled, if not excelled, by the Engliſh, French, and Dutch, who uſed to take it off their hands.

Malamocco is an iſland two miles from Venice, conſiderable for its harbour, and for lying upon one of the narrow channels which leads from the Adriatic to Venice. Chiozza is ſituated on a little iſland on the coaſt of the Dogado. Torcello is a ſmall city on an iſland of the ſame name; ſo are Caorle and Grado.

The *Paduan*, on account of its fertility, and delightful ſituation, has obtained the name of the garden of Italy, and the terreſtrial paradiſe. The chief towns are Padua, Abano, Arqua, Montfelice, Eſte, Anguilura, Campo St. Pietro, and Citadella.

The city of Padua ſtands in a pleaſant plain, watered by the rivers Brent and Bachilio, about 22 miles to the weſt of Venice; the form almoſt circular. The manufacture of cloth here brought in a great revenue to the ſtate formerly, and is not inconſiderable at this time: but the Engliſh finding means to furniſh the quality of Venice with better cloth clandeſtinely, few of the nobility wear any thing elſe, notwithſtanding the magiſtrate of the pomps is obliged by his office to ſee that no body wears the cloth of a foreign country.

The *Poleſino de Rovigo* is a country fruitful in corn and paſture, well watered by the rivers Po, Adige, and Adigeſto; the chief towns are Rovigo and Adria. The *Veroneſe* abounds in excellent fiſh, corn, wine, oil, ſilk, wool, cattle, and ſome quarries of marble; the chief towns are Verona, Peſchiera, and Garda. The *Breſcian* has plenty of corn, wine, and oil; but is moſt remarkable for its iron mines and works, its plantations of flax, and linen manufacture; the chief city is Breſcia, which is a populous trading town. The *Bergamaſco* and *Cremaſco* are not much remarkable, except Bergamo, the capital of the former, a populous town, and place of good trade; the merchants of Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, reſorting to its annual fair.

The Vicentin is equally fruitful and pleaſant; the capital Vicenſa being a populous trading city. The other provinces are not conſiderable for their trade, or commodities, except the Belluneſe, which has a ſufficient quantity of corn and wine for its uſe; but is moſt remarkable for timber and iron mines, of great advantage to the republic.

Iſtria, frequently deſcribed among the Italian provinces, is a peninſula bounded by Carniola on the north; and encompaſſed by the Adriatic on the eaſt, ſouth, and weſt; being about 60 miles in length, and 50 in breadth: a woody, mountainous country, and chiefly valuable to the Venetians on account of its ſtone and timber. The chief towns are Cape d'Iſtria; ſituated on a ſmall iſland in the gulph of Trieſte, Pirano, Cita Nova, Parenzo, and Pola, with good harbours; Oſero, and St. Veit en Flaum.

Morlachia is bounded by Croatia and Boſnia towards the north; by Dalmatia on the eaſt; by the gulph of Venice towards the ſouth; and by Iſtria towards the weſt; being about 80 miles in length, and 25 in breadth. The towns on the coaſt ſubject to the Venetians are Zeny and Novigrad, whereof the former has a caſtle and harbour.

The Venetian Dalmatia is divided into the continent and iſlands. The chief towns on the continent are Zara, ſurrounded by the ſea, but joined to the continent by a bridge: Nona, Scardone, Sebenico, St. Nicholas, Salona, Trau; Spalato, a populous town, with one of the beſt harbours on the coaſt; Cliſſa, Ciclut, Riſano, Cattaro, Novo, Cataro, and Budua.

The Venetian iſlands on the coaſt of Morlachia and Dalmatia are Cherſo, Oſera, Veglia, Pago, with a tolerable good harbour, Arbe, Groſſa, La Coronata, La Liſſa, Lezina, and Corzola.

The Venetian iſlands upon the coaſt of Epirus and Morea are Corfu, a populous iſland producing oil, honey, wax, oranges, lemons, and a great variety of other fruits: the chief cities Corfu, and Caſſiope, have good harbours. The iſlands of St. Maura and Cephalonia, of which the latter produces wine, oil, ſilk, wool, honey, and wax, wherewith the natives carry on a tolerable trade. As for the iſland of Zante moſt conſiderable for the little grapes called currants, or corinths, from their being firſt cultivated about the city of Corinth. England, France, and the reſt of the countries of Europe, are ſupplied with this kind of fruit from hence, and conſequently the iſland hath a very great trade.

The revenues of the republic are computed to amount to 1,200,000 pounds ſterling *per annum*. It is pretended the Venetians can equip out 30 men of war, 100 gallies, and 10 galeaſſes. The ſovereign power is lodged in the nobility, about 1500 of which conſtitute their great council; the Doge having little ſhare in the government. A noble Venetian is always generaliſſimo at ſea; having the command of the iſlands, ports, and maritime places ſubject to them; and there is conſtantly a provenditor-general of the ſea, who commands when there is no generaliſſimo. He is changed every two years, and is attended by two noble Venetians, without whoſe concurrence he can undertake no enterprize. There is alſo a general of the gulph, who commands the gallies, clears the ſea of pyrates, and takes care that the cuſtoms are duly paid.

The Italians, particularly the Venetians and Genoeſe, had for a conſiderable time in their hands all the commerce of the ſouth of Europe, while the hans-towns enjoyed that of the north.

The Venetians, eſpecially as long as the route to the Indies was thought impracticable by the ocean, remained alone the maſters of the ſpice, drugs, and other precious merchandiſe which came from thence, and which they imported from ſeveral ports, and cities of Egypt and Syria, where they had been brought from the Red ſea, and Canges, either in caravans, or by embarking them on the Nile. The Portugueſe having happily doubled the cape of Good Hope towards the end of the 15th century, introduced this rich commerce to Liſbon; of which, a few years after, they were deprived by the Dutch, who at preſent furniſh Venice, and the other nations of Europe. Tho' this moſt important part of the Venetian trade has been taken away from them, yet what they are poſſeſſed

of at preſent is one of the moſt conſiderable of Europe; and, next to that of Genoa, the richeſt of Italy:

Their merchant ſhips reſort to Marſeilles for the trade of France; Alicant for that of Spain; Ancona upon the Adriatic ſea for the papal territories; Naples, Legborn, and Genoa for the other ſide of Italy: but the greateſt they carry on by ſea is the commerce of Smyrna, Conſtantinople, and the other ſtates of the Grand Seignior, ſituated on the Mediterranean.

The ambaſſador which the republic keeps at Conſtantinople, is called *Baile*, which in the Lombard language ſignifies *Judge-conſul*, whereof in reality he diſcharges all the functions; and tho' he has great political intereſts to manage with the Porte for his maſters, thoſe of trade are not the leſs recommended to him; it being properly as firſt conſul of the Venetians that he raiſes great duties upon all the merchants ſhips which carry the flag of S. Mark.

'Tis thought that theſe duties, all expences deducted, amount to 100,000 crowns, during the three years of his reſidence. Under him are two other principal conſuls, who reſide one at Aleppo, which is the center of all the Aſiatic commerce carried on in the Mediterranean, and the other at Alexandria in Egypt.

Two noble Venetians of inconſiderable fortunes are uſually pitched upon for filling theſe two conſulſhips, which they enjoy during life; the republic being willing to grant them time for re-eſtabliſhing their fortunes in theſe very lucrative employments, which engage them in no expences.

In the other port-towns the conſuls are only private citizens; and the places of their reſidence are Cyprus, Tripoli in Syria, Smyrna, Chio, Roſetto; and in Italy, Ancona, and Genoa.

'Tis ſurpriſing what a quantity of gold cloths, and ſilk-ſtuffs of the Venetian manufacture are ſold in all the ports of the Levant; and it is ſuppoſed, if the Venetians are believed, that the Turks conſume alone more than all Europe together.

There is at Conſtantinople a great vent of their cloths, which in reality are leſs fine and beautiful than the Engliſh, Dutch, and French; tho' perhaps for this very reaſon more eſteemed by the Turks.

The Armenians eſtabliſhed at Venice, and thoſe who arrive there yearly, contribute greatly to drive on a great trade; it being uſually on Dutch ſhips which return from the Levant that they load their merchandiſe; and the freight they pay, is not one of the leaſt profits of the Dutch in the Mediterranean.

The merchandiſes which foreigners export from Venice are velvets of all colours, whoſe ground-work is either ſatin, or gold and ſilver; rich brocades; gold, ſilver, and ſilk tabbies; looking-glaſſes; thread-lace, called Venice points; glaſſes, or other cryſtal veſſels, either for drinking or ornamental ſake; rice, currants, tartar, cream of tartar, ſilk, gloves, ſnuff-boxes, coral, olives, oil of olives; all Levantine drugs, fine lacca, orpiment, aniſe, coriander ſeed, ſulphur, turpentine, ſoap, and very fine veel.

Moſt kinds of merchandiſe are imported to Venice; except copper, iron, and eſpecially cloths which are contraband merchandiſe.

The commerce that Venice has moſt at heart is that of Conſtantinople, and that of Germany: to keep them on a ſolid footing, the Republic has granted great privileges both to the Turkiſh and German merchants eſtabliſhed in its capital, and has aſſigned them vaſt buildings, as well to ſerve them for lodgments, as to be the ſtaple of their merchandiſe: that of the Turks is called Il Palazzo de Turchi, and that of the Germans Il Fondego de Tudeſchi. If any diſpute happens among the Turks, and the ſubjects of the republic, wherein the former think themſelves injured, they call loudly for ſatisfaction, and obtain it ſo readily, that it ſeems that the Venetians dare not refuſe it them.

As to the commerce of the Germans, it is carried on in Germania, partly by ſea and partly by land.

8. *The Eccleſiaſtical State.*

The Pope's dominions are bounded by the territories of Venice towards the north; by the Adriatic ſea on the

north-eaſt; by Naples on the ſouth-eaſt; by the Tuſcan ſea on the ſouth-weſt; and by Tuſcany on the north-weſt, which it encompaſſes on three ſides, and is of a very irregular figure; extending in length from north to ſouth, about 240 miles, and in its greateſt breadth from eaſt to weſt 140, tho' in ſome places it is ſcarce 20 miles broad. They are uſually divided into ſeven provinces; the Campania of Rome; the patrimony of St. Peter, comprehending the duchy of Caſtro, the territory of Orvieto, and the county of Ronciglione: the province of Sabina; Ombria, or the duchy of Spoleto, in which are included the territories of Perugia, and the Contado di Citta de Caſtello; the marquiſate of Ancona; the duchy of Urbino; and Romania, comprehending Romania proper, the Bologneſe, and the dutchy of Ferrara.

Rome is ſituated in 13 deg. of E. lon. and 41 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. 140 miles N. W. of Naples, and 140 S. of Florence, ſtanding on the river Tiber, about 16 miles N. E. of the Tuſcan ſea; being about 12 miles in extent, but does not contain above 120,000 inhabitants.

Civita Vecchia, in the province of the patrimony of St. Peter, is ſituated on the Tuſcan ſea, about 30 miles N. W. of Rome, being the port of that city, and one of the beſt harbours on the coaſt; the Pope, in order to draw the trade that way, having made it a free port. It is defended by a caſtle, and other works, and is the ſtation of the Pope's gallies.

The province of *Umbria* produces wine, oil, fruits, and plenty of corn: and Foligno and Terni, two of its towns, drive on a pretty good trade, the former in cloth, ſilk, gold and ſilver lace; the latter in oil of olives, with which the country abounds, making, is is ſaid, 300 charges of oil every day for 6 months in the year, every charge weighing 600 lb.

It is obſervable at Ancona that the tide riſes not above a foot, tho' it riſes above four feet at Venice; and at the bottom of the gulph, and in that part of the gulph of Venice which lies next the Mediterranean, there is no tide at all to be diſcerned.

Sinigaglia, in the duchy of Urbino, is a harbonr of no great conſequence, but is remarkable for its fair held in Auguſt, and reſorted to by moſt of the merchants of Italy.

Peſaro, in the ſame duchy, is one of the largeſt and beſt peopled towns of the Pope's dominions, and has a very good trade.

In the little republic of St. *Marino*, which has continued 12, or 1300 years, there is a ſuburb to the town where the inhabitants have a good weekly market, and four annual fairs, in which great herds of live cattle are bought and ſold: the principal fair being on the feaſt of St. Bartholemew.

The *Romania Proper*, in theſe dominions, is a province diverſified with hills, woods, arable, meadow, and paſture; abounding in corn, wine, oil, figs, and other fruits; but the ſalt-pits are its principal riches.

Bologna, in the province of the ſame name, is ſituated upon ſeveral little rivulets, and a navigable canal, by which it has a communication with Ferrara, and is remarkable for its hams and ſauſages, wherein moſt towns in Europe endeavour to imitate them: it has alſo manufactures of ſilk, linen, and crapes; with a trade in dry fruits, allum, and waſh-balls.

The *Ferrareſe* produces corn, flax, and hemp, except that part of it next the ſea, which is a perfect bog, and very unhealthful.

Tho' the Pope has a very extenſive coaſt, both on the gulph of Venice and the Tuſcan ſea, his ſubjects have few ſea-ports, or any merchant-ſhips, or any foreign traffic: but he engroſſes all the corn in the country, the farmers being obliged to ſell it to his agents at the price he ſets upon it.

9. *The kingdom of Naples.*

The kingdom of Naples is the ſouth-eaſt part of Italy, bounded by the Adriatic on the north-eaſt; by the Ionian ſea on the ſouth-eaſt; by the Tuſcan ſea on the ſouth-weſt; and by the Pope's dominions on the north-weſt; extending 240 miles in length from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt, 160 in breadth in the broadeſt place, and 80

in the narroweſt. It is uſually divided into four large portions: Terra de Lavoro, Abruzzo, Apuglia, and Calabria.

Naples, the capital city, is ſituated in 15 deg. of E. lon. and 41 deg. of N. lat. 140 miles S. E. of Rome; being 7 miles within the walls, as many without, and containing 300,000 inhabitants. It lies on the declivity of a hill, and one of the fineſt bays that ever the ſea formed. The bay is of a circular figure, about 30 miles in diameter, three parts of it ſheltered with a noble circuit of woods and mountains; the iſland Caprea ſtanding as a vaſt mole, which ſeems to have been planted there on purpoſe to break the violence of the waves that run into the bay, and ſtretches itſelf in a line almoſt parallel to Naples.

Its principal commodities are raw and prepared ſilk, diverſe ſorts of ſilk ſtuffs, ſtockings and waiſtcoats of ſilk, or ſilk mixed with gold and ſilver, Apulia oil, laurrel oil, and berries, raw ſulphur, Calabria manna, roſemary flowers, aniſe, and coriander ſeed, dry raiſins, currants, figs, and olives, cream of tartar, ſoap, dry orange and citron-peels, eſſences, quinteſſences, and perfumes of all ſorts.

The next towns of note in the ſame diviſion are Salerno and Amalti, ſituated at the bottom of a bay in the Tuſcan ſea, with a pretty good harbour.

The county of Moliſa in the *Abruzzo* is fruitful in corn and wine, and produces great quantities of ſilk. The Capitanata in Apuglia abounds in corn and paſturage; Manfredonia has a tolerable harbour; Terra di Barri produces corn, wine, ſaffron, and fruits; Terra di Otranto, in the ſame diſtrict, has olives, figs, and other fruits. *Calabria*, eſpecially in the Baſilicate, produces corn, wine, oil, ſaffron, cotton, wax, and the moſt delicious fruits; and in other parts, as in the Calabria Ulterior, is remarkable for fine horſes.

The revenues of the crown amount to about a million ſterling yearly, ariſing from a compoſition of the nobility and gentry for certain ſums, in lieu of their perſonal ſervices, from a duty on houſes, and almoſt a general exciſe. The clergy poſſeſs one third of the kingdom; the crown, the nobility and gentry the reſt; the peaſants being only the vaſſals. Though they abound in ſilk, that manufacture is not great, as they ſend moſt of it abroad unwrought: beſides, all the merchandiſe of this rich ſoil is carried abroad in foreign ſhipping; becauſe they have few ſhips of their own, or merchants; the proprietors of the lands ſelling the produce of their reſpective eſtates to foreigners.

Italian Iſlands.

The iſlands which lie S. W. of Italy in the Tuſcan ſea, are Sicily, with the Lipari iſlands, thoſe of Lavanza, Maritima, and Favagnana. The iſlands of Caprea, Iſchia, Procita, Ponza, and others on the coaſt of Naples. The iſlands of Elba, Capraia, Gorgona, and others on the coaſt of Tuſcany; the iſland of Sardinia, and the iſland of Corſica.

Sicily is of a triangular figure, ſituated between 12 and 16 deg. of E. lon. and 37 and 39 deg. of N. lat. being about 170 miles in length from E. to W. and 100 in breadth from N. to S. in the broadeſt part, being ſubject to Naples. It is uſually divided into three parts, the valley of Demona, the valley of Mazara, and the valley of Noto. There is not a country in Europe whoſe hills and plains are more fruitful, which occaſioned it being ſtyled the granary of Rome.

Meſſina, the principal town of the firſt diviſion, is ſituated on the ſea-coaſt at the N. E. part of the iſland, in 38 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. and 15 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. The town is of a great length, making a grand appearance towards the ſea, and has a large ſecure harbour.

The ſilk manufacturers live in the ſuburbs, where there is a ſquare of upwards of 1000 paces in breadth, in which they all work in the reſpective branches of their trade.

The Genoeſe, Florentins, and Luccoiſe, are in ſome reſpects the maſters of the Meſſina ſilk trade, which is the principal, and almoſt the only object that brings ſtrangers there.

Linens of all kinds, and common table cloths, are the chief merchandiſe which are brought there, and the only kind that ſell beſt: however, they are only payable at a certain time; the Italians having made it a kind of law for ſelling every thing for ready money, and paying at two, three, and ſix months, ſometimes more, for the goods which are brought them.

The payments of ſilks, and other merchandiſe, is uſually in Spaniſh rials brought from Spain, or had in Genoa and Leghorn.

But if traders are not inclined to bring ſpecie, they may take letters of credit for Meſſina, and Palermo, from whence a draught is eaſy for the fair of Novi in the Milaneſe, with little diſadvantage. Remittances may be alſo had from Lyons to Novi, with ſome benefit; but this regards only ſuch French merchants as trade for this ſilk.

It ſhould be obſerved, that tho' France has the greateſt part of its ſilk from Italy, and that there are manufactures in all the above-mentioned cities as beautiful gold, ſilver and ſilk ſtuffs as in France; yet the Italians prefer the French manufactures ſo much to their own, that the princes, and nobility of Italy, would not imagine themſelves well ſupplied if their ſtuffs did not come to them from Paris, Lyons, or Tours.

Melazzo, Patti, and Cifalu, are port-towns in the ſame diſtrict, having ſecure harbours, and a very good trade.

Palermo, the chief city of the ſecond diviſion, is ſituated on the N. W. part of the iſland, about 150 miles to the E. of Meſſina, in a moſt fruitful country; having the advantage of a good harbour, and a briſk trade in ſilk ſtuffs, raw ſulphur, cream of tartar, white ſpunges, and a great quantity of corn chiefly ſent to Portugal.

Mazaro and Trapano, in the ſame diviſion, are port-towns, and have a good trade.

In the third diviſion is *Syracuſa*, ſituated at the eaſt end of the iſland, lying well for trade, and has ſo excellent a harbour that people have been induced to reſort thither again, after it was deſtroyed by an earthquake in 169[illegible]

As to the produce of the iſland of Sicily, it is the ſame with that of Naples; only there is every thing here in much greater abundance, particularly corn, wine, oil, fruits, and ſilk, in which they have a good trade; though they loſe great part of the profit of this rich product, by ſuffering it to be exported in foreign bottoms, and not improving their commerce abroad.

The iſlands of Lipari which belong to Sicily, are Lipari, Hiera, Rotto, Strombolo, Panaria, Didima, Felicur, and Alicur; but have nothing in them meriting a particular deſcription. The ſame may be ſaid of the iſlands of Lavanzo, Maritima, and Favagnana.

Caprea, or *Capri*, is an iſland ſituated at the entrance of the gulph of Naples; the weſt end of it, for about two miles, is a continued rock, vaſtly high, and innacceſſible by ſea, in which part however is the largeſt town in the iſland, called Ano-Caprea, covered in ſeveral places with a very fruitful ſoil. The iſlands of Iſchia, Procila, and Ponza, merit no particular deſcription.

The principal iſlands on the coaſt of Tuſcany are Giglio, Elba, Pianoſa, Formicle, Monte-Chriſto, Capraia, Maloria, and Gorgona. None of them have any town remarkable for trade, except Porto Longone in the Elba, which is a ſmall town near the eaſt-end of the iſland, with a good harbour, and defended by a fort on a rock.

Sardinia is an iſland of an oblong form, ſtretching from north to ſouth in the Tuſcan ſea, bounded by the ſtreights which divides it from Corſica towards the north; by the Tuſcan ſea, which ſeparates it from Italy towards the eaſt; and by the ſame ſea on the ſouth and weſt; lying about 40 leagues N. W. of Sicily, between 8 and 10 deg. of E. lon. and 39 and 41 deg. of N. lat. being 140 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, ſubject to the King of Sardinia and Duke of Savoy. The ſoil is fruitful where it is manured, producing corn, wine, and oil in abundance, but is not cultivated as it ought to be, the natives ſeeming to have little inclination to huſbandry. They have great plenty of cattle; wild beaſts, and game, and are far from having any want of corn, tho' great part of their lands are uncultivated, that ſome years it is ſaid they export 8 or 900,000 buſhels, of which the greateſt part is carried to Spain.

Cagliari, the capital, is ſituated on the declivity of a hill near a bay of the ſea, in 9 deg. 12 min. of E. lon.

39 deg. of N. lat. 180 miles N. W. of Palermo, and 6 miles S. W. of Rome. It is a large handſome popu- ous place, with a tolerable harbour, and pretty briſk trade. Villa D'Igleſia ſtands on a bay of the ſea at the S. W. corner of the iſland; and Caſtell Aragoneſe, in the N. W. part has a pretty good harbour.

There are very few towns more of any conſequence upon the iſland, which is thinly peopled; the natives being an unpoliſhed generation, and regardleſs of improving either their ſoil or traffic.

The iſland of *Corſica* lies alſo in the Tuſcan ſea, a little to the north of Sardinia, 90 miles to the ſouth of the coaſt of Genoa, and 80 to the weſt of the coaſt of Tuſcany, in between 8 and 10 deg. of E. lon. and 41 and 43 deg. of N. lat. extending about 30 leagues in length from north to ſouth, and about 13 in breadth from eaſt to weſt, about the middle; but being near an oval figure, is much nar- rower at each end. It lies 100 miles ſouth of Genoa, and is ſubject to that republic, being ſurrounded almoſt with rocks and mountains, which makes it of difficult acceſs, and the inland part is pretty mountainous, tho' there are ſome plains which produce plenty of corn, as the hills do wine, oil, and fruits: however, the ſoil is not ſo fruitful as that of Sardinia, nor the air ſo unhealthful; it is pretty well watered with ſprings and rivers, and has plenty of cattle and ſheep; a little ſprightly breed of horſes, with ſome iron-mines, others of allum, and ſome ſalt pits. The natives are rough in their manners, not at all con- verſant in trade, and were ſo much addicted to piracy, and pilfering formerly, that it is ſaid the name of Corſair, which ſignifies a rover, or pyrate, was hence derived.

The towns of any note on the iſland are, Baſtia the ca- pital, ſituated on a bay of the ſea, in 9 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 42 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. 120 miles S. of Genoa, having a pretty good harbour: Calvi, ſituated on a bay of the ſame name; Ajazzo, ſituated alſo on a bay of the ſame name, with a good harbour; Bonifacio, on the ſouth point of the iſland, with a good harbour, and a tolerable trade, being eſteemed the beſt town in the iſland; and Porto-Vecchio, near the ſea, on the ſouth- eaſt part of the iſland, with a tolerable harbour.

The Corſicans have been long in arms againſt their go- vernors the Genoeſe, whom they charge with tyranny; while the Genoeſe charge them with being a ſeditious factious people.

REMARKS.

The trade which brings in foreign materials to be manu- factured at home, eſpecially when the materials are pro- cured in exchange for native commodities, is certainly beneficial. The trade may be called good which ex- changes commodities for commodities, manufactures for manufactures: beſides, an importation of commodities bought partly for money, and partly for goods, may be of a national advantage; eſpecially if the greateſt part of the commodities thus imported, are again exported: and every country which takes off the finiſhed manufactures of Great Britain, returning unwrought materials to be manufactured there, contributes ſo far to the employment and ſubſiſtence of the Britiſh people as the whole coſt of manufacturing thoſe materials.

So that it may appear, that the trade of Great Britain to Italy, though it runs away with a good deal of Britiſh money, is yet ſomewhat advantageous to the Britiſh na- tion, which ſends to Italy ſerges, bays, perpets, ſays, ſerſies, Spaniſh cloth, long cloths, ſtuffs, flannels, lead, tin, ſugar, and fiſh: its returns being in thrown and raw ſilk, wrought ſilks, red wool, paper, oil, ſoap, wine, and currants.

Both Venice and Genoa have made ſome attempts on a woollen manufacture; being furniſhed with wool from Alicant, and thoſe eaſtern parts of Spain: but they have not ſucceeded; while wrought ſilks and glaſs are not ſo much imported from thence as formerly, ſince thoſe ma- nufactures have been eſtabliſhed in Great Britain. But the price of exchange with Venice and Genoa, which was formerly in favour of Great Britain, has lately been againſt it, and particularly in the year 1740.

SAN FERNANDO. See *Fernando*.

JAICUS *Lapis*. A grey, ſoft, brittle ſtone, in form of an acorn, having lines drawn regularly on its ſurface, as if they were turned.

It is of ſome uſe in phyſic, being ſuppoſed to be endued with a lithonthripic power, and therefore applied to diſ- ſolve the ſtone in the bladder.

IVES, *St.* A borough and port-town of Cornwal, ſituated in 6 deg. of W. lon. and 50 deg. 18 min. of N. lat. on the Iriſh channel, 60 miles S. W. of Launceſton.

JUGDEA. A Britiſh factory in India, ſubordinate to the goverment of Fort William.

IVICA *Iſland*, is ſituated in the Mediterranean, 50 miles E. of Valencia in Spain, and as many S. of Majorca. See *Spaniſh* Iſlands.

JUICE, is applied to the vapours and humidities incloſed in the earth: thus cryſtal is ſaid to be formed of a lapidific juice; and metals are generated of vapours and juices condenſed in the earth.

JUJUBS. The fruit of a tree of the ſame name, grow ing very commonly in Italy and Provence; being about the ſize of a plum, oval, red without, yellow within, of a ſweet, very commonly vinous taſte: they are pectoral and aperitive, ſoften the acrimony of the humours, and promote a diſcharge by ſputation; having in general much the ſame virtues with figs, and are uſed with much the ſame intentions. See *Fig*.

Pliny tells us, that Sextus Papinius brought the firſt jujubs from Syria, and truffles from Africa, towards the end of Auguſtus's reign.

JULE. A coin ſtruck and current in the Eccleſiaſtic ſtate, and in ſome other parts of Italy.

The jule of Rome is of the value of 6 d. ſterling, the jule of Venice 5 ¾ d.; and the jule of Leghorn 5 ⅞ d.

JULEP, in pharmacy, an eaſy, agreeable, extemporaneous potion, preſcribed to ſick perſons; uſually compoſed of diſtilled waters, or light decoctions, frequently ſweetened with ſugar, or proper ſyrups.

JULIAN, *St.* A harbour on the coaſt of Patagonia, in South America, ſituated in 74 deg. of W. lon. and 48 deg. 15 min. of S. lat. where ſhips uſually touch that are bound to the South Seas.

JULIAN *Year*. See *Stile*.

JULIERS. A duchy in the circle of Weſtphalia, in Ger- many. See *Germany*.

JULPHA, was once the capital of Armenia, but now in ruins, the inhabitants being tranſplanted to Iſpahan, with- in a mile of which they have a town called New Julpha, by ſome looked upon as a ſuburb to Iſpahan, where they are encouraged and aſſiſted by the Perſians to carry on a foreign trade with all the countries of Aſia, and are the moſt conſiderable merchants in the world. They are alſo permitted to profeſs the Chriſtian religion, having ſeveral churches in New Julpha; and they come neareſt to the Greek church of any denomination of Chriſtians.

JUNCUS *Odoratus*. A kind of plant, or reed, of an aro- matic ſmell, growing in Arabia felix, at the foot of Mount Libanus.

Botaniſts and druggiſts give it ſeveral names, eſpecially the flower which is pretty ſcarce, and enters the compo- ſition of theriaca, wherein it is much better than the reed uſually employed in its place, upon account of the dear- neſs of the flower, which ſhould be choſen of a bright colour, and as new as poſſible. But the reed ſhould be of a flaxen colour, and bordering upon the taſte of the flower.

JUNK. Any part, or parcel of old cable, hawſers, or the like, which are uſed to hang for fenders by the ſides of a ſhip; or elſe it is untwiſted, and made into plates for cables, rope-yarn, or ſinnet; and if rotten it is made into oakham.

JUNK, is alſo a Chineſe veſſel, uſed in the coaſting trade of that country.

JUNIPER *Berries*. The fruit of the ſhrub juniper, much uſed in medicine; as they are certainly carminative; but their moſt remarkable properties are in ſcouring the viſ- cera, and particularly the reins and urinary paſſages.

The wood of this ſhrub is alſo of conſiderable uſe in phy- ſic; it ſtrengthens the ſtomach, expels wind, clears the lungs, provokes the menſes, and removes obſtructions of the viſcera: it is further ſaid to be ſudorific, cephalic, and

hyſteric; and from it they draw a ſpirit called gin, a tincture, an elixir, extract, and a ratifia. See *Geneva*.

It is ſaid it will laſt a hundred years without corrupting; the chemiſts add, that a coal of juniper, covered with aſhes of the ſame kind, will keep on fire an entire year.

JUNIPER-*gum*, is the ſame as artificial camphor. See *Camphor*.

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In Portugal they have three conſiderable juntas; the junta of commerce, that of the three eſtates, and that of tobacco. The firſt was eſtabliſhed by King John IV. being a council of marine. The ſame King aſſembled the ſtates of his kingdom to create the tribunal of the junta of the three eſtates; and King Peter II. created the junta of tobacco in 1675, which conſiſts of a preſident and ſix counſellors.

IVORY. The tooth, or tuſk, of an elephant, growing on each ſide of his trunk, ſomewhat in form of a horn, which is much eſteemed for its colour, its poliſh, and the fineneſs of its grain when wrought.

Great quantities of ivory are brought from ſeveral parts of the Eaſt Indies: but the ivory of the iſle of Ceylon, and that of Achem, have this peculiarity, that they never become yellow.

Ivory is alſo abundantly got in all parts of the African coaſt; but eſpecially at Rio Freſca, the rivers of Gambia, Senegal, and the ivory coaſt. See *Guinea*.

Beſides the great conſumption of ivory for ſeveral works and ornaments, it is alſo of ſome uſe in medicine, being raſped into a kind of powder for aſtringent ptizans. A ſpirit and volatile ſalt are likewiſe extracted from it, reputed good in maladies of the heart and brain; laſtly, by burning and calcining it, it is ſuppoſed to have the ſame virtues with coral.

But there is alſo a kind of ivory got from the teeth of ſome other animals beſides the elephant.

Black IVORY, or *Ivory black*, is the native ivory burnt, and taken out in leaves or ſhivers when become black: it is ground with water, and made up in little cakes or troches, uſed by the painters.

Muſcovite IVORY, is a ſort of ivory dug out of the earth in ſome parts of Muſcovite Tartary; particularly along the banks of the rivers Lena and Tenicia. Theſe teeth are uſually white, and ſometimes black: their weight is from 200 to 300 lb. they are uſed for the making of combs and other works, like elephants teeth; but the greateſt trade is in Muſcovy, few of them being ſent abroad.

JURATS, magiſtrates, in the manner of aldermen, for the government of ſeveral corporations: as the mayor and jurats of Maidſtone, Rye, and Winchelſea: the Jerſey has a bailiff and twelve jurats, or ſworn aſſiſtants to govern the iſland.

JURY-*maſt*. An appellation given by the ſeamen to an extemporaneous ſort of a maſt, patched up of yards, or other pieces of timber, and ſet up in the room of a true maſt, loſt in a fight, or by a ſtorm.

JUTTAL. An Indian coin, uſed at Carwar, 48 of which make a pagoda, or 7 s. 8 d. ſterling.

JZELOTTE. A ſilver coin current at Conſtantinople, worth about 1 s. 6 d. ſterling.

K.

KAN

KABAK, is a term in Muſcovy for the public places where wine, beer, brandy, tobacco, playing-cards, and ſome other merchandiſe, are ſold for the benefit of the Czarina, who has reſerved the ſale thereof for herſelf throughout the whole extent of her territories. Theſe kabaks are of two ſorts; the grand ones, where all theſe merchandiſes are ſold by wholeſale; and the ſmall ones, where they are ſold by retail.

KABESQUI. A ſmall copper coin ſtruck and current only in Perſia, worth about a halfpenny.

KALENBURG. A town of Denmark, 60 miles W. of Copenhagen. See *Denmark*.

KALI. A plant growing on the ſea-coaſts, and as ſome ſay, even in the ſands of the ſea, whoſe aſhes are of great uſe in the making of glaſs and ſoap.

The name kali, or alkali, was given it by the Arabians; among the naturaliſts it is alſo called ſalicornia and ſoda; in Engliſh glaſs-wort, and ſalt-wort. See *Glaſs*.

Kali grows in great abundance in Egypt and Syria; alſo in Languedoc and Provence in France, where it is cultivated by the farmers, who ſow whole fields of it to good effect; for when it is burnt, the aſhes made into a lye, and boiled with oil, make the beſt ſoap. See *Soap*.

Out of the ſame aſhes, called alſo pulverine, is extracted a ſalt, called alkali ſalt, which mixed with a ſort of ſand, makes the fine glaſs called cryſtal.

The manner of preparing or procuring the aſhes in Languedoc is thus: when the tree is grown up to its pitch, they cut it down and let it dry; afterwards they burn and calcine it in certain pits like lime-kilns, dug in the ground for that purpoſe, which are covered up with earth, ſo as no air may come at the fire. The matter by this means is not reduced into aſhes only, but made into a very hard ſtone, like rock ſalt, which they are forced to break with hammers to get it out; and this matter they call ſalicor, or ſoda in the ſtone.

They make ſuch quantities of it here, that they export it into ſeveral other countries, but principally into Italy, where the Venetians manufacture it into thoſe beautiful glaſſes which they ſend into moſt countries in Europe: however, the ſoda made here is inferior to that brought from Alicant. The beſt is in little dry ſonorous lumps, of a blueiſh grey colour, and full of little eyes or holes.

KAMINA-MASLA, or *Butter of Stone*, is a term among the Muſcovites for a kind of mineral, or medicinal drug, found in the higheſt mountains, and on the hardeſt rocks of Siberia.

This drug is the effect of the greateſt heat of the ſun, which attracts it by perſpiration from ſuch compact ſtones as appear to contain the leaſt moiſture; adhering thereto like a kind of lime, which the inhabitants ſcrape off after it has received a perfect concoction; for it diſſolves in water like ſalt, and is as ſtrong as copperas.

The Ruſſians attribute ſeveral virtues to this drug, and uſe it for the cure of ſeveral diſorders, particularly the diſſentery: it is alſo of ſervice in venereal injuries; but ſo violent in ſome remedies where it is an ingredient, that none but Muſcovite conſtitutions have ventured upon ſo ſtrong a purgative.

KAN, or *Khan*. The name of an officer in Perſia, anſwerable to that of governor in Europe: there being kans of provinces, countries and cities, who have different additions to diſtinguiſh them.

KANTERKAAS. A kind of cheeſe made in Holland, green and white, round, and of other forms: but cumin ſeeds are uſually mixed with the white ſort, for heightening the taſte; though they are not then reputed kanterkaas, and pay different duties of exportation.

KEE

KARA-GROHE. See *Cara-Grouch*.

KARATA, by ſome called *Caraguata-Macca*, a kind of aloe growing in America, whoſe leaves when boiled are made into a thread, of good uſe for making cloth, fiſhing-nets, and the like. Its root or leaves, thrown into the river, ſtun the fiſhes to that degree, that they are eaſily taken with the hand: its ſtalk when dried and burnt ſerves for tinder, and when briſkly rubbed on a harder wood, takes fire and conſumes itſelf.

KARDEL, or *Quarteel*. A kind of caſk, or ton, uſed in the whale-fiſhery for holding the blubber, and containing ſixty or ſixty-four gallons Engliſh meaſure.

It alſo ſignifies the train-oil caſks, uſed particularly at Hamburg, containing about fourteen gallons.

KARKRONY. A building, where the royal manufactures of Perſia are carried on, for making their tapeſtries, ſilks, velvets, taffeties, coats of mail, ſabres, bows, arrows, and other arms. There are alſo painters in miniature, goldſmiths, lapidaries, and other artificers.

KARL. The male kind of hemp. See *Hemp*.

KATTEQUI. A blue cotton cloth, brought from the Eaſt Indies, particularly from Surat; the pieces of which are only 2 ells $\frac{5}{8}$ in length, and $\frac{5}{6}$ in breadth.

KAYAGE. The money or toll paid for loading or unloading wares at kays.

KAYSER-*Groſs*. A coin current at Franckfort, for 1 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. ſterling.

KAY, or *Key*. A wharf, or place by the water-ſide, in a ſea-port, for the loading and unloading of merchandiſe. See *Wharf*, and *Quay*.

KEBER. The name of a ſect among the Perſians, who, for the generality, are rich merchants: but, though they inhabit the middle of Perſia, and are found in great numbers in the ſuburbs of Iſpahan, it is not known whether or no they are originally Perſians, as having nothing in common with them except the language. They are diſtinguiſhed by their beards, which they wear very long, and by their dreſs, which is quite different from the reſt, being in effect heathens; but in great reputation for the regularity of their life.

KEBULA. A name given in Aſia to the fruits called in Europe myrobalans; being called kebula from Cabuleſtan, from whence they are brought in great quantities. See *Myrobalan*.

KEDDING. A ſea-term, uſed when a veſſel is brought up or down a narrow river by the wind, tho' the tide is contrary to it.

To do this, the ſeamen ſet their fore-ſail, fore-top-ſail, and mizzen-ſail, and let her drive with the tide, that they may ſlat her about. If ſhe comes too near the ſhore, they have a little anchor ready, called the kedger, or kedge-anchor, with a hawſer faſtened to it from the ſhip, which they drop in the midſt of the current, whereby they wind her head about, and then take up the anchor again.

KEDGER. The anchor of a ſmall ſhip.

KEEL. The loweſt piece of timber in a ſhip, in the bottom of her hull, one end thereof being let into the ſtern-poſt, and the other into the ſtem: into which all the ground timbers and hooks are faſtened, and bolted fore and aft.

When a ſhip has a deep keel, ſhe is ſaid to have a rank keel, which ſerves to keep her from rolling.

Falſe KEEL, is a ſecond keel, which is ſometimes put under the firſt, to make the veſſel deeper.

KEELAGE. A duty paid by ſhips at their entrance into ſome ports.

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IVORY. The tooth, or tuſk, of an elephant, growing on each ſide of his trunk, ſomewhat in form of a horn, which is much eſteemed for its colour, its poliſh, and the fineneſs of its grain when wrought.

Great quantities of ivory are brought from ſeveral parts of the Eaſt Indies: but the ivory of the iſle of Ceylon, and that of Achem, have this peculiarity, that they never become yellow.

Ivory is alſo abundantly got in all parts of the African coaſt; but eſpecially at Rio Freſca, the rivers of Gambia, Senegal, and the ivory coaſt. See *Guinea*.

Beſides the great conſumption of ivory for ſeveral works and ornaments, it is alſo of ſome uſe in medicine, being raſped into a kind of powder for aſtringent ptizans. ſpirit and volatile ſalt are likewiſe extracted from it, puted good in maladies of the heart and brain; laſtly, burning and calcining it, it is ſuppoſed to have the virtues with coral.

But there is alſo a kind of ivory got from the teeth ſome other animals beſides the elephant.

Black IVORY, or *Ivory black*, is the native ivory burnt, taken out in leaves or ſhivers when become black: ground with water, and made up in little cakes or troc uſed by the painters.

Muſcovite IVORY, is a ſort of ivory dug out of the earth ſome parts of Muſcovite Tartary; particularly the banks of the rivers Lena and Tenicia. Theſe teeth uſually white, and ſometimes black: their weight 200 to 300 lb. they are uſed for the making of and other works, like elephants teeth; but the trade is in Muſcovy, few of them being ſent abroad.

JURATS, magiſtrates, in the manner of aldermen, the government of ſeveral corporations: as the and jurats of Maidſtone, Rye, and Winchelſea: Jerſey has a bailiff and twelve jurats, or ſworn aſſi to govern the iſland.

JURY-*maſt*. An appellation given by the ſeamen to temporaneous ſort of a maſt, patched up of yard other pieces of timber, and ſet up in the room of maſt, loſt in a fight, or by a ſtorm.

JUTTAL. An Indian coin, uſed at Carwar, 48 of make a pagoda, or 7 s. 8 d. ſterling.

JZELOTTE. A ſilver coin current at Conſtanti worth about 1 s. 6 d. ſterling.

K.

KAN

KABAK, is a term in Muſcovy for the public places where wine, beer, brandy, tobacco, playing-cards, and ſome other merchandiſe, are ſold for the benefit of the Czarina, who has reſerved the ſale thereof for herſelf throughout the whole extent of her territories. Theſe kabaks are of two ſorts; the grand ones, where all theſe merchandiſes are ſold by wholeſale; and the ſmall ones, where they are ſold by retail.

KABESQUI. A ſmall copper coin ſtruck and current only in Perſia, worth about a halfpenny.

KALENBURG. A town of Denmark, 60 miles W. of Copenhagen. See *Denmark*.

KALI. A plant growing on the ſea-coaſts, and as ſome ſay, even in the ſands of the ſea, whoſe aſhes are of great uſe in the making of glaſs and ſoap.

The name kali, or alkali, was given it by the Arabians; among the naturaliſts it is alſo called ſalicornia and ſoda; in Engliſh glaſs-wort, and ſalt-wort. See *Glaſs*.

Kali grows in great abundance in Egypt and Syria; alſo in Languedoc and Provence in France, where it is cultivated by the farmers, who ſow whole fields of it to good effect; for when it is burnt, the aſhes made into a lye, and boiled with oil, make the beſt ſoap. See *Soap*.

Out of the ſame aſhes, called alſo pulverine, is extracted ſalt, called alkali ſalt, which mixed with a ſort of ſand, makes the fine glaſs called cryſtal.

The manner of preparing or procuring the aſhes in Languedoc is thus: when the tree is grown up to its pitch, they cut it down and let it dry; afterwards they burn and calcine it in certain pits like lime-kilns, dug in the ground for that purpoſe, which are covered up with earth, ſo as no air may come at the fire. The matter by this means is not reduced into aſhes only, but made into a very hard ſtone, like rock ſalt, which they are forced to break with hammers to get it out; and this matter they call ſalicor, or ſoda in the ſtone.

They make ſuch quantities of it here, that they export it into ſeveral other countries, but principally into Italy, where the Venetians manufacture it into thoſe beautiful glaſſes which they ſend into moſt countries in Europe: however, the ſoda made here is inferior to that brought from Alicant. The beſt is in little dry ſonorous lumps, of a blueiſh grey colour, and full of little eyes or holes.

KAMINA-MASLA, or *Butter of Stone*, is a term among the Muſcovites for a kind of mineral, or medicinal drug, found in the higheſt mountains, and on the hardeſt rocks of Siberia.

This drug is the effect of the greateſt heat of the ſun, which attracts it by perſpiration from ſuch compact ſtones as appear to contain the leaſt moiſture; adhering thereto like a kind of lime, which the inhabitants ſcrape off after it has received a perfect concoction; for it diſſolves in water like ſalt, and is as ſtrong as copperas.

The Ruſſians attribute ſeveral virtues to this drug, and uſe it for the cure of ſeveral diſorders, particularly the diſſentery: it is alſo of ſervice in venereal injuries; but ſo violent in ſome remedies where it is an ingredient, that none but Muſcovite conſtitutions have ventured upon ſo ſtrong a purgative.

KAN, or *Khan*. The name of an officer in Perſia, anſwerable to that of governor in Europe: there being kans of provinces, countries and cities, who have different additions to diſtinguiſh them.

KANTERKAAS. A kind of cheeſe made in Holland, green and white, round, and of other forms: but cumin ſeeds are uſually mixed with the white ſort, for heightening the taſte; though they are not then reputed kanterkaas, and pay different duties of exportation.

KEE

KARA-GROHE. See *Cara-Grouch*.

KARATA, by ſome called *Caraguata-Macca*, a kind of aloe growing in America, whoſe leaves when boiled are made into a thread, of good uſe for making cloth, fiſhing-nets, and the like. Its root or leaves, thrown into the river, ſtun the fiſhes to that degree, that they are eaſily taken with the hand: its ſtalk when dried and burnt ſerves for tinder, and when briſkly rubbed on a harder wood, takes fire and conſumes itſelf.

KARDEL, or *Quarteel*. A kind of caſk, or ton, uſed in the whale-fiſhery for holding the blubber, and containing ſixty or ſixty-four gallons Engliſh meaſure.

It alſo ſignifies the train-oil caſks, uſed particularly at Hamburg, containing about fourteen gallons.

KARKRONY. A building, where the royal manufactures of Perſia are carried on, for making their tapeſtries, ſilks, velvets, taffeties, coats of mail, ſabres, bows, arrows, and other arms. There are alſo painters in miniature, goldſmiths, lapidaries, and other artificers.

KARL. The male kind of hemp. See *Hemp*.

KATTEQUI. A blue cotton cloth, brought from the Eaſt Indies, particularly from Surat; the pieces of which are only 2 ells $\frac{5}{8}$ in length, and $\frac{5}{6}$ in breadth.

KAYAGE. The money or toll paid for loading or unloading wares at kays.

KAYSER-*Groſs*. A coin current at Franckfort, for 1 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. ſterling.

KAY, or *Key*. A wharf, or place by the water-ſide, in a ſea-port, for the loading and unloading of merchandiſe. See *Wharf*, and *Quay*.

KEBER. The name of a ſect among the Perſians, who, for the generality, are rich merchants: but, though they inhabit the middle of Perſia, and are found in great numbers in the ſuburbs of Iſpahan, it is not known whether or no they are originally Perſians, as having nothing in common with them except the language. They are diſtinguiſhed by their beards, which they wear very long, and by their dreſs, which is quite different from the reſt, being in effect heathens; but in great reputation for the regularity of their life.

KEBULA. A name given in Aſia to the fruits called in Europe myrobalans; being called kebula from Cabuleſtan, from whence they are brought in great quantities. See *Myrobalan*.

KEDDING. A ſea-term, uſed when a veſſel is brought up or down a narrow river by the wind, tho' the tide is contrary to it.

To do this, the ſeamen ſet their fore-ſail, fore-top-ſail, and mizzen-ſail, and let her drive with the tide, that they may ſlat her about. If ſhe comes too near the ſhore, they have a little anchor ready, called the kedger, or kedge anchor, with a hawſer faſtened to it from the ſhip, which they drop in the midſt of the current, whereby they wind her head about, and then take up the anchor again.

KEDGER. The anchor of a ſmall ſhip.

KEEL. The loweſt piece of timber in a ſhip, in the bottom of her hull, one end thereof being let into the ſtern-poſt, and the other into the ſtem: into which all the ground timbers and hooks are faſtened, and bolted fore and aft.

When a ſhip has a deep keel, ſhe is ſaid to have a rank keel, which ſerves to keep her from rolling.

Falſe KEEL, is a ſecond keel, which is ſometimes put under the firſt, to make the veſſel deeper.

KEELAGE. A duty paid by ſhips at their entrance into ſome ports.

KEELSON. The loweſt piece of timber within the ſhip's hold.

KEEPING *of Books*. See *Book*-keeping.

KEER. See *Ceer*.

KEG. See *Cag*.

KELLA. An Arabian meaſure for ſilks, being about 4 ½ Engliſh yards.

KEMEAS. A taffety, with ſilk flowers, brought from the Eaſt Indies.

KEN. A long meaſure uſed at Siam, being 3 feet.

KENK. A ſea-term for a rope or cable, that doubles, and does not run freely upon the pulley.

KEPATH. A ſmall weight, uſed by the Arabs, being the half of a grain, 12 kepaths making the Arabic dram.

KERMES. A kind of huſk, or excreſcence, reſembling a berry, growing on an ever-green of the oak kind, of conſiderable uſe both in phyſic and dying:

The kermes, or kermes berry, called alſo ſcarlet grain, by the French vermillion, or grain de gall, or vermeil, is a kind of neſt of an inſect, about the ſize of a juniper-berry, round, ſmooth, and gloſſy, of a beautiful red colour, and full of a mucilaginous juice, of the ſame dye; found adhering to the bark, on the ſtem and branches of a ſort of ſcarlet-oak, called by botaniſts *aculeata cocci-glandifera*; growing in Spain, Languedoc, and other warm countries. The kermes-berry is of a vinous ſmell, a bitter, tough, agreeable taſte; and its pulp, or juice, pregnant with many minute ova of animalcules: the origin of the kermes is ſuppoſed owing to the pricking of the ilex by a little maggot, to depoſit its ova, which raiſes a little tumor, or bliſter, that fills with juice, and as it ripens becomes red. Hence, when the kermes is dried, there comes out of it an infinite number of little inſects, and flies, ſo ſmall that they are ſcarce ſenſible; inſomuch that the whole inward ſubſtance ſeems converted into them: but, to prevent this inconvenience, they uſually ſteep the kermes in vinegar before it is dry.

They draw the juice or pulp from the kermes, by pounding it in a mortar, and then ſtraining it thro' a ſieve: of which they make a ſyrup, by adding a ſufficient quantity of ſugar. Sometimes they dry the pulp ſeparate from the huſk; which pulp thus dried, they call paſtel of kermes.

The kermes grain is of great uſe in phyſic: it is a cardiac, deſiccative, aſtringent, fortifies the ſtomach, and prevents abortion; of which is made that celebrated confection called alkermes.

It is however of greater uſe in dying ſcarlet; for which uſe the manner of preparing it is as follows. The grain being taken when ripe, they ſpread it on linen; and at firſt, while it abounds moſt in moiſture, turn it twice or thrice a day, to prevent its heating, till ſuch time as there appears a red powder among it: this they ſeparate, by paſſing it through a ſearce; and then again ſpread abroad the grain on a linen, till they perceive the ſame redneſs of powder, when they repeat the ſifting: thus they proceed, while they diſcover any red powder on the ſurface of the grain, which is ſtill paſſed through the ſearce, till it yields no more. In the beginning, when the ſmall red grains are found to move, as they will do, they are ſprinkled over with ſtrong vinegar, and rubbed between the hands; for if this precaution was not taken, out of every grain would be formed a little fly, which would ſkip and fly about for a day or two, and at laſt, changing its colour, fall down dead.

The grain being quite emptied of its pulp, or red powder, by the proceſs above-mentioned, is waſhed in wine, and then expoſed to the ſun: after this it is put into ſmall bags, and along with it the proportion of red duſt, that it had afforded.

According to M. Marſigli's experiments made at Montpelier, the kermes berry has the effect of galls, when mixed with vitriol, and makes good ink: mixed with oil of tartar, or lime water, its colour turns from a vermillion to a crimſon. In a decoction of turnſole flowers, it retains its proper colour. They have not been able to get any fixed eſſential ſalt from it, but a volatile ſalt it yields in abundance; which in M. Marſigli's opinion, would have a better effect in medicine if taken in a liquid, than when incloſed in conſerves and confections, which hinder its action.

KERSIES. A kind of woollen cloth, manufactured in Yorkſhire, and exported to Italy, Portugal, Spain, and other places.

KETCH. A kind of ſhip or veſſel. See *Bomb*-ketch.

KETSERI. A ſort of peaſe, with which the Engliſh and Dutch, eſtabliſhed on the Malabar coaſt, drive on a conſiderable trade for the other parts of the Indies not productive of vegetables.

KEUB. A long meaſure uſed at Siam, containing 12 nious, or the Siameſe ſpan; 2 of which make 1 ſok, and 2 ſoks 1 ken, or 3 Engliſh feet.

KEUBTOUAT. A long meaſure uſed by the Arabs, being equal to the European geometrical pace; or containing 3 ackdams, or feet.

KEURMEESTERS, is a term at Amſterdam for the inſpectors appointed by the burgo-maſters for examining certain kinds of merchandiſes, and taking care that they are of a good quality; as alſo that the trade thereof is carried on with fidelity: it being according to the reports and teſtimony of the keurmeeſters, that the burgo-maſters, and other judges, uſually decide the conteſted matters which are laid before them.

KIAM. A great river of China, in Aſia, which, riſing near the weſt frontier, runs generally eaſt, paſſing thro' the provinces of Suchuen, Huquam, Kiamſi, and Nanking; and diſcharging itſelf into the gulph of Nanking, a little below that city, being a very rapid ſtream, and ſo deep that the Chineſe pretend they cannot fathom it.

KIEL. A city of the duchy of Holſtein, in the circle of Lower Saxony in Germany, ſituated on a bay of the Baltic, in 10 deg. of E. lon. and 54 deg. 32 min. of N. lat. See *Denmark*.

KIEN-TCHEOU. A ſilk ſtuff much eſteemed in China, and manufactured from the ſilk of wild ſilk-worms, gathered in the woods, particularly in thoſe of the province of Canton: this ſilk being of a grey colour without any luſtre; yet of a high price, and dearer than the moſt beautiful ſatins.

KIERIVAN. The proper name in Perſia for what in England is commonly called a caravan. See *Caravan*.

KILDERKIN. A kind of liquid meaſure, which contains two firkins, or eighteen gallons of beer meaſure, and ſixteen of ale meaſure.

KILIA, or *Kily*. A town of Turky, in the province of Beſſarabia, ſituated on the Danube. See *Turky*.

KINGAN. A ſort of flowered ſtuff, the ground-work of which is blue, manufactured in Japan; being one of the principal merchandiſes ſold by the Japoneſe to the inhabitants of Jeſſo.

KINGSTON. A port-town of Jamaica, in America, ſituated in 77 deg. of W. lon. and 17 deg. 32 min. of N. lat. on the north-ſide of the bay of Port-royal, which is the town where moſt of the ſhipping of Jamaica load and unload their cargoes; conſequently a place of good trade, and much reſorted to by merchants and ſeamen.

KINSALE. A port town of Ireland, in the province of Munſter, and county of Cork, ſituated in 8 deg. 20 min. of W. lon. and 51 deg. 32 min. of N. lat. on the river Bandon, near the ſea, 14 miles S. of the city of Cork, being an excellent harbour, and a good town of trade.

KINSU. A plant which grows in China, making fine of very fine flax, of which linens are manufactured much eſteemed upon account of their quality, for not only keeping the body cool in ſummer; but alſo as a preſervative againſt, and cure for the itch. It is found only in the province of Xanſi, near the city of Kingiang, and its ſcarcity makes it dear.

KINTAL, or *Quintal*. A weight of one hundred pounds more or leſs, according to the different uſage of divers nations. See *Quintal*.

KIPPER-*time*. A ſpace of time between the feſtival of the finding of the Holy croſs, May the 3d, and Twelfth day, during which ſalmon-fiſhing, in the river Thames, from Graveſend to Henley, is forbidden, by rot. parl. 50 Edward III. See *Fiſhery*.

KIRKCUDBRIGHT. A port-town of Scotland, in the county of Galloway, ſituated on a bay of the Iriſh ſea, in 4 deg. 5 min. of W. lon. and 54 deg. 38 min. of N. lat. 60 miles W. of Carliſle, and 83 S. W. of Edinburgh.

KIRMANT. A port-town of Turky, remarkable for its dreſſed hides. See *Turky*.

KISHMISH. A Perſian weight, about 7 lb. avoirdupois.

KISTE. A liquid meaſure uſed by the Arabs, containing about an Engliſh quart wine meaſure.

KITAI. A kind of damaſk made in China, and ſent by the Tartars, who live near the great wall of China, to Siberia, where the Muſcovite women purchaſe it for veils to cover their faces through modeſty: though the Muſcovite caravans, which go to Pekin, and paſs through Siberia, alſo ſupply them with the ſame commodity.

KITAI, is alſo a kind of ſtuff mixed with cotton, ſome red, others blue, and of various colours, brought alſo from China.

KLICKER. A ſhoe-maker's journeyman, or ſaleſman's ſervant, who ſtands at the door to invite cuſtomers to buy goods.

KNEES, in ſhip-building, thoſe crooked timbers, that are bolted into the beams and futtocks, and bind them together.

KNIGHTS, in a ſhip, two thick ſhort pieces of timber uſually carved in the figure of ſome head, having in each four ſhivers; three for the halliards, and one for the top-ropes to run in. One of them ſtands abaft the main-maſt, and for that reaſon is called the main-knights. The other ſtands abaft the fore-maſt, on the ſecond deck, and is called the fore-knight.

KNOTS, of the log-line, at ſea, are the diviſions of it, being uſually ſeven fathoms, or forty-two feet aſunder; but they ſhould be fifty feet; and, then as many knots as the log-line runs out in half a minute, ſo many miles the ſhip ſails in an hour, ſuppoſing her to keep going at an equal rate, and allowing for yaws and lee-way.

KOLDING, or *Celding*. A port-town of Denmark, in the province of North Jutland, ſituated in 9 deg. 45 min. of E. lon. and 55 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the bay of the little Belt, 32 miles E. of Rypen. See *Denmark*.

KONGEL. A port-town of Sweden, in the province of Gothland, ſituated in 11 deg. of E. lon. and 58 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. on the Categate ſea, 12 miles N. of Gottenburg.

KONIGSDALLER. A ſilver coin current in ſeveral parts of Germany, particularly upon the frontiers of France, and worth about two ſhillings ſterling.

KOP. The ſmalleſt corn meaſure uſed at Amſterdam, 8 of which make 1 vierdevat, and 4 vierdevats 1 ſchepel, or ſack, weighing 112 lb. avoirdupois.

KOPPING. A Daniſh town, on the iſland of Arroe.

KORATES. Coarſe cotton cloths, brought from the Eaſt Indies, particularly from Surat; the piece containing 3 ells 2-9ths in length, and 2-3ds in breadth.

KOSSENBLADEN. A coarſe ſtuff, proper for the Negroe-trade at Congo and Loango, where the Dutch ſell great quantities of them.

KOUAN, or *Chouan*. A light greeniſh grain, bordering upon a yellow, of a ſaline and poignant taſte, uſed for the making of carmine.

KOUM-POULATI. A ſort of excellent ſteel, brought from Koum in Perſia, otherwiſe called Damaſcus ſteel. See *Damaſcus* ſteel.

KREUX, or *Cruitzer*. A copper coin current in Germany. See *Cruitzer*.

KRUYS-BRANDS. A particular ſort of herring of the Dutch fiſhery, called alſo *Bartholomi brands*.

KUR. The ancient Cyrus, a river of Perſia, which riſes in the mountains of Georgia, in Dageſtan; runs S. E. by Teflis; paſſes on between Chirvan and Ganges, and, uniting its ſtreams with the river Arras, the antient Arraxes, falls into the Caſpian ſea, ſouth of Baku.

L.

LABDANUM. See *Ladanum*, and *Lapdanum*.

LABIAU. A port-town of Pruſſia; ſituated in 22 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 55 deg. of N. lat. on the Curiſhaff, a bay of the Baltic ſea.

LABIZA. A kind of amber, or *Succinum*, oozing from an inciſion in a tree of the growth of Carolina: which is yellow like the true *Succinum*, and hardens ſo much from being expoſed to the air, that bracelets and collars can be made out of it: for which reaſon the name *Labiza*, given to it by the Indians of that part of America, ſignifies a jewel, and they therefore wear it as their greateſt ornament; eſteeming it one of their moſt precious commodities: and it is ranked by Europeans among aromatic gums and perfumes.

LABOURER. A perſon who is employed daily or weekly, for the price of his labour, on whom depends the greateſt part of the manufactural arts relating to trade. The price of every thing is valued by the labour whereby it is produced; but labour in England is different from what it is in other parts of the world, eſpecially in America, where the price of a negroe is valued according to his ability for labour. No labourer can earn ſo much as a mechanic; and the plenty or ſcarcity of money regulates the price of labour; whereby ſome nations are able to underſell others in their manufactures: but all taxes load the price of labour; therefore the high taxes in Great Britain load the Britiſh manufactures, and give foreign nations an opportunity of ſelling them at a cheaper rate. See *Manufacture*.

LABRADOR, called alſo *New Britain* and *Eſkimaux*. A country in North America, ſituated between 59 and 79 deg. of W. lon. and between 50 and 64 of N. lat. See *Britiſh* America.

LAC Lunæ. See Mineral *Agaric*.

LACCA, *Laque*, or *Lake*. A ſort of gum, or rather wax; which is hard, red, brittle, and tranſparent; brought from the Eaſt Indies, particularly Malabar, Bengal, and Pegu; being uſed in dying ſcarlet, painting, and other purpoſes.

Authors differ as to the production of this curious drug; but, examined chymically, it is apprehended to be a mean mixture between a gum and a reſin, more abundant in ſalt than oil.

To prepare it for uſe, it is firſt ſeparated from the branches to which it adheres; then pounded in a mortar, and thrown into boiling water; and when the water is well dyed, freſh is poured on, till ſuch time as it tinges no more: part of the water thus tinged is evaporated in the ſun; after which the thickened tincture is ſtrained through a linnen cloth.

There are ſeveral kinds of lacca, uſually reckoned ſix or ſeven; beſides which, there are ſeveral paſtes, uſed by painters, that go by this name, or that of laque: this gum boiled in water with acids, making a beautiful red dye. The beſt kind of lacca is that which is clear, tranſparent, can diſſolve readily, without a mixture of black gum, and which being chewed tinges the ſaliva with red.

Artificial LACCA, or *Laque*, is alſo a name given to a coloured ſubſtance, drawn from ſeveral flowers; as the yellow, from the juniper flower; the red, from the poppy; and the blue, from the iris, or violet: the tinctures of theſe flowers being expreſſed by diſtilling them ſeveral times in aqua vitæ, or by boiling them over a ſtove-fire in a lixivium of pot-aſhes and alum.

Artificial LACCA, is alſo made of Braſil wood, boiled in a lixivium of the branches of the vine; adding a little cochineel, terra merita, calcined alum, and arſenic incorporated with the bones of the cuttle-fiſh pulverized, made up into little cakes, and dried: but if it be very red, the juice of citron is added to it; and oil of tartar is added to make it brown.

Dove-coloured, or *columbine* LACCA, is made with brazil or Fernambuc ſteeped in diſtilled vinegar, for the ſpace of a month, mixed with allum incorporated in cuttle-fiſh bone.

LACE, is a work compoſed of ſeveral threads of gold or ſilver; lace is alſo made of ſilk, or flax, interwoven with each other, and wrought upon a pillow with bobbins, by following the points, or pricks of a deſign, or pattern, by the means of ſeveral pins, which are placed, and displaced, according as the bobbins are made to act.

Laces are manufactured purſuant to ſeveral qualities and faſhions; as lace in the form of net-work, and cross bars; lace with large and ſmall flowers; middling and fine; looſe and cloſe; very high or raiſed; leſs high; low, and very low; ſome intirely of gold-thread, or entirely of ſilver thread, or partly of gold, and partly of ſilver; others of ſilk of different colours, and others of very white flax thread: The uſe of lace being generally to adorn cloaths, linnen, women's head-dreſſes, and the like; but that wove of ſuperfine white thread, is worn by ladies upon their headcloaths, ruffles, and other parts of their dreſs, and is eſteemed the moſt curious: that of ſilk, being for other purpoſes, is ſeldom ſo valuable. Gold and ſilver lace is worn by people of quality; and there is alſo worſted lace of ſeveral colours, ſuch as footmen wear upon their liveries.

The French gold, and ſilver laces, are almoſt entirely manufactured at Paris and Lyons, and in ſome neighbouring places of theſe two cities.

Thoſe of ſilk, eſpecially the fineſt, are made at Fontenay, Puiſieux, Morgas, and Louvrer in Pariſis: the common and coarſe of the ſame kind are, for the better part, manufactured at St. Denis, Montmorency, Villiers-le-Bel, Cercells, Ecouan, St. Brice, Groſlait, Giſors, St. Peter in the fields, Eſtrepagny, Doumiſnil, and in ſome other neighbouring places of theſe little towns and villages: but it is particularly at Louvre in Pariſis, that black ſilk laces for womens ſcarfs are manufactured.

The countries, and chief places, from whence laces of flax white-thread are brought, are Antwerp, Bruſſels, Mechlin, Louvain, and Ghent, in the Auſtrian Netherlands; Valenciennes, Liſle, and ſome other places of the French Netherlands: Charleville, Sedan, the county of Burgundy, and Lorraine; Liege, Dieppe, Havre-de-Grace, Honfleur, Harfleur, Pont-l'Eveque, Giſors, Feſcamp, Caen, and other towns of the province of Normandy; Arras, Bapaume, and other parts of the country of Artois; le Puy in Velay, ſome places of Auvergne, and Picardy; Louvre in Pariſis, St. Denis, Montmorency, Villiers-le-Bel, and others. The uſual height or depth of thread lace, is four lines augmenting imperceptibly to four inches; the pieces containing from three ells and a half to eight in length. The fineſt and moſt beautiful is that of the Auſtrian Netherlands; next, that of French Flanders; and laſtly, that of Havre, Honfleur, and Dieppe: the laces manufactured in other parts being, for the most part, coarſe, and not much valued; though the trade and conſumption thereof is very conſiderable.

The greateſt part of the lace manufactured in France as well gold as ſilver, ſilk, and thread, are for home conſumption; ſcarce any being ſent abroad but lace, eſpecially black, of which conſiderable parcels are ſent into Spain, Portugal, the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies, Germany, and Holland.

There is a kind of white-thread-flax lace particularly deſigned for the Spaniſh Indies, and called by the French *Dentelle ſans fond*, that is, lace without bottom; be-

ompoſed of large flowers, without net-work, and croſs
ars: but this kind, which was formerly in great vogue
n France, is now much aboliſhed, though ſtill manufac-
ured in Flanders. See *Embroidery*.
e-LACE, is lace made of bobbins.
ir-LACE, is a fillet for horſes.
e LACE, is lace whoſe ground is a ribband of thread.
d *and ſilver* LACE. The allowance on gold and ſilver
ace, thread, and fringe exported, was granted by the
oth of Q. Anne; and by the 3d of George the 1ſt
ontinued for ever; whereby, upon ſufficient ſecurity be-
ore ſhipping, that the goods ſhall not be relanded in Great-
Britain, and oath that they were actually made of plate
ire ſpun upon ſilk, the exporter thereof, to foreign parts,
s to have the following allowances,

Gold lace, thread, or fringe, the pound avoir-dupoiſe wt. - -	0	6	8
Silver lace, thread, or fringe, the pound avoir-dupoſe wt. - -	0	5	0

To be paid out of the duties on gilt and ſilver wire, by
he collector, or the commiſſioners, by a debenture from
he collector of the cuſtoms, expreſſing the kinds and
quantities, and the ſhipping teſtified by the ſearcher.
CE, is alſo the name of a very uſeful ſtring, or line,
ometimes made round, like a cord, and ſometimes flat,
ike a narrow ribband; ſometimes of thread, and ſome-
imes of ſilk; applied to garments, in which flat holes
re made on purpoſe to draw it through, to cloſe, or
make the garment ſit tight and ſtrait to the ſhape of a
perſon, as women's ſtays, children's coats, and the like.
k-LACE, is an ornament for women's necks, common-
y made of glaſs beads, of different colours; but for la-
dies, of mother of pearl, diamonds, or other precious
ſtones; as well as of amber, jet, and coral.
ACRE. A money of accompt uſed at Surat, and in o-
ther parts of the Eaſt Indies; worth 100,000 rupees, or
250 l. ſterling.
DANUM, called otherwiſe *Labdanum* or *Lapdanum*,
though there is a wide difference between the two drugs,
is a gummous or reſinous matter, oozing out of the leaves
of a ſhrub called *ciſtus ladanifera*, very common in the
hot countries of the Levant, and of which there are va-
rious kinds.
Dioſcorides ſays, they gather the ladanum by means of
goats, browzing on the leaves of this ſhrub, and returning
to the ſtable with their beards loaded with a fat ſubſtance,
which the peaſants rake off with combs made for that
purpoſe: this matter they thus collect into lumps, and as
it is mixed with the goats hair, and other impurities, call
it ladanum in the beard, or natural ladanum: others are
ſaid to draw cords over the leaves, and other parts of the
ſhrub, and ſcraping off what had ſtuck to the cords,
make up the ladanum, into little balls.
Tournefort aſſures us, that the common way of gather-
ing the ladanum, is by bruſhing it off the leaves with a ſort
of whip, compoſed of many laſhes or ſtraps: and after it is
ſcraped off the ſtraps, they make it into cakes of diffe-
rent ſizes.
Ladanum is uſed in phyſic, to ſoften, digeſt, deterge,
attenuate, and reſolve; that which is brittle, of an aſh co-
lour, and ſweet ſcented, being the beſt.
Pietro della Valle tells us, he was informed by the Indi-
ans, that ladanum is formed like dew, and falls from hea-
ven like manna; that it is gathered on the leaves of a plant
a palm and a half high; and that after gathering they boil
it, whereby it becomes as ſoft as wax. See *Manna*.
quid LADANUM, more properly called clear or purified
ladanum, is a preparation of the natural ladanum by melt-
ing and purifying it from hairs; which is ſometimes ſold
for a ſort of black amber.
ADING. The cargo, goods, or burden, which is put
on board a ſhip. See *Bill* of lading.
ADOG. A kind of herring fiſhed for in the lake Lado-
ga, in Muſcovy, from whence it is denominated. It is ſal-
ted and caſked, much after the manner of the herring fiſhed
for in the ocean; and though its commerce is conſidera-
ble, yet it is not ſufficient for the conſumption of the Muſ-
covites upon account of the multiplicity of their lents,

which occaſions alſo a great conſumption of the Engliſh and Dutch fiſhery.

LADOGA *Lake*, is ſituate in Ruſſian Finland; having a communication with the gulph of Finland, by the river Neva.

LADRONE *Iſlands*. See *Marian* Iſlands.

LAGA. A ſort of red, and black bean; growing in ſome parts of the Eaſt Indies; and ſerving in ſeveral places as a weight for gold, and ſilver: but the Maleze call it conduri.

LAGAN, or *Lagon*, in the Britiſh ancient ſea-laws, ſhipwrecked goods, left by the ſea, lying on the ſand, either aſhore or out at ſea. See *Wreck*.
Some ſuppoſe that the word denotes goods tied together with a buoy, or the like, to hinder their ſinking to the bottom, that they may be found again. See *Jetſon* and *Flotſon*.

LAGIAS, very beautiful painted cloths, manufactured and ſold in the kingdom of Pegu; which are ſo much prized, that by way of excellence they are called lagias of the King. Other kinds manufactured in the kingdom, and ſcarce leſs beautiful than the lagias, are the torpitis, corpis, and the pintadis.

LAGOON, or *Lagune*, among the Spaniards, ſignifies a lake, or baſon of water.

LAGOS. A port-town of Portugal, in the province of Algarva; ſituated in 9 deg. 27 min. of W. lon. and 36 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. where the Engliſh fleets bound for the Straits, frequently take in freſh water.

LAHOLM. A port-port of Sweden, in the principality of Gothland, ſituated in 13 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 56 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. near the entrance of the Baltic.

LAKE. A collection of ſtanding water, incloſed within the cavity of ſome inland place, of a conſiderable extent and depth. According to ſome authors, thoſe only are properly called lakes which receive and emit rivers: however, lakes may be divided into four kinds: ſuch as neither emit nor receive rivers: ſuch as emit rivers; without receiving any: ſuch as receive, without emitting any: and ſuch as receive and emit them.
Of the firſt kind ſome are perennial, others temporary: the temporary owe their origin, moſt of them to rain, and to the cavity, or depreſſion of the place where they are lodged.
The inhabitants of the Eaſt Indies make artificial lakes, which they wall about to catch the rain in wet ſeaſons, and preſerve it for uſe in dry ones: the names of whoſe makers are held in the higheſt veneration; and an opulent man cannot do a greater and more charitable act towards his countrymen: there are ſeveral of this kind of lakes, formed by the inundations of the ſea and rivers; particularly the Nile and Niger, which, when they retire within their banks, leave floods of water behind; and the inhabitants take care to encloſe them, to ſerve as a magazine for the enſuing months.
The generation of perennial lakes may be alſo referred to rain, where the cavity is ſo deep as to receive a quantity in winter, more than the heat of the ſun will exhale in ſummer; though it is probable many of theſe lakes have their ſprings at bottom, by which they are continually ſupplied. To this claſs may be referred the turloughs, or land-lakes, in Ireland; which are lakes one part of the year, and the other part ſmooth fields: at the bottom of theſe turloughs are found holes, through which the water ſprings in winter, and ſinks towards ſummer.
The ſecond ſpecies of lakes, which emit without receiving rivers, is very numerous; they owe their origin to ſprings, the cavities where the ſpring is found not being able to contain all the waters it yields.
The third kind, that is, thoſe which receive rivers without emitting any, apparently owe their origin to thoſe rivers which in their progreſs from their ſource falling into ſome ample cavity, are collected together, and form a lake of ſuch dimenſions, as may loſe as much by exhalation as it continually receives from its ſprings; or to a river flowing on a ſoft ſpongy ſoil, which imbibes the water, and tranſmits it to the neighbouring grounds. But the number of theſe is ſmall.

Of

Of the fourth ſpecies, which both receive and emit rivers, are three kinds; as the quantity of water they emit is greater, equal, or leſs than that they receive, if the quantity they emit be greater, it is plain they muſt have a ſpring at the bottom; if leſs, there muſt be ſome ſubterraneous ducts, or elſe the earth muſt be ſpongy; if it be equal, it is ſuppoſed they have neither hidden ſprings, nor canals; but of theſe lakes there are a great number, and thoſe very conſiderable.

The generality of lakes conſiſt of freſh waters, as moſt of thoſe which are ſupplied either from ſome ſpring, far from the ſea, or a river, or from rain: ſome few of ſalt water, as thoſe produced by the inundation of the ſea, or by its emiſſion through ſome duct of the earth, or that have ſalt ſprings at bottom.

Dr. Halley is of opinion, that all great perennial lakes are ſaline, either in a greater or leſs degree; and that this ſaltneſs increaſes with time; on which foundation, he propoſed a method for determining the age of the world.

The large lakes wherewith northern nations abound ſerve for very good purpoſes; inaſmuch as the warm vapours ariſing from them, ſerve for a defenſative againſt the pinching cold of thoſe climates; for it is owing to them that Ireland and Scotland are leſs affected with froſts than much warmer countries.

Some of theſe lakes are ſo large as to be called ſeas; as the Caſpian ſea, the ſea of Galilee, and the dead ſea: the other moſt conſiderable lakes are thoſe of Leman at Geneva, of Conſtance, of Ladoga, and Onega, in Europe; beſides which there are ſeveral in many other parts of the world; particularly the lakes of Canada in North America.

LAKE. See *Lacca*.

LALAND. An iſland of Denmark, in the Baltic, ſituated in 12 deg. of E. lon. and 55 deg. of N. lat. S. of Zeland, from which it is ſeparated by a narrow channel.

LAMINA. A thin plate of metal, ſlate, or board.

LAMIS, is a term at Smyrna for one of the ſorts of gold Venetian cloths, imported there by Venetian ſhips.

LAMP. A machine to hold oil and cotton to burn and give light, of great uſe in all countries.

LAMP-*black*. See *Black*.

LAMPARILLAS. A ſort of ſlight camblet manufactured in Flanders, particularly at Liſle and its neighbourhood; being of ſeveral faſhions, ſome plain, others flowered, and others ſtriped. Their uſual breadth is 3-8th or 1-4th and 1-half of the Engliſh ell: their length is undetermined, and their deſtination is chiefly for Spain.

LAMPASSES, painted callicoes, brought from the Eaſt Indies; particularly from the Coromandel coaſt; of which there is a pretty good trade; eſpecially at the Manillas.

LAMPSACUS. A port-town of the leſſer Aſia, ſituated in 28 deg. of E. lon. and 40 deg. 12 min. of N. lat. at the entrance of the Propontis.

LANCASTER. A port-town of Lancaſhire; ſituated in 2 deg. 44 min. of W. lon. and 54 deg. of N. lat.; 200 miles N. W. of London.

LANCH. See *Launch*.

LAND. Subſidies, fifteenths, and tenths, were the ancient ways and means in England of ſupplying the government: though what eſtates, and in what manner land was thereby rated, is very uncertain: but the value of land is at preſent only nominal: to prove which,

It won't be ſuſpected to be an under computation to reckon the rental of England at	£ 20,000,000
The exports and freights at -	8,000,000
The expences of the people of England are computed at - - -	64,000,000
The general amount of taxes, and part of their conſequences, is - - -	£15,289,375
If our exports and freights make 1-8th of the expences of the people, they muſt be computed to pay 1-8th of the laſt article, which makes - - - - -	1,911,171
Which being deducted, the remainder is what falls on land. . - -	13,378,204

Mr. Locke, in his conſiderations, &c. Page 95, treating of taxes on commodities ſays, "It is in vain, in a country whoſe great fund is land, to hope to lay the public charge of the government on any thing elſe; for there at laſt it will terminate. The merchant, do what you can, will not bear it; the labourer cannot, and therefore the land-holder muſt. If foreign trade will pay but 1-8th, land muſt pay the remaining 7-8ths, which amounting to 13,378,204l. and falling on a rental of 20,000,000l. is above 13s. in the pound tax upon all the lands of England; ſo that land with the preſent taxes at 20s. *per* acre, or without the preſent taxes at 7s. *per* acre, are equal, and the land more reduced by taxes and monopolies, than by any poſſible free importation; and the prohibition of importing Iriſh cattle, called a remedy, is only a forwarding the general decay of trade, and conſequently the general decay of rents, which actually happened after paſſing this prohibitory law, as Roger Coke informs us in his treatiſe, That the church and ſtate of England are in equal danger with the trade, publiſhed in 1671; in page 64. His words are, that "the ends deſigned by the acts againſt the importation of Iriſh cattle, of raiſing the rents of the lands of England, are ſo far from being attained, that the contrary has enſued. And here I wiſh a ſurvey were taken how many thouſand farms are thrown up ſince this act; how many thouſand farms are abated, ſome above 1-6th, others above 1-4th; others above 1-3d; ſome I know, which after two years lying waſte, are abated one half."

Lord Coke, Inſt. 4. p. 33. and 34, values a ſubſidy at 70,000l. and tenths and fifteenths at 20,000l. and ſays they were four ſhillings in the pound upon land, and 2s 8d. upon perſonal eſtates.

It ſeems probable, that for a long time there had been no ſurvey made of the land in England till 32 Hen. VIII. and that for ſome ages they had governed themſelves by the ancient books. But the affairs of that King required then a great ſum of money, the parliament charged land with 12d. *per* pound, and perſonal eſtates with 6d. and the King had liberty to name commiſſioners of his own. The aſſeſſors were to be upon oath, and had power to examine upon oath all perſons of the true value of their eſtates, real and perſonal.

The ſame thing was done 34 and 37 Hen. VIII. and 3 Edw. VI. and 3 Edw. VI. and 4 and 5 Phil. and Mary. And in theſe times there was in a manner a new ſurvey made of all the land in the kingdom, and thereupon the ſubſidies that came after, raiſed larger ſums than formerly. For we find, from the accounts in the exchequer, that from 1 Eliz. to 29 inclusive, the ſubſidies, one with another, amounted to at leaſt 100,000l. but from 31 Eliz. to 18 Jac. I. in which time we cannot find there was any regular and ſtrict ſurvey made, the ſubſidies fell to 70,000l. or thereabouts; for which no reaſon can be aſſigned, land improving all the while, but that, when there had been no ſurvey made for a long while, and the aſſeſſors were left at large, the people naturally returned to the rates in the old books.

How ancient the inequality is between the taxes in the north and weſt, and the home counties, ſo much complained of, cannot eaſily be traced, acording to Davenant for in an aſſeſſment of 400,000l. 17 and 18 Car. I. we find the rates upon the northern and weſtern counties to lye juſt as they do in our preſent aſſeſſment; and tho' there might ſome reaſon to eaſe the north in that tax, becauſe those parts had been great ſufferers by the Scotch army; yet 1642, when that act paſſed, the ſword of civil war was not as yet drawn; and the weſt and other counties had not yet at all been harraſſed; ſo that the favour which the north and weſt have met with in land taxes, is a little older than the civil war, and may be attributed to that care which the great number of members they ſend up, have always had of their concerns in parliament.

When the civil war broke out, the common-wealth chiefly ſubſiſted by exciſes, for they could gather land taxes only where they were ſtrongeſt

In 1647, their authority was generally owned over all the nation, and then they began to raiſe land-taxes regularly by a monthly aſſeſſment.

When the war was over, there was real reaſon to ease the north and weſt, and accordingly the parliament con-

ſidered what conties had leaſt felt the war; thoſe in their aſſeſſments they rated higheſt, and they ſpared ſuch places as had been moſt harraſſed by the armies of either ſide; and this was the diſtinction they made, and not as is vulgarly thought, that of aſſociated or nonaſſociated counties; for moſt counties of England, during that war, had been ſome time or other aſſociated, and by ordinance of parliament.

But ſtill perhaps it had not fared ſo well with the north and weſt, notwithſtanding their ſufferings, if their cauſe had not been maintained in the houſe of commons by a ſufficient number of friends and advocates.

The places which had been leaſt ſenſible of thoſe calamities, or were ſooneſt rid of them, and that had been under the wings of the parliament, and their army, were London and Middleſex, Surry, and Southwark, Hertfordſhire, Bedfordſhire, Cambridgeſhire, Kent, Eſſex, Norfolk, Suffolk, Berks, Bucks, and Oxfordſhire.

And they kept to the ſame meaſure of favouring the diſtant counties, and laying the chief burthen upon thoſe neareſt London, as long as the authority of the commonwealth laſted.

When King Charles the ſecond was reſtored, the northern and weſtern gentlemen were ſtrong enough in the houſe of commons to get continued the method of aſſeſſment then in practice, which was ſo favourable to them; and in the act 12 Car. II. for raiſing 70,000 *l.* for one month, 'tis particularly provided, that it ſhall be raiſed in ſuch proportion as the laſt 70,000 *l. per* month was raiſed by ordinance of ſtate; ſince which time the counties diſtant from London, have continued in the conſtant poſſeſſion of being favourably handled in all aſſeſſments.

The firſt attempt of reducing aſſeſſments to ſome equality, was made in the year 1660.

The houſe of commons, as may be ſeen from their journals, had then in debate the ſettling 100,000 *l. per annum*, in compenſation of the court of wards and liveries; and a committee was ordered to frame and bring in an equal apportionment of the ſaid ſum upon all the counties of England; which was done accordingly, and delivered to the houſe November the 8th, 1660, and is as follows.

	£.		£.
Yorkſhire		Hereford -	1600
W. Riding 2520		Warwick - -	1800
N. Riding 1930	5800	Worceſter - -	1800
E. Riding 1340		Bedford - -	1400
Devon -	5000	Stafford - -	1400
Eſſex -	4800	Nottingham - -	1400
Kent -	4800	Derby - -	1400
Suffolk - -	4800	Lancaſhire - -	1600
Norfolk -	4800	Cheſhire - -	1400
Somerſet -	4000	Rutland - -	380
Briſtol city -	250	Huntingdon - -	900
Lincolnſhire -	4000	Northumberland -	700
Hampſhire - -	3000	Durham - -	700
Cornwall -	2400	Cumberland - -	490
Wiltſhire -	2700	Weſtmorland - -	300
London - -	4000	Monmouth - -	800
Middleſex - -	3000	Angleſea - -	260
Dorſetſhire -	2000	Brecknock - -	450
Northampton - -	2500	Cardigan - -	350
Glouceſter - -	2500	Carmarthen - -	450
Hertford - -	1800	Carnarvon - -	260
Buckingham - -	1900	Denbigh - -	450
Eſſex - -	2600	Flint - - -	260
Surry - -	1800	Glamorgan - -	700
Cambridge and Iſle of Ely - -	1800	Merioneth - -	220
Shropſhire - -	1900	Montgomery - -	550
Berkſhire - -	1700	Pembroke - -	500
Oxfordſhire -	1700	Radnor - -	240
Leiceſter - -	1800	Total is	£. 100,020

This apportionment was many months in forming, and made, no doubt, with great deliberation and judgment, ſince all the moſt conſiderable men of thoſe times were of that committee.

'Tis apparent, that in the aſſeſſment of the rates upon each county, and by comparing the ſums, it may be ſeen, that they chiefly governed themſelves, by the proportions which had been obſerved in rating the ſhip-money.

They had before them the aſſeſſment of the 400,000 l. 17 and 18 Car. I. which, becauſe it was made in parliament, they would, no doubt, have followed, if they they had not judged it partial.

But it ſeems they rather choſe to follow the rates obſerved in aſſeſſing the ſhip-money, as having been laid by perſons who had not the ſame reaſon and intereſt to favour one country more than another.

Ship-money was an arbitrary and illegal tax; therefore it concerned the contrivers of it to lay it as equally upon the nation as poſſible; for it would have been a double grievance to the people, if it had been impoſed, both againſt law, and alſo with partiality. On the contrary, it imported the miniſters of that time to give their new invention all the fair colours imaginable, and to make that, which was unjuſt in its nature, at leaſt juſt and equal in its manner; and no doubt, in the rating of it, they had duly weighed and conſidered the ſtrength and weakneſs, riches and poverty, trade and fertility, and every circumſtance of each particular county; with ſome regard alſo to the proportion it bore in the ancient ſubſidies.

And, upon theſe grounds, it is more than probable the committee of the houſe of commons proceeded in 1660, when they made the ſhip-money their model and pattern of a fair and equal aſſeſſment.

Since the wars with France, land has been taxed in different manners, by an aſſeſſment, and by a pound rate; but both ways, it will perhaps appear, that the North and Weſt have not borne their due ſhare and proportion of the common burthen.

The firſt aid given upon land, to Will. and Mary, was by a monthly aſſeſſment of 68,820 l. 19 s. 1 d. *per* month: ſince which time, land-taxes have been continued as one of the principal branches of the royal revenue.

The land tax, when at 4s. in the pound, produces 2 millions; being paid by ſome to the full, but by many not to above 2 s. in the pound, and that without any reaſon, but becauſe the eſtates happen to be in different counties, which were variouſly affected to a new King, when the preſent aſſeſſment was made, whereby ſome members of the community being ever ſince put undeſervedly in a worſe condition than others, are a dead weight againſt even our moſt neceſſary enlarged expences; wrong policy, that increaſes diſſenſion always in times of difficulty. The tediouſneſs of the coming in of this tax, which is generally two years, is a great diſadvantage; in times of ſafety creates annual expenſive loans, but in times of the greateſt danger, leaves us quite in diſtreſs; it is the higheſt impropriety to call that the aid of the preſent year which is to be paid in the two next enſuing. This tax has beſides been attended with a very bad conſequence to the nation, in having made a diſtinction where there is no difference, that is, of landed and trading intereſts. Country gentlemen, finding the land-tax a heavy burden on them, thought to eaſe themſelves by loading the trader, whom they looked upon with a jealous eye, thinking his ſituation eaſier; whereby that trade which had raiſed the value of their eſtates, and which only could ſupport the increaſed value, being deprived of their protection, and cramped with duties without mercy on all occaſions, has indeed been brought ſufficiently low, and is bringing down with it the rents of their lands; and they may ſee the fatal error when it is perhaps too late, trade being like a coy dame, difficult to be brought back when ſlighted.

Mr. Locke, in his conſiderations of the conſequences of the lowering of intereſt, and raiſing the value of money, page 86, aſſerts it to be an undoubted truth, that the land-holder is more concerned in trade, and ought to take a greater care that it be well managed, than even the merchant himſelf; for he will certainly find that when a decay has carried away one part of our money out of the kingdom, and the other is kept in the merchants or tradeſmen's hands, that no laws he can make, nor any little arts of ſhifting property among ourſelves, will bring it back to him again; but his rents will fall, and his in-

come every day leſſen, till general induſtry and frugality, joined to a well-ordered trade, ſhall reſtore to the kingdom the riches and wealth it had formerly.

The reaſons why the decline of foreign trade ſinks the value of land are aſſigned by the author of the Eſſay of the cauſes of the decline of the foreign trade, to be as follows.

Firſt, By ſinking the markets at home.

For the produce of land being rendered exceſſively dear, Foreigners will not take its ſuperfluities; and labour being by the ſame cauſes rendered exceſſively dear too, we cannot manufacture or improve that produce, nations that can afford cheaper ſupplying the markets abroad; ſo that the produce of the lands not being carried off as uſual, muſt become a dead ſtock on the farmer's hands, and cauſe great quantities to be crowded into the markets, where being encouragement but for few buyers, the price naturally falls: as for inſtance, the declining demand for our woollen goods abroad, falls the price of wool at home.

Suppoſe that in 1699 we exported to Turkey 40,000 cloths, the value of raw wool in each being 2 l. amounts to	£. 80,000
Suppoſe that in 1738 we exported to Turky 8,000 cloths, the value of raw wool in each being 1 l. 10 s. amounts to	12,000
The difference of the value of wool exported in thoſe two years,	£. 68,000

Wools of this value lying yearly on hand, muſt make a glut; the farmers puſh to ſell at market, but in vain, unleſs at under-prices; for the wool-ſtaplers, finding the demand decreaſe, decreaſe in number themſelves; ſome break; ſome leave off trade; ſome take to other trades; for many ſellers with great ſtocks on hand, and few buyers, naturally fall the markets; and the landlords preſſing the tenants for rent, and threatening to ſeize, if payments are not made, the wool muſt be ſold at any rate to raiſe money; and there being yearly 68,000l. leſs money brought into the nation to be laid out in wool than in former times, the price muſt be ſtill lower on that account; the lower the produce ſells, the leſs rent the farmer can give for land; the worſe the markets, the greater arrears of rent the farmer runs into; and taxes, monopolies, &c. making labour and neceſſaries grow dearer, and the decay of foreign trade making the wool ſell cheaper, muſt break him in the end, and then the farm is thrown on the landlord's hands, who unwilling to fall the rent, keeps it in the mananement of ſtewards or bailiffs, whoſe profit and charges ſeldom make it pay the old rent, but generally ends in mortgaging the land, or ſelling it; and as theſe caſes grow more frequent, more eſtates will be at market, and conſequently the leſs prices they will fetch.

Secondly, by increaſing the number of poor to burden the land.

The poor, wanting employment, muſt be ſupported by the land; if foreigners give them work, they give them bread; but when trade cannot maintain them, land muſt. When the poor rates are heavier than the tenant can bear, the landlord muſt pay them, either by allowance in the rent, or by taking the farm into his own hands; or elſe by the breaking of his tenant, who has paid that money to the poors rates his landlord ſhould have received.

Suppoſe in 1699 the labour of the above 40,000 cloths to have given employment to - - -	40,000 people
Suppoſe in 1738 the labour of the above 8,000 cloths to have given employment to - -	8,000 people
The difference is	32,000 people
Suppoſe theſe 32,000 people to have earned by their labour formerly from foreigners 6 l. *per annum* each, it amounts to	£. 192,000
But, wanting employment, they come on the pariſh at 1 s. 6 d. *per* week each, which for one year amounts to	124,800
The difference to the landholder in one year is - -	£. 316,830

For as the land, by the decay of foreign trade, receives not the firſt ſum, and is by the ſame cauſe ſaddled with the latter, it makes an annual difference of the above two ſums to the landholders in this ſingle branch of labour; and is the ſame in proportion for all other decayed branches of trade.

Thirdly, by decreaſing the ſtock of people.

For as employment leſſens, the moſt induſtrious, rather than ſtarve here, will fly to other countries where trade can maintain them; ſo the conſumption of theſe being taken away, the demand at market muſt grow leſs, and of courſe rents muſt; yet the farmers charges muſt grow greater; for the fewer hands, the higher wages are; this muſt break him in the end, and produce all the conſequences following that misfortune. Beſides, 'tis men that trade, and bring in money; therefore the fewer they are, the leſs money will be brought in; and the leſs money, the leſs rent can be given for land.

Fourthly, by decreaſing our riches.

This is a conſequence of the above three remarks; for having fewer goods capable of being exported, by reaſon of their dear price, and our manufactures declining, muſt in time be loſt; therefore the importation of foreign goods muſt naturally increaſe, and more money go out to pay for them.

It is laid down as an undoubted truth, that nations which have no mines of gold and ſilver, have no means to get them but by foreign trade; and according to the degree of thoſe metals they poſſeſs, the prices of their commodities, and therewith the value of their lands, riſe and fall in proportion.

The Brittannia Languens, page 12, ſays, If there were but 500 l in England, an ox could hardly be worth a penny; therefore the rent muſt bear its proportion to the riches. This appears from hiſtory, for in the year 960 land ſold at 1 s. *per* acre. The reaſon that land then bore ſo low a price, was, the low price the produce ſold at; for in the year 1000, an ox ſold for 2 s. 6 d. a cow for 2 s. a ſheep for 1 s. and ſwine for 8 d. This could be only owing to the little foreign trade the nation then had, and conſequently to the little quantity of gold and ſilver trade had then brought in.

But if it ſhould be aſked, what is the reaſon that at preſent all things are naturally ſo much advanced in price, to what they were in thoſe days? the anſwer is, that the quantities of gold and ſilver brought to Europe ſince the progreſs made by the Spaniards and Portugueſe in America, have made thoſe metals more common and of leſs value than formerly; ſo that 20 s. will hardly purchaſe what 1 s. would before the diſcovery of the Weſt-Indies. The Spaniards and Portugueſe do not throw away their gold and ſilver for us to pick up; we have no mines of theſe metals, therefore could not get ſuch quantities as we have but by our trade to Spain and Portugal, or to thoſe countries that had an over-balance upon them, and were over-balanced by us.

So that the preſent natural price of land, and its produce, is the proportion of gold and ſilver that foreign trade has brought into and left in the nation: if the preſent quantity was to be doubled by foreign trade, the natural price of land, and its produce, muſt be ſo too: for, according to the price the farmer can ſell his commodity at market, ſo can pay for the rent of land, and no otherwiſe. If our foreign trade decays till the preſent money in the nation be half ſwept away, the produce of the land muſt fall to half the natural price it does now, and land muſt let for half the rent it naturally bears now; but if we ſhould go on declining, till we have no more money left in the nation than there was in 961 or 1000, the prices of land and its produce, can be no more than they bore in thoſe days; taxes, &c. deducted.

Therefore, if the gentlemen have a mind to raiſe or ſink the value of their lands, the encouraging or diſcouraging our foreign trade is the only means to do either; ſo cloſely united are land and trade; their true intereſts are the ſame; they muſt ſtand or fall together.

The ſum of all is this; That what foreigners take from others inſtead of us, what the poor have given them inſtead of buying, the ſcarcity of people, and the ſcarcity of money, ſinks the value of lands.

axes, monopolies, ill judged laws, and national debts, e the cauſes of the decline of our foreign trade; the cline of foreign trade cauſes the above four calamities; d they ſink the value of lands. The taxes, monopolies, judged laws, and national debts, are the cauſes of all; refore they are the cauſes of the decline of the value lands. See *Tax*.

D *Carriage*, inwards and outwards; in the Britiſh cuſms, are as follows: if outwards, foreign goods ſent om one part of the kingdom to another, muſt have cerficates from the cuſtom-houſe officers whence they are nt; or they may be ſtopped, till proof is made that the ties have been paid.

inwards, though ſuch certificate is obtained, there is occaſion to deliver it to the cuſtom-houſe when the oods come to the intended port, unleſs they are to be exrted from thence, and the duties drawn back.

D-*Fall*. A ſea term, ſignifying to fall in with the nd. Good land-fall is when a ſhip makes or ſees, the nd, as ſhe expected, according to her reckoning: and the ntrary is called a bad land-fall.

D-*locked*. A ſhip is ſaid to ride land-locked, when ſhe ſurrounded with land; that is an anchor in a place here there is no point open to the ſea; ſo that ſhe is ſafe om the violence of winds and tides.

D-*mark*. A ſteeple, tree, beacon, or other remarkle thing ſet up on the ſea-ſhore; to ſignify to ſhips at , when they are approaching near to the land.

NDRESS. A woman whoſe particular employment to waſh linnen for other people.

NDSCROON. A port-town of Sweden, in the proince of South Gothland and territory of Schonen; ſituatd in 14 d. 20 m. of E. lon. and 55 deg. 42 min. of N. lat.

D-*waiter*. A cuſtom-houſe officer, appointed to inſpect ch goods as are ſent on ſhip-board, and to ſee that the ties are paid. See *Tide*-waiter and *cuſtoms*.

NGLAND. An iſland of Denmark, in the Baltic, ſiated in the ſtrait called the great Belt, between Zeland d Funen, in 11 deg. of E. lon. and 55 deg. of N. lat.

NGREL *Shot*, is a ſort of ſhot ſometimes uſed at ſea; ade of two bars of iron, with a joint or ſhackle in the iddle, whereby it can be ſhortened, and ſo put more ommodiouſly into the gun; having at each end half a llet, either of lead or iron; which ſhot, when diſcharg, flies out at length, and ſo does more execution aong the enemies rigging.

NNERS, in a ſhip, are ſmall ropes which are reeved the dead men's eyes of all the ſhrouds and chains, to icken, or ſet the ſhrouds tight; alſo thoſe that ſet the ays of the maſts tight; likewiſe the rope that faſtens e ſtopper of the halliards.

NTEAS. Large Chineſe barks, uſed by the Portueſe of Macao for the trade of Canton; being about 7, or 00 tons, in which the Portugueſe factors reſide as long s the fair of Canton continues; becauſe they are not ermitted to paſs the night on land, nor advance higher p the river.

NTOR. See *Banda* Iſlands.

PDANUM. A kind of fat adhering to the beard f goats, eſpecially of thoſe that brouze upon the ſhrub alled by botaniſts *ciſtus ladum*, which has long green eaves, ſtrait, rough, and ſticky; growing abundantly in ot countries. See *Ladanum*.

There are three kinds of lapdanum; natural, or in the eard; liquid, called black balſam; and torſe or twiſted; r rather, there is but one, having different names, purſuant to its qualities or figure.

Lapdanum, in the beard, is this unctuous matter, as it is athered from the beards of goats by a wooden comb.

Liquid lapdanum, or black balſam, is this ſame fat liquified, purified, and depoſited in little thin bladders: which, to be good, ſhould be of a pretty ſolid conſiſtence, s black as jet, and of a ſweet agreeable ſmell, reſembling hat of ambergreaſe; wherefore it is ſold ſometimes for lack amber, this new title inhancing its value.

Lapdanum in torſe, or twiſted, is but the thick ſubſtance f the liquid in rolls: thus it it preferable to that in maſs, hough of whatever quality lapdanum in rolls is, it proves lways to be a very indifferent commodity; but the two ther kinds enter the compoſition of the moſt excellent erfumes. See *Ladanum*.

LAPIDARY. An artificer who cuts precious ſtones; which is an art of great antiquity; but, like others, its original was very imperfect: the French have ſucceeded in it the beſt, and the lapidaries of Paris, who have been a corporation ſince the year 1290, have carried it, eſpecially cutting of diamonds called brilliants, to its laſt perfection.

There are various machines uſed in the cutting of precious ſtones, according to the quality of the matter to be cut: the diamond, which is extremely hard, is cut and formed on a wheel of ſoft ſteel, turned by a kind of mill, with diamond duſt tempered in oil of olives; which ſerves to poliſh them as well as to cut them.

Oriental rubies, ſaphires, and topazes, are cut and formed on a copper wheel, with oil of olives, and diamond duſt; though they are poliſhed on another copper wheel with tripoly and water.

Emeralds, hyacinths, amethyſts, garnets, agats, and other ſtones leſs hard, are cut on a leaden wheel, with ſmalt and water, and poliſhed on a tin wheel with tripoly.

Turquois of the old and new rock, lapis giraſol, and opal, are cut and poliſhed on a wooden wheel with tripoly.

LAPIDARY, is alſo uſed for a virtuoſo ſkilled in the nature and qualities of precious ſtones; or a merchant who deals in them; in which ſenſe the Great Mogul is ſaid to be one of the greateſt lapidaries in the world.

LAPIS, in a general ſenſe. See *Stone*.

LAPIS *Aſbeſtos*. See *Aſbeſtos*.

LAPIS *Calaminaris*. See *Calaminaris*.

LAPIS *Dentalis*. See *Dentalis*.

LAPIS *Infernalis*. A cauſtic ſtone prepared various ways; ſometimes of ſtrong ſoap lees evaporated to a dryneſs, and the remainder kept in a glaſs well ſtopped from the air. Sometimes it is made of calcined vitriol, tartar, and ſal armoniac, and boiled in quick lime water to a ſtrong lixivium, then ſtrained and evaporated till dry.

LAPIS *Lazuli*. See *Lazuli*, and *Azure*.

LAPIS *Medicamentoſus*, or the medicinal ſtone, is a compoſition of roch allum, litharge, colcothar of vitriol, armenian bole, and vinegar, boiled to the conſiſtence of a hard ſtone; being uſed to faſten the teeth, preſerve the gums, heal and dry up ulcers and wounds; as alſo in injections, and compoſitions for ſore eyes.

LAPLAND, the moſt northerly part of Europe, is ſurrounded by the frozen ocean on the N. E. and W. lying between 10 and 35 deg. of E. lon. and 69 and 72 of N. lat. The N. E. part is ſubject to Ruſſia, and called Ruſſian Lapland: the N. W. part is ſubject to Denmark, and called Norwegian Lapland: and the other part is called Swediſh Lapland. The trade of the laplanders is chiefly in furs, particularly the ſkins of ermines and martens: but they are a rude and uncivilized people. See *Ruſſia*, *Denmark*, and *Sweden*.

LAQUE. See *Lacca*.

LAQUERED *Goods*, are thoſe which are varniſhed with lacca, in imitation of Japan-work.

LARBOARD. The left hand ſide of a ſhip, when a perſon ſtands with his face towards the head. See *Starboard*.

LAREDO. A port-town of Spain, in the province of Biſcay; ſituated in 3 deg. 40 min. of W. lon. and 43 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

LARGE, among ſailors, when a ſhip goes neither by nor before the wind, but quartering as it were between both.

LARIN, is equally throughout the Eaſt a money of accompt, and a current coin; both of the value of about 6 d. ſterling: the greateſt currency of the larins being in the Perſian gulph, along that of Cambay, and in ſome neighbouring places of theſe two gulphs.

LARTA. A port-town of European Turky, in the principality of Epirus, ſituated at the entrance of the gulph of Venice, in 21 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 39 deg. of N. lat.

LASCAR, an Indian, or Chineſe ſailor, or fiſherman.

LASH, or *Lace*, in the ſea-language, ſignifies to bind, or make faſt.

Laſhing is chiefly uſed for binding up to the ſhip's ſides, muſkets, butts of water or beer, or pieces of timber to make ſpare top maſts.

LASHERS, are properly thoſe ropes only which bind faſt the tackles, and the breeches of the ordnance, when they are haled or made faſt within board.

LASK-

LASKING. A ſea term, for going large, or veering.

LAST, or *Leſt*, in general, ſignifies the burden or load of a ſhip.

LAST, is alſo uſed for a certain weight and meaſure, various in different countries; though in general it is eſtimated at 4000 pounds weight.

A laſt of cod-fiſh, white herrings, meal and ſoap-aſhes, is 12 barrels; of corn or rape-ſeed, ten quarters; of gunpowder, 24 barrels, or 2400 pounds weight; of red herrings, 20 cades; of hides, 12 dozen; of leather, 20 dickers; of pitch or tar, 14 barrels; of wool, 12 ſacks; of ſtock-fiſh, 1000; and of flax or feathers, 1700 pounds weight.

LASTAGE, or *Leſtage*, is a duty exacted in ſome fairs and markets, for carrying things bought where a perſon pleaſes; but, according to ſome authors, it is properly that cuſtom paid for wares ſold by the laſt.

In a law of Richard II. laſtage is taken for the ballaſt or lading of a ſhip. See *Ballaſt*.

LAST-*Gelt*, is a term in Holland, for a duty levied upon every ſhip going in or out; whereby ſhe pays in proportion to the quantity of laſts ſhe contains.

This duty is about 6d. ſterling *per* laſt going out, and entring: with regard to which it ſhould be obſerved, that this duty being once paid, the ſhip that has acquitted it remains free a whole year; that is, ſhe can perform as many voyages as poſſible during the ſpace of 12 months, without being liable to the ſaid duty.

LAST-*Gheldt*. A duty at Hamburg, upon the commodities and foreign veſſels that arrive there, or depart from thence. The 41ſt article of the treaty of marine and commerce, concluded at Paris the 28th of September 1716, between France and the Hans-towns, diſcharges explicitly from this duty, under whatever term it may be exacted, the French ſhips that trade to Hamburg.

LATH, in building, a long thin, narrow ſlip of wood, nailed on the rafters of a roof, to ſuſtain the covering.

Laths are divided into three kinds, with regard to the different woods they are made of; heart of oak laths, ſap laths, and deal laths; the two laſt being uſed only for ceiling and partitioning, and the firſt only for tyling.

Laths are alſo diſtinguiſhed with regard to their length, into 5 foot, 4 foot, and 3 foot laths; though the ſtatute allows but of two lengths, as thoſe of 5 and 3, each of which are to be an inch and half in breadth, and half an inch in thickneſs.

LATHE, or *Leathe*. A very uſeful engine for the turning of wood, ivory, metals, and other materials.

LATITUDE. The diſtance of a place from the equator, or an arch of the meridian intercepted between the zenith of the place and the equator: hence latitude is either northern or ſouthern, according as the place whoſe latitude is ſpoke of, is on this or that ſide of the equator; thus London is ſaid to be in 51 deg. 30 min. of northern latitude.

Circles parallel to the equator are called parallels of latitude; becauſe they ſhew the latitudes of places by their interſection with the meridian.

If through the poles of the world we conceive innumerable great circles drawn, theſe are called ſecondaries of the equator; by whoſe help, the poſition of every point, either on earth or in the heavens, with regard to the equinoctial, that is, the latitude of any point, is determined.

One of thoſe ſecondaries paſſing through any place on the earth's ſurface, is called the meridian of that place, and on it the latitude of that place is meaſured.

The latitude of a place, and the elevation of the pole of that place above the horizon, are terms uſed indifferently for each other; as the latitude and elevation of the pole are always equal.

The knowledge of the latitude of a place is of the utmoſt conſequence, both in geography, navigation, and aſtronomy; the methods of determining it both by ſea and land being as follows.

The altitude of the pole is always equal to the latitude, for which reaſon the latitude might be beſt found by obſerving the pole's height; but the pole being only a mathematical point, and no ways obſervable by the ſenſes, its height cannot be determined in the ſame manner as that of the ſun and ſtars; for which reaſon another manner has been contrived.

In order to this a meridian line is firſt drawn, and a quadrant placed on this line, ſo as its plane may be in the plane of the meridian; then ſome ſtar is taken near the pole, or the pole-ſtar, which never ſets; and both its greateſt and leaſt altitude is to be obſerved. See *Quadrant*.

The latitude may alſo be found, by having the declination of the ſun or a ſtar, and meridian altitude taken with a quadrant or aſtrolabe: the method of which is this. Obſerve the meridian diſtance of the ſun from the vertex or zenith, which is always the complement of its meridian altitude; and add to this the ſun's declination, when the ſun and the place are on the ſame ſide of the equator; or ſubtract the declination, when on different ſides; the ſum in the former caſe, and the difference in the latter, will be the latitude required. But when the declination of the ſun is greater than the latitude of the place, which is known from the ſun's being nearer to the elevated pole than the vertex of the place is, as it frequently happens in the torrid zone; then the difference between the ſun's declination, and his zenith diſtance, is the latitude of the place.

If the ſun or ſtar have no declination, but move in the equinoctial that day, then the elevation of the equator will be equal to his meridian altitude; and conſequently his meridian altitude is the complement of the latitude to 90. This latter method is beſt accommodated to the uſes of navigation, as being practicable at ſea; but the former preferable at land.

LATTIN, *Latton*, or *Leton*, is properly yellow copper, or rather red copper, prepared with calamine; being commonly made of the Swediſh or Hungarian copper, by mixing therewith a like weight of mineral calamine brought from Aix la-Chapelle, Limbourg, and Namur; which is almoſt of the colour of the iron mineral.

LAVANDER. A plant with blue flowers, in the form of a grain, of an agreeable aromatic taſte and ſmell; from which an oil is extracted, confounded by ſome with that of aſpic, becauſe the aſpic plant is a ſpecies of lavander.

LAVATORY, or *Lavadero*. A name given to certain places in Chili and Peru, where gold is got out of earth by waſhing. See *Gold*.

Sometimes very conſiderable pieces are found in lavatories, particularly pieces of 24 ounces each. There are ſeveral lavatories, where pepitas, or pieces of virgin gold are found of a prodigious ſize; among others they tell of one that weighed 512 ounces, bought by the Count de Moncloa, viceroy of Peru.

Nine or ten leagues to the eaſt of Coquimbo, are the lavatories of Andacoll, the gold whereof is 23 carats fine; their work here always turns to great profit, except when the water fails them; the natives maintaining that the earth produces gold continually; becauſe, after having been waſhed 60 or 80 years, they find it impregnated afreſh, and draw almoſt as much out of it as at firſt.

LAUDANUM. A name given by chemiſts to certain preparations, chiefly extracts of opium, by reaſon of their excellent qualities. See *Opium*.

There are divers kinds of laudanum; as Sydenham's liquid laudanum, tartarized liquid laudanum, and others.

LAUNCH, in the ſea-phraſe, is to put out: thus they ſay, *launch the ſhip*; that is, put her out of the dock, or off of the quay.

LAVOT. A corn meaſure uſed at Cambray; 4 of which make about 7 Engliſh buſhels.

LAUREL. A tree ſo well known as to need no deſcription: the berries whereof are of ſome uſe in phyſic, dying, and among farriers; which ſhould be choſen new, odorous, clotted, of a ſolid conſiſtence, and of a green colour, inclining to yellow; but that which is green, ſmooth, and liquid, ſhould be rejected, as undoubtedly ſophiſticated. The oil of laurel is uſed ſucceſsfully againſt cold humours, and in ſome other remedies; but its greateſt conſumption is by farriers.

LAURENCE, or *St. Laurence*. A great river of Canada in North America. See *America*.

AURENCE is alſo a name given by the Portugueſe to
e iſland of Madagaſcar. See *Madagaſcar*.
VKS, is a term at Peterſburg for the ſhips belonging
the chief market of this new city, which the Czar
ter Alexowitz raiſed on the Baltic ſea with great
pence and magnificence, where all the trade of Peterſ-
rg is carried on. In 1710 this market-place was con-
med by a conflagration, with almoſt all the goods in
; but it was rebuilt with more magnificence, and ſe-
red with leſs apprehenſion from accidents by fire.
VN, is a certain kind of white, clear, thin, and very
e linen, manufactured moſt commonly in Sileſia in
ermany; as alſo in Valenciennes, Cambray, Arras,
paume, Vervins, Peronne, Saint Quintin, Noyon,
d other parts of the province of Hainault, Cambreſis,
rtois, and Picardy, ſubject to France.
here are three kinds of lawn, plain, ſtriped, and
nked: the plain are either 14 ells long, and 3-4ths
oad, or 12 or 13 ells long, and 2-3ds broad; the
iped and pinked being 3-4ths broad, and 14 ells
ng.
W of the ſtaple, or *Law merchant*, is a ſummary ſort of
w, originally differing from the common law, though
w adapted, and become a part of the laws of Great Bri-
in; one point of it conſiſting in this, that if there be two
int merchants of wares, and one of them dies, his ex-
utor ſhall have the moiety; which is not allowed in
e caſe of others, who are not merchants.
the land. A ſea-phraſe, uſed for ſailing out of ſight
land; in ſuch caſes they ſay, *they have laid the land*;
d if another point of land excludes the ſight of the
rmer, they ſay, *they have ſhut the firſt land in*.
ZARETTO, in ſome countries, eſpecially at Leghorn,
d in other parts of Italy, is an edifice appointed for
rſons coming from places ſuſpected of the plague, to
rform quarentine in; where ſhips are unladen, and their
ews laid up for 40 days, more or leſs, according to the
ne and place of departure. See *Quarentine*.
ZULI, or *Lapis Lazuli*. A ſort of precious ſtone, of
blue colour, veined and ſpotted with white and yellow;
ing the ſame with what is otherwiſe called azure ſtone;
which is prepared the fine pigment called ultrama-
ne. See *Azure*, and *Ultramarine*.
is found in mines of gold, ſilver, and copper, as alſo
pits of marble; but the laſt is that generally in uſe;
hich, to be good, ſhould be able to reſiſt fire and ſmoke,
d to come out of them with new luſtre.
aturaliſts diſtinguiſh three kinds of lapis lazuli: the firſt
lled old rock; which is pure, ſmooth, a fine blue, with
autiful yellow ſtreaks like veins of gold, which are
equently no more than veins of pyrites. The ſecond
lled the new rock, is ſtuffed with common ſtones, its
lour weaker, and its price lower. Theſe two kinds
e brought from Perſia and Siam. The third kind is
ought from the mountains of Auvergne in France, be-
g mixed with the common rock whence it is dug;
d is of a pale blue, ſprinkled with greeniſh ſpots, and
eins of pyrites; which, when ſufficiently charged with
ots of green, is ſold for the Armenian ſtone. See *Ar-
enian*.
The lapis lazuli is of ſome uſe in medicine, prepared
y calcining and waſhing it ſeveral times; after which it
akes an ingredient in the famous confection of al-
ermes; ſometimes, notwithſtanding all its lotions, it
ontinues purgative, by reaſon of the vitriolic matter it
ontains.
A. A river which riſes near Luton in Bedfordſhire, runs
E. by Whetamſtead in Hertfordſhire, then E. through
ertford and Ware, then S. dividing Eſſex from Hert-
rdſhire, and afterwards Eſſex from Middleſex, falling
to the Thames a little below Blackwall; by which river
reat quantities of corn and malt are brought to Lon-
on out of Hertfordſhire.
AD. A coarſe, heavy, impure metal; of all others the
oſteſt and moſt fuſible when purified, called by chemiſts
aturn.
ead is found in various countries; but abounds parti-
ularly in Great Britain, eſpecially in Derbyſhire, Flint-
ire, and Montgomeryſhire. It is alſo found in ſeveral
kinds of ſoils and ſtones; ſome of which beſides contain gold, ſome ſilver, others tin.

Lead is a metal of much uſe, eaſily melts, mixes with gold, ſilver, and copper, and communicates its humidity to them; but, not being able to endure the violence of the fire which they undergo, it retires, and carries with it all that was heterogenous in them, ſo as neither gold nor ſilver are refined without lead; to which may be added, that the coarſer kind of precious ſtones boiled in lead are thereby rendered much more brilliant. See *Plumbery*.

Engliſh, Iriſh, and Scotch lead, by an arret of council of the 6th September 1701, was enranked amongſt contraband goods in France, and ratified as ſuch by another arret of the 3d March 1722, in favour of German lead, and other leads imported from the North.

LEAD-*duſt*, is a preparation uſed by potters, made by throwing charcoal-duſt into melted lead, and ſtirring them a long time together; to ſeparate the coal again, they only waſh it in water, and dry it afreſh; its uſe being to give a varniſh and gloſs to their works.

Burnt LEAD, *Plumbum uſtum*, is a chemical preparation uſed in medicine, made of plates of lead melted in a pot with ſulphur, and reduced by fire into a brown powder.

White LEAD, uſed by painters, is only thin plates of lead, diſſolved with vinegar.

Litharge of gold or ſilver, is only the lead uſed in purifying copper. See *Litharge*.

Red LEAD, is a preparation of mineral lead calcined and rubified, uſed by painters, potters, and phyſicians.

By the help of chemiſtry there are alſo extracted from lead, ſalts, balſams, oils, vinegar, a magiſtery, and other things diſguiſed under the name of Saturn, to amuſe the ignorant. See *Minium*.

Salt, or *Sugar of* LEAD, is an eſſential ſalt of vinegar, incorporated with the proper ſubſtance of lead, or ceruſs diſſolved in ſpirit of vinegar.

Balm of LEAD, or *Saturn*, is an oil drawn from the ſalt of lead by diſtillation, after having diſſolved it in ſpirit of turpentine.

Magiſtery of LEAD, is the calx of lead purified and ſubtilized; being made of lead diſſolved in *aqua fortis*, pouring a filtrated ſalt water into it; whence reſults a magiſtery extremely white, which, when ſoftened by ſeveral lotions, is mixed with pomatums for the face and complexion.

Black LEAD, is a kind of mineral ſtone, of a black colour, but ſilvered and ſhining, found chiefly in lead mines, and appearing to be nothing elſe but lead not yet arrived at maturity; much uſed for pencils, or crayons for deſigning, being melted like the common lead.

LEAD *company*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 3d of William and Mary, dated the 4th of October 1692, by the appellation of The governor and company of ſmelting down lead with pit-coal and ſea-coal; whereby they were impowered to raiſe a joint ſtock for the effectual carrying on the buſineſs of ſmelting, or refining lead from the ore with ſea-coal, inſtead of wood.

This corporation is under the direction of a governor, deputy-governor, and 12 aſſiſtants, who manage their affairs at a convenient houſe in Ingram's court, Fenchurch-ſtreet, London.

LEAF, or *beaten gold*. See Leaf *Gold*.

LEAGUE. An extent of ground, conſidered lengthwiſe, ſerving to meaſure the diſtance of one place from another; and containing more or leſs geometrical paces, according to the different uſages and cuſtoms of countries.

A ſea-league is uſually reckoned 3000 geometrical paces, or three Engliſh miles: the large leagues of France are uſually 3000, and in ſome places 3500 paces; the mean or common league is 2400, and the ſmall league 2000.

The Spaniſh leagues are larger than the French, 17 Spaniſh leagues making a degree, or 20 French leagues, or 69½ Engliſh ſtatute miles; the leagues of Germany and Holland contain 4 geographical miles each.

The Perſian leagues are nearly the ſame with the Spaniſh, that is, they are equivalent to 4 Italian miles; and the Perſians mark their leagues by trees, as the antient Romans by ſtones.

In Japan, the league conſiſts of 1800 fathoms, diſtinguiſhed by little hillocks, raiſed on purpoſe by the road ſide. See *Mile*.

LEAGUE, is alſo a covenant, entered into by one prince or ſtate with another; and though leagues are commonly offered, either for conqueſt, or maintaining a ballance in power, yet they may be for a general peace, and the ſecurity of trade.

A truce is a league, or ceſſation from war, for a certain time agreed upon by both ſides. Treaties made with enemies for a time only, called truces, are ſaid to be general, for all the ſtates or countries of the one, or the other prince, for all perſons, and all ſorts of commerce; or elſe they are particular for certain places and perſons, and for their commerce. But ſometimes a truce holds the place of a peace, ſuch having been made between princes equal in power, unwilling to quit any thing of their rights by peace, yet deſiring to live quietly in the ſtate wherein they are, ſatisfying by this means the point of honour.

LEAKAGE. The ſtate of a veſſel that leaks: it denotes alſo an allowance of 12 *per cent.* to merchants importing wine, out of the cuſtoms thereof; and of two barrels in 22 of ale to brewers, out of the exciſe.

LEATHER. The ſkin or hide of a beaſt, tanned or otherwiſe dreſſed, and fitted for various purpoſes. See *Hide*, and *Skin*.

Leather is a great article of trade; as it employs the butcher, tanner, tawyer, leather-dreſſers, curriers, glovers, harneſs-makers, coach-makers, ſadlers, breeches-makers, gilt leather-makers, ſhoemakers, and bookbinders.

LEATHER *Crope*. A ſort of tanned hides. See *Hide*.

LEATHER *Mill*. See *Mill*.

LEATHERSELLER, is a perſon who buys large quantities of ſkins, or prepared leather, and ſells them to the different manufacturers.

LEATHERSELLERS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 22d of Henry VI. in 1442, by the name of The wardens and ſociety of the myſtery or art of leatherſellers of the city of London.

They conſiſt of a prime and 3 wardens, 26 aſſiſtants, and 156 liverymen; who, at their admiſſion, pay a fine of 20 l. each; and have a ſtately hall in Little St. Helen's, wherein they manage their affairs.

By a grant of Henry VII. the wardens of this corporation, or their deputies, were impowered to have the inſpection of ſheep, lamb, and calves leather throughout the kingdom, for the more effectually preventing frauds in theſe ſeveral commodities.

LECH. A river of Holland, formed by the river Rhine; which runs from E. to W. through the provinces of Guelderland and Utrecht; and, uniting with the waters of the Maes, falls into the German ſea, near the city of Briel.

LECTH. A manner of accompting in the Eaſt Indies, particularly in the Mogul's territories, which ſignifies 100,000.

LEDGER, in merchants accompts. See *Book*-keeping.

LEDGES, in ſhip-building, are thoſe ſmall pieces of timber, which come thwart the ſhip, from the waſt-trees to the roof-trees, to bear up the nettings and gratings.

LEE. A term variouſly uſed at ſea; though its general uſe is to ſignify the part towards, or oppoſite the wind. Thus, the

LEE *ſhore*, is that on which the wind blows; ſo that to be under the lee ſhore, is to be cloſe under the weather ſhore, or under wind.

A LEE *the helm*, ſignifies, put the helm to the leeward ſide of the ſhip.

Take care of the LEE *hatch*, is a word of command to the man at the helm, to take care that the ſhip goes not to the leeward of her courſe.

LEEDS. A town of Yorkſhire, ſituated on the river Aire, 20 miles S. W. of York; where there is one of the greateſt markets for woollen cloth in Great Britain; great quantities being bought up every week by the merchants, and ſent into Ruſſia, Germany, and other foreign countries. The town is very populous, and they employ all the villages in the neighbourhood in this manufacture.

LEEFANGE, in a ſhip, is that rope which is reeved into the cringles of the courſes, when they would hale in bottom of the ſail to lace on the bonnet; very uſeful in a ſtrong gale to take in the ſail.

LEERWICK. A town of Scotland, in Main-Land, of the iſlands of Shetland, in the county of Orkney, markable for its herring-fiſhery.

LEES. The groſſeſt and thickeſt parts of wine, oil, other liquors; or the ſediment found at the bottom the veſſel.

A kind of gravelly ſand is made with the lees of burnt and prepared, uſed by dyers, and others.

Vinegar-makers make a great trade of the lees of dried, and made into cakes, after having ſqueezed out remains of the liquor in preſſes.

LEEWARD *Iſlands*. See *Caribbee* Iſlands.

LEEWARD *ſhip*, is one that is not faſt by the wind, which ſails not ſo near the wind, nor makes ſo g way as ſhe ſhould.

To lay a ſhip by the lee, or *come up by the lee*, is to her ſo, that all her ſails may lie flat againſt her ma ſhrouds, and that the wind may come right upon broadſide.

LEEWAY, or *leeward way of a ſhip*, is the angle by the line on which the ſhip ſhould run according to courſe, or the point of the compaſs ſteered upon, and real line of the ſhip's way.

All ſhips are apt to make ſome leeway; ſo that in ing up the log-board, ſomething muſt be allowed for way; the ordinary rules being theſe. 1. If the ſhip upon a wind, allow one point for leeway. 2. If wind blow hard, ſo that one top-ſail is forced to taken in, allow two points for leeway. 3. If it ſo hard, that both topſails muſt be taken in, and the runs high, allow three points for the leeway. 4. If fore-ſail being furled, ſhe try under a main-ſail, or zen, ſhe will make her way four points before the be But, 5. If under a mizzen only, ſhe will make her about two points before the beam. 6. If ſhe lie a with all her ſails furled, ſhe will make her way one p before the beam.

LEGEND, in coinage, denotes the words or letters, graven about the margins of coins; thus the legend French crown is, *Sit nomen Domini benedictum*; and of a moidore, *In hoc ſigno vinces*.

LEGIS. The beſt Perſian ſilk next to the cherbaſſy; being three ſorts, the Vourine the fineſt, the Bourmio next degree, and the Ardaſſine the coarſeſt.

Theſe different kinds of ſilk are either exported Bander-Abaſſi in the Perſian gulph; or from the towns of the Levant, particularly from Smyrna.

LEGHORN. A port-town of Italy, in the duchy of cany, ſituated in 11 deg. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 30 of N. lat. See *Italy*.

LEGUME, denotes beans, peas, vetches, &c. other called pulſe: antient writers on huſbandry conſider turneps, and all grains and roots for family-uſe, as legu

LEIPSIC. A city of Germany, in the circle of Saxony, remarkable for its conſiderable trade; being tuated in 12 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. min. of N. lat. See *Germany*.

LEITH. A port-town of Scotland, 2 miles N. of burgh, which it ſerves for a port; its ſituation being 3 deg. of W. lon. and 56 deg. of N. lat.

LEMAN *Lake*, ſometimes called the *lake of Geneva*, city ſtanding at the weſt end of it, is bounded by S zerland on the N. and E. by Savoy on the S. and France on the W. being 60 miles long, and 12 bro and in ſome places 400 fathoms deep; abounding variety of excellent fiſh. It reſembles the ſea in the lour of its waters, and the ſtorms raiſed in it. In ſ mer it has ſomething like a tide, occaſioned by the m ſnow, which runs into it more plentifully from the A that ſurround it, at noon-day, than in the morning evening. The river Rhone runs through it, and bri with it a vaſt quantity of water in ſummer, when ſnows melt; and then both the lakes and rivers of S zerland are much higher than in the winter.

LEMMON. A common fruit, chiefly imported f Spain and Portugal; as alſo from Barbary.

LEMMONADE. A drink prepared of water, ſugar, and citron, or lemmon juice. This factitious liquor is ſo popular in Paris, that it has given its name to a new eſtabliſhed company, called *lemonadiers*.

LEMNIAN *earth*, *Terra Lemnia*. A medicinal aſtringent ſort of earth, of a fatty conſiſtence, and reddiſh colour; uſed in the ſame caſes as bole; brought from the iſland of Lemnos, from whence it is denominated. Many form it into round cakes, and impreſs a ſeal upon it; whence it is alſo called *terra ſigillata*.

LEMNOS. An iſland of the Archipelago in European Turky, ſituated in 26 deg. of E. lon. and 39 deg. of N. lat. See *Turkiſh* iſlands.

LENA. A great river, which riſes in Siberia, in Aſiatic Ruſſia; and running north from the latitude of 55 to 72, falls into the frozen ocean; by which river the Ruſſians ſeem to have ſome expectations of finding a way to Japan and China.

LENTISCUS. The wood of an evergreen tree of the ſame name, of ſome uſe in phyſic as an aſtringent and corroborative; being uſed alſo for tooth-picks.

It contains a kind of gum, or reſin, much like maſtic, or rather the maſtic itſelf, or incenſe of Perſia, ſo highly commended by Strabo. See *Maſtic*.

It has nearly the ſame properties with the ſaunders; but has more of the turpentine in it, and ſometimes paſſes by urine. See *Santalum*.

LEOGANE. A town belonging to the French, in Hiſpaniola. See *French* America.

LEON. A city of Mexico, capital of the province of Nicaragua; having a very extenſive trade, ſituated in 91 deg. of W. lon. and 11 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

LEONDALE. A coin current in ſeveral parts of the Grand Signior's territories, and ſo called from a lion impreſſed on one of its ſides; being worth about 20 d. ſterling.

LEPANTO. A port-town of European Turky, ſituated in 23 deg. of E. lon. and 38 deg. of N. lat: on the north ſide of the gulph of Lepanto, in the province of Livadia.

LERINS. Two iſlands on the coaſt of Provence, in South France, 5 or 6 miles ſouth of Antibes; the one called St. Margaret, and the other St. Honorat.

LESBOS, or *Metelin*. An iſland of the Archipelago, in Aſiatic Turky, ſituated in 26 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 38 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. See *Turkiſh* Iſlands.

LESSOW. One of the Daniſh iſlands. See *Denmark*.

LETTON. See *Latten*.

LETTER. A writing from one perſon, addreſſed and ſent to another, whereby mercantile buſineſs is ſupported through the remoteſt parts of the world.

The rates of poſt-letters, as by the ſtatute of the 9th of Queen Anne, and other things in that act relative to merchants, are as follows.

Foreign European Letters and Packets.

	S. s. d.	D. s. d.	T. s. d.	Oz. s. d.
From any part of France to London	0 10	1 8	2 6	3 4
From London thro' France to any part of Italy or Sicily by the way of Lyons: or to any part of Turkey, by the way of Marſeilles, and on the contrary - - - -	1 3	2 6	3 9	5 0
From London thro' France to any part of Spain or Portugal, poſt paid to Bayonne, and the contrary -	1 6	3 0	4 6	6 0
From any part of the Netherlands to London - - - -	0 10	1 8	2 6	3 4
From London, thro' the Netherlands, to any part of Italy or Sicily, poſt paid to Antwerp, and on the contrary - - - - -	1 0	2 0	3 0	4 0
From London, thro' the Netherlands, to any part of Germany, Switzerland, Denmark, Sweden, and all parts of the North, and the contrary - - - - -	1 0	2 0	3 0	4 0
From London, thro' the Netherlands, to any part of Spain or Portugal, and the contrary - - - - -	1 6	3 0	4 6	6 0
From any part of the United Provinces to London - -	0 10	1 8	2 6	3 4
From London, thro' the United Provinces, to any part of Italy or Sicily, and the contrary - -	1 0	2 0	3 0	4 0
From London, thro' the United Provinces, to any part of Germany, Switzerland, Denmark, Sweden, and all parts of the North, and on the contrary	1 0	2 0	3 0	4 0
From London, thro' the United Provinces, to any part of Spain or Portugal, and the contrary - -	1 6	3 0	4 6	6 0
From London, thro' the Netherlands, or the United Provinces to Hamburgh, poſt paid to Antwerp or Amſterdam, and the contrary	0 10	1 8	2 6	3 4
By Packet-boats				
Between London, Spain, or Portugal	1 6	3 0	4 6	6 0

Ireland: Letters and Packets.

From London to Dublin, and the contrary; and not coming from or directed on board a ſhip - -	0 6	1 0	1 6	2 0
From Dublin, to or from any place, not exceeding forty Engliſh miles from the chief office in Dublin, and not coming from or directed on ſhip-board - -	0 2	0 4	0 6	0 8
If above forty miles from Dublin and within the kingdom - -	0 4	0 8	1 0	1 4

North-Britain: Letters and Packets.

From London to Edinburgh, and the contrary: and to and from Dumfries, to Cockburnſpel; and between either of thoſe places and Edinburgh, not coming from or directed on ſhip-board - -	0 6	1 0	1 6	2 0
From Edinburgh, not exceeding fifty miles in Scotland, and not directed on, nor from on board a ſhip	0 2	0 4	0 6	0 8
From any place above fifty, and not exceeding eighty miles in Scotland from Edinburgh, and not coming from, nor directed on ſhip-board	0 3	0 6	0 9	1 0
And if to or from places above eighty miles from Edinburgh in Scotland	0 4	0 8	1 0	1 4

Note, That writs, &c. incloſed, are liable to pay in proportion to the ounce, reſpectively in Great Britain and Ireland.

Engliſh, or South-Britiſh, or inland Letters are rated thus:

	S. s. d.	D. s. d.	T. s. d.	Oz. s. d.
From London, to or from any place not exceeding eighty miles diſtance from London - - - -	0 3	0 6	0 9	1 0
And to or from any place above eighty miles from London -	0 4	0 8	1 0	1 4

American Letters and Packets.

All letters and packets paſſing from London to Jamaica, Barbadoes, Antegoa, Montſerat, Nevis, and St. Chriſtopher's, and on the contrary	1 6	3 0	4 6	6 0
From London to New York, and the contrary - - - -	1 0	2 0	3 0	4 0
From any part of the Weſt Indies to New York - - -	0 4	0 8	1 0	1 4
From New York to any place within ſixty miles thereof, and the contrary	0 4	0 8	1 0	1 4
From New York to Perth-Amboy, the chief town in Eaſt New Jerſey, and to Bridlington in Weſt New Jerſey, and the contrary: and from New York to any place, not exceeding a hundred Engliſh miles, and the contrary - - -	0 6	1 0	1 6	2 0
From Perth-Amboy and Bridlington to any place not exceeding ſixty Engliſh miles, and the contrary	0 4	0 8	1 0	1 4
From thoſe places, and the contrary, not exceeding a hundred Engliſh miles - - -	0 6	1 0	1 6	2 0
From New York to New London, the				

chief

	S. s. d.	D. s. d.	T. s. d.	Oz. s. d.
chief town in Connecticut in New England, and to Philadelphia the chief town in Philadelphia, and the contrary - - -	0 9	1 6	2 3	3 0
From new London and Philadelphia, to any place not exeeeding ſixty Engliſh miles, and back again -	0 4	0 8	1 0	1 4
From thoſe towns, not exceeding a hundred miles, and back-again	0 6	1 0	1 6	2 0
From New-York to New-port, the chief town in Rhode-iſland, and Providence plantation in New England; and to Boſton the chief town in Maſſachuſets bay in New England; and to Portſmouth the chief town in New Hampſhire in New England; and to Annapolis the chief town in Maryland, and from each of theſe places to New York -	1 0	2 0	3 0	4 0
From Newport, Boſton, Portſmouth, and Annapolis, aforeſaid to any place not exceeding ſixty Engliſh miles, and back - -	0 4	0 8	1 0	1 4
And from theſe towns, not exceeding a hundred Engliſh miles, and thence back - - -	0 6	1 0	1 6	2 0
From New-York to the chief offices in Salem and Ipſwich, and in Piſcataway, and to Willliamſburg in Virginia, and thoſe places to New-York - -	1 3	2 6	3 9	5 0
From the chief offices in Salem, Ipſwich, Piſcataway, and Williamſburgh aforeſaid, to any place not exceeding ſixty Engliſh miles, and the contrary - -	0 4	0 8	1 0	1 4
And from thoſe towns not exceeding a hundred Engliſh miles, and the contrary - -	0 6	1 0	1 6	2 0
From New-York to Charles-town, the chief town in Carolina, and the contrary - - -	1 6	3 0	4 6	6 0
From Charles-town aforeſaid, to any place not exceeding ſixty Engliſh miles, and the contrary -	0 4	0 8	1 0	1 4
And all letters and packets from Charles-town aforeſaid, to any place not exceeding a hundred Engliſh miles, and thence back - -	0 6	1 0	1 6	2 0

And all letters, and packets of letters, directed to or from on board any ſhip in any port within his Majeſty's dominions, pay one penny over and above the rates chargeable by this act.

Penny-poſt letters within the bills of mortality, and 10 miles round from the general letter-office in London, pay as before this act was made.

Note, That by a proviſo in the aboveſaid act, all merchants accompts, not exceeding one ſheet of paper, and all bills of exchange, and invoices, and bills of lading, are allowed without rate; and alſo all covers of letters, not exceeding a quarter of a ſheet of paper, ſent by the way of Vienna, Marſeilles, Venice, or Leghorn, to be ſent to or from Turky, are to paſs without rate.

No packet is to be carried out of Great Britain in foreign ſhips.

The poſt is to pay nothing for paſſing ferries in North America.

Inland letters are to pay where delivered; and the two univerſities to pay as before the making of this act.

All letters on board any ſhips that may touch in any port, are, under the penalty of 5 l. for every offence, to be delivered to the deputy poſtmaſter of ſuch place, who is to pay to the perſon delivering the ſame one penny *per* letter.

Carriers, coaches, and watermen, are not to carry letters, unleſs they concern the goods carried by their carts, waggons, or pack-horſes, at the ſame time.

Note, The ſafe carriage of letters is a thing of ſuch vaſt conſequence to the trading part of a nation, and of ſo intereſting a nature to thoſe who negotiate any kind of buſineſs, that the robbing of the mail under any pretext whatſoever is made death by the law.

The days of ſending letters to foreign parts are,

Monday, to France, Italy, Spain, Flanders, Germany, Sweden, and Denmark.

Tueſday, to Holland, Flanders, Sweden, Denmark, Germany, and all parts of England, Ireland, Scotland, and Wales.

Thurſday, to France, Spain, Italy, and all parts of England and Scotland.

Friday, to the Netherlands, Germany, Sweden, and Denmark.

Saturday, to all parts of England, Ireland, and Scotland. To Portugal once a fortnight, and to the Weſt Indies the laſt Thurſday in every month.

The days foreign mails are due at London.

Tueſday and *Friday*, from Holland and France.

Monday and *Thurſday*, from Flanders.

Monday, *Wedneſday*, and *Friday*, from Ireland.

Once a week from Portugal, Spain, &c.

LETTER *of Advice*, is when one merchant draws bills upon another, and writes him word concerning it.

LETTER *of Attorney*. A writing authoriſing one perſon to do ſome legal act for another; as to receive debts, to ſue a third perſon, and the like.

LETTER *of Credit*. A letter which a merchant or banker directs to his correſpondent abroad, ordering him to credit the bearer as far as a certain ſum. See *Credit*.

LETTER *of Exchange*. See *Bill* and *Exchange*.

LETTER *of Licence*, in trade, is an inſtrument or writing, granted to a man who has failed, or broke, ſigned and ſealed by his creditors; which letter uſually gives a longer time for payment; ſo that the debtor having ſuch an aſſurance, may go about his buſineſs without fear of an arreſt.

LETTERS *of Mart*, or *Marque*, are letters under the privy ſeal, granted to the King's ſubjects, impowering them to take, by force of arms, what was formerly taken from them by the ſubjects of ſome other ſtates contrary to the law of mart. See *Marque*, and *Repriſal*.

LETTERS *Patent*, or *Overt*, are writings ſealed with the great ſeal of England, whereby a man is authoriſed to do, or enjoy any thing, which of himſelf he could not do. See *Patent*.

They are ſo called by reaſon of their form; as being open, with the ſeal affixed, ready to be ſhewn for the confirmation of the authority given by them.

Common perſons may grant letters-patent; but they are rather called patents, than letters-patent; yet, for diſtinction, thoſe granted by the King are ſometimes called letters-patent royal. See *Monopoly*.

LETTERS *of Reſpite*. Letters iſſued out by a prince, in favour of honeſt unfortunate debtors, againſt too rigorous creditors, whereby payment is delayed for a certain term. They are ſtill in uſe in France, and ſome other countries, and take their name *a reſpirando*, becauſe they give the debtor a breathing while.

Numeral LETTERS, are thoſe uſed inſtead of cyphers, to expreſs numbers. The Roman numerals are C, D, I, L, M, V, X; which are all formed by deſcribing a circle and drawing two lines through it, croſſing each other at right angles in the center.

LETTER *founder*. A perſon that caſts or makes letters or types for the printers. See *Stationer*'s company.

LETTER *of Requeſt*. See *Marque*.

LETTERHOUT. A kind of reddiſh wood, bordering upon a violet colour, brought by the Dutch into Europe from China, where it is uſed in ſeveral kinds of inlaid work. Their profit by its ſale is very extraordinary, for they purchaſe 100,000 lb. for a crown, and ſell it afterwards for 100, and never leſs than 50 crowns.

LEVANT. The eaſt part of the Mediterranean, bounded by Natolia, or the Leſſer Aſia, on the north; by Syria and Paleſtine, on the eaſt; by Egypt, and Barca, on the ſouth; and by the iſland of Candia, and the other part of the Mediterranean, on the weſt. See *Turky*.

LEVANT, is alſo the name of one of the iſlands of Hieres on the coaſt of Provence in France. See *French* iſlands.

LEUWEDAALDERS. A ſilver coin, ſtruck in Holland

r the commerce of Smyrna, and worth about 3 s. 7 d. erling.

VARDEN. A city of the United Provinces, capital f the province of Weſt Friezland, ſituated in 5 deg. 35 in. of E. lon. and 53 deg. 20 min. of N. lat.

VISBOURG. Capital of the iſland of Cape Breton in orth America, ſituated in 61 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. d 46 deg. 50 min. of N. lat.

WIS *Iſland*. The moſt N. W. of any of the Weſtern ands of Scotland, ſituated in 8 deg. odd min. of W. n. and between 58 and 59 deg. odd min. N. lat. the and being exceedingly well ſituated, both for the her- ng and cod fiſhery.

WIS *Iſland*, or the *Iſland of St. Lewis*, is alſo an African and, in the mouth of the river Senegal, where the French ve a ſettlement.

WIS *Port*. See *Port* Lewis.

YDEN. A city of Holland, ſituated on the old chan- el of the Rhine, near the ſouth-end of the lake called arlem-meer, in 4 deg. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 12 min. N. lat.

ZON. One of the Philippine iſlands, ſituated in 123 g. of E. lon. and 11 deg. of N. lat. See *Philippine* lands.

ARD. A French coin, four of which are worth about halfpenny ſterling.

BANUS *Mountains*, in Aſiatic Turky, are ſituated be- ween Syria and Paleſtine; extending from Sidon on the evant ſea, eaſtward beyond Damaſcus; much taken no- e of for the fine cedars they produce.

BAW, A port-town of Poland, in the duchy of Cour- nd, ſituated on a bay of the Baltic, in 21 deg. of E. n. and 56 deg. 40 min. of N. lat.

BBY. A ſort of flax, cultivated with great care by the habitants of Mindanao, one of the Philippine iſlands; th which, but chiefly its oil, they drive on a great de to the Sunda iſlands, with the Chineſe, and even th the Spaniards, when not at war with them.

BRA denotes the antient Roman pound, which was uſed France for the proportions of their coin, till the time Charlemagne, or perhaps till that of Philip I. in 1093; eir ſols being ſo proportioned, as that 20 of them were ual to the libra; but by degrees it became a term f compt, and every thing of the value of 20 ſols, was lled a livre. See *Livre*.

BRA *penſa*, in the Engliſh law-books, denotes a pound of oney in weight.

was uſual in former days, not only to tell the money, t to weigh it; in regard many cities, lords, and bi- ops, having their mints, coined money, and often very d; for which reaſon, though the pound conſiſted of ſhillings, they always weighed it.

ENCE. An inſtrument duly ſigned and ſealed by per- s authoriſed by public authority, to ſell goods about ſtreets; to ſell wine, ſpirituous liquors, and beer; to ve hackney-coaches; to carry chairs; to hawkers of ws-papers, and other things of the like nature. See *awkers*.

ENCE, *letter of*. See *Letter* of licence.

ENTEN. A term in Holland, for the paſſports given the cuſtomhouſes, for loading and unloading ſhips, and d-carriages; but it alſo ſignifies ſometimes the duties importation and exportation.

HEN. A plant proper for dying red, found com- only upon the rocks of Amorgos, and thoſe of Nicouria, hich are of the number of the Turkiſh Archipelago nds.

his plant grows in greyiſh bunches, about two or three hes long, divided into ſmall ſlips, almoſt as ſlender as air; the whole plant being ſolid, white, and of a ſa- e taſte.

e Engliſh buy up great quantities of it. It is ſent o abundantly to Alexandria, and is ſold uſually for 10 wns the quintal; or 2 l. 10 s. ſterling the hundred.

or *Lye under the ſea*. Sailors ſay a ſhip *lies under the* when her helm being made faſt a-lee, ſhe lies ſo a- , that the ſea breaks upon her bow, or broad-ſide.

GE. A city of Germany. See *Germany*.

EY. A river of Ireland, riſing in the county of Wicklow; then running weſt through that county into Kildare, turns north-eaſt, runs through the county of Dublin; and having paſſed by the metropolis, falls into the Iriſh channel a little below it.

LIFTS, in a ſhip, are ropes belonging to the yard-arms, to cauſe them to hang higher or lower, as occaſion requires; but the top-ſail lifts ſerve for ſheets to the top-gallant yard.

LIGHTER. A large broad boat, or floating veſſel, which goes with ſails and oars, common on the river Thames; where it is uſed for the carriage of timber, coals, and ballaſt. Lighters are of ſeveral kinds; as, a ballaſt gin; a cloſe lighter; a kiele; a camel; a hoy; and an open lighter.

LIGHTERAGE. See *Wharfage*, and *Cuſtoms*.

LIGHT-HOUSE, is a fire lighted in the upper part of an elevated tower on the coaſt, or at the entrance of ports and rivers, to guide ſhips in the night-time; whence it is commonly called *pharos*. The Schagen of Denmark, and the tower of Cordovan upon the river of Bourdeaux, are very uſeful light-houſes for thoſe who ſail in theſe quarters. The pharos of Genoa is well known in the Mediterranean. The pharos of Alexandria, built by Ptolemy Philadelphus, was formerly ſo famous that it gave its name to ſeveral others; and the celebrated Coloſſus of Rhodes was formerly the moſt renowned in the world.

In the treatiſe of naval trade it is ſaid, that a light-houſe, or beacon by ſea, is very neceſſary in thoſe parts where there are bars, or entrances into harbours; that there muſt be high-tide to carry ſhips over them.

Light-houſes and ſea-marks are of various kinds; as ſometimes large trees or buoys, muſt be allowed to be proper cautions to ſtrangers and others, that they may not precipitately run on rocks or ſands to their ruin and deſtruction: and in the reign of King Charles II. care was taken for erecting light-houſes and lanthorns, and other ſpecial ſea-marks; but more eſpecially for the building that moſt excellent light-houſe near Goldſton by Yarmouth; which, for its height, curioſity, and form, was then reckoned not inferior to any, but rather excelling all or moſt in any country whatſoever.

In the 4th and 5th years of Queen Anne, an act paſſed for the rebuilding of a light-houſe on the Ediſtone, by the maſter, wardens, and aſſiſtants of Trinity-houſe of Deptford Strand; and that after the ſame was rebuilt, and a uſeful light therein, there ſhould be paid to them by the maſters and owners of Engliſh ſhips and barks paſſing by the ſaid light-houſe, except coaſting veſſels, one penny *per* ton inward, and one penny a ton, if outward bound; of which the merchant is to pay a moiety, and the owner of any ſhip the other moiety; and by ſtrangers two pence *per* ton of the burthen of the ſhip or veſſel; and every coaſter two ſhillings only, for each time they paſs by the ſaid light-houſe. See *Ediſtone*.

The ſaid duties are to be received by ſuch perſon or perſons, as the ſaid maſter, wardens, and aſſiſtants of Trinity-houſe ſhall appoint; and where ſuch ſhips, barks, or other veſſels ſhall arrive, load or unload; and on non-payment, to be recovered in any of the courts at Weſtminſter.

By the 3d George II. it was enacted, That all powers, liberties, privileges, and authorities granted in letters-patent of her Majeſty Queen Anne, bearing date the 13th day of July, in the 13th year of her reign, to William Trench, Eſq; for erecting a light-houſe on the iſland or rock called Skerries, lying in the ſea near Holyhead, in the county of Angleſea; and the ſaid light-houſe, with its rights, members, and appurtenances, ſhould be valid and effectual, and continue for ever, veſted in Sutton Morgan, his heirs and aſſigns; to the intent that he and they ſhould keep the light-houſe in good repair, and in the night-ſeaſon maintain a proper fire therein, ſo as the trade and navigation in the channel may be effectually preſerved.

That the ſaid Sutton Morgan might demand and receive from the maſters and owners of every ſhip, hoy, bark, catch, veſſel, or bottom, paſſing, croſſing, or ſailing in or through St. George's channel, by Holyhead or Wicklow, to or from any port, creek, or place in Great Britain ſouthward of Holyhead from or to Wicklow, or any port or place northward thereof in the kingdom of Ireland; or that ſhould paſs, croſs or ſail from any port, creek, or place northward of Holyhead, either

from any foreign or other port, and ſail between Holyhead and the Calf of Man, or any way in St. George's channel, to the ſouthward of Dublin; and likewiſe from all coaſters, paſſing to or from any port, creek, or place in Great Britain, north of Holyhead, from or to any port, &c. ſouth thereof, one penny *per* ton coming into, and the like ſum going out of the ſaid ports, places, creeks, or harbours, in Great Britain or Ireland; and double ſuch duties for any foreign ſhip or veſſel, &c. paſſing, croſſing, or ſailing, in like manner, according to their burthens. But ſhips loaden with coals, or the greateſt part of their loading being coals, paſſing from England to Ireland, ſhould only pay one voyage in every year.

That if any maſter, or other perſons having the command of any ſhip, &c. ſhould refuſe to pay the duties, the ſaid Sutton Morgan, his heirs, &c. may ſeize any of the goods, guns, tackle, &c. of any ſuch ſhip or veſſel, and keep the ſame till the duties aforeſaid are paid; and in caſe of any delay in payment, for the ſpace of three days after ſuch ſeizing, he might cauſe the ſame to be appraiſed by two ſworn appraiſers, and afterwards ſell the goods, and therewith ſatisfy himſelf for the duties, together with the charge of ſeizure, &c. rendering the overplus to the owner.

There are large lanthorns ordered by ſtatute, with duties payable for maintaining them, to be erected at the head of ſome keys; ſuch as at the harbour of Minhead in Somerſetſhire, on the river Severn, &c.

LIGHTS *aboard ſhips*. See *Signals*.

LIMA. The capital of the province of Lima, and of the whole empire of Peru, ſituated in 76 deg. of W. lon. and 12 deg. 30 min. of S. lat. See *Spaniſh* America.

LIME, *Calx of ſtone*. A white ſoft friable ſubſtance, prepared of ſtone, marble, free ſtone, chalk, or other ſtony ſubſtance, by burning in a kiln.

The great uſe of lime is in the compoſition of mortar for building; the fire taking away all its humidity, and opening its pores; ſo that it becomes eaſily reducible to powder, and miſcible with ſand.

Quick LIME, is that, ſuch as it comes out of the kiln or furnace.

Slaked LIME, is that diluted, or drenched in water, and reſerved for the making of mortar.

The beſt lime is that made of the hardeſt, firmeſt, and whiteſt ſtones; and which is ſlaked at its coming out of the furnace.

Sir H. Wotton looks on it as a great error in the Engliſh to make lime of refuſe, and ſtuff without choice; whereas the Italians at this day, and much more the antients, burnt their firmeſt ſtones, and even fragments of marble where it was plentiful, which in time became almoſt marble again for its hardneſs, as appears in their ſtanding theatres, and other places.

There are two kinds of lime in common uſe in England; the one made of hard ſtone, the other of a ſoft calcarious or chalky ſtone; whereof the former is much the ſtrongeſt.

That made of ſoft ſtone, or chalk, is beſt for plaiſtering of ceilings and walls within doors; and that made of hard ſtones for buildings, and for plaiſterings without doors.

Good lime may be alſo made of milſtone, not coarſe and ſandy, but fine and greaſy, as alſo of all kinds of flints; though it is hard to burn them, unleſs in a reverberatory furnace, as being apt to run to glaſs.

Dieuſſant recommends lime made of ſea-ſhells as the beſt; but Goldman finds fault with it, as being impatient of moiſture, and therefore eaſily peeling off from the outſides of walls; it is however the common lime uſed in the Indies.

Before the ſtones are thrown into the kiln, they ſhould be broke in pieces; otherwiſe the air contained in their cavities, too much expanded by the heat, makes them fly with ſo much violence as to damage the kiln; and, according to Alberti and Palladio, lime will not be ſufficiently burnt in leſs than 60 hours intenſe heat.

The marks of a well burnt lime, according to Alberti, are, that its weight be to that of the ſtone in a ſeſquialterate proportion; that it be white, light, and ſonorous; that when ſlaked, it ſtick to the ſides of the veſſel. To which Boeckler adds, that when ſlaked it ſhould ſend forth a copious thick ſmoke; and Dieuſſant, that it requires a great deal of water to ſlake it.

To preſerve lime ſeveral years: ſlake, and work it up; dig a pit under ground, into which let it paſs through a hole open at the bottom of the veſſel. As ſoon as the pit is full, cover it up with ſand, to prevent its drying; thus keep it moiſt till it be uſed.

Boeckler gives another method: cover a ſtratum of lime two or three feet high, with another of ſand of the like height; pour on water enough to ſlake the lime, but not to reduce it to duſt after ſlaking. If the ſand cleave in chinks, as the ſmoke aſcends, cover them up, ſo as no vent may be given thereto. This lime, he adds, kept 10 or 12 years, will be like glue, and will further be of particular uſe in painting walls, as being no way prejudicial to the colours.

Lime is much uſed by tanners, ſkinners, &c. in the preparation of their leather. It is alſo of ſome medicinal uſe, being applied externally in deſiccative and epulotic medicines.

LIME-*water* is ſaid to be an excellent remedy, taken internally in cachexies, green ſickneſs, dropſy, ſcurvy, obſtructions of the liver, ſpleen, and other diſorders.

It is made by pouring ſix pounds of hot water on one of quicklime, leaving them to ſoak and macerate for the ſpace of 24 hours.

LIME-*ſtone*, *Lapis calcarius*, is a ſoftiſh ſtone, of a coarſe grain; and being burnt in a kiln, makes an ingredient in mortar and plaiſter.

Bird-LIME. See *Bird*-lime.

LINE, in geography and navigation, is uſed by way of eminence for the equator, or equinoctial line.

The line in the heavens is a circle deſcribed by the ſun in his courſe on the 21ſt day of March, and the 21ſt of September. The line on the earth is an imaginary circle anſwering to that in the heavens. It divides the earth from eaſt to weſt into two equal parts, and is at an equal diſtance from the two poles; ſo that thoſe who live under the line have the poles always in their horizon. See *Pole*.

Latitudes commence from the line. See *Latitude*.

Seamen uſe to chriſten their freſh men and paſſengers the firſt time they cut the line.

Ship of the LINE, is a veſſel large enough to be drawn up in the line, and to have a place in a ſea fight, or the line of battle. See *Ship*.

LINE *of demarcation*, or *Alexandrian line*, is a meridian paſſing over the mouth of the river Marignon, and between the capes of Houmas and Malabrigo; ſo called from Pope Alexander VI. who, to end the diſputes between the two crowns of Caſtile and Portugal, about their boundaries, in 1493, drew an imaginary line on the globe, which was to terminate the pretenſions of each; by which partition the Eaſt Indies fell to the lot of the Portugueſe, and the Weſt Indies, then newly diſcovered, to the Caſtilians.

LINE, denotes alſo a ſmall French meaſure, containing the 12th part of an inch, or 144th part of a foot. See *Inch*. Geometricians, notwithſtanding its ſmallneſs, conceive the line ſubdivided into ſix points; the French line anſwering to the Engliſh barley corn. See *Meaſure*.

LING. A ſort of cod-fiſh, ſalted chiefly for the uſe of ſhips, commonly called old ling. See *Fiſh*.

LINK. A ſort of taper or flambeau, made of tow and melted pitch and roſin, to go in the rain or wind without in a dark night.

LINNEN, or *Linen*. A name given to a ſort of texture of interwoven threads, made of flax, hemp, or cotton; of which there are many ſorts, particularly cambrics and muſlins, the former being manufactured in ſeveral parts of Europe, eſpecially Flanders and Germany; the latter in the Eaſt Indies.

The greateſt trade for Dutch linnens, uſually called Holland, is carried on at Haerlem, where they are almoſt all ſent raw from the places of their manufacture to be bleached. This ſort of linnen, whoſe materials are of flax, is very cloſe, ſmooth, and firm, though very fine; but the most eſteemed are manufactured in the province of Frizeland

the pieces being 3-4ths and two fingers in breadth, and 29 or 30 ells in length.

Silesia linnens usually contain 10 ells in length, and 2-3ds in breadth.

At St. Gall, in Switzerland, an abundance of fine, middling, and coarse linnens, are manufactured; the pieces containing 11 or 12 ells in length, and 2-3ds and a half in breadth.

At Ghent, Courtray, Bruges, and Ypres, in Flanders, very fine and white linnens are manufactured; being 3-4ths in breadth, and from 35 to 40 ells in length.

Several provinces of France have linnen manufactures, especially Hainault, Artois, Cambresis, Picardy, the Isle of France, Anjou, Bretagne, Normandy, le Perche, le Maine, and Champagne; there having been such an abundance of regulations from time to time for their manufacture, length, breadth, and stamps, that it is very difficult to determine them.

The linnen manufactory in Scotland is very considerable: but of late years Ireland has made such improvements in the linnen manufacture, that it is now become the staple commodity of the country; and it stands fair to make a much more considerable progress, by a new invention of printing linnens with copper-plates, instead of those of wood; which was rejected in England; though the inventor hath met with proper encouragement in Ireland, where the linnen board have settled 200 l. a year upon him, to encourage him in his undertaking, which is nobly supported.

Linnen is of general use; but the manufacture of Indian cotton cloth has not succeeded in Europe. Great Britain pays large sums, on the balance of trade, for foreign linnens; though this may be greatly prevented by a proper encouragement of the growth of flax in England, Scotland, and Ireland, as also in the northern colonies of America.

By the statute of the 10th of Queen Anne, linnens chequered, striped, printed, painted, stained, or dyed, imported; after payment of the duties, are to be marked or stamped with a seal or mark, to denote the same; which stamps or seals are to be provided by the commissioners of the customs, and may be altered as occasion requires; but the counterfeiting them is felony: and people selling linnen knowingly with such counterfeit stamps, their aiders, abettors, and assistants, are to forfeit 100 l. and to stand in the pillory for two hours.

If designed to be again exported, before shipping, notice must be given to the proper officer appointed by the commissioners of the customs, when and where they are to be packed up; who is to take off the seals, and return an account of the kinds and quantities to the officer appointed to receive the same.

By an act passed in the 10th Anne, linnen in Scotland, exposed to sale, or designed to be exported, not marked with a stamp of a royal burgh, &c. the penalty is 5 s. per piece.

Counterfeiting such stamp incurs a penalty of 50 l. or a year's imprisonment, if the offender prove insolvent.

By an act passed in the 3d George I. Irish linnen imported into Great Britain may afterwards be exported to the British plantations in America duty free.

The bounty on British and Irish linnens exported, was granted by the statutes of the 15th and 16th of George II.

The Bounty.

For British and Irish linnens, not striped or chequered, nor made into buckrams nor tillettings, exported from Great Britain to Africa, America, or Portugal, or to Spain, when it shall be lawful to export such linnens to that kingdom, there shall be paid, without fee, reward, or any deduction whatsoever, for every yard of the value of 6 d. and not exceeding the value of 12 d. -	0 0 1
For ditto, under the value of 6 d. -	0 0 0½

Upon the exporter's expressing in his entry, and endorsing on the cocket the true quantity and value of the said linnens, and producing a certificate from the searcher, verifying the shipping thereof; and likewise giving security for double the value of the goods, and 100 l. that they shall not be relanded in Great Britain, Ireland, or the Isle of Man; and making oath of the respective values of the said linnens, and that they were made in Great Britain or Ireland; and, if Irish, that they are the property of persons usually residing in Great Britain.

To be paid out of the new duty on cambrics.

The proper officers may open all such linnens; and if, upon examination, it shall appear they are of greater value than 12 d. *per* yard, the exporter or proprietor shall, on demand made in writing by the customer or collector, and comptroller, deliver such goods into his Majesty's warehouse, for the use and benefit of the crown; and thereupon the customer or collector shall, out of any money in his hands belonging to the crown, pay the exporter 13 d. *per* yard, taking a receipt for the same in full satisfaction for the said goods. And the commissioners of the customs are to cause the said goods to be sold for the best advantage; and, out of the produce, the money so advanced, is to be repaid to the customer or collector, to be replaced to the fund from whence the same was borrowed; and the overplus is to be paid into the exchequer towards the sinking fund, by the title of *The additional duty on cambrics.*

But if the exporter refuses to deliver the linnen so undervalued, and to receive the 13 d. *per* yard in full satisfaction for the same; or if any linnens are entered at 3 d. *per* yard or upwards, in order fraudulently to obtain a bounty of 1 d. instead of 0½ d. *per* yard, and on examination shall be found to be under the value of 6 d. *per* yard; or if they are under a wrong denomination, or are ever less than in the denomination, or are less in quantity than expressed in the endorsement on the cocket; all such goods are forfeited, and the merchant to lose the bounty. But if the goods are found to be right entered, the officer is, at his own charge, to cause the same to be repacked; which charge may be allowed by the commissioners, if they think it legal.

If any of the above mentioned linnens are landed in Great Britain, Ireland, or the Isle of Man, they are to be forfeited; and every person concerned therein is to forfeit 12 d. for every yard relanded. Any person falsely making any oath, directed to be made on account of this bounty, is to be imprisoned 12 months, and to forfeit 200 l. one moiety of the respective forfeitures, as any other incurred by means of this bounty, to be paid to the use of his Majesty, and the other to the person who sues for the same.

By the same acts, bonds taken, and debentures made out, on account of this bounty, are not chargeable with the stamp-duties.

The business of smuggling cambrics and French lawns is become so practicable, that instead of its being attended with dangers and uncertainties, there is not perhaps any branch of trade carried on with less hazard, or more advantage. Several persons make it their business to visit Cambray, Valenciennes, and the towns adjacent, to buy goods at the best hand, ship them, and get them insured by the master of the vessel belonging to this, or almost any other trade to England. The premium is, on an average, about 1-7th of the commodities; an expence very easily borne, as they are subject to no duties or difficulties on their arrival in England; and it is very evident, that at this time the tradesmen in London might be served with cambric and French lawns on lower terms than before the farcical prohibition, were not the profits to the importer of those goods greater than any fair merchant ever reaped from the trade of France. Nor perhaps is the trade of the East India company altogether free from evils of this sort.

The muslins brought by that company about eight or nine years ago were such as are daily smuggled from Holland and France; when those that the fair trader is obliged to buy at the company's sales are perhaps such as no body else would encumber their ships with. About the time above mentioned, nankeens were sold for 6 s. 6 d. *per* piece; they are now so high as 10 s. 6 d. and very bad. The smugglers from Amsterdam and Rotterdam deliver them in London at 10 s. and a much better commodity. India dimitties is an article that always was marketable in England;

land; but they have not been imported of late by the company; which occaſioned them to be ſmuggled from Holland. See *Hemp*, *Flax*, *Cotton*, *Yarn*, *Sail-cloth*, *Cambrics*, and *Muſlins*.

LINNEN *Board*, is a ſociety of noblemen, gentlemen, and merchants, eſtabliſhed in Dublin for promoting the linnen manufactures of Ireland; who have granted many conſiderable premiums for its improvement, which has rendered it of great advantage to that country, from whence many thouſands of yards are yearly imported into England.

Mr. Cary, in his Diſcourſe on trade, p. 191. has a particular eſſay intitled, Some conſiderations relating to the carrying on the linen manufacture in the kingdom of Ireland; to which the reader is referred, as it is too long to be inſerted in this work. See *Ireland*.

LINNEN *Draper*, is a tradeſman of conſiderable ſtock, and a very uſeful member of ſociety; for, by his retailing of linnen cloth of all ſorts, he employs a great number of hands both in Scotland and Ireland; he alſo vends the linnens of Germany, France, and Holland, which Great Britain receives partly in return for its woollen manufactures exported to ſome of thoſe countries; but there are alſo wholeſale linnen drapers, ſometimes called Hamburg merchants, who ſupply the retail dealers with goods all over the kingdom.

LINNEN *Mill*. See *Mill*.

LINGOT. See *Ingot*.

LINGUET. A ſort of ſattin, ſent from France to Smyrna.

LINSEED, *Lint*, or *Line-ſeed*, is the ſeed of flax; being a ſort of grain, which enters the compoſition of ſeveral medicines; yielding, by expreſſion, an oil that has moſt of the qualities of nut-oil, and is accordingly ſometimes uſed inſtead thereof in painting, and to burn. That drawn without the aſſiſtance of fire, is of much eſteem in medicine, and ſuppoſed good in the cure of catarrhs, coughs, aſthma's, and other diſeaſes of the breaſt. See *Flax*.

LINUM *Catharticum*, or *Mountain flax*. A medicinal plant, much uſed by common people, being a rough harſh purge, and powerful detergent; as alſo an evacuater of viſcid and watery humours from the moſt remote lodgments, which makes ſome fond of it in rheumatiſms; but it is only fit for robuſt conſtitutions.

LINUM *Vivum*, or *Incombuſtibile*. A foſſile, ſtony ſubſtance, of a whitiſh colour, and woolly texture, ſeparable into threads, or filaments; capable of being ſpun and wove into a ſort of cloth, which will endure the fire without conſuming. See *Aſbeſtos*.

LINTHEES. A kind of ſilk ſtuff manufactured in the province of Nankin in China, and ſent in great quantities by the Dutch to Japan.

LIPARI *Iſlands*, are ſituated in the Mediterranean, 40 min. north of Sicily, between 13 and 16 deg. of E. lon. and in 36 deg. of N. lat.

LIQUID *Amber*. See *Amber*, and *Balſam*.

LIQUID *Confects*. See *Confects*.

LIQUID *Laudanum*. See *Laudanum*, and *Opium*.

LIQUID *Meaſures*. See *Meaſure*.

LIQUID *Storax*. See *Storax*.

LIQUID *Sulphur*. See *Sulphur*.

LIQUIDATION. The act of reducing and aſcertaining either ſome dubious diſputable ſum, or the reſpective pretenſions which two perſons may have to the ſame ſum.

LIQUOR, or *Liquour*. Any moiſt, juicy, or fluid matter that is drinkable; among brewers, the hot water before it is run over the malt, is peculiarly ſo called; and with the diſtillers, all manufactured ſpirits, whether brandy, beer, geneva, or other cordial waters, are called *liquors*.

LIQUORICE, *Liquoritia*, called alſo *Glycyrrhiza*, and *Radix dulcis*. A ſweet taſted root, of conſiderable uſe in medicine, againſt coughs, and other diſorders of the breaſt and lungs. The ſhrub which bears it is cultivated in ſeveral parts of England, particularly about Pontefract in Yorkſhire: in ſome provinces of France, Spain, Germany, and Muſcovy; and eſpecially in Perſia, where it thrives better than any where elſe; there being ſome on the banks of the Carafa, Kenki, and Kerniarpa, whoſe roots are thicker than the arm, and whoſe juice, in reſpect of ſtrength and virtue, are preferable to others. New green liquorice ſhould be choſe ſmooth, and even about the thickneſs of the middle finger; ruddy without yellowiſh within, eaſy to cut, and of an agreeable ſmell. This root being boiled a long time in water, till the fluid has got a deep yellow tincture, and the water at length evaporated over a moderate fire, there remains a black ſolid ſediment, which is alſo called liquorice, or liquorice juice, or ſometimes Spaniſh juice; which ſhould be choſen black without ſide, and of a ſhining black within, eaſy to break, and of an agreeable taſte; the whitiſh and yellowiſh liquorice juice are good for nothing, being uſually no other than compoſitions of ſugar, ſtarch, a little gum tragacanth, and liquorice powder.

The native liquorice juice is very ſweet upon the palate, even more than ſugar or honey; and is yet accounted a great quencher of thirſt; on which account Galen preſcribes it in dropſies. It is very balſamic and detergent, inſomuch that there is ſcarce any medicinal compoſition for diſeaſes of the breaſt, in which it is not an ingredient.

LIS. A river of the Netherlands, which riſes at Liſburgh in Artois, and running north-eaſt into Flanders, paſſes by Aire, St. Venant, Menin and Courtray, uniting its waters with the Scheld at Ghent.

LISATZ. A ſort of cotton cloth, of various qualities, brought from the Eaſt Indies, Perſia, and Mecca.

LISBON. The capital of the kingdom of Portugal, ſituated on the north bank of the river Tagus, in 9 deg. 25 min. of E. lon. and 38 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. See *Portugal*.

L'ISLE. The capital of French Flanders, ſituated in 3 deg. of E. lon. and 50 deg. 42 min. of N. lat. See *French Netherlands*.

LISSA. An iſland in the Gulph of Venice, ſituated in 7 deg. of E. lon. and 42 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. ſubject to Venice.

LIST, in manufactures, denotes the border of a ſtuff, or that which bounds its breadth on each ſide: all cloths and ſtuffs of ſilk, wool, or cotton, having liſts, which contribute to the goodneſs of the ſtuff, and farther ſerve to ſhew their quality; ſo that it is has given occaſion to ſeveral regulations relative to their matter, colour, and work.

LITHARGE. A metaline ſubſtance, formed of the ſpume of ſilver, or other metals; uſed in the compoſition of plaiſters, to give them a due conſiſtence.

There are two kinds of litharge; the one natural, the other artificial. The natural is a mineral, ſometimes found in lead mines, reddiſh, ſcaly, brittle, and ſomewhat reſembling white lead: but this kind is ſo rare that the ſhops ſell only the artificial, which is of two kinds, that of gold, and that of ſilver, or rather it is the ſame, with this difference, that the one has undergone a greater degree of fire than the other.

Naturaliſts are not well agreed about the artificial kind; ſome conſider it as a metalic ſcum, raiſed on the ſurface of lead, when melted, after having ſerved to purify gold, ſilver, or copper. Others conſider it as a metalic ſoot, or ſmoke, ariſing from thoſe metals mixed with the lead uſed in purifying them, which, ſticking to the top of the chimnies of furnaces, is formed in a kind of ſcales. Others conſider it as the lead itſelf, uſed in refining of thoſe metals, and eſpecially copper, which laſt opinion appears the moſt credible; and the rather on account of the great quantities of theſe litharges brought from Poland, Sweden, and Denmark, where copper mines are much more frequent, than thoſe of gold and ſilver. The droſſy or recrementitious parts, fixing to the ſides of the teſt, are the litharge; and, according to the degree of calcination, become of divers ſhades of red colour: the deep being litharge of gold, and the paler litharge of ſilver.

Litharges are deſiccative, deterſive, and cooling, making the conſiſtence of ſeveral plaiſters. Potters uſe them to give a beautiful gloſs to their ware; though they are alſo uſed by painters, dyers, ſkinners, and glaziers: beſides when mixed with wine, they give it a bright ſprightly colour, but render it extremely unwholſome.

THOCOLLA. A cement uſed by lapidaries, to faſten precious ſtones, in order to cut them: which is compoſed of reſin and brick-duſt: for diamonds they uſe melted lead, putting them into it before it is quite cold: but for other cements they mix marble duſt with ſtrong glue; and to faſten their ſparks, add the white of an egg and pitch.

THONTHRIPTICS. Medicines proper to diſſolve the ſtone in the bladder and kidneys.

TRON. A meaſure uſed in France for grain, peaſe, beans, and other legumes; ſalt, flour, cheſnuts, and ſuch like; 16 of which make a buſhel.

VERPOOL. A port-town of Lancaſhire, ſituated on a bay of the Iriſh channel, in 3 deg. of W. lon. and 53 deg. 28 min. of N. lat.

VERY-*men*. Are ſuch members of a corporation, as are advanced above the yeomanry, and intitled to wear a livery gown on extraordinary occaſions. See *Company*.

VRE. An imaginary money of accompt, uſed in France, of two kinds; livre tournois, and livre pariſis.

The livre tournois, is 20 ſols tournois, or 9 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. ſterling, and each ſol is of 12 deniers tournois, or $\frac{19}{80}$ d. ſterling.

The livre pariſis is 20 ſols pariſis, each ſol pariſis being worth 15 deniers tournois; ſo that 1 livre pariſis is worth 25 ſols tournois.

The livre of Venice is about 7 d. ſterling; that of Bologna is 1 s. ſterling; that of Leghorn is 8 $\frac{2}{3}$ d. ſterling; that of Genoa is 10 $\frac{2}{3}$ d. ſterling; and that of Savoy, 1 s. 3 d. ſterling.

XIVIOUS, or *Lixiviate*, in chemiſtry, is underſtood of ſalts extracted from burnt vegetables by lotion.

ixivious Salts, are the fixt ſalts of plants, and other things, extracted by calcining the plants, or reducing them to aſhes, and afterwards making a lixivium of thoſe aſhes with water.

Mr. Boyle obſerves, that the difference between lixivious and urinous ſalts, conſiſts in this, that the former change the diſſolution of ſublimate in common water, into a yellow colour, which the latter do not.

XIVIUM *Lye*. A liquor made by the infuſion of wood-aſhes, which is more or leſs pungent and penetrating, as it is more or leſs impregnated with ſalts and fiery particles.

What is left after the evaporation of ſuch a liquor is called a lixivious ſalt; ſuch as all thoſe are, which are made by incineration.

Lixiviums are of great uſe, not only in medicine, but alſo in bleaching, and ſugar works. See Pot-*Aſhes*.

ZARD. A cape or promontory of Cornwal, 15 m. S. of Falmouth, and 10 miles S. of Helſton, from whence ſhips bound to the weſtward uſually take their departure.

ZARD, is alſo a cotton cloth manufactured at Cairo in Egypt; ſome of theſe cloths are alſo met with at Aleppo, where they are called lizals; both of them making a part of the European trade.

LAMAS. A kind of Peruvian ſheep, called by the Americans of Peru llamas, by thoſe of Chili Chillehueques, and by the Spaniards carneros de la terra.

Theſe animals have the head ſmall in proportion to the body, which partakes of the form of a horſe and ſheep; their upper lip is like that of a hare, their neck long, and bent downwards, like that of a camel, and the hoof like that of a ſheep.

They feed upon a fine kind of a ruſh called ycho, and carry a hundred weight; but never travel in the night time. Their wool has a ſtrong and diſagreeable ſmell, tho' long, pretty fine, mixed with white, grey, and red, and employed for the ſame ſtuffs and manufactures as the Vigonia wool.

, is a term among the Chineſe for a ſort of gauze made at Canton, of three ſorts, which diminiſh gradually in length: the los of the third kind, being 12 ells in length, and 23 inches in breadth.

OAD *of hay*. See *Truſs*.

AD, among the miners in Derbyſhire, is nine diſhes of lead-ore.

AD-*ſtar*, the ſeamen's name for the pole or north ſtar.

ADSMAN, or *Lodeſman*, is he that undertakes the care of the ſhip after the pilot has brought her into the haven. See *Pilot*.

LOAD-*manage*, is the hire, ſometimes ſo called, which the pilot of a ſhip receives of the maſter, for conducting the ſhip up the river, or into port. See *Pilot*.

LOAD *ſtone*. See *Magnet*.

LOAM, or *Lome*, the common ſuperficial earth, conſiſting of clay, with a ſmall admixture of ſand in it. The word, it muſt be obſerved, is uſed with great uncertainty by ſome authors, for the black mother-earth, called mould; and by others for a reddiſh earth uſed in building.

LOAN. The intereſt, premium, or reward, given for the uſe of a certain ſum of money, for a certain time; alſo the act of lending money or any other thing to another perſon for a limited time.

When the reduction of the intereſt of money was propoſed in the Britiſh parliament, an honourable gentleman was pleaſed to ſay, "That the natural intereſt of money "ſhould always depend upon the proportion between the "quantity of money already lent at intereſt, and the "quantity wanted to be borrowed; ſo that public loans "of all kinds ſhould tend towards the enhancing the "natural intereſt of money, and public payments ſhould "as neceſſarily tend towards its reduction. Therefore, "from the preſent low rate of intereſt upon the public "ſecurities, notwithſtanding our being now very near as "much in debt as we were at the end of the war, he "would venture to ſay, the natural intereſt upon all ſorts "of ſecurities would have been at, or below 3 *per cent*. "if we had paid off the greateſt part of our old, without contracting any new debt: and if we had done ſo, "he was convinced that the trade of the kingdom would "have been in a much more flouriſhing ſtate than it is "at preſent, and the nation much better able to ſupport "its friends, or to avenge itſelf upon its enemies." See *Intereſt*, and National *Debt*.

LOANDO. The capital of all the Portugueſe ſettlements in Angola, in Africa, ſituated in 14 deg. of E. lon. and 7 deg. of S. lat.

LOANGO. Capital of the province of Loango in Africa, ſituated in 11 deg. of E. lon. and 2 deg. 30 min. of S. lat. See *Guinea*.

LOBSTER, and *Lobſter-fiſhery*. See Lobſter-*Fiſhery*.

LOCHTA. A port-town of Sweden, ſituated on the Bothnic gulph, in 22 deg. of E. lon. and 65 deg. of N. lat.

LOCK. An inſtrument to faſten doors with, of a curious contrivance. When applied to a river it means where flood-gates, &c. ſtop the current or ſtream, or at leaſt reſerve a quantity in a canal, to ſwell or increaſe the natural depth and courſe of the river, and render it more fit for navigation.

LOCKER. A ſmall hole, or convenience to put things in, made along the ſides of a ſhip.

LOCKRAMS. A coarſe hempen cloth, chiefly manufactured in Lower Bretany in France; the piece containing 30 ells in length, and 2-3ds in breadth, of which the Engliſh buy up large quantities.

LODESMAN. See *Loadſman*.

LOFTS. Upper rooms, particularly warehouſes, for wool, and malt.

LOG. A ſea-term, ſignifying a ſmall piece of timber, of a triangular figure, on board a ſhip; into one end of which a convenient quantity of lead is caſt, to make it ſwim upright in the water: the other end being faſtened to the

LOG *line*. A little cord, or line, faſtened to one end of the log, and wound round a reel, fixed for that purpoſe in the gallery of the ſhip.

This line from the diſtance of about 10 fathom of the log, has certain knots or diviſions, which ought to be at leaſt 50 feet from each other: though it is the common practice at ſea, not to have them above 42 feet aſunder. See *Knot*.

The uſe of the *log* and *line* is to keep account, and make an eſtimate of the ſhip's way, or diſtance run; which is done by obſerving the length of the line unwound in half a minute's time, told by a half minute glaſs; for ſo many knots as run out in that time, ſo many miles the ſhip ſails in an hour.

Thus if there are four knots veered out in half a minute, the ſhip is computed to run four miles an hour.

To heave the LOG, as ſailors call it, they throw it into the water, letting it run till it comes without the eddy of the ſhip's wake; then one holding a half minute glaſs, turns it up juſt as the firſt knot turns off the reel, though ſome turn the glaſs as ſoon as the log touches the water. As ſoon as the glaſs is out, the reel is ſtopped; when the knots run off are told, and their parts eſtimated.

The log ought to be heaved every hour, or every two hours.

But this is a very precarious way of computing, and muſt always be corrected by experience and good ſenſe; there being a great deal of uncertainty, both in the heaving of it, in the courſe of the currents, and in the ſtrength of the wind, which ſeldom holds to the ſame tenor for two hours together; this being the interval between the times of uſing the log in ſhort voyages; though in longer ones they heave it every hour. Yet this is a more exact way of computing than any other in uſe; much preferable certainly to that of the Spaniards and Portugueſe, who gueſs at the ſhip's way, by the running of the froth or water by the ſhip's ſide; or to that of the Dutch, who uſe to heave a chip over board, and to number the paces they walk on the deck, while the ſhip ſwims between any two marks or bulk-heads on the ſide.

LOG-*board*, is a table divided into four or five columns, whereon are marked the reckoning of every day, from whence they are entered into the log-book, or traverſe book, ruled and columned juſt as the log-board is; whence it may be tranſcribed into the journals, and how much the ſhip gains in her courſe be eſtimated daily.

In the firſt column of the log-board is entered the hour of the day, from 1 to 1: in the ſecond, the rhumb, or the direction of the veſſel, with regard to the points of the compaſs: in the third, the number of knots run off the reel each time of heaving the log: in the 4th, the wind that blows: and in the 5th, obſervations on the weather, variation of the compaſs, and other matters.

LOG-*wood*, commonly called *dyers wood*, becauſe uſed by them in dying black; is chiefly brought from Campeachy and Honduras, in America. See *Indian* wood.

The logwood cutters were originally ſettled at the bay of Campeachy; but, being diſturbed there by the Spaniards, they removed to the bay of Honduras, where they ſupport themſelves by force of arms, being upwards of 1200 merchants and ſervants.

The country of Honduras where the Engliſh cut their logwood, is all a flat, and the greateſt part of it a moraſs, with ſeveral large lagunes, which in the rainy times are almoſt all overflowed. In the dry time of the year, the logwood cutters ſearch for their work, that is, where there are a good number of logwood-trees, and then build a hut near them, where they live during the time of their cutting. When they have cut down the tree they log it, and chip it, which is cutting off the bark and ſap; they then lay it in heaps, cutting away the underwood, and making paths to each heap, that when the rains come in, which overflow the ground, it ſerves as ſo many creeks or channels, where they go with ſmall canoes, or dories, and load them, bringing them ſometimes to the Bareaderas, 30 miles, from whence the people who buy it fetch it. Some of theſe trees grow very tall and ſtreight, tho' moſt of them are low and crooked: they bear a ſmall leaf, ſomething like the white thorn, and the underwood is alſo prickly: they bloſſom, and bear ſeed, which, by falling off, ſows the ground, from whence the young trees ſpring up, and the overflowing of the ground brings the ſoil over them, which makes them take root and grow a great pace. The general price of the wood at the Bareaderas is about 4 l. 10 s. *per* ton. The wood-cutters are generally a rude drunken crew, ſome of them have been pirates, and moſt of them ſailors. The logwood cutters during the floods generally live at the Bareaderas, which are 42 miles up the river, where they have built their huts upon pretty high banks, which juſt keep them out of the water in the time of the floods. As ſoon as they have notice of the arrival of any ſhip or veſſel at the mouth of the river, they flock down on board, in order to purchaſe ſuch things as they want, and are ſure to provide [a] ſtore of ſtrong liquor. The commodities which [ſuit] them are ſtrong liquors of all ſorts, proviſions, ſmall [arms], gun-powder, ſmall ſhot, cutlaſſes, hangers, axes, ozenbrigs [for] and ſhoes. Ozenbrigs is their general wear, and [alſo] all their cloathing, except hats and ſhoes: their pavilions [for] are alſo made of ozenbrigs; without which there is [no] poſſibility of living, there being ſuch multitudes of biting and ſtinging flies, as muſkitoes, galley-nippers, bottle-aſſes, and the like.

The Engliſh have an undoubted right to cut logwood [on] the coaſt of Honduras and Yucatan: but the Spaniards have always endeavoured to ruin this trade, which was one occaſion of the late war between the two crowns, and the Spaniards are now as buſy as ever in interrupting the Engliſh logwood cutters.

By an act paſſed in the 13th and 14th years of the reign of Char. II. logwood, or blockwood, may be imported by any perſons, and freely uſed in dying.

In the years 1713, 1714, 1715, and 1716, the quantity of logwood imported into Great Britain amounted to 14,965 tons, being on an average 3741 tons, which could not be leſs than 60,000 l. a year; though the price was then reduced from 40 l. to 16 l. *per* ton, and before the Engliſh were ſettled in the bay it was worth 100 *per* ton.

LOIRE. The fineſt river of France, riſing in the mountains of the Cevennes, running north and north-weſt thro' Lionnois and Orleannois, and paſſing by Nevers and Orleans; after which it runs due weſt by Tours, Angers and Nantz in Britany, and falls into the bay of Biſcay 40 miles below Nants; the whole courſe of the river being computed to be about 500 miles.

LOME. See *Loam*.

LOMMOND. A lake of the county of Lenox, in Scotland, which runs almoſt the whole length of the county and has ſeveral iſlands in it.

LONDON. The metropolis of Great Britain, where the firſt meridian is fixed in the preſent maps, lies in 51 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 300 miles S. of Edinburgh, 200 miles N. W. of Paris, 180 W. of Amſterdam, 500 S. W. of Copenhagen, 600 N. W. of Vienna, 1300 N. W. of Conſtantinople, 800 N. E. of Madrid, 800 N. W. of Rome, and 270 S. E. of Dublin. It includes Weſtminſter and Southwark; much the greater part lying on the north ſide of the river Thames, being about 17 miles in circumference, and containing about a million of inhabitants.

This city is the moſt opulent place of trade in the whole world: but ſome landed men ſay, that the immoderate growth of London undoes and ruins all the country.

It may therefore be well worth the inquiry of thinking men, what truth there is in this common and received notion, that the growth of London is pernicious to England; that the kingdom is like a rickety body, with a head too big for the other members.

For ſome people, who have thought much upon the ſubject, are inclin'd to believe, that the growth of the city is advantageous to the nation, and they ſeem to ground their opinion upon the following reaſons:

That no empire was ever great, without having a great and populous city.

That the Romans drew all the conquered cities of Italy into Rome.

That the people of Attica were no better than a crew of rude herdſmen; and neither flouriſhed in war, nor in civil arts, till Theſeus perſuaded them to inhabit Athens.

That the greatneſs of London will beſt preſerve the conſtitution, becauſe, where there is a great and powerful city, the prince will hardly enterpriſe upon the liberties of that people; in the ſame manner, a rich and powerful city ſeldom rebels upon vain and ſlight occaſions.

On theſe grounds, and many others, ſome people are apt to think the growth of London not hurtful to the nation; but, on the contrary, to believe that there is not an acre of land in the country, be it never ſo diſtant, that is not in ſome degree bettered by the growth, trade, and riches of that city.

LONDON *Aſſurance Office*. See *Inſurance*.

ONDON-*Bridge Water-works.* See *Water*-works.

ONDONDERRY. A city of Ireland in the province of Uiſter, ſituated near the mouth of the river Mourn, in 7 deg. 40 min. of W. lon. and 54 deg. 52 min. of N. lat.

ONG-*Boat*, is the largeſt and ſtrongeſt boat belonging to a ſhip, that can be hoiſted aboard of her: its uſe being to bring any goods, proviſions, or the like, to or from the ſhip; or on occaſion, to land men any where, and particularly to weigh the anchor.

ONG-*Cloth.* White or blue India cottons brought from the Coromandel coaſt, of which the Engliſh and Dutch buy up great quantities for their India trade, particularly for the Manilles.

ONG-*bow-ſtring-makers*, is a perſon whoſe buſineſs conſiſted in making bow-ſtrings.

ONG-*bow ſtring-makers of London*, is a company by preſcription, and not by charter, therefore may juſtly be deemed an adulterine guild: however it has obtained a coat of arms; and, in point of precedence among the city corporations, has the 82d place; the fraternity conſiſting of 2 wardens, and 19 aſſiſtants, but they have neither hall nor livery.

ONG-*Iſland.* See *Britiſh* America.

ONG-*Ell.* See *Meaſure.*

ONG-*meaſure.* See *Meaſure.*

ONGITUDE *of the earth*, is ſometimes uſed to denote its extent from weſt to eaſt, according to the direction of the equator; whereby it ſtands contradiſtinguiſhed from latitude of the earth, which denotes its extent from one pole to the other.

NGITUDE *of a place*, in geography, is its diſtance from ſome firſt meridian, or an arch of the equator, intercepted between the meridian of the place, and the firſt meridian. See *Meridian.*

ONGITUDE, *in navigation*, is the diſtance of a ſhip, or place, eaſt or weſt, from another, counted in degrees of the equator: but if this diſtance be counted in leagues or miles, or in degrees of the meridian, and not in thoſe proper to the parallel of latitude, it is uſually called departure. See *Departure.*

To diſcover an exact method of finding the longitude at ſea, is a problem that has extremely perplexed the mathematicians of theſe two laſt ages, and for whoſe ſolution great rewards have been publickly offered by the Engliſh, French, Dutch, and other nations; this being the only thing wanting to render navigation perfect. Various are the attempts that authors have made for this purpoſe, and various the methods they have propoſed, but ſtill without ſucceſs; all their ſchemes being found either falſe, precarious, impracticable, or in ſome way or other defective, ſo that the palm is ſtill unaſcertained.

What moſt aim at, is a method of determining the difference of time between any two points on the earth, for every 15 deg. of the equator anſwering to an hour; that is, one degree to 4 minutes of time, and one minute of a degree to 15 ſeconds of time; the difference of time being known, and turned into degrees, will give the longitude; and ſo on the contrary.

This ſome have pretended to effect by clocks, watches, and other automata; but always in vain, no time-keeper, excepting a pendulum, which cannot be applied at ſea, being ſufficiently ſure and exact for the purpoſe.

Others, with more probability, and to better purpoſe, ſearch for a means to find the longitude in the heavens: for, if the exact times of any celeſtial appearance be known for two places, the difference of thoſe times gives that of the longitude of thoſe places. Now in the ephemerides, the motions of the planets, and the times of all the celeſtial phenomena, as the beginning and ending of eclipſes, conjunctions of the moon with other planets, its entrance into the ecliptic, &c. are accurately calculated for ſome one place; therefore, if the hour and minute be known, wherein any of the ſame phenomena are obſerved in an unknown place, the difference between the hour and minute of that place, and that other to which the tables are calculated, conſequently the difference of their meridians, and their longitude from each other are known alſo.

Now the difficulty here does not conſiſt in the exact finding of the time, which is eaſily had from the altitude or azimuth of the ſun; but the defect lies in the paucity of proper appearances, capable of being thus obſerved: for all ſlow motions, as that of Saturn, are at once excluded, as ſhewing but little difference in a conſiderable ſpace of time; and it being here required, that the phenomenon be ſenſibly varied in two minutes time, an error of two minutes of time producing another of 30 miles in the longitude. Now there are no phenomena in the heavens that have theſe requiſites, excepting the ſeveral ſtages of an eclipſe of the moon; her longitude, or place in the zodiac, her diſtance from the fixed ſtars, or appulſe to them, her ingreſs into the ecliptic, or the points of her orbit, where that cuts the ecliptic; and the conjunction, diſtance, and the eclipſes of Jupiter's ſatellites. Of each of which in their order. 1. The method by the eclipſes of the moon is very eaſy, and ſufficiently accurate, were there but eclipſes every night. At the moment wherein we ſee the beginning, or middle of a lunar eclipſe by a teleſcope, we have nothing to do but take the altitude or azimuth of ſome fixed ſtar, from which the hour and minute are eaſily found, or without the altitude, if the ſtar be in the meridian. This hour and minute, therefore, thus found, and compared with that expreſſed in the tables, gives the longitude.

2. The moon's place in the zodiac is a phenomenon more frequent than that of her eclipſes; but then the obſervation thereof is difficult, the calculus intricate and perplexed, by reaſon of two parallaxes; ſo that it is ſcarce practicable to any tolerable degree of accuracy. Indeed, by waiting till the moon comes into the meridian of the place, and then taking the altitude of ſome remarkable ſtar, the altitude being ſuppoſed to be firſt known; from this altitude, and the latitude, we ſhall be able to find the time pretty accurately, tho' it will be better to do it by ſome ſtar in the meridian. Now the time being found, it will be eaſy to find what point of the ecliptic is then in the meridian, or mid-heaven. Thus we ſhall have the moon's place in the zodiac, correſponding to the time of our place: then, in the ephemeris, we find what hour it is in the meridian of the ephemeris, when the moon is in that part of the zodiac: thus we ſhall have the hour and minute of the two places for the ſame time, the difference of which will give the difference of longitude.

3. In regard there are many times when the moon cannot be obſerved in the meridian, there is another ſtill more frequent phenomenon, from which the longitude is ſought, that is, the moon's appulſe and receſs from the fixed ſtars: for from thence the moon's true place may be inveſtigated for the given time of obſervation. But this method by reaſon of the parallaxes, and the ſolution of oblique ſpherical triangles, and the various caſes, is ſo very difficult and perplexed, that mariners will ſcarce be able to make uſe of it, nor does it ſeem neceſſary here to give the praxis thereof. Thoſe however who are diſpoſed to uſe it, will find very great help in it from a ſtarry zodiac, publiſhed under the direction of doctor Halley, containing all the ſtars to which the moon's appulſe can be obſerved.

4. To find the longitude by the moon's ingreſs into the ecliptic, obſerve the moment of that ingreſs; then in the ephemeris, ſee what hour it is in the meridian of the ephemeris, when that ingreſs happens. The difference between theſe times gives the difference of longitude.

5. The phenomena of Jupiter's ſatellites are generally preferred to thoſe of the moon, for finding the longitude, by reaſon the former are leſs liable to parallaxes, and further afford a very commodious obſervation, in every ſituation of that planet above the horizon. Their motion is very ſwift, and muſt be calculated for every hour; and for that reaſon are not found in the common ephemerides, but are had elſe where.

Now to find the longitude by means of theſe ſatellites, with a good teleſcope, obſerve a conjunction of two of them, or of one of them with Jupiter, or any other the like appearance, and at the ſame time find the hour and minute from the meridian altitude of ſome ſtar: then conſulting tables of the ſatellites, obſerve the hour

and

and minute wherein ſuch appearance happens in the meridian of the place to which the tables are calculated. The difference of time as before will give the longitude. All methods which depend on the phenomena of the heavens having this one defect, that they cannot be obſerved at all times; and being, beſides, difficult of application at ſea, by reaſon of the motion of the ſhip; there are ſome who leaving the moon and the ſatellites, have recourſe to clocks and other automata: which could they be made perfectly juſt and regular, ſo as to move with the ſun, without either gaining or loſing, and without being affected with the change of air and of climates, the longitude would be had with all the eaſe and accuracy imaginable; nothing more being required but to ſet the machine by the ſun at the time of departure, and when the longitude of any place is deſired, to find the hour and minute from the heavens, which is done at night by the ſtars, and in the day by the ſun; for the difference between the time thus obſerved, and that of the machine, gives the longitude: but no ſuch machine has been yet diſcovered; wherefore recourſe has been ſtill further had to other methods.

Mr. Whiſton and Mr. Ditton have propoſed a method of determining the longitude, by the flaſh and report of great guns. Sounds, it is known, move pretty equally in all their ſtages, whatever the ſonorous body be that occaſions them, or whatever the medium that conveys them. If then a mortar or great gun be exploded at a place whoſe longitude is known, the difference between the time wherein the flaſh, which moves, as it were, inſtantaneouſly, is ſeen, and the ſound, which moves at the rate of four ſeconds in a mile, is heard, will give the diſtance of thoſe places from each other; whence if their latitudes be known, the difference of longitude will be likwiſe known.

Again, if the hour and minute of the exploſion be known, for the place where it is made, by obſerving the hour and minute from the ſun or ſtars, at the place whoſe longitude is required, the difference between thoſe times will give the difference of longitude.

Again, if the ſaid mortar be loaden with an iron ſhell full of combuſtible matter, and poſited perpendicularly, it will carry the ſame a mile high, which will be ſeen near 100 miles; if therefore neither the ſound ſhould be heard, nor the flaſh ſeen, the diſtance of any remote place from the place of the mortar, may be determined from the altitude of the ſhell above the horizon of the place unknown, and the diſtance and latitudes known, the longitude is eaſily found.

According to this ſcheme, it was propoſed to have ſuch mortars fixed at proper diſtances, and at known ſtations, on all the frequented coaſts, iſlands, capes, &c. and to be exploded at certain hours, for the obſervation of mariners.

This method, tho' good in the theory, yet is found uſeleſs in the practice, as being extremely troubleſome, and yet precarious. It ſuppoſes that ſounds may be heard forty, fifty, or ſixty miles, of which, it is true, we have inſtances, but they are very rare, and ordinarily the report of a cannon is not heard above half ſo far; and ſometimes much leſs. It ſuppoſes again, ſound to move always with equal velocity; whereas in fact its velocity is increaſed or diminiſhed as it moves with or againſt the wind. It ſuppoſes again the ſtrength of powder uniform, and that the ſame quantity carries the ſame range; the contrary whereof is known to every gunner. We ſay nothing of thick cloudy nights, when no lights can be ſeen; nor of ſtormy nights, when no ſound can be heard, even at inconſiderable diſtances.

There is another method of finding the longitude propoſed by the ſame Mr. Whiſton, that is, by the inclinatory or dipping-needle, which ſee under the article *Dipping-needle*.

By the ſtatute of the 12th of Queen Anne, ſeveral commiſſioners were conſtituted for the diſcovery of the longitude at ſea, and for examining and judging of all propoſals relating to the ſame; and it was enacted, that the ſaid commiſſioners, or any five of them, ſhould have power to receive propoſals for diſcovering the longitude: and in caſe they ſhould be ſo far ſatisfied of the probability of any ſuch diſcovery, as to think it proper to make experiment thereof, they ſhould certify the ſame to the commiſſioners of the navy, together with the perſons names who were authors of ſuch propoſals: and the ſaid commiſſioners were required to make out bills of ſums of money not exceeding 2000 l. as the ſaid commiſſioners for the longitude ſhould think neceſſary for making the experiments, payable by the treaſurer of the navy; which ſums he was to pay to ſuch perſons as ſhould be appointed by the commiſſioners for the longitude, out of any money that ſhould be in his hands unapplied.

That after experiment made of any propoſal, the commiſſioners ſhould declare how far the ſame were found practicable.

That the firſt diſcoverer of any ſuch method, his executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, ſhould have a reward of 10,000 l. if it determines to one degree of a great circle or 60 geographical miles; 15,000 l. if it determines the ſame to two-thirds of that diſtance; and 20,000 l. if it determines the ſame to one half of the diſtance; that one moiety of ſuch reward ſhould be paid when the commiſſioners agreed that ſuch method extended to the ſecurity of ſhips, within 80 geographical miles of the ſhores, which are places of the greateſt danger; and the other moiety when a ſhip, by the appointment of the commiſſioners, ſhould thereby ſail from Great Britain to any ſuch port in the Weſt Indies, as thoſe commiſſioners ſhould chuſe for the experiment, without loſing their longitude beyond the limits before mentioned.

That if any ſuch propoſal ſhould not be found of ſo great uſe as afore-mentioned; yet if the ſame, in the judgment of the commiſſioners, was found of conſiderable uſe to the public, the authors ſhould have ſuch leſs reward as the commiſſioners ſhould think reaſonable, to be paid by the treaſurer of the navy.

By the ſtatute of the 14th of Geo. II. it was further enacted, That the ſaid commiſſioners, or any five of them, ſhould have full power to apply ſuch part of the ſum of 2000 l. granted for making experiments on any propoſals for finding the longitude, as was not before laid out, in experiments as they ſhould think neceſſary, for the making a ſurvey of the coaſts of Great Britain and Ireland.

Mr. John Harriſon laid propoſals before the commiſſioners, who thought proper to put them to an experimental proof, for which purpoſe they paid him 1250 l. The commiſſioners alſo appointed Mr. William Whiſton to ſurvey and determine the longitude and latitude of the chief ports and headlands on the coaſt of Great Britain and Ireland, and the iſlands and plantations thereto belonging; for which purpoſe they paid him 500 l. ſo that only 250 l. remained for further experiments: but by the laſt mentioned act a further ſum of 2000 l. was granted for that purpoſe; the act mentioning that by encouraging ſuch propoſals, and trying ſuch experiments, to diſcover the longitude, ſuch diſcoveries may at length be produced as will effectually anſwer that end, and thereby contribute very much to the advantage of the trade and honour of Great Britain. The governor of Greenwich hoſpital, the judge of the high court of admiralty, the ſecretary of the admiralty, the ſecretaries of the treaſury, and the comptroller of the navy, for the time being, are alſo appointed commiſſioners.

LONGO *Iſland*. See *Coos*.

LOOF, or as it is uſually pronounced, *luff*, a term uſed in conducting of a ſhip—thus:

Loof *up*, is to bid the ſteerſman keep nearer to the wind.

Loof *into an harbour*, is to ſail into it cloſe by the wind.

To ſpring the Loof, is when a ſhip, that was going large before the wind, is brought cloſe by the wind.

When a ſhip ſails on a wind, that is, on a quarter wind, they ſay to the ſteerſman, *keep your luff, veer no more, keep her to, touch the wind, have a care of the lee latch*; all which words ſignify much the ſame thing; and bid the man at the helm to keep the ſhip near the wind.

Loof *of a ſhip*, denotes that part of her aloft, which lies juſt before the cheſs-trees: hence, the guns which lie here are called *loof pieces*.

LOOKING-*glaſs*. See *Glaſs*.

PEN. A corn meaſure uſed at Riga, 46 of which ke a laſt.

P-*holes*, in the ſea language, are holes made in the mings of the hatches of a ſhip, to fire muſkets through a cloſe fight.

INER. One whoſe buſineſs is to make bridle-bits, l ſpurs.

NERS *company of London*, appears to be an ancient fra- nity; yet they were only incorporated by letters-patent the 10th of Queen Anne, dated the 3d of December 12, by the appellation of The maſter, wardens, aſ- tants, and commonalty of loriners, London. They governed by a maſter, 2 wardens, and 24 aſſiſtants, th a livery of 69 members, whoſe fine is 10 l. having ſmall but convenient hall at London-wall to diſpatch eir affairs in.

RRAIN and *Bar*. Once part of the circle of the Upper hine in Germany, is bounded by the dutchy of Luxem- rg on the north; by Alſace, the duchy of Deux-points, d the palatinate of the Rhine on the eaſt; by the unty of Burgundy or Franche-Compte on the ſouth; d by Champaign on the weſt; being almoſt round, d upwards of 100 miles over either way. It is ſubdi- ded into three parts; 1. Lorrain proper; 2d, The tchy of Bar, or Bar-le-Duc; and 3d, French Lorrain, ntaining the biſhoprics of Mets, Toul, and Verdun; is laſt diviſion being confirmed to France by the treaty Munſter in 1648. Lewis XIV. made himſelf maſter Lorrain three different times; but it was reſtored its own Duke by the treaty of Utrecht in 1714. In e war between France and the Emperor Charles VI. hich ended in a peace concluded in the year 1735, one the articles was, that the Duke of Lorrain ſhould eld his country to France; at leaſt that Staniſlaus King Poland, and father to the Queen of France, who had en obliged to relinquiſh his crown to Auguſtus Elector Saxony, ſhould have the dominion of Lorrain during is life; and that after his deceaſe, it ſhould be annexed the crown of France: the Duke of Lorrain, in con- deration thereof, was conſtituted Grand Duke of Tuſ- ny after the death of the then reigning Duke, which ppening in 1737, the Duke of Lorrain took poſſeſſion Tuſcany, of which he is now ſovereign, as alſo huſ- and to the Queen of Hungary, and has ſince been elected mperor of Germany.

The principal rivers are the Maeſe, the Moſelle, and the arre. The Eaſt part of the country is mountainous; nd on the N. W. are ſome uncultivated foreſts: but the eſt of the country has a fertile ſoil, producing plenty of orn, wine, and excellent paſture. The hills have mines f ſilver, copper, lead, and iron; and their ſalt-pits yield revenue of 200,000 l. a year.

Nancy is the capital city, ſituated in 6 deg. of E. lon. and 8 deg. 44 min. of N. lat. 150 miles E. of Paris, 5 N. W. of Straſburgh, and 70 S. of Triers.

There are but few woollen manufactures either in Lor- ain or Bar, and none of ſilk: but that brave and reſolute rince Charles III. intended to eſtabliſh a ſilk manufacture t Nancy: he had even ſet the project on footing before e quitted his ſtates in 1670; when the abſence of its rotector made this eſtabliſhment fall to the ground, hich ſince his time was never revived.

St. Nicholas and St. Mary, two towns in the mines, are he only places for the woollen manufactures; but the loths made there are very coarſe, little eſteemed, and of mall vent.

At Nancy there is a manufacture of a kind of tapeſtry, ittle different from the ordinary ſort made at Rouen in Normandy.

Thread-lace is not only the moſt conſiderable manufacture of this country, but even the only one that merits any attention. Miricour, Vezelize, Neufchateau, with ſome villages adjacent to theſe towns, are the places where the greateſt quantities of lace are made, which employ five or ſix hundred women. Theſe laces are coarſe; but being good for Spain, the vent is pretty conſiderable, and ſeveral thouſand pieces are ſent there yearly.

Coarſe linen, canvas, buckram, ſtockings, woollen night- caps, hats after the manner of Caudebec, cords and ropes, nails, and paper, are alſo manufactures eſtabliſhed in Lor- rain and Bar; but the foreign commerce of theſe goods is of ſo little conſequence, and they are even ſo inſufficient for home conſumption, that they appear not ſo much for enriching the inhabitants of Lorrain, as to make their in- duſtry known, and how far they are capable of all kinds of manufactures, if they would but apply themſelves to labour.

Their moſt important commerce conſiſts in ſalt, iron, alum, and ſaltpetre; in wood, cattle, wool, rape oil, wax, honey, Barrois wines, brandies of Pont-a-Mouſſon, furs, and glaſs; the ſilver mines having been ſhut up ſince the year 1670.

Salt pits are found in ſeveral places of Lorrain, where there are about twelve reckoned fit for the production of ſalt; yet there are only three of them worked, one at Rozieres, 12 miles S. E. of Nancy, another at Chateau- ſalins, and a third at Dieuſe; the reſt being upon the banks of the Sarre. The ſalt of theſe three ſalts-pits is more than ſufficient for the conſumption of the country; ſo that there are great quantities ſent to Alſace, the pa- latinate, the arch-biſhoprics of Triers and Mentz, Worms, and the other territories of Germany, ſituated on this ſide the Rhine.

The iron mines in the mountains of Voſga, and in ſeveral places of the flat country, are very numerous, and keep a great number of forges employed: the iron manu- factured there being ſold in the country, and in ſome of the neighbouring provinces.

The alum mines are found only in the Voyvre near Lon- gwy, 10 miles S. W. of Luxemburg; but they are of little or no uſe to the inhabitants of Lorrain, who are neither acquainted with the art of extracting or preparing the alum.

The ſalt-petre is gathered along old houſes, and other antique edifices.

The timber is felled in the mountains of Voſga, and in ſome other parts of the flat country. It is ſawed where it is felled, and ſold in planks conveyed to Nancy and Verdun, by the Maeſe. There is alſo ſome timber felled there fit for ſhip-building.

The glaſs-houſes are eſtabliſhed in the foreſts of Arnay, and St. Michael; as alſo in the village of Tavoy, nine miles from Nancy; it being in theſe glaſs-houſes that the thick flat glaſſes for coaches and poſt chaiſes were firſt made.

The brandies are made at Pont-a-Mouſſon, on the Mo- ſelle, 15 miles N. of Nancy; though not by burning the wines, as in Anjou, Britany, and elſewhere; but in making uſe of the grape when the liquor is preſſed out, which almoſt every where elſe is thought uſeleſs, and only good for burning, when dry. This traffic, which is very conſiderable, has paſſed into the dutchy of Bar, and all the places of the three biſhoprics, where there are vineyards; and great quantities of wood are conſumed to make theſe brandies, which are ſold in Germany, parti- cularly in the neighbourhood of Mentz and Worms.

The furs, particularly the ſkins of bears, which are taken in great numbers in the mountains and foreſt of Voſga, are ſold at Straſburg, Baſil, Metz, and Nancy, from whence they are ſent into the adjacent countries.

'Tis alſo to the dealers of theſe four towns that a part of the cattle are ſold, which are fattened in the moun- tains and paſtures of Lorrain: but the greateſt ſale for them is in the fairs of Voſga, to the Germans and Swit- zers, who come there to purchaſe oxen, cows, and young bulls.

Corn grows there, and is reaped in abundance, but its ſale is inconſiderable; unleſs the French foragers, in war time, buy up the grain to ſtock their magazines.

The inhabitants of Lorrain are eſteemed ſome of the beſt founders in Europe, eſpecially for cannon, mortars, and bells; upon which account they are uſually employed in the founderies of France and other ſtates: but the inha- bitants of the villages of Leveſcour, Outremecour, and Breranne, are moſt in reputation.

LOTTERY. A kind of game at hazard, wherein ſeveral lots of Merchandiſe, or ſums of Money, are depoſited as prizes, for the benefit of the fortunate.

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LOUISIANA, or *New France*. See *French* America.

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LOUREBRANDER. A port-town of the Hither India in Aſia, ſituated at the mouth of the river Indus, in 67 deg. of E. lon. and 25 deg. of N. lat.

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LOW-*Countries*. See *Netherlands*.

LUBANSKER *Sea*. A lake in the ſouth of Livonia, near the confines of Poland.

LUBEC. A city and port-town of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and dutchy of Holſtein, ſituated in 10 deg. 35 min. of E. lon. and 54 deg. of N. lat. See *Germany*, and *Hanſe* towns.

LUBLIN. A trading town of Poland, in the province of Little Poland, ſituated in 16 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 24 min. of N. lat.

LUBS, or *Schilling Lubs*, is a coin and money of accompt, at Hamburgh and in ſeveral other places of Germany, being 1 $\frac{1}{8}$ d. ſterling.

The lub ſchilling of Denmark is alſo of the ſame value.

LUCAR, *St.* A port-town of Spain, in the province of Andaluſia, ſituated at the mouth of the river Guadalquivir, in 6 deg. 38 min. of W. lon. and 36 deg. 42 min. of N. lat.

LUCAYA. See *Bahama* Iſlands.

LUCCA. A city of Italy, capital of the republic of Lucca, ſituated in 11 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 45 min. of N. lat.

LUCIA *Iſland*. One of the Caribbee iſlands, ſituated in 61 deg. of W. lon. and 13 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

LUCIA, *St.* One of the Cape Verd iſlands in Afric ſituated in 25 deg. of W. lon. and 16 deg. 30 min. N. lat. See Cape *Verd* iſlands.

LUCONIA, or *Manilla*, the chief city of the Philipp iſlands, ſituated between 117 and 123 deg. of E. and between 12 and 19 deg. of N. lat. See *Philipp* Iſlands.

LUMBER, in the common acceptation of the word, plies houſhold goods of ſmall value, and that are w out: but, in a commercial ſenſe, it ſignifies wood, timber, cut down, or ſawed by mills, in New Engl Rhode Iſland, and other colonies in America, which carried to the ſugar colonies, and there exchanged the product of thoſe iſlands: this ſort of lumber con ing in deals, timber-balks, barrel-boards, clap-boa pipe-boards, or pipe-holt, white boards for ſhoe-mak boom, and cant ſpars, bow ſtaves, cap-ravens, clap-b ebony-wood, heading for pipes, hogſheads, and barr hoops for coopers, oars, pipe, hogſhead, barrel, and fir ſtaves, trunnels, ſpeckled wood, ſweet wood, ſmall ſp oak, plank, wainſcot, and lignum vitæ, which, by ſtatute of the 8th of Geo. I. and the 1ſt of Geo. whether wrought or unwrought, of the product of Britiſh plantations in America, may be imported direc from thence into Great Britain, free of all duties.

LUNDY *Iſle*. A little iſland in the mouth of the Bri channel, ſituated in 4 deg. 50 min. of W. lon. and deg. 25 min. of N. lat.

LUSTRE, ſignifies the gloſs or brightneſs appearing on thing, particularly the manufactures of ſilk, wool, or h

LUSTRE, is alſo uſed for a certain compoſition, or man of giving that gloſs.

The luſtre of ſilks, in which their chief beauty conſi is given by waſhing them in ſoap, then in clear wat and dipping them in alum-water cold.

The luſtre of black taffety is given by double brewed b boiled with orange or lemon juice; and that of colou taffeties with water of gourds diſtilled in an alembic.

Curriers give a luſtre or gloſs to their leather ſeve ways, according to the colour to be illuſtrated. blacks, the firſt luſtre is with juice of barberries; ſecond with gum arabic, ale, vinegar, and Flanders gl boiled together: for coloured leathers they uſe the w of an egg beaten in water: moroccos have their lu from juice of barberries, and lemon or orange.

For hats, the luſtre is frequently given with common ter, ſometimes a little black dye is added. The ſa luſtre ſerves ſkinners, except that in white furs they ne uſe any black dye. For very black furs they ſometi prepare a luſtre of galls, copperas, Roman alum, marrow, and other ingredients. Luſtre is given to cl and mohairs by preſſing them under the calender.

LUSTRING, or *Luteſtring*. A particular ſort of gl wearing ſilk, invented by the French or Genoeſe.

LYME. A borough and port-town of Dorſetſhire, ſitu in 5 deg. of W. lon. and 50 deg. 44 min. of N. lat.

LYNN *Regis*. A port-town of Norfolk, ſituated at mouth of the German ſea, in 33 min. of E. lon. and deg. 46 min. of N. lat.

LYONS. A town of conſiderable trade, and capital of Lyonnois in France, ſituated at the confluence of rivers Rhone and Soane, in 4 deg. 55 min. of E. and 45 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. See *France*.

LYS. A ſilver coin ſtruck in Savoy, being about 2 s. ſterling.

LYSPONDT. A kind of weight, which weighs mo leſs according to the places where it is uſed.

At Hamburgh the lyspondt is of 15 pounds, or 1 11 oz. Engliſh avoirdupois.

M.

MAAYPOOSTEN. A kind of ſilk ſtuff, brought into Europe by the Dutch Eaſt India Company. When the company vends its merchandiſes, the lots or ſhares of the maaypooſten are uſually 50 pieces; each piece being about the value of 15 s. ſterling.

MACAO. A Chineſe Iſland in Aſia, in the principality of Canton; ſituated at the mouth of the Ta, in 110 deg. of E. lon. and 23 deg. of N. lat. See *China*.

MACARONI, or *Macaroon*. A delicious cake paſte, or ſweetmeat, made with the flour of rice, being ſomewhat thicker than the little finger. There is a great trade made of this paſte in all parts of Italy: but, in general, all the paſtes made of rice flour are called farinelli.

MACASSAR *Iſland*. See *Celebes*.

MACE. A medicinal bark, or rind; being the ſecond of the three which cover the nutmeg. See *Nutmeg*.

The mace has the ſame properties with the nutmeg; and the Dutch, who drive on a conſiderable trade with it, eſteem it much more than the other.

It is of an aſtringent and drying nature; being uſed as a corrector in cardiac and cathartic compoſitions: but an oil is alſo extracted from mace of various uſes in medicine.

When the dutch Eaſt India company ſells ſpice, each lot or ſhare of mace uſually weighs 600 lb. But it is ſold at Amſterdam by the pound, and is paid in bank-money; its price being about 1 s. 9 d. ſterling.

MACER. A tree which grows in the Eaſt Indies, and Barbary; whoſe bark is ſucceſsfully uſed for the cure of the dyſentery. This bark, which is taken from the trunk of the tree, is thick, reddiſh, and of a bitter taſte; but druggiſts ſometimes ſubſtitute mace for it; though the fraud is eaſily diſcovered.

MACHIAN. A ſmall iſland of the Moluccas; ſituated under the equator, in 125 deg. of E. lon. See *Moluccas*.

MACHO, or *Quintal-macho*, is a term in Spain, for a weight of 150 lb. that is, of 50 lb. more than the common quintal, which is only 100 lb.

MACKAREL, and *Mackarel-Fiſhery*. See Mackarel *Fiſhery*.

MACOUTE. A kind of money of accompt, or manner of accompting, uſed by the negroes in ſome parts of the coaſt of Africa, particularly at Loango upon the coaſt of Angola; being equivalent to ten, and 10 macoutes make the 100, which is alſo among them another money of accompt.

To form an eſtimation of their purchaſes, and ſales, or rather of their exchanges, they fix on one ſide the number of macoutes they are willing to have for a negroe; and on the other, at how many macoutes they are willing to take each kind of merchandiſe they deſire for a negroe.

Suppoſe then, that they have fixed the value of their ſlave at 3500, which amount to 305 macoutes; to make this number of macoutes in merchandiſes, each kind of goods is valued alſo in macoutes; as two Flemmiſh knives are reckoned one macoute; one copper baſon of 7 lb. and 12 inches diameter 3; one fuſee 30, one piece of blue ſalam pouris 120, and ſo on.

At Malimbo, and Cabindo, about 30 leagues farther, they reckon by the piece, and in other places by the bar.

MACRO, or *Macroniſſa*. An iſland of the Turkiſh Archipelago, near the coaſt of Achaia, 20 miles E. of Athens.

MADAGASCAR, or the iſle of St. *Lawrence*, is an iſland of Africa, ſituated between 43 and 51 deg. of E. lon. and between 12 and 26 deg. of S. lat. 300 miles S. E. of th continent of Africa; being about 1000 miles long from N. to S. and generally about 2 or 300 miles broad.

It abounds in corn, cattle, fiſh, and fowl; with all manner of animals, and vegetables, that are to be found on the continent of Africa. It has a great variety of hills, vallies, woods, and champains; being well watered with ſprings and rivers; nor does there want good harbours: and yet no European nation has thought it worth while to plant or continue colonies there, it producing no merchandiſe that will bear the expence of ſo long a voyage, except negroes, which are purchaſed here as well as on the continent by trading ſhips. Beſides negroes, there are white men, and a tawny generation upon the coaſt, who are deſcended from the Arabs, as is evident from their language and religious rites, having a mixture of mahometaniſm, judaiſm, and paganiſm.

The country is divided among a great many petty ſovereigns, to whom the ſeamen who touch there give the title of Kings and princes, who making war upon each other, ſell their priſoners for ſlaves to the Europeans; taking cloathing, utenſils, and other things in return.

The country being thus divided, would make it an eaſy conqueſt, if the ſoil produced any thing to incite the avarice or ambition of the European powers to attempt.

It was once expected, that the pirates would have made a ſettlement in this iſland, and have uſurped its dominion, having 6 or 7 ſail of ſhips, with which they uſed to infeſt the Indian ſeas, and carry their prizes into a place of ſecurity on the N. E. part of Madagaſcar; where they poſſeſſed themſelves of a harbour of difficult acceſs, and defended from ſtorms by the little iſland of St. Mary's, which lies before it in 17 deg. of S. lat. but what is now become of them is uncertain.

The Portugueſe diſcovered this iſland towards the end of the 15th century, and examined all its coaſts in 1508. Other European nations, who afterwards doubled the Cape of Good Hope in their road to the Eaſt Indies, often landed in it; being either driven there by ſtreſs of weather, or having an occaſion to take in water and refreſhments; but none among the Europeans, except the French, attempted to make a ſolid and permanent eſtabliſhment in the iſland; that of the Engliſh being only of a ſmall continuance.

The firſt projecting of this French colony was in 1640, and 1642. Ricault, a captain of a French man of war, who had obtained its conceſſion for 10 years, ſent there a a ſhip freighted at the expence of the Eaſt company, by which he procured letters patent for himſelf and his aſſociates.

France has ever ſince claimed the poſſeſſion of this iſland, and ſeemed to have a deſire of promoting its commerce, by making it part of the conceſſion made by Lewis XV. to the grand India company in 1719, under the government and protection of Philip Duke of Orleans regent of the kingdom.

The European merchandiſe proper for the trade of this iſland are painted linens, ſilver, copper, and tin bracelets, ſmall hard and haberdaſhery wares, glaſs beads of all colours, particularly blue; brandy, Spaniſh and French wines, coral, long and oval cornelian ſtones, braſs wire, chains of the ſame metal, nails, ſeveral inſtruments for ſmiths, carpenters, and moſt kind of lock-work.

The merchandiſes which may be had in exchange, conſiſt in divers gums either for medicine, painting, or perfumes, as cancanum, or white gum of ants, dragon's blood of ſeveral ſorts, gum gutta, tachamacha, and ſeveral others; different kinds of wood for dying, and inlaid work; for dying, as the vahatz, which makes a fine fire colour, and a golden yellow, by adding the decoction of citron; and the tambonbitſi, which yields a very perfect orange; for inlaid work, black, and grey ebony; the mandrize, of a violet marbled; the mohogany of a red-brown; the ſandraha, blacker than ebony, and receiving a better poliſh;

aloes

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LOW-*Countries*. See *Netherlands*.

LUBANSKER *Sea*. A lake in the ſouth of Livonia, near the confines of Poland.

LUBEC. A city and port-town of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, and dutchy of Holſtein, ſituated in 10 deg. 35 min. of E. lon. and 54 deg. of N. lat. See *Germany*, and *Hanſe* towns.

LUBLIN. A trading town of Poland, in the province of Little Poland, ſituated in 16 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 24 min. of N. lat.

LUBS, or *Schilling Lubs*, is a coin and money of accompt, at Hamburgh and in ſeveral other places of Germany, being 1 $\frac{1}{8}$ d. ſterling.

The lub-ſchilling of Denmark is alſo of the ſame value.

LUCAR, *St.* A port-town of Spain, in the province of Andaluſia, ſituated at the mouth of the river Guadalquivir, in 6 deg. 38 min. of W. lon. and 36 deg. 42 min. of N. lat.

LUCAYA. See *Bahama* Iſlands.

LUCCA. A city of Italy, capital of the republic of Lucca, ſituated in 11 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 45 min. of N. lat.

LUCIA *Iſland*. One of the Caribbee iſlands, ſituated in 61 deg. of W. lon. and 13 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

LUCIA, *St.* One of the Cape Verd iſlands in Afric ſituated in 25 deg. of W. lon. and 16 deg. 30 min. N. lat. See Cape *Verd* iſlands.

LUCONIA, or *Manilla*, the chief city of the Philipp iſlands, ſituated between 117 and 123 deg. of E. l and between 12 and 19 deg. of N. lat. See *Philipp* Iſlands.

LUMBER, in the common acceptation of the word, plies houſhold goods of ſmall value, and that are w out: but, in a commercial ſenſe, it ſignifies wood timber, cut down, or ſawed by mills, in New Engl Rhode Iſland, and other colonies in America, which carried to the ſugar colonies, and there exchanged the product of thoſe iſlands: this ſort of lumber con ing in deals, timber-balks, barrel-boards, clap-boar pipe-boards, or pipe-holt, white boards for ſhoe-mak boom, and cant ſpars, bow ſtaves, cap-ravens, clap-b ebony-wood, heading for pipes, hogſheads, and barr hoops for coopers, oars, pipe, hogſhead, barrel, and fir ſtaves, trunnels, ſpeckled wood, ſweet wood, ſmall ſp oak, plank, wainſcot, and lignum vitæ, which, by ſtatute of the 8th of Geo. I. and the 1ſt of Geo. whether wrought or unwrought, of the product of Britiſh plantations in America, may be imported dire from thence into Great Britain, free of all duties.

LUNDY *Iſle*. A little iſland in the mouth of the Bri channel, ſituated in 4 deg. 50 min. of W. lon. and deg. 25 min. of N. lat.

LUSTRE, ſignifies the gloſs or brightneſs appearing on thing, particularly the manufactures of ſilk, wool, or ſt

LUSTRE, is alſo uſed for a certain compoſition, or man of giving that gloſs.

The luſtre of ſilks, in which their chief beauty conſi is given by waſhing them in ſoap, then in clear wat and dipping them in alum-water cold.

The luſtre of black taffety is given by double brewed b boiled with orange or lemon juice; and that of colour taffeties with water of gourds diſtilled in an alembic.

Curriers give a luſtre or gloſs to their leather ſeve ways, according to the colour to be illuſtrated. blacks, the firſt luſtre is with juice of barberries; ſecond with gum arabic, ale, vinegar, and Flanders g boiled together: for coloured leathers they uſe the w of an egg beaten in water: moroccos have their lu from juice of barberries, and lemon or orange.

For hats, the luſtre is frequently given with common ter, ſometimes a little black dye is added. The ſa luſtre ſerves ſkinners, except that in white furs they ne uſe any black dye. For very black furs they ſometi prepare a luſtre of galls, copperas, Roman alum, marrow, and other ingredients. Luſtre is given to cl and mohairs by preſſing them under the calender.

LUSTRING, or *Luteſtring*. A particular ſort of gl wearing ſilk, invented by the French or Genoeſe.

LYME. A borough and port-town of Dorſetſhire, ſitu in 5 deg. of W. lon. and 50 deg. 44 min. of N. lat.

LYNN *Regis*. A port-town of Norfolk, ſituated at mouth of the German ſea, in 33 min. of E. lon. and deg. 46 min. of N. lat.

LYONS. A town of conſiderable trade, and capital of Lyonnois in France, ſituated at the confluence of rivers Rhone and Soane, in 4 deg. 55 min. of E. and 45 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. See *France*.

LYS. A ſilver coin ſtruck in Savoy, being about 2 s. ſterling.

LYSPONDT. A kind of weight, which weighs mo leſs according to the places where it is uſed.

At Hamburgh the lyſpondt is of 15 pounds, or 1 11 oz. Engliſh avoirdupois.

M.

MAD

MAAYPOOSTEN. A kind of ſilk ſtuff, brought into Europe by the Dutch Eaſt India Company. When the company vends its merchandiſes, the lots or ſhares of the maaypooſten are uſually 50 pieces; each piece being about the value of 15 s. ſterling.

MACAO. A Chineſe Iſland in Aſia, in the principality of Canton; ſituated at the mouth of the Ta, in 110 deg. of E. lon. and 23 deg. of N. lat. See *China*.

MACARONI, or *Macaroon*. A delicious cake paſte, or ſweetmeat, made with the flour of rice, being ſomewhat thicker than the little finger. There is a great trade made of this paſte in all parts of Italy: but, in general, all the paſtes made of rice flour are called farinelli.

MACASSAR *Iſland*. See *Celebes*.

MACE. A medicinal bark, or rind; being the ſecond of the three which cover the nutmeg. See *Nutmeg*.

The mace has the ſame properties with the nutmeg; and the Dutch, who drive on a conſiderable trade with it, eſteem it much more than the other.

It is of an aſtringent and drying nature; being uſed as a corrector in cardiac and cathartic compoſitions: but an oil is alſo extracted from mace of various uſes in medicine.

When the dutch Eaſt India company ſells ſpice, each lot or ſhare of mace uſually weighs 600 lb. But it is ſold at Amſterdam by the pound, and is paid in bank-money; its price being about 1 s. 9 d. ſterling.

MACER. A tree which grows in the Eaſt Indies, and Barbary; whoſe bark is ſucceſsfully uſed for the cure of the dyſentery. This bark, which is taken from the trunk of the tree, is thick, reddiſh, and of a bitter taſte; but druggiſts ſometimes ſubſtitute mace for it; though the fraud is eaſily diſcovered.

MACHIAN. A ſmall iſland of the Moluccas; ſituated under the equator, in 125 deg. of E. lon. See *Moluccas*.

MACHO, or *Quintal-macho*, is a term in Spain, for a weight of 150 lb. that is, of 50 lb. more than the common quintal, which is only 100 lb.

MACKAREL, and *Mackarel-Fiſhery*. See Mackarel *Fiſhery*.

MACOUTE. A kind of money of accompt, or manner of accompting, uſed by the negroes in ſome parts of the coaſt of Africa, particularly at Loango upon the coaſt of Angola; being equivalent to ten, and 10 macoutes make the 100, which is alſo among them another money of accompt.

To form an eſtimation of their purchaſes, and ſales, or rather of their exchanges, they fix on one ſide the number of macoutes they are willing to have for a negroe; and on the other, at how many macoutes they are willing to take each kind of merchandiſe they deſire for a negroe.

Suppoſe then, that they have fixed the value of their ſlave at 3500, which amount to 305 macoutes; to make this number of macoutes in merchandiſes, each kind of goods is valued alſo in macoutes; as two Flemmiſh knives are reckoned one macoute; one copper baſon of 7 lb. and 12 inches diameter 3; one fuſee 30, one piece of blue ſalam pouris 120, and ſo on.

At Malimbo, and Cabindo, about 30 leagues farther, they reckon by the piece, and in other places by the bar.

MACRO, or *Macroniſſa*. An iſland of the Turkiſh Archipelago, near the coaſt of Achaia, 20 miles E. of Athens.

MADAGASCAR, or the iſle of St. *Lawrence*, is an iſland of Africa, ſituated between 43 and 51 deg. of E. lon. and between 12 and 26 deg. of S. lat. 300 miles S. E. of th continent of Africa; being about 1000 miles long from N. to S. and generally about 2 or 300 miles broad.

It abounds in corn, cattle, fiſh, and fowl; with all manner of animals, and vegetables, that are to be found on the continent of Africa. It has a great variety of hills, vallies, woods, and champains; being well watered with ſprings and rivers; nor does there want good harbours: and yet no European nation has thought it worth while to plant or continue colonies there, it producing no merchandiſe that will bear the expence of ſo long a voyage, except negroes, which are purchaſed here as well as on the continent by trading ſhips. Beſides negroes, there are white men, and a tawny generation upon the coaſt, who are deſcended from the Arabs, as is evident from their language and religious rites, having a mixture of mahometaniſm, judaiſm, and paganiſm.

The country is divided among a great many petty ſovereigns, to whom the ſeamen who touch there give the title of Kings and princes, who making war upon each other, ſell their priſoners for ſlaves to the Europeans; taking cloathing, utenſils, and other things in return.

The country being thus divided, would make it an eaſy conqueſt, if the ſoil produced any thing to incite the avarice or ambition of the European powers to attempt.

It was once expected, that the pirates would have made a ſettlement in this iſland, and have uſurped its dominion, having 6 or 7 ſail of ſhips, with which they uſed to infeſt the Indian ſeas, and carry their prizes into a place of ſecurity on the N. E. part of Madagaſcar; where they poſſeſſed themſelves of a harbour of difficult acceſs, and defended from ſtorms by the little iſland of St. Mary's, which lies before it in 17 deg. of S. lat. but what is now become of them is uncertain.

The Portugueſe diſcovered this iſland towards the end of the 15th century, and examined all its coaſts in 1508. Other European nations, who afterwards doubled the Cape of Good Hope in their road to the Eaſt Indies, often landed in it; being either driven there by ſtreſs of weather, or having an occaſion to take in water and refreſhments; but none among the Europeans, except the French, attempted to make a ſolid and permanent eſtabliſhment in the iſland; that of the Engliſh being only of a ſmall continuance.

The firſt projecting of this French colony was in 1640, and 1642. Kicault, a captain of a French man of war, who had obtained its conceſſion for 10 years, ſent there a a ſhip freighted at the expence of the Eaſt company, by which he procured letters patent for himſelf and his aſſociates.

France has ever ſince claimed the poſſeſſion of this iſland, and ſeemed to have a deſire of promoting its commerce, by making it part of the conceſſion made by Lewis XV. to the grand India company in 1719, under the government and protection of Philip Duke of Orleans regent of the kingdom.

The European merchandiſe proper for the trade of this iſland are painted linens, ſilver, copper, and tin bracelets, ſmall hard and haberdaſhery wares, glaſs beads of all colours, particularly blue; brandy, Spaniſh and French wines, coral, long and oval cornelian ſtones, braſs wire, chains of the ſame metal, nails, ſeveral inſtruments for ſmiths, carpenters, and moſt kind of lock-work.

The merchandiſes which may be had in exchange, conſiſt in divers gums either for medicine, painting, or perfumes, as cancanum, or white gum of ants, dragon's blood of ſeveral ſorts, gum gutta, tachamacha, and ſeveral others; different kinds of wood for dying, and inlaid work; for dying, as the vahatz, which makes a fine fire colour, and a golden yellow, by adding the decoction of citron; and the tambonbitſi, which yields a very perfect orange; for inlaid work, black, and grey ebony; the mandrize, of a violet marbled; the mohogany of a red-brown; the ſandraha, blacker than ebony, and receiving a better poliſh;

aloes

aloes wood; the tarantantilla, a kind of box; the lencafatrahé green veined; the mera, and the endra-chendrach, both yellow, and ſome others. From Madagaſcar may be alſo brought wax, green hides, ſugar, tobacco, pepper, cotton, indigo, ambergreaſe, frankincenſe, benzoin, oil of *palma chriſti*, green balſam for wounds, ſaltpetre, ſulphur, white cinnamon, civet, rock cryſtal, blood-ſtone, touch-ſtone, terra ſigillata, ſeveral boles for painting, and medicine, with reed, flax, and even ſilk mats. But the culture of all theſe things are much neglected by the natives of this iſland.

Some alſo reckon among the natural productions of this iſland, gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones; but as to the two former, it is very uncertain whether there are any mines of them in the iſland; what is found in the hands of the natives being brought to them by the Rohandrians, that is, the grandees of the country, when they paſſed over there from Arabia, and the reſt coming to them from the wreck of ſome ſhips on their coaſts; as to the precious ſtones, though it is true they are found there, they are ſo imperfect, and of ſuch an ill quality, as not to be worth the time loſt in ſeeking after them.

Though the inhabitants of Madagaſcar ſeem little diſpoſed to keep up a regular commerce with the Europeans, upon account of their ill uſage to them; however it ſeems, as the French have often experienced, that they are more fit for trade than ſeveral other nations of Africa; having among them, for the facility of trade, the greater part of the things which the beſt poliſhed nations, and moſt devoted to trade, have invented for promoting it in a commodious and profitable manner.

They underſtand arithmetic; have the uſe of pens, ink, and paper; as alſo of weights, and meaſures, with ſuch of the arts and trades as are moſt neceſſary for life.

Their manner of accompting is not different from that of Europe; having received it from the Arabians, as well as the Europeans; ſo that they perform their calculations from units to a million, and have proper terms for expreſſing each different combination of numbers which compoſe all ſorts of ſums.

Their writing is likewiſe in the manner of the Arabs; their paper, which is the middlemoſt bark of a tree, they call avo; their ink is a decoction of wood, called arandranto; and their pens are bits of reeds, called voulou.

Though the inhabitants of Madagaſcar have weights, they uſe none but for gold, and ſilver; ſeldom exceeding the dram, as they have neither the ounce, nor the pound, and having no terms for expreſſing them: the dram is called ſomai, the half dram vari; the ſcruple, or penny-weight ſacar; the half ſcruple nanqui; the ſix grains, nanque; though they have no denomination for the grain. All other merchandiſe, or commodities, are exchanged by eſtimation, and not by weight.

Their meaſures of contents are a kind of buſhels, called troubahouache, or Moncha, which contains ſix pounds of clean rice; the voule, which contains but half a pound; and the zatou, containing 100 voules, or 25 lb. avoirdupoiſe.

They have but one long meaſure, which they call refe, and which is much the ſame with the European fathom: they alſo know what the ſpan is, and they uſe the opening of the hand for meaſuring it.

Arts, and trades, they have brought to a perfection which may be admired in ſuch uncivilized people; their ſmiths melt down the iron mine, and forge hatchets, hammers, anvils, knives, razors, ſeveral ſorts of arms, and all ſorts of houſhold utenſils out of it.

Their goldſmiths, having reduced the gold into ingots, make ear pendants, and other trinkets which ſerve for ornaments.

Their potters bake, and varniſh their ware as well as in Europe, but in a different manner, with different drugs.

Their turners turn all ſorts of wood, and make canoes for ſailing either upon the ſea, or upon rivers.

Their carpenters, and joiners, worked by line and level, even before Europeans came among them; and ſince their knowledge of other inſtruments, their works are not inferior to thoſe of Europe.

Their cord-makers make cords of all ſizes and lengths of the bark of trees, almoſt as good as thoſe of hemp. As for the art of weaving, none but women are employed in this branch of trade, the men thinking it beneath them; ſo that it is the women who prepare, and execute all their ſorts of ſtuff made for the moſt part of ſilk, and cotton, and ſometimes of the bark of trees, or the filaments of ſeveral ſorts of plants; all which, in faſhion, deſign, and colour, are little inferior to ſome of the works of European weavers, and dyers.

It is by all theſe kinds of work, as alſo by all the natural productions of their country, that they carry on their whole trade; not after the manner of Europeans by purchaſe and ſale, but by exchange; having no other uſe for the gold and ſilver money which Europeans give them, but to convert them into ornaments; though it may be ſaid, ſince their knowledge of Europeans, they make all ſmall wares ſerve for current money, with which they purchaſe and pay for ſeveral ſorts of commodities.

It is remarkable, that they have neither fair, nor market for all this trade; and that the perſon who has an occaſion for any thing, goes for it where it is to be had in abundance, or ſtays at home till ſome one or other comes to take away whatever ſuperfluous work or commodity he has, and brings him in exchange thoſe he may want.

The MADERA, or *Madeira Iſlands*, lie in 16 deg. of W. lon. and between 32 and 33 deg. of N. lat. ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, 300 miles N. of the Canary iſlands, and 300 W. of Sallee in the empire of Morocco in Africa; they were diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1410, or, as others pretend, not till 1420.

The Portugueſe who firſt inhabited theſe iſlands found them covered in all parts with ſuch an impenetrable foreſt that they were obliged to ſet them on fire before they could eſtabliſh themſelves, and cultivate them.

This expedient, which ſucceeded afterwards very well, at firſt endangered the lives of all thoſe who then compoſed this infant colony, who had like to have periſhed with thirſt in their barks, where they retired, and remained while the iſland continued on fire; but, at laſt having made their eſtabliſhment, theſe iſlands became very fertile and populous.

MADERA, or *Madeira*, called alſo *Mattera* by the Portugueſe from its being covered with wood, is the largeſt of theſe iſlands; being 120 miles in circumference.

The chief towns are *Funchal*, *Santa Cruz*, and *Manchico*. *Funchal*, the capital, is ſituated on a bay at the S. part of the iſland. The town of *Santa Cruz* is ſituated on the N. E. part of the iſland; and *Manchico* lies to the S. W.

The next in magnitude of the Madeira iſlands is that of *Porto Sanito*, ſituated 6 or 8 leagues N. E. of Madeira proper. It is about 18 miles in circumference, abounding in the ſame kind of wine and fruits as the former. Several other ſmall rocks or iſlands lie about theſe, which go under the name of the Maderas; but they are neither inhabited, nor cultivated.

Wine, ſugar, corn, gums, honey, wax, leather; ſorts of freſh, dry, or confected fruits, particularly citrons, lemons, pomegranates; laſtly yew and cedar trees, are the principal commodities of theſe iſlands. The goods imported there are ſeveral ſorts of the Engliſh woollen manufacture, and other European commodities.

Madeira wines are generally eſteemed by the Engliſh and Dutch, who buy up moſt of them; and great quantities are tranſported to Portugal, from whence European nations export them, if unwilling to trade directly to Madeira.

The Vine plant which produces theſe wines was brought from Candia; each bunch of grapes being not leſs than two feet in length, and as much in thickneſs: but experience has proved that the wines of the firſt year are not perfectly good, and that they have not their real flavour till the third leaf.

This wine has the particular good quality, to keep beſt in the hotteſt weather, and the hotteſt climates, where other wines turn ſour; but it is beſt in Europe, after it has been taken to the Weſt Indies, and brought into the European ſtates.

ugar grows there in abundance, which is very good, d was for a conſiderable time preferred to all other rts; tho' at preſent, the ſugar of the Antilles, and ſome ther parts of America, is eſteemed to be of equal, if not perior goodneſs.

The corn trade is ſometimes conſiderable, great quantities eing exported from theſe iſlands in plentiful years; though times of ſcarcity they are ſupplied from the Azores.

The yew, and cedar planks, ſawed by ſeveral mills built pon rivulets with which this iſland abounds, are ſent to ortugal, where they are much eſteemed, and but few of hem are exported by ſtrangers.

The confected fruits are bought up chiefly by the Engliſh nd Dutch, for the moſt part at Madeira, but ſometimes Liſbon, where they are imported by Portugueſe ſhips.

s to gums, dragon's blood is the principal, and the trees roductive of it ſhed it in this iſland more abundantly an in any other part of the world.

Theſe iſlands alſo ſupply the Engliſh, French, and Dutch, ith freſh water in their voyages to America.

ut what enhances the reputation of the Madeira trade, is e freedom, and honeſty which the inhabitants ſhew ſtrangers; the ſame being ſeldom met with in the other ortugueſe ſettlements, where the inhabitants generally af- ect a kind of haughtineſs which is pretty uſual with this ation. See *Portugal*.

DDER. A red, bitter, aſtringent root of a plant, called y botaniſts *Rubia Tinctorum*; much uſed by dyers, to ive a ſtrong and rich red colour; it has alſo its uſes in medi- ine, being found of ſervice in obſtructions of the viſcera, nd cachectic conſtitutions, and is generally made up in ecoctions of diet-drinks, and medicated ales.

is cultivated in great quantites in Flanders, Holland, and ermany; being a conſiderable object of commerce for all eſe places.

DIPOLLAM. A Britiſh factory in India; ſubordi- ate to the government of fort St. George.

DOUIN. The Piedmonteze piſtole, worth 13 livres f the country, or 16 s. 3 d. ſterling.

DRAS-*a-Patan*. See Fort St. *George*.

DRID. Capital of the kingdom of Spain; ſituated in deg. 15 min. of W. lon. and 40 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. ee *Spain*.

ES. A river riſing in Burgundy, and running N. thro' orrain and Champaign into the Netherlands, having paſſed y Toul, Verdun, Sedan, and Dinant, receives the Sam- re at Namur; after which it runs N. E. by Liege, Maeſtricht, Venlo, and Grave; then W. to Wercom; nd having joined the Waal runs W. to Dort; diſchar- ing itſelf into the German Sea, a little below the Briel.

GADOXA. Capital of a territory of the ſame name n the Coaſt of Anian in Africa, ſituated in 5 deg. 45 in. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 10 min of N. lat.

GAZINE. A ſtore houſe for merchants, and more eſpe- ially for military preparations; where they are either made, r kept continually, to be ready for uſe upon all occaſions.

GDELENA. A great river of S. America, riſing near e Equator, and running N. through the Terra Firma, ins its waters with the river Canee; when it obtains the ame of the river Grande, and falls into the North ſea elow the town of Madre de Popa.

GELLAN *Straits*, or ſtraits of *Magellan*, are ſituated etween 76 and 84 deg. of W. lon. and between 52 and 4 deg. of S. lat. upwards of 300 miles in length from e Atlantic to the Pacific ocean; but of very unequal readth, in ſome places ſeveral leagues over, and in o- ers not half a league; the land on both ſides being moun- ainous. Theſe were diſcovered, and paſſed, by Ferdi- and Magellan, a Portugueſe, in the ſervice of Spain, in e year 1520, in his attempt to find a way to the Eaſt dies by the W. which he effected; but, being killed in e Molucca iſlands, his ſhip returned by the Cape of Good ope, round Africa, and was the firſt that ever ſurroun- d the globe. Admiral Drake paſſed them alſo in his oyage round the world; but ſhips that have gone to the ea of late years have paſſed round Cape Horn, in which ey find fewer inconveniencies than in paſſing the ſtraits. e *Ocean*.

GGIORE *lake*, is a lake ſituated partly in the dutchy of lan, and partly in the country of the Griſons, being a- bout 35 miles long, and 6 broad; the river Teſin run- ning thro' it.

MAGISTERY, in chemiſtry, is a very fine powder, made by ſolution and precipitation; or a precipitate of ſome ſolution made by a ſalt, or other body, which breaks the force of the diſſolvent; ſuch as the magiſteries of biſ- muth, of lead, and others. Magiſtery is alſo uſed in ſpeaking of reſins, or reſinous extracts of ſcammony, ja- lap, turbith, and other things; which are made by diſ- ſolving the matter in ſpirit of wine, and precipitating it with water.

MAGNA-VACCA. A port-town of Italy, in the duchy of Ferrara, and territory of the Pope; ſituated on the gulph of Venice, in 13 deg. of E. lon. and 44 deg. 50 min. of N. lat.

MAGNET, or the *Loadſtone*. A ſort of ferruginous ſtone, in weight and colour reſembling iron ore, though ſome- what harder and more heavy, endued with ſeveral extra- ordinary properties, attractive, directive, and inclinatory. The magnet is uſually found in iron mines, and ſome- times in very large pieces, half magnet, half iron; its co- lour being different, according to the different countries it is brought from. Norman obſerves, that the beſt are thoſe brought from China and Bengal, which are either an irony or ſanguine colour; thoſe of Arabia are reddiſh; thoſe of Macedonia blackiſh; and thoſe of Hungary, Germany, and England, the colour of unwrought iron. Neither its figure nor bulk are determined, but is found of all forms and ſizes.

The moſt diſtinguiſhing properties of the magnet are, that it attracts iron, points to the poles of the world, and in other circumſtances alſo dips or inclines to a point beneath the horizon, directly under the pole; and that it communicates theſe properties by touch to iron: on which foundation are built the mariners needles, both ho- rizontal and inclinatory, or dipping needles. See *Needle*.

The variation of the MAGNET, or its declination from the pole, was firſt diſcovered by Sebaſtian Cabot, a Vene- tian, in 1500; and the variation of that variation by Mr. Gellibrand, an Engliſhman, about the year 1625.

Laſtly, the dip, or inclination of the needle, when at li- berty to play vertically, to a point beneath the horizon, was firſt diſcovered by Mr. R. Norman, about the year 1576.

MAGNETICAL *Amplitude*, is an an arch of the horizon, contained between the ſun at its riſing and ſetting, and the eaſt or weſt point of the compaſs.

MAGRABINES. A linnen manufactured in ſeveral parts of Egypt, and ſold at Cairo.

MAIDAN, or *Maydan*, is a term in almoſt all parts of Aſia, and particularly in Perſia, for the public places deſ- tined for the trade, and ſale of merchandiſe; the maidan of Iſpahan paſſing for the moſt magnificent of the eaſt.

MAIDIN. A ſilver coin, ſtruck and current in Egypt, worth a penny ſterling.

MAIL. The bundles, bags, or parcels of letters, that are brought by the poſt.

MAILLE, or *Obolus*. A ſmall imaginary money uſed in France, and computed to be the half of a denier tour- nois, or the 24th part of a ſol tournois, the ſol being ſomewhat leſs than a halfpenny ſterling; but the maille is ſubdivided into two pites, and each pite into two half pites.

MAINE. A river of Germany, riſing on the eaſt-ſide of the circle of Franconia; and running from eaſt to weſt through that circle, paſſes by the cities of Bamberg, Wurtſburg, Aſchaffenburg, Hanau, and Frankfort, diſ- charging itſelf into the Rhine at Mentz.

MAINLAND. The chief of the iſlands of Shetland in Scotland.

MAIN-MAST. The great or middlemoſt maſt of a ſhip, which is raiſed perpendicularly in the middle of the ſhip. See *Maſt*.

MAJORCA. A Spaniſh iſland in the Mediterranean, ſi- tuated about 80 miles ſouth of the coaſt of Catalonia, and 100 miles eaſt of Valencia; being about 60 miles long, and 45 broad. See *Spain*.

MAIRE *ſtrait*, or *Strait le Maire*, ſituated between Terra del Fuego in South America, and Staten iſland, a paſ ſage to Cape Horn; which being diſcovered by Le Maire obtained his name; but it is little uſed at preſent, ſhips

going round Staten iſland as well as Cape Horn into the South ſea.

MAIZE. Indian or Turky corn, brought to Europe in long ears, of 10 or 12 inches, round and thick; reſembling peas or horſe-beans, and affording a very white flower; though the rind of ſome kinds inclines to a black colour.

A great part of the inhabitants of America, before the Europeans diſcovered that country, uſed maize, both for their own nouriſhment, and that of animals; as alſo for a ſmall money.

It is eſteemed very nouriſhing, refreſhing, and fattening.

MAKELAER, is a term in Holland, and particularly at Amſterdam, for brokers for the bank, and the ſale o merchandiſes.

MALABAR *Coaſt*. See *India*.

MALABATHRUM. See *Folium* indicum.

MALACCA. A country and city of the Eaſt Indies. See *India*.

MALAGA. A city and port-town of Spain, in the province of Granada, ſituated on the Mediterranean, in 4 deg. 45 min. of W. lon. and 36 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. See *Spain*.

MALAMOCCO. A little iſland and port-town in the Lagunes of Venice in Italy, ſituated 5 miles ſouth of that city.

MALDA. A town of India, in the province of Bengal; ſituated on the river Ganges, in 87 deg. 50 min. of E. lon. and 24 deg. 39 min. of N. lat. where ſome European nations have their factors.

MALDER, or *Mulder*. A corn meaſure, uſed in ſome parts of Germany; as alſo in Alſace, and the neighbouring countries. At Hamburg, the malder of wheat weighs 300 lb. of maſlin corn 298, and of rye 280, avoirdupoiſe weight.

The MALDIVES, *Maldivia*, or *Maldivy iſlands*, are a great number of ſmall iſlands, not leſs than 1000, extending from the 2d degree of S. lat. to the 7th of N. lat. about 500 miles S. W. of the continent of India, and the iſland of Ceylon.

They are divided into 13 attolons, or diviſions, by ſeveral channels; each attolon being ſo near each other, that in low water perſons may paſs from the one to the other, the water being no more than knee deep.

Theſe iſlands are generally flat, low land, ſurrounded by rocks and ſand, and were probably planted by the Arabians, the people being of the ſame complexion, and of the Mahometan religion, governed by one ſovereign.

The greateſt commerce of theſe iſlands conſiſts in little white ſhells, called coris, which ſerve for ſmall money in almoſt all parts of the Eaſt Indies, and of which great quantities are brought to the coaſt of Africa for the Negro trade. See *Coris*.

The Dutch carry on the greateſt part of this trade; but the iſlanders themſelves bring conſiderable quantities of theſe ſhells to the Dutch ſettlements in the iſland of Ceylon, and to ſome places on the coaſt of Malabar; from whence a great part are ſent to Surat, and other parts of India.

The merchandiſes given to the Maldivians, in exchange for theſe ſhells, are coarſe cotton cloths, rice, and ſome other neceſſaries of life, not produced in theſe iſlands.

The tree which bears the cocos furniſhes them alſo with ſome commodities, which they ſell to ſtrangers; this admirable tree, for the diverſity of its uſes, growing better in the Maldives, than in any other part of the Indian world. See *Cocos*.

MALLEMOLLE, or *Mulmul*. An Indian cotton cloth, or muſlin, white, clear, and very fine; the piece containing 16 ells in length, and 3-4ths, 5-16ths, 7-8ths, and 15-16ths in breadth; being brought particularly from Bengal.

MALMOE. A port-town of Sweden, in the province of Gothland, ſituated on the Baltic, in 13 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 55 deg. 20 min. of N. lat.

MALMSEY, or *Malvaſy*. A rich, luſcious kind of wine, brought from Greece or Candia; ſo called from Malvaſia, a city of Peloponneſus, the antient Epidaurus, from whence this celebrated liquor was firſt brought to Europe; but the Candia malmſey is now eſteemed the beſt.

It is alſo the name of a kind of Muſcadine wine brought from Provence in France.

MALO, *St.* A city and port town of France, in the province of Britany, ſituated on a rock in the Engliſh channel, in 2 deg. of W. lon. and 48 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. See *France*.

MALT, denotes barley cured, or prepared, to fit it for making beer or ale; and it is alſo uſed by diſtillers in the making of ſpirituous liquors. See *Beer*, *Ale*, *Spirits*, *Corn*, *Exciſe*, and *Starch*.

By the ſtatute of the 13th and 14th of William III. and ſeveral ſubſequent ſtatutes, malt imported from beyond the ſeas, before the 24th June yearly, is to be forfeited or the value.

If made in Scotland, and brought into England, Wales or Berwick upon Tweed,

By ſea, muſt be entered with the proper officer of the port, and the 6 d. *per* buſhel paid before landing; unleſs certificate be produced that the 3 d. *per* buſhel has been paid in Scotland; in which caſe only 3 d. muſt be paid on forfeiture or the value.

By land, muſt paſs through Berwick or Carliſle, and be there entered, and the like duty of 6 d. or 3 d. *per* buſhel paid in ready money; on forfeiture, or the value.

But if brought by land beyond the ſaid towns, without entry, or payment of duty, the ſame is forfeited, or the value.

If exported, not to draw back the exciſe.

If barley, oats, or other grain unmalted, are mixed therewith for exportaton, the forfeiture is 5 s. *per* buſhel.

If entered and made for exportation only, not to be charged with exciſe.

If deſigned to be made for exportation, previous notice muſt be given to the malt-officer of the quantity of corn intended to be contained in each ſteeping, and of the hour when it is deſigned to be taken off the kiln: but ſuch corn is to be kept ſeparate, upon forfeiture of 5 *per* buſhel; and each ſteeping to be kept ſeparate and meaſured, upon forfeiture of 50 l.

Malt, when fit for exportation, muſt be meaſured in the preſence of an officer, and carried directly on ſhipboard or elſe locked up ſeparately, under the joint locks of the proprietor and officer, till delivered out for exportation upon forfeiture of 50 l.

If the locks or doors are opened, or entrance made into the ſtorehouſe where ſecured, or any quantity of the malt conveyed away without the knowledge or conſent of the officer, the penalty is 100 l.

The ſtorehouſes are to be cleared, and all the malt therein exported within every nine months after the beginning to make uſe of them, upon penalty of 50 l.

When deſigned to be removed for exportation, four hours previous notice muſt be given to the officer, that he may ſee the ſame meaſured and delivered out; and remain on board the veſſel till it is cleared out. The officer to give a certificate, directed to the officer at the place of exportation, expreſſing the quantity, maker's name and place of abode; and if ſuch certificate is not delivered the forfeiture is 50 l.

When deſigned to be ſhipped, at leaſt forty-eight hours previous notice muſt be given to the officers, on forfeiture of 5 s. *per* buſhel; and during the time of ſhipping when goods are not actually putting on board, the hatches muſt be locked down, with two locks to each hatch; one to be provided at the charge of, and to be kept by the proprietor, and the other by the officer; the hatches to be kept ſo locked down from the time of being firſt loaded, till the time of ſailing out of port.

And makers are to be allowed 3 d. *per* quarter, in conſideration of the charges of ſtorehouſes, meaſuring, &c.

From the exciſe of London, a computation may be made what a duty of 3 d. *per* buſhel upon all the malt in England would produce.

There was brewed in London, the year ending the 29th of June 1689, 1,212,550 barrels of ſtrong beer and ale, and 827,544 barrels of ſmall beer; ſo, of both ſorts of drink, there were brewed 2,040,094 barrels. To every ſtrong beer and ale, there is allowed three buſhels to a barrel, and to the ſmall, one; but much ſmall beer being brewed after the ſtrong, it may be a reaſonable medium to allow to both drinks, one with another, two buſh-

to the barrel; at which rate, to reckon by round numbers, there is uſed in London 4,000,000 of buſhels of malt.

The people of England, by the neareſt computations that can be made, are reckoned ſeven millions; of which London is accounted a tenth part; ſo that there may be in London 700,000 people: divide the 4,000,000 by 700,000, and there will be found to each man 5 buſhels 7-tenths of a buſhel. But the allowance of two buſhels to the barrel being rather of the leaſt, we may reaſonably allow to each man's conſumption fix buſhels of malt in a year, which would be 4,200,000 buſhels, that is, about three barrels a year; which to the maſs of the people blended together, will be about a quart a day.

So that if London, which is a tenth part of the people, conſume 4,200,000 buſhels of malt, the whole kingdom, which are ſeven millions, may conſume 42,000,000 of buſhels; which, at 3d. *per* buſhel, would produce, according to this calculation, 520,000 l. *per annum*; but the malt-duty is now an annual tax, as well as the land-tax, and produces about 700,000 l. a year. See *Duties*, and *Tax*.

MALTA. An iſland in the Mediterranean, ſituated in 15 deg. of E. lon. and 35 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. 60 miles ſouth of Cape Paſſaro in Sicily, and 200 eaſt of Tunis in Barbary. It is of an oval figure, 20 miles long, and 12 broad

This iſland is not ſo remarkable for trade, as for the military order of St. John of Jeruſalem; which has been in poſſeſſion of it ſince the year 1530, eight years after this order had been deprived of the iſland of Rhodes by Soliman the great Emperor of the Turks.

Trade however is pretty conſiderable there, though not in the natural productions of the iſland; which being almoſt a rock, furniſhes the inhabitants with few of the neceſſaries of life, and ſtill leſs for ſtrangers: but this trade is carried on by ſeveral Engliſh, Dutch, French, and Italian ſhips, which bring there all ſorts of merchandiſe, or thoſe which the Malteſe merchants uſually freight for corn, and other neceſſaries, in the ſeveral ports of Italy, eſpecially in Sicily.

However, in this iſland may be had cotton, which grows there in abundance; wax, and honey; the latter of which is ſo much eſteemed, that from hence the iſland received the Latin name of *Melita*. Beſides, there are ſeveral refreſhments and fruits, among others figs, melons, and raiſins; which are as excellent there as in any other part of the world: however, theſe raiſins are only for eating freſh or dry; experience having taught the Malteſe that they could not make wine of them.

The principal place is the city of *Malta*, ſituated in 15 deg. of E. lon. and 35 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. conſiſting of three towns, ſeparated by channels, which form ſo many peninſula's of ſolid rock, riſing a great height above the ſea, and have ſecure harbours in them capable of receiving whole fleets. Beſides the city, there are 26 pariſhes in the iſland, and between 30 and 40 villages, containing 50,000 people; of which one half are military men, and unmarried, ſubject to the grand maſter of the order, who has under him ſeven grand priors, and ſeveral knights of the order; all of them being obliged to ſuppreſs pirates; ſo that they are in a perpetual ſtate of war with the Turks, and the ſtates of Barbary.

MALVASIA, or *Napoli di Malvaſia*. A city and port-town of European Turky, in the province of Morea, ſituated on the Archipelago, 30 miles eaſt of Miſitra, and 30 of Setines.

MALVÁSY. See *Malmſey*.

MAMMUT. A monſtrous animal, whoſe bones and teeth are found in ſome parts of Muſcovite Tartary, which afford a kind of ivory.

MAMOTBANI. White, fine, and ſtriped muſlins, brought from the Eaſt Indies, particularly from Bengal; the pieces of which are 8 ells in length, and 3-4ths, 5-6ths in breadth.

MAMOUDI, or *Mamodie*. A ſilver coin current in Perſia, and in ſeveral parts of the Eaſt Indies, worth 8 d. ſterling.

MAMOUDIS. Painted callicoes, brought from the ſtates of the Grand Mogul, by the way of Surat.

MAMOUDIS, are alſo fine and white linnens brought from Mecca to Smyrna.

MAN *iſland*, or the *Iſle of Man*, is ſituated in the Iriſh ſea, in 4 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. See *Britiſh* iſlands, under the article Great *Britain*.

MAN, or *Mem*. A weight uſed in the Eaſt Indies. See *Maund*.

MAN *of war*, is a ſhip of battle, either bearing a royal commiſſion, or acting as a privateer. See *Fleet*, and *Navy*.

MAN. A merchant-ſhip is ſaid to be well manned, when ſhe has double the men abſolutely neceſſary barely to ſail her; ſo to employ as many men as are ſufficient to do any work on board, is called manning; as manning the capſtan, manning the top, manning the boat, and the like.

MANAR. An iſland in the Indian ſea, in Aſia, between the iſland of Ceylon and the continent, ſituated in 79 deg. of E. lon. and 9 deg. of N. lat. See *Ceylon*.

MANDRAGORA, or *Mandrake*. A medicinal plant, which makes a principal ingredient in the unguentum populneum.

There are two kinds of mandragora, male and female, each bearing a kind of apples; thoſe of the male, as well as the leaves, roots, and branches, being twice as large as thoſe of the female; but the juice of each is a narcotic poiſon equally violent.

Naturaliſts tell ſtrange ſtories of this plant: but, ſetting aſide its ſoporiferous virtue, the modern botaniſts will ſcarce warrant any of them, not even that human figure ordinarily aſcribed to its roots, eſpecially ſince the diſcovery of the artifice of Charletan's in faſhioning it, to ſurpriſe the credulity of the people.

Druggiſts ſell only the bark of the root; which muſt be choſen new, greyiſh within, reddiſh without, and covered with a little rind ſomewhat gravelly.

Chineſe MANDRAGORAS, is the plant ginſeng; which is ſo much in eſteem among them, that a pound of its root is valued at three pounds weight of ſilver. See *Ginſeng*.

MANDRENAQUE. A kind of cloth; the warp being of cotton, and the woof of the thread of the palm-tree, manufactured abundantly in ſeveral of the Philippine iſlands, and a great article of trade for the inhabitants.

MANEQUE. A name given by the Dutch to a kind of nutmeg, as long, and as big again as the ordinary ſort; which is not imported by them into Europe, in order to ſell it to more advantage in Perſia, and the Eaſt Indies; where it is uſed for ſuddenly ſtopping the courſes of women, without any danger, which in all probability would prove mortal to European women.

MANFREDONIA. A city and port-town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, ſituated in 16 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 41 deg. 20 min. of N. lat.

MANGALIS. A ſmall Eaſt Indian weight, of about 5 grains, uſed for the weighing of diamonds, emeralds, and other precious ſtones.

MANGALOR. A port-town of the Hither India, ſituated on the Malabar coaſt, in 76 deg. of E. lon. and 13 deg. of N. lat.

MANGANESE. A kind of iron ore, uſed in the glaſs manufactures.

MANGELIN. A weight uſed for weighing diamonds in the mines of Raolconda and Gani, in the Eaſt Indies; being 1 carat and 3-4ths. There are alſo mangelins in the kingdoms of Golconda and Viſapour, which weigh 1 carat and 3-8ths. The mangelins of Goa uſed by the Portugueſe, weigh only 5 grains, and are commonly called mangalis. See *Mangalis*.

MANGO. An Eaſt India fruit, much like ſmall melons, or large cucumbers; which is pickled in a particular manner, and of late imported into Europe.

MANIFEST, is a writing delivered by a captain of a ſhip on his entering a port, to the huſband, declaring the nature of his cargo.

MANIFESTO, is a public declaration, or reaſon, exhibited by a king or prince, whereby he ſhews the reaſon for his doing or forbearing any thing, for or againſt another prince, ſtate, or potentate; which ſometimes have great effect upon trade.

MANIFESTO, is alſo a term among the Engliſh, Dutch,

and French, in the Levant, for what is otherwiſe called a declaration.

The regulations of the Engliſh nation import, that the officers of their ſhips ſhall be obliged to deliver and produce faithful manifeſtos of their cargo, under the penalty of being puniſhed as ſmugglers, and expelled the ſervice: and by the regulations for the commerce of the Dutch nation, the captains, pilots, and clerk, are ordered to deliver their manifeſtos to the treaſurer, both at their arrival, and before their departure; as alſo to make oath that they are true and exact, under the penalty of 1000 crowns, and expulſion from employment; which manifeſtos are ſent yearly by the treaſurer to the directors of the Levant at Amſterdam, for the proving of their accompts.

MANIGUETTE. A kind of pepper brought from the coaſts of Africa; though that of Jamaica alſo bears the ſame name, but improperly.

MANILLA, or *Luconia*. See *Luconia*, or *Philippine*.

MANILLE, or *Menille*. One of the principal commodities carried by Europeans to the coaſts of Africa, to traffic with the Negroes in exchange for ſlaves; conſiſting of a large braſs ring, in form of a bracelet, either flat or round, plain or engraven; which the natives uſe to deck themſelves with, putting them on the ſmall of the leg, and the thick part of the arm above the elbow.

The better ſort among the Negroes wear ſilver and gold manilles; but theſe are of their own manufacture; moſt of the money they receive for their other merchandiſes being melted into manilles.

MANNA. A medicinal drug, of great uſe in the modern practice, as a gentle purgative, and cleanſer of the firſt paſſages. It may be ranked among the number of gums, which exſuding from the juice of a tree, and mixing with ſome ſaline particles of the air, is condenſed into thoſe flakes, in which it is brought to England.

The Italians gather three kinds of manna: manna di corpo, which oozes ſpontaneouſly from the branches of the aſh-tree, in the month of July: manna forzata, or forzatella, which is not gathered till Auguſt, after an inciſion of the tree, when the flux of the firſt has ceaſed: manna di fronda, which iſſues of itſelf, in little drops, like a kind of ſweat, from the nervous part of the leaves of the aſh, and gathers into grains about the bigneſs of thoſe of wheat, which are hardened by the ſun in Auguſt; the leaves being found ſo loaden with theſe grains, that they ſeem covered with ſnow.

The Syrian manna was formerly moſt in repute, but now gives way to the Calabrian: that moſt eſteemed is in tears, which many take to be factitious, and the work of the Jews at Leghorn; but it is by ſome imagined to be natural; and what gives it this figure is, that they put ſtraws and ſlips of wood in the inciſions; along which the manna gliding is condenſed as it comes out, and aſſumes this form.

The manna begins to run from the woods of aſh, or, as they ſay in the ſcripture-ſtile, to rain, the beginning of Auguſt; and if the ſeaſon proves dry, they gather it five or ſix weeks: from which his Sicilian Majeſty has ſo large a revenue, and is ſo extremely jealous of it, that, during the ſeaſon, the woods are guarded by his ſbirri, or ſoldiers, who even fire upon people that come into them; and the King makes the ſtealing of the liquor, death. However, we are aſſured, by Robert More of Lindley, in the county of Salop, Eſq; a very ingenious gentleman, who lately made the tour of Italy, that the Neapolitans have many ways of counterfeiting the ſeveral appearances of manna; and that the moſt common is with Glauber's ſalt, and ſugar, with a ſmall mixture of manna.

The price of manna at Naples is 4 carlins, or 1 s. 6 d. ſterling, for every retolo, or 32 ounces.

MANNA *of incenſe*. See *Frankincenſe*.

MANS. A weight of about 12 lb. uſed in Perſia, particularly in the neighbourhood of Tauris.

MANS, is alſo a city of France. See *France*.

MANTE. A French town, remarkable for the excellency of its wine. See *France*.

MANTUA *duchy*. See *Italy*.

MANTUA, or *Mantoe*, is alſo a woman's gown, made in the moſt exact manner to fit her ſhape or perſon.

MANUFACTURE, or *Manufactory*. The place where ſeveral workmen or artizans aſſemble for working at one kind of work; but the term alſo ſignifies ſtuffs, cloths, and ſuch like. As this cloth is of a good manufacture, it is well wrought, or well made. See *Journeyman*.

By the ſtatute of the 1ſt of Richard III. points, leather laces, purſes, pouches, pins, gloves, knives, hangers, taylors ſheers, ſciſſars, andirons, cupboards, tongs, fire-forks, gridirons, ſtock-locks, keys, hinges, and garnets, ſpurs, painted glaſs, painted papers, painted forcers, painted images, painted cloths, beaten gold, or ſilver wrought in papers for painters, ſaddles, ſaddle-trees, horſe-harneſs, boots, bits, ſtirrups, buckles, chains, latten nails with iron ſhanks, turnets, hanging candle-ſticks, holy water ſtops, chafing-diſhes, hanging lavers, curtain-rings, cards for wool, Roan cards, except clasps for garnets, ſheers, buckles for ſhoes, broches or ſpits, bells, hawk-bells, tin, and leaden ſpoons, wire of latten and iron, iron candleſticks, grates, horns for lanthorns, or any of the ſaid wares made and wrought pertaining to the crafts of girdlers, point-makers, pinners, purſers, glovers, joiners, painters, card-makers, wire-mongers, weavers, horners, bottle-makers, or copper-ſmiths, may not be imported by ſtrangers to be ſold, upon forfeiture of the value.

It is an infallible maxim in every trading country, that the more their importation of foreign merchandiſe exceeds the exportation of their own, ſo much more unavoidable will be their miſery and ruin at laſt; and the damage ſuch a traffic uſually brings upon a whole kingdom, are even greater than any that have been felt by the moſt devouring locuſts. Some nations, France and Holland in particular, have conſtantly their great diſadvantage in their eye; and, to prevent their fatal conſequences, employ that wiſe and prudent meaſure of raiſing the duties upon foreign commodities imported into the country, as much, and ſometimes more, than treaties of peace allow of, never conſenting to any abatement or indulgence whatſoever; while, at the ſame time, they give leave to export their own manufactures, requiring only a moderated duty, and letting ſome ſorts go out entirely free. To prove the truth of this point, it may be neceſſary here to produce a few examples.

By the tariff which Lewis XIV. aſſiſted by the great penetration and ſkill of his vigilant miniſter John Baptiſt Colbert, publiſhed in the years 1664 and 1667, all foreign cloths imported into France paid a duty of above 25 *per cent*. while thoſe manufactured in his own kingdom were allowed to go abroad, paying only 1 *per cent*. and other commodities were exported free of all duty.

This appears from the edicts above mentioned, and other circumſtances; and it may be added, to encourage the other manufactories of that large and plentiful country of Languedoc, the government of France ſettled a premium of about 1 l. 10 s. ſterling, to be given to the maſter for every piece of fine cloth, meaſuring 30 French yards, that they ſhould manufacture and ſend abroad.

In regard to materials, they obſerve a rule ſo contrary, but equally advantageous, that they impoſe heavy duties upon the exportation of them, and ſometimes prohibit them entirely, under rigorous penalties, as in England with wool, that their own country may reap the benefit of the large gain which ariſes from working it up. But they lay very ſmall duties, often none at all, upon the importation of materials, which they are in want of, eſpecially for their manufactures. This is practiſed in Holland, in reſpect of Spaniſh wool, which is imported free, as appears from their own tariff, publiſhed at Amſterdam in 1710; for ſo dextrous are they, and attentive to the general intereſt of the ſtate, that they have conſtantly their eye, and gather the fruits of a piece of experience that this is a mine more fruitful of gain than thoſe of Potoſi; ſince, by working up into cloth a certain portion of wool, that lies them in a hundred guilders, they reduce from it the amount of 500; for they calculate, that in a yard of fine cloth, the wool it is made of amounts to a fifth of its value; and the reſt is labour, dying, and other expences. So that there remains, as it were, to the manufacturer an intereſt of 4-5ths; and a million of

ney in materials he can improve to the value of five millions.

This ſhews how expedient it is to encourage manufactures, in order to trade, in a great meaſure at leaſt, without native commodities.

To ſhew how exciſes, cuſtoms, and ſalt-duties, increaſe the expences of the people, and conſequently ruin the trade of Great Britain, the following account may not be improper; which is extracted from a book, entitled, *An eſſay on the cauſes and decline of the foreign trade, &c. of Britain.*

1. The duties themſelves.

The net produce of the taxes following, was before the war computed to be, one year with anothor, as under.

Exciſes,	about	*L.* 2,800,000
Cuſtoms,	about	1,700,000
Salt,	about	150,000
		4,650,000
The charges of raiſing theſe duties are about 10 *per cent.* -		465,000
		5,115,000

2. The advanced price of thoſe goods the above dutes are laid on.

Woeful experience teaches us, that every ſmall duty laid on commodities, raiſes the prices of them conſiderably to the conſumer, beyond the groſs duty.

By the fees given to officers, the tyrants of traders.

By tradeſmens loſs of time in attending upon exciſemen or at cuſtom-houſes: a trader's time is his bread.

By taking away a quarter part of our traders ſtocks for duties, and forcing them to take as great profit on 3-4ths of their ſtocks laid out in goods, in order to live, as they would on the whole if duty free.

By tradeſmens profits on the duty and advances in all the hands all taxed goods come through to the conſumer; as for example:

Suppoſe there ſhould be no other tax but that on leather, let us ſee how many advances that would make on the price of our ſhoes.

The grazier lays (1) on the beaſt he fats his advanced price of ſhoes; he ſells to the butcher, who takes (2) his profit on the grazier's advanced price of the beaſt, and raiſes (3) on the hide his advanced price of ſhoes; he ſells to the tanner, whoſe journeymen raiſe (4) their wages on account of their advanced price of ſhoes: the tanner pays (5) the tax of 2 d. *per* pound on leather; takes (6) his profit on the before mentioned five advances, and raiſes (7) on the tanned hide his advanced price of ſhoes; he ſells to the leather-cutter, who takes (8) his profit on the before mentioned ſeven advances, and raiſes (9) on the hide he cuts his advanced price of ſhoes; he ſells to the ſhoemaker, whoſe journeymen raiſe (10) their wages on account of their advanced price of ſhoes; the ſhoemaker takes (11) his profit on the before mentioned ten advances, and raiſes (12) on the ſhoes he makes the advanced price of the

Brought over	5,115,000

ſhoes he wears; he ſells to the conſumer with all theſe twelve advances, highly magnified beyond the bare duty.

So much for the tax on leather only: but the grazier, butcher, tanner, leather-cutter, and ſhoemaker, uſe ſoap; that ſoap like leather is taxed, and like that leather-tax muſt be raiſed; but that cauſed twelve advances on our ſhoes, true, place therefore twelve advances more on ſhoes for the ſoap-tax. Theſe tradeſmen uſe candles, twelve advances more for the tax on them; and the ſame for every other tax on neceſſaries. All which duly conſidered, might be computed at above *cent. per cent.* on the groſs produce of the duties; but though the large duties cauſe ſome farther advance on all the goods they are laid on, charged with profit upon profit through every hand they paſs; yet as they keep not pace with the ſmall duties, and all calculations appear faireſt when moderate, I chuſe to abate in the advances, and to ſet them only at 50 *per cent.* 2,557,500

The amount of the advanced price of the goods the above duties are laid on. - - 7,672,500

Let us ſee how this 7,672,500 l. circulates through the people, advances the prices of our goods, conſequently ruins our trade.

1ſt, This dearneſs of all neceſſaries, which raiſes the firſt coſt of goods, muſt advance the price of all labour.

The Spectator, N°. 200. computes, that the people without property, who work for their daily bread, conſume 2-3ds of our cuſtoms and exciſes; therefore they pay 2-3ds of them, and their conſequences. As theſe people live but from hand to mouth, whatever is laid on them, they muſt therefore ſhift off, or they can't live; and ſince theſe various taxes have been projected, they muſt earn enough when they work to pay the taxes, the advanced price of taxed goods, and the advanced prices of all other neceſſaries, *viz.* meat, bread, clothing, or whatever they can uſe, not only for the conſumption of the days they are employed, but for thoſe alſo that they are not; therefore they are the cauſe of raiſing the wages of the working people $\frac{2}{3}$ of 7,672,500 l. the amount of the advanced price of the goods the above duties are laid on; which makes 5,115,000

2dly, This dearneſs of all neceſſaries forces the maſter-tradeſmen to raiſe on their cuſtomers the taxes and advances on their conſumption.

The above Spectator allows 1-3d conſumption of our cuſtoms and exciſes to the people with property; but as theſe may be divided into two claſſes, *viz.* in trade, and out of trade; and the

Brought over 5,515,000

proportion conſumed by each not being aſcertained by any author, I ſhall compute them at half and half. Therefore the maſter-tradeſmen, or people with property in trade, *viz.* merchants, manufacturers, mechanics, farmers, wholeſale dealers, and retailing ſhopkeepers, muſt each lay on the goods they ſell, the advanced price of the taxed goods they conſume, whether food, cloathing, or utenſils: their 1-6th conſumption of 7,672,500 l. the amount of the advanced price of the goods the above duties are laid on, makes 1,278,750

6,393,750

3dly, Tradeſmen paying advanced prices on their goods, muſt have advanced profits; for whether they lay out their ſtocks of money in goods that bear their natural value only, or goods that bear double that value by taxes, ſtill a living profit muſt be obtained on the ſtocks they employ.

For the wages of the manufacturer, the mechanic, the labourer, and the expences of the maſter-tradeſman, being of neceſſity raiſed, the firſt coſt of goods muſt be ſo too; and conſidering the various tradeſmens hands that goods paſs through from the workman or labourer to the conſumer, charged with profit upon profit by each of them, which in the little trades muſt be very great, otherwiſe their returns being ſmall, they could not live, the advance thereby occaſioned may, at a moderate rate, be computed at 50 *per cent.* to the conſumer on the above two articles, which raiſes the firſt coſt of goods, and makes 3,196,875

9,590,625

People with property out of trade, their 1-6th conſumption of 7,672,500 l. the amount of the advanced price of the goods the above duties are laid on, makes 1,278,750

Total advance 10,869,375

This is part of the amount of the conſequences of raiſing 4,650,000 l. for the government, by our preſent manner of taxing goods.

Our other taxes are, the land-tax, the groſs produce, at about 4 s. in the pound, is about 1,960,000

The ſtamps, windows, poſt-office, &c. their computed groſs produce about - 500,000

The poor's tax is computed, on a middling rate, to equal the land-tax; but muſt be much more when trade is reduced, and the price of proviſions high: however, to reckon it at no more than the land-tax, or 1,960,000

General amount of all our taxes, and part of their conſequences, before the war 15,289,375

Let us ſee now the amount of our taxes, with regard to our expences. The Britiſh Merchant, vol. 1. p. 165. computes our people at ſeven millions, and their expences at 7 l. *per* head; but as neceſſaries are grown dearer ſince the year 1713, when he wrote, and the number of people increaſed, I ſhall

compute the people at eight millions, and their expences at 8 l. *per* head; which makes our total expence annually - 64,000,000

Of which ſixty-four millions the people pay for the taxes, and their conſequences, as above - - 15,289,375

Which being ſubtracted, their expences, if untaxed, would be only - 48,710,625

15,289,375 l. charged on 48,710,625 l. is a tax of above 31 *per cent.* on the expences of the people, which must add a prodigious artificial value to our goods, conſequently render them leſs ſaleable, and ruin our trade. If it be aſked, whether foreigners, for what goods they take of us, do not pay on that conſumption a great portion of our taxes?

The anſwer is, That it muſt be admitted they do; but that was originally intended and expected to continue the ſame as at the firſt laying on of our taxes, it will be the ſtrongeſt argument againſt them; for as our taxes on neceſſaries are proved to be ſo burdenſome and extenſive, by raiſing the prices of our goods, foreigners take leſs of them yearly; and when the demand is reduced, the people having leſs work, find leſs money to pay, and must have their taxes proportionably increaſed on them as they loſe their trade; for as the government abates neither expences nor taxes, and if one method of taxing fails, another is tried, what foreigners ceaſe to pay, we must; or, in other words, the leſs trade and money, the more taxes; and the more our taxes are, the leſs and leſs trade and money we know we muſt expect. Is not this like adding to a horſe's burden, and diminiſhing his meat? and muſt we wonder if he ſinks under his load? Perhaps figures may explain this ſtill clearer, by ſtating a ſimilar account through thirty years.

Suppoſe that in the year 1710, all our taxes, and part of their conſequences, were as they are now, 15,289,375 l. that foreigners paid then 1-7th of them, and our own people 6-7ths; that foreigners going to cheaper markets ſince, have ceaſed taking goods from us yearly, in proportion to 1 *per cent.* only on their former 1-7th part of our taxes, and their conſequences, the account every five years will ſtand thus.

	Foreigners paid of our taxes, &c.	Our own people paid
Anno 1710	*L.* 2,184,196	*L.* 13,105,179
1715	2,074,987	13,214,388
1720	1,965,778	13,323,597
1725	1,856,569	13,432,806
1730	1,747,360	13,542,015
1735	1,638,151	13,651,224
1740	1,528,942	13,760,433

By this it plainly appears in what manner our preſent taxes drive away our trade, and burden our people, we have by this account 655,254 l. more to pay in 1740 than they had in 1710, with 3-10ths leſs trade to pay it. To conclude this head: two of our greateſt authors clearly foreſaw, at the laying on our numerous exciſes, cuſtoms, &c. that theſe unhappy conſequences muſt neceſſarily follow; and their arguments are a full proof of what has been already advanced.

Mr. Locke, in his Conſiderations, &c. p. 90, ſays, That for raiſing three millions on commodities, and bringing much into the Exchequer, there muſt go a great deal more than three millions out of the ſubjects pockets, for a tax of that nature cannot be levied by officers to watch every little rivulet of trade without a great charge, eſpecially at firſt trial; but ſuppoſing no more charge in raiſing it than a land-tax, and that there are only three millions to be paid, it is evident, that to do this out of commodities, they muſt to the conſumer be raiſed proportionably in their price; ſo that every thing to him that uſes them muſt be a quarter dearer. Let us ſee now who, in the long-run, muſt pay this quarter, and where it will reſt. It is plain the merchant and broker neither will nor can; for if he pays a quarter more for commodities than he did, he will ſell them at a price proportionably raiſed; the poor labourer and handicraftſman cannot, for his

lives from hand to mouth already; and all his food, cloathing, and utenſils, coſting a quarter more than they did before, either his wages muſt riſe with the price of things to make him live: or elſe, not being able to maintain himſelf and family by his labour, he comes to the pariſh.

And afterwards he proves, that in the home-conſumption the whole burden falls on land at laſt.

Dr. Davenant, in his Eſſays on trade, vol. 3. p. 30. aſſerts, that as to manufactures, high exciſes in time of peace are utterly deſtructive to that principal part of England's wealth; for if malt, coals, ſalt, leather, and other things, bear a great price, the wages of ſervants, workmen, and artificers, will conſequently riſe, for the income muſt bear ſome proportion to the expence; and if ſuch as ſet the poor to work find wages for labour, or manufactures advance upon them, they muſt riſe in the price of their commodity, or they cannot live; all which would ſignify little, if nothing but our own dealings among one another were thereby affected; but it has a conſequence far more pernicious in relation to our foreign trade; for it is the exportation of our own product that muſt make England rich.

And in p. 31. "But the conſequence of ſuch duties, in times of peace, will fall moſt heavily upon our woollen manufactures; of which moſt have more value from the workmanſhip than the materials; and if the price of this workmanſhip is enhanced, it will in a ſhort courſe of time put a neceſſity upon thoſe we deal with of ſetting up manufactures of their own, ſuch as they can, or of buying goods of the like kind and uſe from nations that can afford them cheaper."

Beſides the miſfortunes ariſing from our taxes, we have ſome monopolies very deſtructive to a trading nation, and inconſiſtent with a free one; which encourage idleneſs, villainy, and extravagant demands for wages or goods, whereby the many are deprived of their rights, without having committed any crime to forfeit them, and for the benefit of a few only: a country that ſuffers them cannot ſend its goods ſo cheap to a foreign market as its neighbours, for never yet was a monopolized trade extended to the degree of a free one; therefore any country abounding in monopolies muſt decline in trade.

MANURE, or *Compoſt*, is that matter which is uſed for the improvement of land; as dung, marle, lime, peat, ſoot, ſalt, and ſea-ſhells. See *Agriculture*.

MAO, or *Main*. A weight uſed in ſome parts of the Eaſt Indies.

The mao of Akgbar, a town in the Mogul's territories, weighs 50 lb. avoirdupoiſe; and that of Ziamger, another Indian town, 60 lb.

MAON, or *Mahon*. A port-town of Minorca, ſituated on a fine bay in the Mediterranean, in 4 deg. 6 min. of E. lon. and 39 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. See *Minorca*.

MAP. A repreſentation of the whole globe, or any part of it. See *Chart*, and *Globe*.

MARACAIBO. A city and port-town of South America, in the province of Terra firma, ſituated in 76 deg. of W. lon. and 10 deg. 45 min. of N. lat.

MARACAIBO *Lake*, on which the town ſtands, is near 200 miles long, and 100 broad; which running from ſouth to north, diſcharges itſelf into the north-ſea.

MARAVEDIS. A ſmall Spaniſh copper coin, of little currency, though uſed by the Spaniards in all their accompts, conſidered either as a real coin, or money of accompt; of which 34 make 1 rial de vellon, and 68 the rial de plata or ſilver, or $10\frac{3}{4}$ d. ſterling.

Foreigners eſtabliſhed in Spain keep their books as much for their own conveniency, as for a proportion with the coins of other countries in maravedis, and rials of plata; whereas the Spaniards almoſt always keep them in maravedis, and rials de vellon, or copper, which makes almoſt a difference of one half in the totals.

MARBLE. A fine kind of ſtone, found in great maſſes, dug out of pits or quarries; being of a conſtitution ſo hard and compact, and again ſo fine, as readily to take a beautiful poliſh; much uſed in ornaments of buildings, as columns, ſtatues, altars, tombs, chimney-pieces, tables, and the like.

There are infinite numbers of different kinds of marble, uſually denominated, either from their colour, their age, their country, their grain, their degree of hardneſs, their weight, or their defects. Some are of one ſimple colour, as white, or black; others variegated with ſtains, clouds, waves, and veins; but all opake, excepting the white, which, when cut into thin pieces, becomes tranſparent.

Some under the genus of marble, comprehend alſo porphyry, ſerpentine, granate, and alabaſter.

MARCASITE. A ſort of metallic mineral; making a kind of ſeed or firſt matter of metals; on which principle there ſhould be as many different marcaſites as metals: and this is true in effect; the name being applied to every mineral body that has metallic particles in its compoſition; though not enough to make it worth working; in which caſe it would be called an ore.

There are only three kinds in the ſhops; marcaſite of gold, of ſilver, and of copper; though ſome repute the loadſtone, marcaſite of iron; biſmuth, marcaſite of tin; and zink, or ſpelter, marcaſite of lead; but this ſhould be left to chemiſts. See *Loadſtone*, *Biſmuth*, *Spelter*, and *Zink*.

Marcaſite of gold is in little balls, or nodules, about the bigneſs of nuts; nearly round, heavy, and of a brown colour without.

Marcaſite of ſilver is like that of gold, only paler coloured: within, the colour differs very much, the one having a gold colour, and the other a ſilver one, both ſhining and brilliant. The marcaſite of copper is about the bigneſs of a ſmall apple; round, or oblong; brown without, yellow and cryſtalline within, brilliant and ſhining.

Marcaſites are found in mines of metals; all of them containing ſulphur, and a vitriolic ſalt, eſpecially that of copper; ſome of them alſo contain antimony and biſmuth.

MARCO. A weight uſed by the Portugueſe of Goa, for amber, coral, ſilver, gold, muſk, civet, and other precious merchandiſes; being equivalent to eight ounces.

MARDIKE. A port-town of the French Netherlands, ſituated 4 miles weſt of Dunkirk, in 2 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. of N. lat. See French *Netherlands*.

St. MARGARET. An iſland on the coaſt of Provence in France. See *French* iſlands.

MARGARETTA *Iſland*, is one of the largeſt of the Leeward iſlands, ſituated in 64 deg. of W. lon. and 11 deg. 30 min. N. lat. See *Spaniſh* America.

MARGATE. A port-town of Kent, ſituated in 1 deg. 22 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 24 min. of N. lat.

The MARIAN, or *Ladrone Iſlands*, are a great number of ſmall iſlands, lying in 140 deg. of E. lon. and from the latitude of 12 deg. to about 28 north; about 8000 miles weſt of Acapulco in North America, and about 1800 eaſt of Canton in China.

The principal iſlands are *Guam*, or *Iquana*, which lies in the latitude of 13 deg. 21 min. according to Dampier; and 7302 miles to the weſtward of Cape Corientes, in the kingdom of Mexico. *Sarpanta* is in lat. 14. *Buenviſta* in lat. 15. *Saeſpar* in lat. 15. 40. *Anatan* in lat. 17. 20. *Saragan* in lat. 17. 25. *Guagan* in lat. 18. *Alamaguam* in lat. 18. 18. *Pagon* in lat. 18. the burning mountain of *Griga* in lat. 19. 33. *Tinian*, and *Manga*, in lat. 20. 45. *Urrac* in lat. 20. 55. *Iſle de Patas* in lat. 25. 30. *La Diſconocida* in lat. 25. 50. and *Malabrigo* in lat. 27. 40.

Europeans have had a knowledge of theſe iſlands ſince 1520, when Magellan diſcovered them, after having paſſed from the North into the South ſea, through the ſtrait called by his name. He gave them the name of the Thieves, or Ladrone iſlands, upon account of the iſlanders ſtealing from him ſome trifles, particularly hails, and old ſcraps of iron; as alſo the iſlands de las Velas, upon account of the great number of canoes with one ſail which ſurrounded his ſhip.

But they were afterwards called the Marian iſlands from Mary-Ann of Auſtria, Queen of Spain, who ſent miſſionaries there in 1665, after the Spaniards had taken poſſeſſion of them.

They lie to the extremity of the Eaſt in that great extent

tent of ſea, ſituated between Japan, the Philippines, and Mexico.

There is an opinion that they had always ſome trade with the Tartars; but it is certain, that before Magellan arrived there, they believed themſelves the only inhabitants of the earth, not knowing even the uſe of fire, which they firſt took for a devouring animal, dangerous to be approached.

Since the eſtabliſhment of the Spaniards in Guam, and ſome other of theſe iſlands, there is a trade carried on to the Philippines, about 200 leagues from them; and the Acapulco ſhips put in there annually for refreſhments, which they exchange for linnens, iron, hard and haberdaſhery wares; but this trade is of little conſideration; though, by their ſituation between Aſia and America, they favour the trade which may be carried on by the South ſea into the Eaſt Indies.

MARIEN-GROS. A money of accompt, uſed by the traders of Brunſwick, and divided into 8 pennings, 36 making the rix-dollar, or 4 s. 6 d. ſterling.

MARIGALANTE. One of the leaſt of the Caribbee iſlands, ſituated in 61 deg. of W. lon. and 16 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. See *French* America.

MARIGNAN. A port-town of Brazil, in South America, ſituated in 44 deg. of W. lon. and 2 deg. 15 min. of S. lat. See *Portugueſe* America.

MARINER. A ſeaman, or ſailor, whoſe buſineſs is going to ſea, in order to tranſport goods or perſons from one country to another. See *Seaman*.

MARINES. Soldiers who are carried in ſhips of war, to defend them againſt the enemies boarding them, or for acting by land.

MARITIME. Any thing belonging to the ſea.

MARITIME *Law*. See *Civil* law, and *Admiralty*.

MARITIME *Powers*, is a term given to ſuch nations as are moſt conſiderable for their naval armaments, and commercial intereſt; but it is more peculiarly applied to Great Britain, and the States-General of the United Provinces, who have long acquired and ſupported this character; though the French ſeem now to be intitled to a ſhare in it.

Upon the fall of the Roman empire, the trade of Europe ſeemed to be in ſome meaſure extinguiſhed; but very ſoon revived again among the Saxons, who, when they became maſters of England, eſtabliſhed a vaſt maritime power there; which however did not continue long, the Danes, by their great ſuperiority, making themſelves maſters of the country in this reſpect. After ſome ages, commerce and maritime power retired ſouthward; and were in a manner wholly poſſeſſed by the Italian ſtates, particularly by the Venetians and Genoeſe, who ſhared between them the traffic of the Eaſt, which enabled them to draw the wealth of other nations to themſelves.

But in the 13th century, ſeveral free cities in Germany began to league together for the ſupport and maintenance of their trade, and ſoon made their confederacy known to the world, by the title of the *Hanſeatic league*. As their trade brought them in immenſe riches and power, it rendered them haughty and inſolent, which by degrees brought on their ruin; to which however other circumſtances contributed: for in the 15th century the Portugueſe perfected a new plan in the Eaſt Indies, by the Cape of Good Hope; and about the ſame time the Spaniards diſcovered America; which threw the maritime trade of Europe, and its chief naval power, into the hands of theſe nations; who, if they had known how to cultivate it with ſkill, and to uſe it with moderation, might have raiſed it much higher, and have made it much more laſting than it proved; eſpecially when both the trade of the Eaſt and Weſt Indies was in the hands of the ſame prince; which happened by the acceſſion of Philip II. of Spain to the crown of Portugal.

But as almoſt all evils point out, and in time produce their own remedies; ſo the boundleſs ambition and cruel oppreſſion of the Spaniards conſtrained the United Provinces to throw off their yoke, and enraged their inhabitants, and the Engliſh, to endeavour by their expeditions in both Indies, to ſhare in thoſe riches, which were the great ſource of the Spaniſh power; and from this very particular, thoſe which are now called the maritime powers originally aroſe. The progreſs of the Dutch was amazingly quick; for in the ſpace of little more than half a century, from having hardly any ſhips at all, they came to have more than all Europe put together.

Since that time the inhabitants of Great Britain, by extending their commerce, and eſpecially by multiplying their colonies, have raiſed their maritime power greatly ſuperior in every reſpect to the Dutch, as all intelligent writers, and particularly foreigners, agree. This of late induced the partizans of the French court to ſuggeſt to the ſtates, that they are in more danger from the growing trade, and naval power of Great Britain, than from the ambitious deſigns of all their other neighbours: yet the French themſelves have of late years laboured with great diligence, not only to raiſe a maritime power, but to extend their trade into all parts of the world; in which they have been very ſucceſsful: for though the late general wars, in a great meaſure, ruined their navy; yet their commerce is even at this juncture, or was at leaſt after the breaking out of the laſt war, in a better condition than ever. So that the maritime affairs of Europe have in this laſt century ſuffered a very great change, though very probably they may ſuffer more.

The like attention to commerce and maritime power has, within theſe 50 years, appeared in almoſt every nation of Europe. The Swedes, Danes, and Pruſſia, have ſet up Eaſt India companies. The Ruſſians have opened a new advantageous traffic, as well on the Caſpian as the Black ſea. The houſe of Auſtria ſhewed a great deſire of reviving the antient commerce of the Low Countries; and when that was found impracticable, made ſome regulations at Trieſt and Fiume. The Genoeſe have within theſe few years erected a company of inſurance, on purpoſe to encourage their ſubjects to venture upon long voyages, and, if poſſible, to recover their old reputation as a maritime power. Nay, even the Spaniards themſelves, who in this reſpect have ſlept for ſuch a number of years, have at laſt opened their eyes, erected ſome, and have under conſideration the erecting ſeveral other companies, for the encouragement and extenſion of trade through their European and American dominions.

We may ſafely infer from theſe inſtances, that the navigation and ſhipping of the Europeans in general is, within the laſt 50 years, greatly increaſed. And as a farther proof of this, we need only conſider the numerous fleets and great embarkations of different powers; ſuch as the Ruſſians, Swedes, and Danes, in the north; the invaſion of Sicily and Africa, by the Spaniard, and many others.

Sir Walter Raleigh made a very ingenious calculation of the maritime power of Europe in his time; and Sir William Petty, from better lights, gave us another calculation, which has been conſidered as the ſtandard ever ſince. He thought the Dutch had about 900,000 tons of ſhipping; Great Britain, 500,000; Sweden, Denmark, and the towns in Germany, 250,000; Portugal and Italy, 250,000 likewiſe; and France about 100,000. But ſince that time things have been very much altered, inſomuch that the Britiſh ſhipping was, before the breaking out of the laſt war, at leaſt double to what it might be at the concluſion of the peace of Utrecht. It is acknowledged a very difficult thing to pretend to give with any degree of exactneſs the preſent proportions of maritime power: however, till a better can be furniſhed and formed, the following table may have its uſes.

If the ſhipping of Europe may be divided into twelve parts, then Great Britain hath - 6

The United Provinces - -	6
The ſubjects of the northern crowns	2
The trading cities and ſea-ports of Germany, and the Auſtrian Netherlands	1
France - -	2
Spain and Portugal -	2
Italy, and the reſt of Europe	1

The grounds upon which this calculation ſtands, would require a great deal of room to explain; and, after all, it might prove no eaſy taſk to perſuade thoſe who are not acquainted with the commerce only of this or that particular country, to admit that the computation is fairly made: but, however, it will be found that ſuch as are concerned with any particular country, will allow the table to be right enough as to the reſt; which is as much as any one can well expect. But beſides ſhewing the ſtate of commerce at this day, there is another uſe to which this computation may be applied; and that is, by way of ſtandard, to ſee how far one part riſes, or another ſinks, in this reſpect; for if ever it ſhould come to paſs, that theſe proportions ſhould vary conſiderably, it is plain that this muſt produce very great and ſenſible alterations in the general ſtate of affairs.

Thus, for inſtance, if the houſe of Bourbon ſhould ever acquire as great a proportion of trade and naval power as either of the maritime powers, it would be an acquiſition of much more conſequence than they have hitherto made in point of territories or dominions: but at the ſame time we muſt be aware of another thing; which is this, not only the proportion, but the total of maritime power, may alter; and in that caſe the growth of any particular ſtate, though advantageous to itſelf, would not render it more formidable to others.

This computation likewiſe ſhews how much it is the intereſt of the maritime powers, to ſuſtain their characters in that reſpect, at all events; ſince by this means only they can preſerve their independency, protect their ſubjects where-ever they may be ſettled and diſperſed, and aſſiſt their allies, notwithſtanding the ſuperior, as well as boundleſs ambition of any aſpiring neighbour. We need not wonder then at a common notion which prevails, as if we had a right to preſcribe to ſome other nations the bounds of their naval greatneſs. We cannot pretend to vindicate the exerciſe of ſuch a prerogative; but it would be no ill ſtroke of policy, ſhould any ſtate, really miſtreſs of ſuch power, exert it upon extraordinary occaſions, though under ſuch colour and pretences as might effectually hide it: for it may be laid down as a thing certain, that nothing is ſo dangerous to a maritime power as pride; and, in conſequence of that pernicious principle, an ill uſe of it.

What is before ſpoken of trade or commerce, may very well anſwer the ends expected from it in an hiſtorical light, and teach us tolerably well of the nature, extent, and comparative ſtrength of what is called the maritime power. But, in a political ſenſe, this will not by any means ſuffice. If we will really judge of things as they are, we muſt be thoroughly acquainted with their inſides, and not content ourſelves with the bare conſideration of appearances. We ſee and know, that whatever ſtate and power is poſſeſſed of extenſive trade, muſt have a great naval force, the effects of which will render her conſiderable; yet it is very requiſite to know how this ariſes, and why the ſtrength and dominion of a maritime power is firmer and more durable than that which ariſes from a great extent of territory, multitudes of ſubjects, and rich and fruitful countries.

Firſt, then, trade is extremely ſerviceable to any nation, let the form of its government be what it will; becauſe it introduces induſtry and arts, by which the manners of a people are entirely altered; for it is not abſolutely the number of ſubjects, but the number of uſeful ſubjects, that makes any ſtate powerful. In the next place, it introduces property; for without ſecurity with reſpect to that, it is impoſſible that trade ſhould flouriſh; and in this reſpect it leſſens ſome, and takes away many inconveniencies, to which every kind of government is from its nature liable. And, laſtly, it draws an almoſt inconceivable flux of people, where-ever it is thoroughly fixed.

Hence we may eaſily aſſign the true cauſes of the long duration of republicks famous for trade, ſuch as Tyre and Carthage in antient times, and the Venetians and Genoeſe in later ages. It is impoſſible that a nation, active and induſtrious, rich and populous, and at the ſame time living under a mild government, ſhould not exert a greater force when employed in attacking others, and have much greater reſources in caſe ſhe is attacked herſelf, than other ſtates that want theſe advantages. Hence it may appear how the ſtate of Holland roſe to ſuch vaſt power, in ſo ſhort a time, and how her ſubjects have been able to thrive and grow rich under taxes and impoſitions, which muſt have beggared them in any other ſituation than that of a trading republic.

Secondly, trade alters the comparative ſtrength of ſtates and kingdoms; becauſe where-ever it reſides, it creates ſo many and ſo great advantages, and begets ſuch relations and connections, as render a trading ſtate infinitely ſuperior to her neighbours. For ſuch a ſtate, if on the continent, can fortify her great towns ſo as to reſiſt a power ten times ſtronger in reſpect to people: ſhe can maintain, if it be requiſite, great numbers of regular troops, and on any emergency can hire more from her neighbours, beſides what ſhe may be able to do by the help of her maritime force. Hence ariſes that ſtrength and real power ſhewn by trading republicks, when attacked by ambitious princes, or even by powerful confederacies.

Thus the Venetians have often been too hard for the Turks, the Genoeſe for the moſt powerful princes in Italy; and, in earlier times, the Lubeckers for the greateſt powers in the north. Hence the famous league of Cambray, which was formed for the deſtruction of the ſtate of Venice in 1509, came to nothing, though the greateſt princes of that time engaged in it; though the Venetians themſelves were guilty of ſome indiſcretions, and though they had been much exhauſted by foreign wars. Thus alſo the famous confederacy between France and Great Britain againſt Holland in 1672 proved abortive; though at the firſt even the Dutch themſelves thought their affairs deſperate; but ſtill their love of liberty encouraged them to reſiſt, and their trade furniſhed them with the means of getting tolerably out of that war.

Thirdly, trade has not only a very great influence on the particular affairs of nations ſeparately conſidered, and is almoſt the ſole cauſe of a comparative difference in the ſtrength and forces of moſt of the powers of Europe; but it is alſo of infinite advantage to this quarter of the globe in general; keeps us free from all apprehenſions of being over-run by thoſe barbarous empires, which the Mahometan religion has eſtabliſhed in the world, and alſo brings us every thing that is rich and coſtly, every thing that is curious and valuable, even from the remoteſt quarters of the earth; ſo that to trade alone is, ſtrictly ſpeaking, due that ſuperiority which Europe has over the other parts of the world. In a word, it is to commerce that the people of Europe owe their freedom and independency, their learning and arts, their extenſive colonies abroad, their prodigious riches at home, and, above all, that maritime power, which ſo much ſurpaſſes any thing of the ſame kind in other parts of the world, and whatever was attempted that way in former ages.

MARK, in matters of commerce and manufacture, is a certain character ſtruck, or impreſſed, on various kinds of commodities, either to ſhew the place where they were made, and the perſons who made them; or to witneſs they have been viewed and examined by the officers or magiſtrates charged with the inſpection of that manufacture; or, laſtly, to ſhew the duties impoſed thereon have been regularly acquitted.

Thus cloths, leathers, cutlery-ware, paper, plate, weights, and meaſures, are to be marked.

MARK, is alſo a particular ſign or character, known only to the trader who pitches on it; whereby, being fixed to any commodity, he recollects the price it coſt him.

Theſe marks, otherwiſe called *numeros*, are taken according to the fancy of thoſe who uſe them; but are ordinarily choſen from among the letters of the alphabet, each having a relation to ſome particular number of figures; which are of ſo much uſe in trade, that it may be neceſſary to inſert a little table, ſerving as a model for their conſtruction.

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	K	L	M
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	20

One example will give the whole uſe of this table. Suppoſe a tradeſman ſhould put on a piece of ſtuff, that it coſt 37 s. 6 d. *per* ell. He puts an M for 20 s. an L for 10 s. an H for 7 s. and a G for 6 d.; ſo that the ſeveral letters wrote after each other, obſerving always to ſeparate ſhillings from pounds and from pence by points, will make this mark M. L. H. G. equal to 37 s. 6 d. However, the mark may be diverſified infinitely, by adding other figures to the letters inſtead of theſe.

MARK, or *Marc*, alſo denotes a weight uſed in ſeveral ſtates of Europe; and for ſeveral commodities, eſpecially gold and ſilver in France.

The mark is divided into 8 ounces, or 64 drachms 192 pennyweights, or 4608 grains. See *Drachm.*

When gold or ſilver are ſold by the mark, it is divided into 24 carats, the carat into 8 pennyweights, the pennyweight into 24 grains, and the grain into 24 primes.

MARK, was likewiſe formerly uſed in England for a money of accompt, and in ſome countries for a coin.

The Engliſh mark was 2-3ds of a pound ſterling, or 13 s. 4 d. and Matthew Paris obſerves it was of the ſame value in 1194. The antient Saxons called the mark, mancus, or mancuſa, and meare; among them it was equivalent to 30 d. that is, 7 s. 6 d. of the preſent money.

The mark of Hamburg is alſo a coin and money of accompt, equal to 1 s. 6 d. ſterling.

The Daniſh mark is 9 d. ſterling; the ſilver mark of Sweden is $4\frac{2}{3}$ d. ſterling, and the copper mark $2\frac{1}{4}$ d.

MARKET. A place where all ſorts of goods and proviſions are publickly ſold. Bracton obſerves, that one market ought to be diſtant from all others at leaſt ſix miles and a half, and a 3d of a half; but as the people increaſed, ſo did the privilege of keeping markets, which are now reſtrained, eſpecially in cities and great towns, almoſt to proviſions only, every ſhop being a kind of market for other manufactures. See *Fiſh*-market.

In former times, it was cuſtomary to have moſt fairs and markets kept on a Sunday, in the church-yards; ſo that matters of buſineſs and devotion were tranſacted together. This cuſtom was effectually ſuppreſſed by Henry VI. and though there are ſome remains of this practice ſtill in the moſt northern parts of the kingdom, many laws, with ſevere penalties, have been ſince made to regulate the markets, to prevent monopolizing, foreſtalling, and other inconveniences; which not duly executed, occaſion too many of theſe practices to paſs unpuniſhed, to the great detriment of induſtrious houſekeepers, and the fair trader.

The number of market-towns, at this time, in South Britain, amounts to 803, excluſive of thoſe in Scotland: but in London and Weſtminſter alone, there are a greater number of markets, than in any other city throughout the univerſe.

Theſe following being for meat; Bloomſbury; the Borough market, in Southwark; Brooks market; Cavendiſh market; Clare market; Fleet market; Honeylane market; Hoxton market; Marlborough market; Hungerford market; Leadenhall market; Newgate market; Newport market; St. James's market; Shadwell market; Shepherd's market; Spittlefields market; Whitechapel market; and Weſtminſter market. There are alſo the following markets for cattle; Knight's-bridge, Mile-end, and Smithfield. The following are for corn; Bear-quay; Queenhithe; and White-horſe inn, near Holborn-bridge. Billingſgate is a market for fiſh; and there is alſo another lately eſtabliſhed in Weſtminſter; but Billingſgate is likewiſe a market for coal. The following are for coals, hay, and ſtraw; Biſhopſgate market; Hay-market, Pallmall; and St. Margaret's hill. Blackwall is the great cloth-market; and Wood's cloſe is a market for ſheepſkins; the whole number being 33.

Theſe markets are ſo properly ſtocked with all kinds of proviſions, induſtry is ſo well rewarded, and money ſo plentiful in this metropolis, that, with the bleſſing of providence, there is no occaſion for ſuch a dearth oppreſſing the inhabitants as that which happened in the year 1595, when wheat was ſold at 2 l. 13 s. 4 d. the quarter; and other proviſions ſo exceſſively dear, that butter was ſold at 7 d. a pound; eggs for one a penny; and the prices of fiſh and fleſh in proportion; which very extraordinary, when money was ſo ſcarce; for in year 1549, King Edward VI. ordered, that the beſt ox ſhould be ſold for 2 l. 5 s. and one of the inferior ſteers at 16 s. the beſt heifer for 1 l. 2 s. and one the inferior ſort at 13 s. 4 d. the beſt fat wedder for and one of the inferior ſort at 2 s. 4 d. the beſt fat at 2 s. 6 d. and one of the inferior ſort at 1 s. 8 d.

Clerk of the MARKET. An officer, whoſe buſineſs take care that all the weights and meaſures uſed in market, are agreeable to the King's ſtandard kept in exchequer. See *Weight*, and *Meaſure.*

MARLBRO *Fort.* An Engliſh factory on the weſt co of the iſland of Sumatra, ſituated in 101 deg. of E. and 4 deg. 15 min. of S. lat. 3 miles E. of Bencoo and 300 N. of Batavia, ſubordinate to the government Fort St. George. See *India*, and *Sunda* iſlands.

MARLE. A kind of dry, ſoft, foſſile earth, harſh to touch, uſed to be caſt on land to make it more fruit of which there are ſeveral ſorts, of different colours qualities; the principal being white and red. Too m marle thrown on the earth is found to burn it; but of uſe in making lime, being burnt like other ſtone. *Manure.*

MARMALADE. A confection made of the juice or of ſome fruit.

MARMORA. A little iſland of Turky, ſituated in ſea of Marmora, between Aſia and Europe, in 28 of E. lon. and 40 deg. of N. lat. See *Turky.*

MARMORA *ſea*, formerly called the *Propontis*, is ſitu between the Helleſpont and Boſphorus, or between Dardanells and the ſea of Conſtantinople; havi communication with the Black ſea on the N. E. and the Archipelago on the S. W. being about 120 m. l and 50 broad; through which all European ſhips ſa their way to Conſtantinople.

MAROSCH, or *Meriſh.* A great river, riſing in the pathian mountains, and running from N. to S. thro Tranſilvania; after which it turns weſt, and, running Hungary, falls into the river Teyſe at Segedin.

MARQUE, or *Letters of Marque*, are granted to reta any injury committed by the ſubjects of one ſtate on others, contrary to the law of mart. See *Letter* of Mar It appears by the treatiſe of naval trade, and other bo that the goods of others may be taken upon the ſe letters of marque, and *jus repriſalium*; but the ſame not be done by any private authority, only by the po of that prince or ſtate whoſe ſubject the injured pe is; nor is it grantable by authority, but where the p damaged has juſtice denied him, or the ſame is illeg delayed. This law, or cuſtom of repriſals, was co tuted by the conſent of nations; and, without it cence would be given and tolerated for the committi depredations; eſpecially if only the goods of rulers made liable, who ſeldom poſſeſs any thing the inj can come at for ſatisfaction.

But princes, by the law of nations, are anſwerable for lic injuries; and ſhould, by the moſt prudent ways ginable, prevent thoſe that are private, not ſuffering reigners, if poſſible, to receive wrongs in their c tries: nor ſhould the prince of the injured value his fortune at ſo low a rate, as to deny him letters of requeſt ſatisfaction; and if juſtice be denied after ſuch requeſt is reaſonable to arm him with power, to take ſatisfa by repriſe and military force. There are uſually two or three letters of requeſt, according to the ſati tion returned in anſwer, before the repriſal is awar and ſuch letters generally aſſign a time certain for dam to be repaired; if not, repriſals to iſſue forth. See ter of *Requeſt.*

King Charles I. after the maſſacre at Amboyna, gr letters of requeſt to the ſtates of Holland for ſatisfa within eight months, otherwiſe letters of repriſal to follow. King Charles II. on the petition of Goulor and Canham, granted one Lee letters of re to the Great Duke of Tuſcany, for redreſs againſt government of Leghorn. In the year 1674, the prince iſſued out letters of requeſt to the King of S requiring ſatisfaction for the depredation committe

the ſhip and goods of Mr. Stampe, who was robbed and murdered at the Havanna. He alſo publiſhed a proclamation in the following year, promiſing a reward for apprehending the offenders dead and alive.

In the proſecution of letters of requeſt and repriſal, there muſt be, 1. The oath of the party injured, or other ſufficient proof touching the pretended injury, and of the certain loſs and damage thereby ſuſtained. 2. A proof of due proſecution, or ſolicitation for obtaining ſatisfaction in a legal way. 3. The deferring or denial of juſtice. 4. A complaint to his own prince or ſtate. 5. Requiſition of juſtice by him or them, made to the ſupreme head or ſtate, where juſtice in the ordinary courſe was denied. 6. Perſiſtency ſtill in the denial of juſtice. After all which, letters of repriſal under ſuch cautions, reſtrictions, and limitations, as are conſonant to law, and as the ſpecial caſe requires, may iſſue not only by the civil, but by the ancient municipal laws of England; when the prince of that country, againſt whom the ſame are awarded, muſt repair the damage out of his or their effects who committed the injuries; or, if that proves deficient, it ought to fall as a common debt on his country.

The repriſals grantable by the laws of England are of two ſorts, ordinary and extraordinary. The ordinary repriſals are either within the realm, or without the ſame; and the firſt are grantable where any Engliſh merchants have ſuffered in their perſons or goods, and their merchandiſes are ſpoiled or taken from them in parts beyond the ſeas, by merchants ſtrangers, and the Engliſh merchants upon ſuit, or the King's demanding of juſtice by his ambaſſadors, &c. cannot obtain ſatisfaction to the perſons injured; then the parties proving they have proſecuted the offenders in a due courſe of juſtice, and have been denied or delayed illegally to have right done them, ſhall in ſuch caſe have a writ out of chancery to arreſt the merchant ſtrangers of that nation, or their goods here in England. And the Lord Chancellor, in this caſe, has always the approbation of the King or council, or both, for ſo doing.

The other repriſals without the realm are always by patent under the great ſeal, and cannot be ordinarily revoked; becauſe, after the perſon injured has petitioned, and according to law proved his loſs, obtained letters of requeſt, and no reparation has been made; as ſoon as the letters-patent are ſealed, the ſame immediately creates and veſts a national debt in the grantee, to be ſatisfied in ſuch manner, and by ſuch means, as the ſaid letters-patent direct, out of the goods and eſtates of that prince's ſubjects, who refuſed or illegally delayed juſtice. But if the ſupreme power thinks the execution of theſe letters of repriſal cannot be well effected without endangering the peace of both ſtates, it may be reſpited till a more convenient time; and princes are careful in granting ſuch letters-patents, to have them made ſo as they may not be reckoned a breach of the peace; but the granting of them for particular ſatisfaction does not in the ordinary way amount to a breach.

As to the extraordinary repriſals, they are by letters of marque, for reparation at ſea, or any place out of the kingdom, granted by the ſecretaries of ſtate, with the like approbation of the King and council; but they are only during the King's pleaſure, and generally in time of war; ſo that they may at any time be revoked.

The caſes where repriſals will or will not lie, are thus ſtated: On wrong judgment given in a proſecution abroad, in matters not doubtful, which might have been redreſſed, either by the ordinary or extraordinary power of the country or place, and the which was apparently perverted or denied, repriſal may be granted; though, if the matter be doubtful, it is otherwiſe; for in cauſes dubious, there is preſumption that juſtice was truly adminiſtered. If an Engliſhman proſecutes a perſon in any legal court beyond the ſeas, whereupon the military governor oppoſes the ſuit, and by his means the debtor and his goods are conveyed away, but a ſentence or judgment is obtained, by this the execution is fruſtrated, and letters of repriſal ſhall be had.

And yet if a merchant of England ſhall commence a ſuit in the courts of law beyond the ſeas, and judgment paſſes againſt him, from which he appeals to the ſupreme court, and there the firſt judgment is confirmed and allowed; though the complainant hath received a judgment contrary to the right of the cauſe, here he ſhall not have letters of repriſal; but it may, in an extraordinary caſe, if there be ſtrong circumſtances for the ſame, occaſion letters of requeſt to have a rehearing.

If any perſon ſhall be killed, wounded, or any way damaged in a hoſtile manner, in the territories or places of any king or potentate, to whom letters of requeſt are tranſmitted, and no ſatisfaction ſhall be made to the perſon injured, there is no compulſion to reſort to the ordinary proſecution, but letters of repriſal ſhall be iſſued: but where misfortunes happen to perſons or their goods reſiding in a foreign country in time of war, repriſals are not to be granted. In this caſe they muſt be contented to ſit down under the loſs; for they are at their liberty to relinquiſh the place on the approach of the enemy, when they foreſee the country is ſubject to ſpoil and devaſtation; and if they continue, they muſt partake of the common calamity.

It is not the place of any man's nativity, but of his habitation, that ſubjects him to repriſe, for the law does not conſider ſo much where he was born, as where he lives: therefore if letters of repriſal ſhould be awarded againſt the ſubjects of the Duke of Tuſcany, and a native of Florence, but denizened or living in England, ſhould have a ſhip on a voyage for Leghorn, if in ſuch caſe a caption be made of this ſhip, it is not lawful, nor can the ſame be made prize. And there are certain perſons, as well as ſhips and goods, that are exempted or privileged from repriſals; ſuch as ambaſſadors and their retinue, coming from him who awarded the repriſe; travellers through a country, ſtaying but a little while there; eccleſiaſtical perſons, &c. And a merchant of another place, than againſt which repriſals are granted, although the factor of his goods were of that place, is not ſubject to repriſals.

Where ſhips are driven into port by ſtorm or ſtreſs of weather, they have an exemption from the law of repriſals, according to common right. But by the laws of England it is ſaid to be otherwiſe, unleſs expreſsly provided for in the writ or commiſſion; and if ſuch ſhip flies from her own country to avoid confiſcation, or for ſome other fault, and is driven in by ſtreſs of weather, ſhe may then become ſubject to be prize. But it is unlawful to make ſeizure of ſhips for repriſal in any ports, except in that prince's who awarded the repriſals, or his againſt whom the ſame are iſſued: the ports of other princes or ſtates are not to be diſturbed, but be peaceably maintained.

If a ſhip having letters of marque or repriſal, ſhall take the ſhips and goods of that nation againſt whom they are awarded, and bring the ſame into a neuter port, the owners may there claim and ſeize her; or the admiral may make reſtitution, according to law, of the ſhip's goods to the owners, and the captives to their liberty; for that the ſame ought firſt to have been brought *infra præſidia* of that prince or ſtate, by whoſe ſubjects they were taken; and if it be not ſo done, it has been reſolved, that ſuch ſhips cannot become lawful prize, nor are the owners of ſuch a caption diveſted of their property.

When any ſhip that has letters of repriſe attacks a veſſel, and ſhe refuſes to yield, ſhe may be aſſaulted and entered; and if it falls out, that by accident ſome of thoſe which make reſiſtance are ſlain, the fault will be at their own doors, for hindering the execution of what is legal, and granted by authority. But in caſe a letter of marque ſhall wilfully and knowingly take a ſhip and goods belonging to another nation, againſt whom the commiſſion is not awarded, but of ſome other ſtate in amity, this amounts to downright piracy; whereupon the offenders will incur a forfeiture of their veſſel, &c.

Though if ſuch letters of marque be aſſigned to another perſon, who takes any ſuch ſhip or goods of another nation, on a violent preſumption that it belonged to the right of him againſt whom repriſals are granted; here, if the ſufferers recover their goods and ſhip, yet the captors are not to be puniſhed criminally, nor the grantees of the letters-

letters-patent civilly. The captors nevertheleſs may not be excuſed from anſwering the damages; but the grantees are excuſable, both as to that and puniſhment, unleſs they are privy to the caption. It is like unto the caſe of an officer arreſting a wrong perſon; he is liable to anſwer the damage to the party arreſted, but not the perſon that employed him.

A ſhip being lawfully taken, and brought into port, the captor muſt exhibit all his ſhip papers, and captive mariners, to be examined, in order to adjudication; till when, and the goods are legally condemned, bulk ought not to be broken; nor may the captain permit an embezzlement of the lading, or ſell, barter, or diſpoſe of any part, without commiſſion; for the King hath a proportion in all prizes: and the common profits of prizes are to be equally divided among all the ſhips preſent, and not be ſolely to the captor; ſo that if letters of repriſal are granted to two ſhips, and they happen both of them at ſea to meet a prize, and the one attacks, and enters her, by means whereof ſhe becomes conqueror; although the other did nothing in the engagement, he hath right to an equal diſtribution with the captor, becauſe the preſence of the other veſſel, armed and prepared for battle, becomes a terror, and will occaſion a ſhip the ſooner to yield.

If the caption of any ſhip or goods be by men of war, the property will immediately be in the captors; except it be loſt again, and the ſhip or goods are recovered by the perſons from whom they were taken, or be in battle regained. And by the law of nations, the dominion of the things taken by thoſe to whom letters of marque are granted, become the captors, till the debt and coſts, that is, the original damage and ſubſequent charges, are ſatisfied; which being done, the reſidue ought to be reſtored: and ſo the Venetians uſed their equity, having taken the ſhips of Genoa, they did not ſpoil any of the lading, but preſerved the ſame very carefully, until the debt was paid; and then they made reſtitution of the things entirely, without diminution.

In caſe the King of England ſhould be in enmity with the ſtates of Holland, and one of their ſhips of war takes an Engliſh merchant-man; and afterwards another ſhip of war of England meets the Dutch ſhip and his prize, and regains the ſame; there reſtitution is commonly made, the owners paying the ſalvage: ſo where the prize is recovered by a friend in amity, or comes into his ports, reſtitution is to be made. And the taking of ſhips and goods by force and arms is ſo odious, that if by any poſſibility the right owners may have reſtitution, the ſame hath been granted.

Where, for the fault perhaps of a few, a debt becomes national, the goods of the guiltleſs and innocent become liable, if taken, for ſatisfaction; but ſuch ought to have contribution by the law of England, as when one is put to the whole burden, and more are bound to do one thing: though when depredations have happened in England to foreign merchants, and complaint hath been made concerning them, commiſſions have been often iſſued to inquire of the ſame, and award ſatisfaction. And upon the petition of ſome merchants of Genoa, who complained againſt the inhabitants of the iſle of Guernſey for a depredation, in taking away and detaining their merchandiſe and goods to a very conſiderable value, out of a ſhip wrecked by tempeſt near the ſaid iſle; on this a commiſſion was granted, by which the commiſſioners were empowered to puniſh the offenders, and make a reſtitution and ſatisfaction for the damages ſuſtained. For as the Engliſh ſubjects may have their goods by way of repriſe, for the ſatisfaction of a debt from foreigners; ſo they may have the benefit of theſe commiſſions to make themſelves whole out of the ſtates of the offenders.

But he that will ſue to have reſtitution in England for goods taken at ſea, muſt prove that the ſovereign of the party was in amity with the King of England, &c. and letters of repriſals make no war or enmity between nations.

MARQUETRY. Inlaid work, or fineering; being a plane of oak, or well dried fir, covered with ſeveral pieces of fine hard wood of various colours, in the forms of birds, flowers, knots, and ſometimes intermixed with tortoiſe-ſhell, mother of pearl, ſilver, and other things; ſometimes compoſed of various colours; and ſometimes of precious ſtones, or curious marbles, when it is called *Moſaic work*.

MARROQUIN, or *Morocco*. The ſkin of a beaſt. See *Morocco*.

MARSALA. A port-town of Sicily, in the province of Mazara, ſituated in 12 deg. 6 min. of E. lon. and 37 deg. 50 min. of N. lat.

MARSALQUIVER. A port-town of Algiers, ſituated on a bay of the ſea, oppoſite to Oran.

MARSEILLES. A port-town of France, in the province of Provence, ſituated on a fine bay of the Mediterranean, in 5 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 15 min. of N. lat.

MART, *letters of mart*. See *Letters* of mart, and *Marque*.

MART, is alſo a free open market, for all perſons to buy and ſell commodities; but more eſpecially applied to ſuch cities as Frankfort, and other places in Germany, where the great fairs are kept.

MARTABAN. A port-town of the further India, ſituated on the eaſt-ſide of the bay of Bengal, in 97 deg. of E. lon.

MARTHA, *St.* A port-town of South America, ſituated on the North ſea, at the mouth of the river Gayra, in 74 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 11 deg. 45 min. of N. lat.

MARTIAL *courts at ſea*, or *Courts-martial*, is trying a perſon by the martial law, or the law of war or arms, depending upon the King's pleaſure, or that of his admirals, under certain reſtrictions, which are regulated by an act of parliament paſſed in the 22d year of King George II. entituled, "An act for further regulating the proceedings up" "on courts-martial in the ſea-ſervice; and for extending" "the diſcipline of the navy to the crews of his Majeſty's" "ſhips, wrecked, loſt, or taken; and for continuing to" "them their wages upon certain conditions." See *Court* martial.

MARTIGUES. A port-town of France, in the province of Provence, ſituated on a bay of the Mediterranean, in 5 deg. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 20 min. of N. lat.

MARTIN *Cape*, or *Cape Martin*. A promontory of Valencia in Spain, on the Mediterranean ſea, 40 miles S. E. of the city of Valencia.

MARTINETS, in a ſhip, are ſmall lines faſtened to the legs, on the leetch of the ſail, appearing like crows feet; the uſe of them being to bring that part of the leetch of the ſail, which is next the yard-arm, up cloſe to the yard when the ſail is fardelled.

MARTINICO, is the chief of all the French Caribbee iſlands, ſituated in 61 deg. W. lon. and between 14 and 15 N. lat. See *French* America.

MARYLAND. A province of North America, ſituated between 74 and 78 deg. of W. lon. and between 3 and 40 of N. lat. See *Britiſh* America.

MASBATE. One of the Philippine iſlands, almoſt in the center of the reſt, ſituated in 120 deg. of E. lon. and 13 deg. of N. lat. See *Philippine* iſlands.

MASCARENHA *iſland*. See *Bourbon*.

MASLIN. A mixture of wheat and rye.

MASON. A workman employed to do the ſtone-part of a church, palace, or other large building.

MASONS *company of London*, by the arms granted by William Hanckeſtow, Clarencieux king at arms, in the year 1474, appears to be of conſiderable antiquity: however it was only incorporated by letters-patent of the 29th of Charles II. dated the 17th of September 1677, by the name of The maſter, wardens, aſſiſtants, and commonalty of the company of maſons of the city of London; the ſociety conſiſting of a maſter, 2 wardens, 22 aſſiſtants, and 70 liverymen; who have a convenient hall in Maſon alley, Baſinghall-ſtreet, where the buſineſs of the company is tranſacted; and their fine is 5 l. on admiſſion.

MASSA. A city of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, ſituated in 15 deg. of E. lon. and 40 deg. of N. lat. on the ſouth-ſide of the gulph of Naples, 20 miles ſouth of that capital.

MASSA, is alſo the capital of the dutchy of Maſſa Carrara.

in Italy, ſituated between the territories of Lucca and Genoa, in 10 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 55 min. of N. lat. 3 miles weſt of the Tuſcan ſea.

MAST *of a foreſt*. The fruit of a ſpecies called *glandiferous* or *maſt-bearing*; as beech, oak, and cheſnut, being fit for feeding of ſwine.

MAST, in navigation. A large pole, or long piece of round wood, raiſed in veſſels, for the yards and ſails to be faſtened to, in order to their receiving the wind neceſſary for navigation.

To large veſſels the number of maſts is four; their names being the main-maſt, the fore-maſt, the mizen-maſt, and the boltſprit; to which ſome add a fifth, called a counter-mizen.

The *main-maſt* is the chief maſt, ſtanding upright in the middle, or waſte of the veſſel; bearing the main-yard and main-ſail.

The *fore maſt* is between the main-maſt and the head.

The *mizen-maſt* is between the main-maſt and the ſtern.

The *boltſprit* lies upon the beak, in the prow, or head of the ſhip.

The *counter-mizen*, in large veſſels and galleons, is in the ſtern.

The word *maſt* is alſo uſed to ſignify thoſe diviſions, or additional pieces, in the maſts placed over one another. The main-maſt and fore-maſt have each of them two, as the main-maſt, main-top-maſt, main-gallant-maſt; the fore-maſt, fore-top-maſt, fore-top-gallant maſt; the mizen-maſt has only one, called the mizen-top-maſt.

For the proportion of maſts, Sir H. Manwaring gives theſe rules. Whatever the breadth of a ſhip be in feet, multiply 4-5ths of that breadth by 3, the product is the length of her main-maſt in feet. Thus, if a ſhip be 30 feet at the midſhip-beam, 4-5ths of 30 is 24; therefore the main-maſt of that ſhip muſt be 24 yards, or 72 feet, in length. Then for its bigneſs, he allows an inch to every yard in length; and therefore this maſt muſt be 24 inches thick. The fore-maſt of a ſhip muſt be 4-5ths of the length of the main-maſt, that is in this caſe $19\frac{1}{5}$ yards; and it muſt be near 24 inches thick. The boltſprit is always the ſame length and bigneſs with the fore-maſt; and the mizen-maſt muſt be juſt half the length of the main-maſt, and half as thick. See Naval *Stores*.

MASTERS *of ſhips*. Officers to whom is committed the direction of a merchant-veſſel; who command in chief, and are charged with the merchandiſe aboard: but in the Mediterranean the maſter is called *patron*, and in long voyages *captain*.

The proprietors of the veſſel appoint the maſter; but the maſter provides the equipage, and hires the pilot and ſailors. He is likewiſe obliged to keep a regiſter of the names and officers on board, the terms of their contract, the receipts and payments, and in general every thing relating to his commiſſion. See *Ship*.

MASTIC. A clear and ſweet reſinous gum, iſſuing from the trunk and large branches of the maſtic tree, or lentiſcus, either without or with inciſion. See *Lentiſcus*.

Maſtic is temperate in heat, and of a dry binding quality; that it ſtrengthens the ſtomach, ſtays vomiting, ſtops fluxes of blood, and tickling coughs and catarrhs: it ſtrengthens the reins, is a good cleanſer, and therefore deſcribed in ſeminal weakneſſes.

Jewellers mix maſtic with turpentine and black ivory, and lay it under their diamonds, to give them a luſtre.

Maſtic is chiefly the product of Chios, an iſland in the Turkiſh Archipelago; where the trees that yield it are cultivated with as much care as the vines; and it brings a yearly revenue of about 2000l. ſterling to the Grand Signior.

There is alſo a kind of black maſtic brought from Egypt, which ſerves to ſophiſticate camphor.

The gum maſtic is in ſmall granules, being white if good, though age makes it turn yelloviſh.

MASTIC, is alſo a name given to artificial camphor. See *Camphor*.

MASTRE. A Turkiſh city, and port, on the Black ſea. See *Turky*.

MASULIPATAN. A city and port-town of the Hither India, in the province of Golconda, ſituated on the weſt ſide of the bay of Bengal, in 81 deg. of E. lon. and 16 deg. 18 min. of N. lat.

MATAPAN *Cape*, or *Cape Matapan*, in the Morea, is the moſt ſouthern promontory of Europe, ſituated in 22 deg. of E. lon. and 36 deg. of N. lat.

MATCH. A kind of rope ſlightly twiſted, and prepared to retain fire, for the uſes of artillery, mines, fire-works, and ſuch other purpoſes: but ſince fuſees have been introduced in lieu of match-lock muſkets, the compoſition of match has been much leſs conſiderable than before.

MATERAN. The capital of the kingdom of the ſame name, ſituated on the ſouth coaſt of the iſland of Java, in 110 deg. of E. lon. and 45 deg. of S. lat. See *Sunda* Iſlands.

MATHEMATICS, among the ſciences, compoſe arithmetic, aſtronomy, geometry, and muſic: the firſt is eſſential to trade; and the ſecond to navigation.

MATRICE, with dyers, is applied to the five ſimple colours, from whence all the reſt may be compoſed, which are black, white, blue, red, and yellow. See *Dying*.

MATRICES, with the letter-founders, are the copper moulds, in which are ſtamped, or punched, the letters wanted to be caſt.

MATTHEW, *St.* A little iſland in the Atlantic ocean, ſituated in 9 deg. of W. lon. and 2 deg. 30 min. of S. lat. 700 miles S. of Cape Palmus, on the coaſt of Guinea in Africa, planted by the Portugueſe, but deſerted. See the iſland of St. *Thomas*.

MAUG-BUND. A kind of ſilk, of the growth of the Mogul's territories, and the worſt of the ſix kinds which are yearly gathered there.

MAUND. A weight uſed in the Mogul's territories, equivalent to 55 lb. avoirdupois of England.

MAURA, *St.* One of the Mediterranean iſlands, ſituated in 21 deg. of E. lon. and 38 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. between the continent of Epirus, and the iſland of Cephalonia, ſubject to Venice.

MAURES. A gold coin ſtruck at Surat, and in other ſtates of the Grand Mogul.

MAURIS, called otherwiſe *Percale*. A kind of white cotton cloth brought from the Eaſt Indies. See *Percale*.

MAURITANIA. The ancient name of the coaſt of Barbary.

MAURITIUS, or *Maurice Iſland*. See *Iſle* of France.

MAXY. See *Mundick*.

MAY. A little iſland at the mouth of the Frith of Forth, near the coaſt of Fife in Scotland.

MAY, or *Mayo*. One of the Cape Verde iſlands, ſituated in 23 deg. of W. lon. and 15 deg. of N. lat. See Cape *Verde* iſlands.

MAYOR, or *Maior*, the chief magiſtrate, or governor, in the cities, and moſt corporation towns of England, choſen annually by his peers out of the number of the aldermen.

The mayor of the place is the King's lieutenant, and, with the aldermen and common council, can make laws, called bye laws, for the government of the place: he has alſo the authority of a kind of judge, to determine matters, and to mitigate the rigour of the law.

King Richard I. in 1189 firſt changed the bailiffs of London into Mayors, by whoſe example others were afterwards appointed.

MAZAGAN. A port-town of Morocco in Africa, ſituated in 10 deg. of W. lon. and 33 deg. of N. lat.

MAZARA. A port-town of Sicily, ſituated on the S. W. coaſt, in 12 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 37 deg. 42 min. of N. lat.

MEACO. A large city of great trade in the iſland of Niphon in Japan, ſituated in 135 deg. of E. lon. and 35 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. See *Japan*.

MEAD. A wholſome agreeable liquor, prepared of honey and water. See *Methoglin*.

One of the beſt methods of preparing mead is as follows: into 12 gallons of water, ſlip the whites of 6 eggs, mixing theſe well together, and to the mixture adding 20 pounds of honey; let the liquor boil an hour, and when boiled add cinnamon, ginger, cloves, mace, and a little roſemary. As ſoon as it is cold, put a ſpoonful of yeaſt to it, and turn it up, keeping the veſſel filled as it works;

letters-patent civilly. The captors nevertheleſs may not be excuſed from anſwering the damages; but the grantees are excuſable, both as to that and puniſhment, unleſs they are privy to the caption. It is like unto the caſe of an officer arreſting a wrong perſon; he is liable to anſwer the damage to the party arreſted, but not the perſon that employed him.

A ſhip being lawfully taken, and brought into port, the captor muſt exhibit all his ſhip papers, and captive mariners, to be examined, in order to adjudication; till when, and the goods are legally condemned, bulk ought not to be broken; nor may the captain permit an embezzlement of the lading, or ſell, barter, or diſpoſe of any part, without commiſſion; for the King hath a proportion in all prizes: and the common profits of prizes are to be equally divided among all the ſhips preſent, and not be ſolely to the captor; ſo that if letters of repriſal are granted to two ſhips, and they happen both of them at ſea to meet a prize, and the one attacks, and enters her, by means whereof ſhe becomes conqueror; although the other did nothing in the engagement, he hath right to an equal diſtribution with the captor, becauſe the preſence of the other veſſel, armed and prepared for battle, becomes a terror, and will occaſion a ſhip the ſooner to yield.

If the caption of any ſhip or goods be by men of war, the property will immediately be in the captors; except it be loſt again, and the ſhip or goods are recovered by the perſons from whom they were taken, or be in battle regained. And by the law of nations, the dominion of the things taken by thoſe to whom letters of marque are granted, become the captors, till the debt and coſts, that is, the original damage and ſubſequent charges, are ſatisfied; which being done, the reſidue ought to be reſtored: and ſo the Venetians uſed their equity, having taken the ſhips of Genoa, they did not ſpoil any of the lading, but preſerved the ſame very carefully, until the debt was paid; and then they made reſtitution of the things entirely, without diminution.

In caſe the King of England ſhould be in enmity with the ſtates of Holland, and one of their ſhips of war takes an Engliſh merchant-man; and afterwards another ſhip of war of England meets the Dutch ſhip and his prize, and regains the ſame; there reſtitution is commonly made, the owners paying the ſalvage: ſo where the prize is recovered by a friend in amity, or comes into his ports, reſtitution is to be made. And the taking of ſhips and goods by force and arms is ſo odious, that if by any poſſibility the right owners may have reſtitution, the ſame hath been granted.

Where, for the fault perhaps of a few, a debt becomes national, the goods of the guiltleſs and innocent become liable, if taken, for ſatisfaction; but ſuch ought to have contribution by the law of England, as when one is put to the whole burden, and more are bound to do one thing: though when depredations have happened in England to foreign merchants, and complaint hath been made concerning them, commiſſions have been often iſſued to inquire of the ſame, and award ſatisfaction. And upon the petition of ſome merchants of Genoa, who complained againſt the inhabitants of the iſle of Guernſey for a depredation, in taking away and detaining their merchandiſe and goods to a very conſiderable value, out of a ſhip wrecked by tempeſt near the ſaid iſle; on this a commiſſion was granted, by which the commiſſioners were empowered to puniſh the offenders, and make a reſtitution and ſatisfaction for the damages ſuſtained. For as the Engliſh ſubjects may have their goods by way of repriſe, for the ſatisfaction of a debt from foreigners; ſo they may have the benefit of theſe commiſſions to make themſelves whole out of the ſtates of the offenders.

But he that will ſue to have reſtitution in England for goods taken at ſea, muſt prove that the ſovereign of the party was in amity with the King of England, &c. and letters of repriſals make no war or enmity between nations.

MARQUETRY. Inlaid work, or fineering; being a plane of oak, or well dried fir, covered with ſeveral pieces of fine hard wood of various colours, in the forms of birds, flowers, knots, and ſometimes intermixed with tortoiſe-ſhell, mother of pearl, ſilver, and other things; ſometimes compoſed of various colours; and ſometimes of precious ſtones, or curious marbles, when it is called *Moſaic work*.

MARROQUIN, or *Morocco*. The ſkin of a beaſt. See *Morocco*.

MARSALA. A port-town of Sicily, in the province of Mazara, ſituated in 12 deg. 6 min. of E. lon. and 37 deg. 50 min. of N. lat.

MARSALQUIVER. A port-town of Algiers, ſituated on a bay of the ſea, oppoſite to Oran.

MARSEILLES. A port-town of France, in the province of Provence, ſituated on a fine bay of the Mediterranean, in 5 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 15 min. of N. lat.

MART, *letters of mart*. See *Letters* of mart, and *Marque*.

MART, is alſo a free open market, for all perſons to buy and ſell commodities; but more eſpecially applied to ſuch cities as Frankfort, and other places in Germany, where the great fairs are kept.

MARTABAN. A port-town of the further India, ſituated on the eaſt-ſide of the bay of Bengal, in 97 deg. of E. lon.

MARTHA, *St.* A port-town of South America, ſituated on the North ſea, at the mouth of the river Gayra, in 74 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 11 deg. 45 min. of N. lat.

MARTIAL *courts at ſea*, or *Courts-martial*, is trying a perſon by the martial law, or the law of war or arms, depending upon the King's pleaſure, or that of his admirals, under certain reſtrictions, which are regulated by an act of parliament paſſed in the 22d year of King George II. entituled, "An act for further regulating the proceedings up" "on courts-martial in the ſea-ſervice; and for extending" "the diſcipline of the navy to the crews of his Majeſty's" "ſhips, wrecked, loſt, or taken; and for continuing to" "them their wages upon certain conditions." See *Court* martial.

MARTIGUES. A port-town of France, in the province of Provence, ſituated on a bay of the Mediterranean, in 5 deg. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 20 min. of N. lat.

MARTIN *Cape*, or *Cape Martin*. A promontory of Valencia in Spain, on the Mediterranean ſea, 40 miles S. E. of the city of Valencia.

MARTINETS, in a ſhip, are ſmall lines faſtened to the legs, on the leetch of the ſail, appearing like crows feet; the uſe of them being to bring that part of the leetch of the ſail, which is next the yard-arm, up cloſe to the yard when the ſail is fardelled.

MARTINICO, is the chief of all the French Caribbee iſlands, ſituated in 61 deg. W. lon. and between 14 and 15 N. lat. See *French* America.

MARYLAND. A province of North America, ſituated between 74 and 78 deg. of W. lon. and between 3[illegible] and 40 of N. lat. See *Britiſh* America.

MASBATE. One of the Philippine iſlands, almoſt in the center of the reſt, ſituated in 120 deg. of E. lon. and 13 deg. of N. lat. See *Philippine* iſlands.

MASCARENHA *iſland*. See *Bourbon*.

MASLIN. A mixture of wheat and rye.

MASON. A workman employed to do the ſtone-part of a church, palace, or other large building.

MASONS *company of London*, by the arms granted by William Hanckeſtow, Clarencieux king at arms, in the year 1474, appears to be of conſiderable antiquity: however it was only incorporated by letters-patent of the 29th of Charles II. dated the 17th of September 1677, by the name of The maſter, wardens, aſſiſtants, and commonalty of the company of maſons of the city of London; the ſociety conſiſting of a maſter, 2 wardens, 22 aſſiſtants, and 70 liverymen; who have a convenient hall in Maſon's alley, Baſinghall-ſtreet, where the buſineſs of the company is tranſacted; and their fine is 5 l. on admiſſion.

MASSA. A city of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, ſituated in 15 deg. of E. lon. and 40 deg. of N. lat. on the ſouth-ſide of the gulph of Naples, 20 miles ſouth of that capital.

MASSA, is alſo the capital of the dutchy of Maſſa Carrara.

in Italy, ſituated between the territories of Lucca and Genoa, in 10 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 55 min. of N. lat. 3 miles weſt of the Tuſcan ſea.

MAST *of a foreſt.* The fruit of a ſpecies called *glandiferous* or *maſt-bearing*; as beech, oak, and cheſnut, being fit for feeding of ſwine.

MAST, in navigation. A large pole, or long piece of round wood, raiſed in veſſels, for the yards and ſails to be faſtened to, in order to their receiving the wind neceſſary for navigation.

To large veſſels the number of maſts is four; their names being the main-maſt, the fore-maſt, the mizen-maſt, and the boltſprit; to which ſome add a fifth, called a counter-mizen.

The *main-maſt* is the chief maſt, ſtanding upright in the middle, or waſte of the veſſel; bearing the main-yard and main-ſail.

The *fore maſt* is between the main-maſt and the head.

The *mizen-maſt* is between the main-maſt and the ſtern.

The *boltſprit* lies upon the beak, in the prow, or head of the ſhip.

The *counter-mizen*, in large veſſels and galleons, is in the ſtern.

The word *maſt* is alſo uſed to ſignify thoſe diviſions, or additional pieces, in the maſts placed over one another. The main-maſt and fore-maſt have each of them two, as the main-maſt, main-top-maſt, main-gallant-maſt; the fore-maſt, fore-top-maſt, fore-top-gallant maſt; the mizen-maſt has only one, called the mizen-top-maſt.

For the proportion of maſts, Sir H. Manwaring gives theſe rules. Whatever the breadth of a ſhip be in feet, multiply 4-5ths of that breadth by 3, the product is the length of her main-maſt in feet. Thus, if a ſhip be 30 feet at the midſhip-beam, 4-5ths of 30 is 24; therefore the main-maſt of that ſhip muſt be 24 yards, or 72 feet, in length. Then for its bigneſs, he allows an inch to every yard in length; and therefore this maſt muſt be 24 inches thick. The fore-maſt of a ſhip muſt be 4-5ths of the length of the main-maſt, that is in this caſe $19\frac{1}{5}$ yards; and it muſt be near 24 inches thick. The boltſprit is always the ſame length and bigneſs with the fore-maſt; and the mizen-maſt muſt be juſt half the length of the main-maſt, and half as thick. See Naval *Stores*.

MASTERS *of ſhips.* Officers to whom is committed the direction of a merchant-veſſel; who command in chief, and are charged with the merchandiſe aboard: but in the Mediterranean the maſter is called *patron*, and in long voyages *captain*.

The proprietors of the veſſel appoint the maſter; but the maſter provides the equipage, and hires the pilot and ſailors. He is likewiſe obliged to keep a regiſter of the names and officers on board, the terms of their contract, the receipts and payments, and in general every thing relating to his commiſſion. See *Ship*.

MASTIC. A clear and ſweet reſinous gum, iſſuing from the trunk and large branches of the maſtic tree, or lentiſcus, either without or with inciſion. See *Lentiſcus*.

Maſtic is temperate in heat, and of a dry binding quality; by that it ſtrengthens the ſtomach, ſtays vomiting, ſtops fluxes of blood, and tickling coughs and catarrhs: it ſtrengthens the reins, is a good cleanſer, and therefore deſcribed in ſeminal weakneſſes.

Jewellers mix maſtic with turpentine and black ivory, and lay it under their diamonds, to give them a luſtre.

Maſtic is chiefly the product of Chios, an iſland in the Turkiſh Archipelago; where the trees that yield it are cultivated with as much care as the vines; and it brings in a yearly revenue of about 2000l. ſterling to the Grand Signior.

There is alſo a kind of black maſtic brought from Egypt, which ſerves to ſophiſticate camphor.

The gum maſtic is in ſmall granules, being white if good, though age makes it turn yellowiſh.

ARTIFICIAL, is alſo a name given to artificial camphor. See *Camphor*.

CONSTANTINOPLE. A Turkiſh city, and port, on the Black ſea. See *Turky*.

MASULIPATAN. A city and port-town of the Hither India, in the province of Golconda, ſituated on the weſt ſide of the bay of Bengal, in 81 deg. of E. lon. and 16 deg. 18 min. of N. lat.

MATAPAN *Cape*, or *Cape Matapan*, in the Morea, is the moſt ſouthern promontory of Europe, ſituated in 22 deg. of E. lon. and 36 deg. of N. lat.

MATCH. A kind of rope ſlightly twiſted, and prepared to retain fire, for the uſes of artillery, mines, fire-works, and ſuch other purpoſes: but ſince fuſees have been introduced in lieu of match-lock muſkets, the compoſition of match has been much leſs conſiderable than before.

MATERAN. The capital of the kingdom of the ſame name, ſituated on the ſouth coaſt of the iſland of Java, in 110 deg. of E. lon. and 45 deg. of S. lat. See *Sunda* Iſlands.

MATHEMATICS, among the ſciences, compoſe arithmetic, aſtronomy, geometry, and muſic: the firſt is eſſential to trade; and the ſecond to navigation.

MATRICE, with dyers, is applied to the five ſimple colours, from whence all the reſt may be compoſed, which are black, white, blue, red, and yellow. See *Dying*.

MATRICES, with the letter-founders, are the copper moulds, in which are ſtamped, or punched, the letters wanted to be caſt.

MATTHEW, *St.* A little iſland in the Atlantic ocean, ſituated in 9 deg. of W. lon. and 2 deg. 30 min. of S. lat. 700 miles S. of Cape Palmus, on the coaſt of Guinea in Africa, planted by the Portugueſe, but deſerted. See the iſland of St. *Thomas*.

MAUG-BUND. A kind of ſilk, of the growth of the Mogul's territories, and the worſt of the ſix kinds which are yearly gathered there.

MAUND. A weight uſed in the Mogul's territories, equivalent to 55 lb. avoirdupois of England.

MAURA, *St.* One of the Mediterranean iſlands, ſituated in 21 deg. of E. lon. and 38 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. between the continent of Epirus, and the iſland of Cephalonia, ſubject to Venice.

MAURES. A gold coin ſtruck at Surat, and in other ſtates of the Grand Mogul.

MAURIS, called otherwiſe *Percale*. A kind of white cotton cloth brought from the Eaſt Indies. See *Percale*.

MAURITANIA. The ancient name of the coaſt of Barbary.

MAURITIUS, or *Maurice Iſland*. See *Iſle* of France.

MAXY. See *Mundick*.

MAY. A little iſland at the mouth of the Frith of Forth, near the coaſt of Fife in Scotland.

MAY, or *Mayo*. One of the Cape Verde iſlands, ſituated in 23 deg. of W. lon. and 15 deg. of N. lat. See Cape *Verde* iſlands.

MAYOR, or *Maior*, the chief magiſtrate, or governor, in the cities, and moſt corporation towns of England, choſen annually by his peers out of the number of the aldermen.

The mayor of the place is the King's lieutenant, and, with the aldermen and common council, can make laws, called bye laws, for the government of the place: he has alſo the authority of a kind of judge, to determine matters, and to mitigate the rigour of the law.

King Richard I. in 1189 firſt changed the bailiffs of London into Mayors, by whoſe example others were afterwards appointed.

MAZAGAN. A port-town of Morocco in Africa, ſituated in 10 deg. of W. lon. and 33 deg. of N. lat.

MAZARA. A port-town of Sicily, ſituated on the S. W. coaſt, in 12 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 37 deg. 42 min. of N. lat.

MEACO. A large city of great trade in the iſland of Niphon in Japan, ſituated in 135 deg. of E. lon. and 35 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. See *Japan*.

MEAD. A wholſome agreeable liquor, prepared of honey and water. See *Metheglin*.

One of the beſt methods of preparing mead is as follows: into 12 gallons of water, ſlip the whites of 6 eggs, mixing theſe well together, and to the mixture adding 20 pounds of honey; let the liquor boil an hour, and when boiled add cinnamon, ginger, cloves, mace, and a little roſemary. As ſoon as it is cold, put a ſpoonful of yeaſt to it, and turn it up, keeping the veſſel filled as it works;

when it has done working ſtop it up cloſe, and when fine bottle it off for uſe.

MEASURE, in a legal, commercial, and popular ſenſe, denotes a certain quantity, or proportion, of any thing bought, ſold, valued, or the like.

Meaſures then are various, according to the various kinds and dimenſions of things meaſured; hence ariſe lineal or longitudinal meaſures for lines or lengths; ſquare meaſures for areas or ſuperficies; and ſolid or cubic meaſures for bodies and their capacities: all which are very different according to the difference of countries, ages, and commodities.

In treating of meaſures it is proper to ſhew, 1ſt, thoſe of Europe; 2d, thoſe of Aſia; and, 3d, thoſe of Africa.

1. *The* MEASURES *of Europe.* Edgar, who was King of England in the 959, made a law that the ſame weights and meaſures ſhould be obſerved throughout the realm; and Canute, who was King of England in the year 1017, made good laws for weights and meaſures: but by magna charta, in the 9th year of Henry III. it was ordained, That one meaſure of wine, ale, and corn, ſhould be throughout the land; being the quarter of London; and one breadth of dyed cloth, ruſſets, and haberjects, or 2 yards within the liſts; and it ſhould be of weights as of meaſures.

By the ſtatute of the 31ſt of Edw. I. an Engliſh penny, called a ſterling, ſhould weigh 32 wheat corns in the midſt of the ear, and 20 pence ſhould make an ounce, 12 ounces a pound, 8 pounds a gallon of wine, and 8 gallons a London buſhel, which is the 8th part of a quarter.

By the ſtatute of the 27th of Edw. III. one weight, one meaſure, and one yard, ſhould be thro' all the land; and wools, and all goods of weight, ſhould be weighed by the ballance, ſo that the ballance be even: which was confirmed by ſeveral other ſtatutes.

But as proper weights and meaſures were neglected, it was enacted, by the ſtatute of the 11th of Henry VII. That there ſhould be delivered to the knights and citizens of every ſhire and city, barons of the five ports, and certain burgeſſes, one of every weight and meaſure of braſs according to the ſtandard in the Exchequer, to be conveyed by them to ſuch places as mentioned in the act, being Appleby, Newcaſtle, Carliſle, Lincoln, Derby, Nottingham, Leiceſter, Coventry, Uppingham, Northampton, Bedford, Buckingham, Cambridge, Huntingdon, Norwich, St. Edmund's Bury, Chelmsford, Hertford, Weſtminſter, Maidſtone, Guilford, Lewes, Oxford, Reading, Shrewſbury, Stafford, Hereford, Glouceſter, Worceſter, Saliſbury, Wincheſter, Ilcheſter, Dorcheſter, Exeter, Leſtwithiel, London, Briſtol, Dover, Southampton, and Cheſter; to remain there, in the keeping of the mayor, bailiff, or other head officer, as the King's ſtandard. That the inhabitants of all cities, boroughs, and market-towns, ſhould cauſe to be made common meaſures and weights, according to the weights and meaſures above ſaid, the ſame to be examined and marked by the mayor, bailiff, or other head officer, in whoſe poſſeſſion the ſtandard ſhould remain. That no perſon within any city, borough, or market-town, ſhould buy or ſell with any weight or meaſure, except ſo marked; nor any other perſon out of ſuch places, except it be equal with the ſtandard; and every perſon ſhould buy and ſell with a buſhel ſealed. That all mayors, and other head officers of every city, ſhould cauſe twice in the year, or oftener, all weights and meaſures to be brought before them; and ſuch as they found defective ſhould be broke and burnt, and the parties offending ſhould forfeit 6 s. 8 d. for the firſt time, 13 s. 4 d. for the ſecond, and 20 s. for the third time, and be ſet upon the pillory. That two juſtices of the peace, whereof one of the quorum, ſhould have authority to hear and determine the defaults of the mayors and other head officers, and alſo of all buyers and ſellers acting contrary to this ſtatute, and to ſet fine and amercement upon the offenders. That there ſhould be but 8 buſhels ſtricken to the quarter of corn, 14 lb. to the ſtone of wool, and 26 ſtone to the ſack; provided that this act ſhould not extend to any perſon buying or ſelling by water-meaſure within ſhip-board, and the ſaid water-meaſure ſhould only contain five pecks after the ſaid ſtandard ſtricken.

And by the 12th of Henry VII. it was enacted, That the meaſure of the buſhel ſhould contain 8 gallons of wheat, every gallon 8 lb. troy, every pound 12 ounces, every ounce 20 ſterlings, and every ſterling 32 corns of wheat in the midſt of the ear; which is called the Winchester meaſure, and took this name from the ſtatute made at Wincheſter 16th Richard II. whereby the clerk of the market was directed to have all his weights and meaſures ready, according to the ſtandard of the Exchequer.

By the 22d of Charles II. it was enacted, That water-meaſure ſhould be repeated, as to the meaſuring of corn ground or unground, or ſalt, which ſhould be ſold only by Wincheſter meaſure, under forfeiture of 40 s. That at the charge of ſuch perſons who ſhall have the profit of any market, there ſhould be one meaſure of braſs provided and chained in the public market places, upon forfeiture of 5 l. and all conſtables were required to ſearch if any perſons uſed any other meaſure, or ſold or bought by a meaſure unſealed.

By the 22d and 23d of Ch. II. every perſon who ſhould ſell or buy any corn or ſalt by the bag, or without meaſuring being thereto required, ſhould forfeit, beſide the former penalties, all ſuch corn or ſalt, or the value thereof, to the perſon complaining.

By the ſtatute of the 13th and 14th of William III. every round buſhel with a plain bottom, 18 ½ inches wide throughout, and 8 inches deep, ſhould be a legal Winchester buſhel, according to the ſtandard in the Exchequer.

By the ſtatute of the 1ſt of Queen Anne, the water meaſure ſhould be round, and in diameter 18 ½ inches within the hoop, 8 inches deep, and ſo in proportion, being five pecks; every water-meaſure, by which apples and pears were ſold, ſhould be heaped as uſually; and whoever ſhould ſell or buy apples or pears by other meaſure ſhould forfeit 10 s. but not to extend to any meaſure ſealed by the fruiterers company of London in the city, or 3 miles diſtance of the ſame.

As to liquid meaſures, by the 1ſt of Richard III. no perſon ſhould bring into the realm any butt of malmſey to be ſold unleſs it contained 126 gallons; nor no veſſels with wines or oil unleſs every ton contained 252 gallons, every pipe 126 gallons, every tertian 84 gallons, every hogſhead 63 gallons, every barrel 31 ½ gallons, and every runlet 18 ½ gallons.

By the ſtatute of the 23d of Henry VIII. the barrel of beer ſhould contain 36 gallons, the kilderkin 18, and the firkin 9 gallons of the King's ſtandard: the barrel of ale ſhould contain 32 gallons, the kilderkin 16, and the firkin 8 gallons. But, when the exciſe was laid on beer and ale in the 12th year of Charles II. 36 gallons were only reckoned as a barrel of beer, and only 32 ſuch gallons a barrel of ale: though, by the 1ſt of Will. and Mary, ſuch gallons of vinegar, and of beer or ale ſtrong or ſmaller, without the bills of mortality, were declared to be a barrel: all other exciſable liquors being to pay according to the wine gallon, which contained only 231 cubic inches, whereas the ale gallon held 282; the former holding 8 lb. 1 oz. 4 dr. avoirdupois of rain water; the latter, 10 lb. 3 oz. or a little more: ſo that the wine meaſures are ſmaller than thoſe of ale and beer; 4 gallons of ale and beer being near equal to 5 gallons of wine. Two pints of both 2 pints make a quart, 2 quarts a pottle, 2 pottles a gallon; but the gallon for dry meaſure contains 272 ¼ inches, and holds 9 lb. 13 oz. 12 ½ dr. avoird.

By the ſtatute of the 16th and 17th of Charles II. all coals brought into the river Thames are to be meaſured by the chaldron of 36 buſhels heaped, according to a buſhel ſealed for that purpoſe in Guildhall, London. And coals ſold by weight are to be ſold by the hundred of 112 lb. under forfeiture of the coals, and double value.

All meaſures are either receptive, or applicative.

Receptive Meaſures, or meaſures of capacity, are diſtinguiſhed by liquid and dry meaſures; the liquid

for wine, rum, brandy, ſpirits, vinegar, cyder, beer, ale, and ſuch other goods: the dry for corn, ſalt, coals, and ſuch kind of commodities.

Applicative Meaſures, are either the yard, or ell, aun, canes, varas, cavadoes, braces, aſhins, picos, covids, and others, for linen and woollen cloths, ſilks, laces, ribbons, and ſuch ſort of goods: or the inch, foot, &c. for wood; and other longer meaſures of that nature, for land, &c.

Engliſh Meaſures. The meaſures generally in uſe at this time throughout England are of three ſorts; 1ſt, the yard, containing 16 nails, or 36 inches; by which all ſorts of woollen cloths, wrought ſilks, moſt linens, tapes, garterings, and ſuch other things are meaſured. 2d, the ell, containing 20 nails, or 45 inches; which is uſed only in meaſuring ſome few particular linens, as hollands, dowlas, &c.

3. The Flemiſh ell, for meaſuring tapeſtry, containing 12 nails, or 27 inches.

There has been alſo another meaſue, called a goad, only uſed in meaſuring Welch frizes and frizadoes, containing 55 inches; but this laſt meaſure is now entirely out of uſe.

Meaſures for fuel, which according to ſtatute are coals and wood.

Of coals 36 buſhels go to a chaldron; but on ſhipboard 21 chaldrons are reckoned to a ſcore; 112 lb. avoirdupois is an hundred weight; and 8 chaldrons at Newcaſtle make at London about 15 chaldrons.

Wood fuel is aſſized into ſhids, billets, faggots, falwood, and cord wood. A ſhid is to be 4 feet long, and according as they are marked and notched, their proportion muſt be in the girth; that is, if they have but one notch, they muſt be 16 inches in girth, if 2 notches 23 lnches, if 3 notches 28 inches, if 4 notches 33 inches, and if they have 5 notches they muſt be 38 inches about.

Billets are to be 3 feet long, whereof there ſhould be 3 ſorts; a ſingle, a caſk, and a caſk of two. The firſt is 7 inches, the ſecond 10 inches, and the third 14 inches about; being all ſold by the hundred, five ſcore to the hundred.

Faggots are to be 3 feet long, and at the band 24 inches about, beſides the knot: of which faggots 50 go to a load.

Falwood, bavins, and ſpray wood, are ſold by the hundred, and 100 are accounted a load.

Cord wood is the bigger ſort of fire wood, meaſured by a cord, or line, of which there are two meaſures; that called the 14 feet cord, is to be 14 feet in length, 3 feet in breadth, and 3 feet in the height; but the other is 8 feet long, 4 feet high, and in breadth 4 feet.

Meaſures for Corn. The gallon is found by the ſtatutes of England to hold 8 pints, and to weigh 8 lb. troy weight:

2 Gallons, a peck, or 16 lb. or pints, or 2 gallons.
4 Pecks, a buſhel, or 64 lb. or pints, or 8 gallons.
2 Buſhels, a ſtrike, or 128 lb. or pints, or 16 gallons.
2 Strikes, a comb, or 256 lb. or pints, or 32 gallons.
2 Combs, a quarter, or 512 lb. or pints, or 64 gallons.
6 Quarters, a wey, or 3072 lb. or pints, or 384 gallons.
10 Quarters, a laſt, or 5120 lb. or pints, or 640 gallons.

However, a ton of wheat in London commonly weighs, avoirdupois weight, between 2200 and 2500 lb. Of rye, between 2100 and 2240 lb. Of barley, between 1709 and 1800 lb.

Corn is uſually ſold in England by the quarter, 5 quarters being commonly reckoned to a ton in freight: and, according to the above troy weight, a ton of corn weighs 2400 lb. avoirdupois weight.

Meaſures for ſalt. Of this commodity, great quantities of late years have been made in England, and tranſported to ſeveral places beyond the ſeas; being uſed to be bought and ſold by meaſure, as corn is at preſent: but at this time it is ſold from the pits only by weight, reckoning 7 lb. avoirdupois to a gallon, 56 lb. to the buſhel, and 42 buſhels to the ton for freight; 5 buſhels being one ſack, and 4 C. weight is one quarter.

Meaſures for timber, horſes, and land; called long meaſure. For timber, horſes, &c. 3 barley-corns is one inch, or a finger's breadth, 4 inches is one hand in horſe meaſure, 12 inches is one foot, 5 feet a geometrical pace, 6 feet a fathom, and 16 ½ feet a pole or perch, 40 poles a furlong, and 8 furlongs is one mile ſtatute meaſure: but the pole and perch differ from the above meaſure in ſeveral parts of the kingdom.

For land meaſure, 9 ſquare feet is one ſquare yard, 272 ſquare feet is one ſquare pole or perch, 40 ſquare poles is one ſquare rood, 4 ſquare roods is one ſquare acre, and 640 ſquare acres is one ſquare mile, according to the ſtatute meaſure of this kingdom.

The difference of miles uſed by the Europeans.

The French, Spaniſh, and Portugueſe mile is two Engliſh miles, called by them a league.

The German mile is more than three Engliſh miles, or five Italian miles.

The Dutch miles are between the French and German mile.

The Poliſh and Daniſh miles are like the German mile, more than three Engliſh miles.

The Gothick and Swediſh mile is no leſs than five or ſix, and ſometimes eight Italian miles; the Italian mile and half, being one Engliſh mile.

The Switzers, by reaſon of their mountains, reckon their tedious journies more by the ſpace of hours, than by diſtance of miles.

The Ruſſians reckon by the verſt; being about three quarters of a mile.

The Turks have no diſtinction of ways by miles, nor days by hours.

The Perſians make uſe of their pariſanga or farſach, each contains 30 ſtadia or furlongs, or about four miles.

The Chineſe uſe the meaſure of Ychan, being the journey of one day; as alſo of the courſe or coſe, a meaſure among the Eaſt Indians, containing a mile and a half, and ſometimes two miles.

Meaſures for ale and beer; of ale two pints make one quart, 4 quarts one gallon, 2 firkins a kilderkin, 2 kilderkins a barrel, and 12 barrels a laſt.

Of beer, 9 gallons is a firkin, 2 firkins a kildkerkin, 2 kilderkins a barrel, 1 ½ barrel is a hogſhead, 2 hogſheads one pipe or butt, and 2 pipes or butts a tun.

Meaſures for wine, brandy, cyder, &c. Two pints make one quart, 2 quarts one pottle, 2 pottles one gallon, 18 gallons one ſtatute runlet, 42 gallons one tierce, 1 ½ tierce, or 63 gallons, one hogſhead, 84 gallons one puncheon, 126 gallons, or 2 hogſheads, one pipe or butt, and 4 hogſheads, or 2 pipes, or 252 gallons, is one ton of wine, brandy, cyder, vinegar, &c. according to ſtatute meaſure. And it is ſaid that any veſſel that holds 50 lb. weight of rain water, will hold 53 lb. of river water; or, 45 lb. of butter or oil, 39 lb. of linſeed oil, 35 lb. of honey, and 850 lb. of quickſilver.

In Scotland and Ireland the meaſures are the ſame as in England; only the Iriſh land meaſure has more acres to the mile.

All goods and merchandiſe pay duties in England, either by tale, weight, meaſure, or gauge: but goods delivered by meaſure are under three different regulations at the cuſtom-houſe.

1. Such as linens particularly, which are meaſured by running meaſure; being no more than taking the length of the piece from one end to the other.

2. Such as pictures, grave and paving ſtones, and marble tables particularly, which are meaſured by ſquare or ſuperficial meaſure.

3. Such as marble blocks and timber particularly, which are meaſured by ſolid or cubical meaſure.

But wines, and all exciſeable liquors, are meaſured by gauge. However, the cuſtom of London in many commodities diſagrees with the ſtatute meaſures; as in oil it is obſerved, that 236 gallons, by merchants called the civil gauge, is ordinarily ſold for a tun, and not 252 gallons, as above mentioned. Of eels, 25 is a ſtrike, and 10 ſtrikes is a band. Of herrings, there is ſix ſcore to the hundred, 1200 is a barrel, and 12 barrels a laſt. Of furs, flitches, greys, gennets, martens, mincks, and ſable ſkins, 40 ſkins make a timber, and ſome other ſkins five ſcore to the hundred. Of paper, 24 ſheets is a quire, 20 quires a ream, and 10 reams a bale. Of parchment, 12 ſkins is a dozen, and 5 dozen a roll.

A TABLE of the conformity of LONG MEASURES of the most considerable places in Europe.

	Ells of Holland.	Ells of Brabant.	Ells of England, France, &c.	Ells of Hamburg, Francfort, &c.	Ells of Breslaw.	Ells of Dantzic.	Ells of Bergen.	Ells of Sweden.	Linen ells of St. Gall.	Woollen ells of St. Gall.	Ells of Geneva.	Canes of Marseilles.	Canes of Tholouse.	Canes of Genoa.	Canes of Rome.	Yards of England.	Yards and bara's of Spain.	Bara's of Portugal.	Cavidoes of Portugal.	Braces of Venice.	Braces of Bergamo & Bologne.	Braces of Florence & Leghorn.	Braces of Milan.
100 Ells of Holland	100	98¾	58½	120	125	112½	110	117	86	112	60	35	37½	30½	33	75	80	61	100	102	105¼	116½	128½
100 Ells of Brabant	101¼	100	60	121½	126⅝	114	111⅘	118½	87	113¾	60¾	35⅘	38	30⅘	33⅘	76	81	61¾	101¼	103½	106	118	130
100 Ells of England, France, &c.	171	166¾	100	205¼	213¾	192⅘	188	200	147	191½	102⅗	59⅘	64⅕	52⅕	56⅕	128¼	136¼	104¼	171	174⅘	179	199⅕	219
100 Ells of Hamburg, Francfort, &c.	83⅓	82⅓	48⅘	100	104⅕	92⅗	91¼	97½	71½	91½		29⅕	31⅘	25⅘	27½	62½	65⅘	50⅘	83⅓	85	88¼	97	107
100 Ells of Breslaw	80	79	46⅗	96	100	89⅘	88	93⅗	68¼	89⅓	48	28	30	24⅘	26⅘	60	64	48⅘	80	81⅗	84¼	93½	102¼
100 Ells of Dantzic	89	87¾	52	96⅘	111¼	100	98	104⅗	76⅗	99¼	53⅖	31⅕	33¼	27⅕	29⅘	66¾	71⅕	54⅕	89	90¾	93¾	103¾	114½
100 Ells of Bergen	90	89	52¾	108	112½	101¼	100	105⅗	77⅓	100¾	54	31½	33¾	27⅘	29⅗	67½	72	55	90	91¾	94¾	105	115¾
100 Ells of Sweden	86	84	50⅗	103⅕	107½	96¾	94⅗	100	74	96⅓	51⅓	30⅗	32½	26¼	28⅘	64¼	68⅘	52½	86	87¾	90½	100⅕	110¾
100 Ells of St. Gall for linen	116	114½	67¾	139⅕	145	130½	127⅕	135¾	100	130	69⅗	40⅕	43½	35⅘	38⅕	87	92⅘	70¾	116	118⅗	122	135⅕	149
100 Ells of St. Gall for woollen	89⅔	88⅘	52¼	107⅗	111⅘	100¼	98¼	104½	76⅘	100	53⅗	31¼	33½	27⅗	29⅔	67	71⅗	54⅔	89½	91⅕	94	104	114⅔
100 Ells of Geneva	166⅔	164⅗	97½	200	208⅓	187½	183¼	195	143⅓	130⅔	100	58⅓	62½	50⅘	55	124¾	133⅓	101⅔	166⅔	170	172⅘	193⅓	214⅕
100 Canes of Marseilles and Montpelier	286	282⅘	167⅓	343⅕	357½	321⅘	314⅗	334⅞	246	320½	171⅕	100	107¼	87⅘	94⅗	214½	228⅗	174⅗	286	291¾	301	333⅕	367½
100 Canes of Tholouse	266⅔	263⅓	156	320	333⅓	300	193½	312	229	298⅔	160	93⅓	100	81⅗	88	199⅔	213⅓	162⅔	266⅔	272	280⅘	309⅓	342⅔
100 Canes of Genoa of 9 palms	327	323	191⅓	392⅘	408¾	367⅘	359¼	382⅔	281¼	366¼	196⅕	114½	122⅔	100	108	245¼	261⅓	199½	327	333½	344⅕	381	420⅘
100 Canes of Rome	303	299⅕	177¼	363⅔	378¾	340⅘	333⅓	454½	260⅔	339⅔	181⅘	116	113⅔	92⅘	100	227¼	242⅔	184⅔	303	309	319	353	389⅘
100 Yards of England	133¼	131⅔	78	160	166⅔	150	146⅗	156	114⅓	149⅓	80	46⅔	50	40⅖	44	100	108	81⅓	133¼	136	104¼	154¼	171⅔
100 Yards or Bara's of Spain	125	113⅗	73⅕	150	156¼	140⅔	137½	146¾	107½	140	75	43¾	46⅘	38⅕	41¼	92	100	76¼	125	127½	131¼	145¾	159⅔
100 Bara's of Portugal	164	162	96	196⅘	205	184¼	180⅘	191⅘	141	183⅖	94⅘	57⅘	61½	50	54⅗	123	131⅕	100	164	167¼	172½	191	210¾
100 Cavidoes of Portugal	100	98⅔	58⅕	120	125	112½	110	117	86	112	60	35	37½	30½	33	75	80	61	100	102	105⅜	116¼	128¼
100 Braces of Venice	98	96¾	57⅔	117⅖	122½	104¼	107¾	115	84¼	109¾	58¼	34½	36⅜	29¼	32½	73¼	78⅘	59¾	98	100	103⅕	114⅔	126
100 Braces of Bergamo	95	93⅘	55⅗	114	118¾	106⅔	104½	111⅗	81¾	106⅘	57	33¼	35⅖	29	31¼	72¼	76	58	95	97	100⅕	100⅔	122
100 Braces of Florence, Leghorn, &c.	85¼	84⅖	50	102½	106⅔	96⅖	94	100	73½	95⅖	51⅓	30	32	26⅔	28⅔	65½	68⅘	52½	85½	87⅕	95	100	109¼
100 Braces of Milan	78	77	45⅘	93⅗	97½	87¾	85⅔	91¼	67	87⅖	46⅘	27⅗	29¼	23⅘	25¼	58½	62⅘	47½	78	79½	82⅔	91	100

The ell of England is equal to that of France and Osnaburg; the ell of Nuremberg to that of Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and other cities of Holland; and the ell of Bern and Basil, to that of Hamburg, Francfort, and Leipsic.

By observation at the Custom-house in London, 100 auns of Flanders and Holland make 58⅘ ells English in London; 100 auns of Germany, and the East Countries, 49 ells in London; 100 ashins from Russia, 57 ells in London; and 100 Turky pico's, 43½ ells in London.

Proportions of the long measures of several nations to the English foot.

The Engliſh ſtandard foot being divided into 1000 equal parts, the other meaſures will have the proportion to it, which follow.

The Engliſh foot from the ſtandard in Guildhall	1000
The Paris royal foot, in the Chatelet -	1068
The Rhinland foot, of Snellius - -	1033
The Venetian foot - - - -	1162
The ell of Antwerp - - - -	2283
The ell of Amſterdam - - -	2268
The ell of Leyden - - - -	2260
The canna of Naples - -	6880
The vara of Almeria and Gibraltar in Spain	2760
The braccio of Florence - - -	1923
The palm of Genoa - - -	815
The common braccio or brace of Sienna -	1242
The braccio of Sienna for linnen - -	1974
The palm of the architects at Rome, whereof ten make the canna of ſaid architects - -	732
The palm of the braccio of the merchants and weavers at Rome, from a marble in the Capitol with this inſcription, *Curante Lu Poeto* -	695½
The large pico of the Turks at Conſtantinople	2200
The ſmall pico of the Turks at Conſtantinople is to the larger as 31 to 32.	
The ariſh of Perſia - - - -	3197
The derah or cubit of the Egyptians - -	1824

Proportions of ſeveral long meaſures to each other.

The Rhinland or Leyden foot, 12 whereof make the Rhinland perch, ſuppoſed - -	696
The Engliſh foot - - -	675½
The Paris foot - - - - -	720
The Amſterdam foot from that of Leyden by Snellius - - -	629
The Daniſh foot, 2 whereof make the Daniſh ell	701 8/10
The Swediſh foot - - -	658¼
The Bruſſels foot - - -	609 3/5
The Dantzic foot - - .	639
The Lyons foot - - -	757⅔
The Bologna foot - - -	843
The braccio of Florence - -	1290
The palm of the architects at Rome -	494¼

MEASURES *of Holland, and the other United Provinces.*

The Dutch meaſure for linen and woollen goods is the ell, or aun, which is ſomething more than 27 ½ inches in length; ſo that 1 Engliſh ell is about 1 ⅝ of the Dutch ell; or 100 auns of Amſterdam is equal to 58½ ells of London.

The Dutch meaſures for wine, are the vertel or virge, 2 ½ of which make a ſteckan, 2 ſteckans is 1 anchor, 4 anchors 1 awm, and 14 awms of Amſterdam is 1 ſeoder; the awm being equal to the Engliſh tierce, and containing 42 gallons.

The Dutch meaſure for brandy is the butt, containing from 27 to 32 vertels; the vertel being ſomewhat more than 2 Engliſh gallons.

The Dutch meaſure for ſalt, is the great hundred of 404 ſcheppels, being 7 laſts, or 14 ton, or 28,000 lb. weight; which is alſo counted 208 ſacks, and is ſold by the pound Flemiſh.

The Dutch meaſures for corn, are the ſcheppel, 3 of which is one ſack; 4 ſcheppels 1 muid; 36 ſacks, or 27 muids 1 laſt, weighing 4000 lb. weight, and making about 10 ¼ quarters of London. But the Dutch land laſt is not the ſame in all places: the laſt of Amſterdam commonly weighs of wheat between 4200 and 4800 lb. of rye, between 4000 and 4200 lb. and of barley between 3200 and 3400 lb. and in Rotterdam, Delft, Haerlem, Hoorn, Enchuyſen, Muiden, Merden, Leyden, Alckmaer, and Schedam, the laſt is 2 *per cent.* more than that of Amſterdam.

The Dutch meaſure for oils is the butt or pipe, containing from 20 to 25 ſteckans, or from about 100 to 125 Engliſh gallons: but coarſe fiſh oil is kept in barrels, containing from 15 to 20 ſteckans; or from about 75 to 100 Engliſh gallons; and the meaſure for honey is the ton, conſiſting of 6 awms, or 252 Engliſh gallons.

3. *The Meaſures of Flanders and Brabant, or the Netherlands.* The Antwerp meaſure for linen and woollen goods is the aun, or ell, 100 of which make 75 yards of London. The corn meaſure is the vertel, 37 ½ of which make 10 ¼ quarters of London. The wine meaſures are the ſtoop, awm, and butt; the ſtoop is 6 lb. weight, 50 ſtoops an awm, and 152 ſtoops a pipe or butt; 6 awms being the ton of 252 gallons Wincheſter meaſure: and the beer meaſure is the barrel of 52 ſtoops; the ſtoop containing 7 pints, and the awm about 42 gallons wine meaſure of London.

Or theſe meaſures may be ſtated as follows:

100 yards of London has made, in Holland,	Awms.
in general - - - -	133
In Antwerp - - -	134
In Bruges - - - -	126
In Dunkirk and Middleburgh - -	135
In Ypres - - - -	130
In Liege - - - -	151
In Maeſtricht and Guelderland -	139
In Liſle, Cambray, and Doway -	125
In Ruremond - - -	132
In Artois in general - -	131
In Tournay - - -	144

About 10 ¼ quarters corn meaſure of London make in Bruſſels 10 ½ muids, and different in moſt places of Brabant. In Ghent 4 muids, 7 halſters, reckoning 7 halſters to a muid. In Bruges 7 ½ hoedts. In Dunkirk 18 raiſers. In Middleburgh 40 ſacks.

4. *The Meaſures of Germany.* The meaſures at Vienna are of two ſorts; for linen and woollen, 103 auns for the former making 100 yards in London, and 113 for the latter making 100 yards in London; and 100 ells of Breſlaw make about 68 yards in London.

110 Ells of Frankfort, Hamburgh, and Leipſic, make between 63 and 64 yards in London; 100 ells of Noremburg make 75 yards in London.

5. *The Meaſures of Poland and Dantzick*, are both for linen and woollen: the former is ſold by the ſhock, containing about 57 ½ Engliſh ells: the latter by the aun, which is about half an ell, or 100 of ſuch ells make 63 ¾ yards of London: but the corn of Dantzic is ſold by the ſheffel, of which 60 are a laſt, or about 82 buſhels of London.

6. *The Meaſures for woollen cloth at Riga and Koningſburgh*, are the ſame as in Poland; but the Riga laſt of corn makes about 72 buſhels Wincheſter meaſure; and in Koningſburgh linen cloth and wood are both ſold by the ſhock, containing 60 auns of linen, and 60 pieces of wood to the ſhock; though in narrow linens there are 120 auns to the ſhock.

7. *The Meaſures of Pruſſia*, are the aun for linen, 100 of which make about 52 ells Engliſh: for beer, the fat, containg 180 ſtoops, or about 68 gallons Engliſh; and the corn meaſure is the ſame as at Dantzic.

8. *The Meaſures of Denmark and Norway*, for cloth is the aun, about half an Engliſh ell, or 100 of theſe ells make 67 1/12 yards in London: the meaſure for corn is a ton, being about 4 buſhels in London; and their meaſure for liquor is the kan, and the pot; 4 pots being a kan, which holds about an Engliſh gallon Wincheſter meaſure.

9. *The Meaſures of Sweden*, for woollen cloth is the Brabant aun, or ſomething leſs than ¾ of an Engliſh yard; 100 Swediſh ells being about 65 yards in London.

10. *The Meaſures of Ruſſia*, are for linen and woollen, the arſheen; which is divided into 60 veſhcoves, or 28 inches London meaſure; ſo that 7 Engliſh yards make 9 arſheens, or 100 arſheens make 56 ells Engliſh: the meaſures for corn are the chetwert, and chetweric; 8 chetwerics being 1 chetwert, or 5 3/20 buſhels Wincheſter meaſure.

11. *The Meaſures of Turky*; at Conſtantinople the meaſure is called the pico, which is of three ſorts; the firſt for linen, 6 of which make about 9 yards Engliſh; the ſecond for woollen goods, of which 16 are about 12 yards Engliſh; the third for camblets and grograms, 12 of which make about 8 yards Engliſh. Corn is ſold by the killow, which weighs about 20 oaks; and 8 ⅔ killows are about 1 quarter London meaſure: wine and oil are ſold by the meter, of 7 oaks, or ⅔ of a Wincheſter gallon.

At Aleppo, the measure for linen, woollen, and silks, is the pico of one sort, being about $\frac{3}{4}$ of a yard English.
In Candia, the pico is of two kinds; the one for silk, 100 of which are about 61 $\frac{1}{2}$ yards in London; and the other for cloth, 100 of which make about 65 $\frac{1}{2}$ yards in London.
In the Morea, the measure for oil is the levor, weighing about 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. 10 levors make the barrel, which contains 15 English gallons, and weighs 112 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. English avoirdupois.

12. *The Measures of Italy.* In Venice, the measure for linen and silk is the brace, of two sorts; 5 braces of silk make something less than 3 English ells; and the brace for linen is about half an English ell. The wine measure is the amphora, which contains 4 bigorzas; each bigorza is 4 quarts, each quart 4 sachies, and each sachie 4 leras: but by wholesale the amphora is about 14 English quarts, and the bigorza 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ quarts. Oil is sold by weight and measure; the mizaro being 40 meros, and the mero about 3 $\frac{1}{4}$ English pints. And corn is sold by the staras, 19 of which are equal to 10 $\frac{1}{4}$ quarters of London.
In Rome, the measure for woollen goods is the cane of 8 palms; 100 of which make about 227 English yards: that for linen being the brace, which is 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ palms of the cane: but corn is sold by the rugio of 412 lb.
In Ancona, the measure for linen and woollen is the brace, being about 27 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches in London.
In Ferrara, the brace is about an English ell.
In Naples, the measure for linen and silk is the cane of 8 palms; or about 2 $\frac{1}{4}$ yards in London. Oil and liquors are sold by the salmo of 16 tomolos; 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ salmos being a ton of 236 gallons of oil in London.
In Tuscany, the measure for silk and cloth is the brace, 4 of which are a cane; and 100 braces make 51 $\frac{1}{2}$ ells English, or 64 $\frac{1}{2}$ yards in London: but wrought silks and corn are sold in Florence only by weight. Wine is sold by the cognio of 10 barrels; 1 barrel is 20 flasks, and 1 flask is 2 mittidels. Oil is sold by the oxio of 32 mittidels: but at Leghorn corn is sold by measure, which is the stax; 3 stax make 1 sack, and 8 sacks a mogio, 5 sacks making somewhat less than 10 English bushels; or 100 sacks make about 40 bushels Winchester measure.
In Savoy and Piedmont, the measure for woollen cloth and silk is the ras, about 23 inches in length.
In Genoa, and Novi, the measure is the cane of different sorts: for woollen, the cane is 8 palms, for linen 10, and for silks the brace is 2 $\frac{1}{3}$ palms: 109 Genoese canes being about 245 $\frac{1}{4}$ yards in London. Wine is sold by the miserold, containing 2 barrels; 5 miserolds making a botta divina, or about 100 pints English. Corn is sold by the mina, 20 of which make a ton of 40 bushels Winchester measure. And oil is sold by the barrel, 14 of which make a ton of 236 gallons of London civil gauge.
In Milan, the measure for cloth and silk is the brace; of which 160 for linen, and 188 for silk, make about 100 yards in London.
In Mantua and Modena, the measure for linen and woollen is the brace, of about $\frac{1}{2}$ ell English.
At Bologna, the measure for linen and silk is the brace of about 25 inches in London; or 100 braces make about 53 ells in London.
In Sicily, the measure for woollen, linen, and silk, is the cane of about 8 palms, or 24 inches long. Corn is sold by the salmo, of which there are two sorts; the great one and the small one: but the latter is the common measure, being about 7 $\frac{1}{9}$ bushels Winchester measure, and about 17 *per cent.* less than the former. And oil is sold by the cantar, which holds about 2 $\frac{3}{4}$ barrels of Florence.

13. *The Measures of Switzerland*, are generally as at St. Gall, where the linen measure is the ell; 100 of which are about 67 $\frac{3}{4}$ yards in London: but 100 ells of woollen measure make about 100 yards in London.
At Geneva, 100 ells are equal to 97 $\frac{1}{2}$ yards English.

14. *The Measures of Portugal*, for long measure, are of two kinds: the vara, or bara, which is about an English ell; or 81 $\frac{1}{3}$ are about 100 yards in London. The measures for wine, oil, and all other liquors, are the almond, or almuda, which contains 2 alquiers, or 12 canadas, or 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ gallons Winchester measure. And the measures for corn and salt are the alquier, 60 of which make a muid, or moy, being about 3 English quarters, or 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ alquiers make an English bushel.

15. *The Measure of Spain*, for cloth, is the bara, or vara; 100 of which are about 107 English yards. The measure for wine and other liquors is the Zambre, containing 4 quartiles, or little more than 2 English quarts. And the measure for salt is the fannaque, containing 16 salamines; but 12 salamines is 1 fannaque for corn, and 15 fannaques is about 8 bushels English.
But the measures are different in several parts of Spain: the above are in use at Madrid: but at Malaga, 100 baras make 100 yards of London; and oil measure is the rove of 25 lb.
At Alicant, the measure for cloth and silk is the cane of 73 of which are about 75 yards of London; only 5 of the fannaques of corn make about 8 bushels or 1 quarter English: and the cantar for wine contains about 2 gallons Wincheſter measure.
At Bilboa and St. Sebastian's, the measure for cloth is the barra, 81 of which make 75 yards in London; and the measure for silk is the aun, 108 of which are equal to 75 yards in London.
At Seville, St. Lucar, Cadiz, and Gibraltar, there are two baras; one for woollen goods, which is the same as that at Bilboa; and one for silks, 83 $\frac{1}{3}$ of which make 75 yards in London: besides, there is the aun for linen, 108 of which are equal to 75 yards in London. Oil is sold here by the rove, 40 or 41 of which make a pipe; 2 pipes make 25 or 26 Florence barrels, or 252 gallons English: but a Seville gauge is accounted only 236 gallons in London.
At Barcelona, the measure is the cane of 8 palms, 43 of which make about 75 yards in London: but corn is sold by the quarter, which is the same as the quarter at London; 4 of these Barcelona quarters making a salmo, and 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ quarters a cargo or load of 360 lb. weight.

16. *The Measures of France*, are different in many places: at Paris the measures for corn are the litron, 4 of which make a peck, 4 pecks a bushel, 3 bushels a minot, 3 minots a mine, 2 mines a septier, and 12 septiers a muid; 19 septiers of corn being equal to about 10 $\frac{1}{4}$ quarters of London: but 24 bushels go to the septier of oats, and 12 septiers to the muid. At Abbeville, the septier is the same as that at Paris; but at Boulogne, 8 septiers make 7 of Paris; each septier weighing 270 lb.; and in other places the septier is different.
The salt measures of Paris are the litron, 16 of which make a quarter, 4 quarters a minot, 4 minots a septier, and 10 septiers a muid; the muid being 4 $\frac{1}{9}$ quarters of London measure: but though salt is sold by the muid all over France, this measure is different in many places.
The charcoal measures of Paris used by the merchants are the litron, 2 of which make a peck, 4 pecks a bushel, 8 bushels a minot, 2 minots a mine, and 16 mines a muid; but by the city measure 20 mines go to a muid. Of the coal measure, 4 litrons make a peck, 4 pecks a bushel, 6 bushels a minot, and 15 minots a voye. Of lime measure, 3 bushels is a minot, and 48 minots a muid; or 3 bushels make a sack, and 36 sacks a muid.
The wine measures of Paris, are the posson, 4 of which make a demi-septier, or pot; 4 pots 1 chopin, 2 chopins a pint, 2 pints a quart, 4 quarts a septier, and 36 septiers a muid of clear wine: or one muid contains 3 half muids, or 3 fuillets, or 300 pints, with the lees: but the muid is also divided into pipes or puncheons, quives, and half quives.
The silk, linen, and woollen measure of Paris, is the aune or ell, which is the same as the English ell, or about 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ yards in London: and this ell is used in Rochel, Bordeaux, and Nantes.
The Paris tois for building contains 6 feet, the foot 12 inches, the inch 12 lines, and the line 12 points.
At Thoulouse, and Montpelier, the measure for silk and cloth is the cane of 8 palms; 100 of which make 199 $\frac{3}{4}$ yards in London: and the septier of corn is 21 quarters in London.
At Bourdeaux, an hogshead of wine contains 110

with the lee, or 100 pots clear meaſure: and 38 buſhels of corn make about 10 ¼ quarters in London.

At Rochel and Cognia, 42 corn buſhels make 10 ⅓ quarters in London.

At Lions, the ell is 1 *per cent.* ſhorter than at Paris; and the corn meaſure is the aſſnee, containing 6 buſhels; 14 ⅝ aſſnees being about 10 quarters of London meaſure.

At Roan the corn meaſure is the muid, containing 12 ſeptiers, or 7 ⅜ quarters of London.

At Toulon, the common meaſure is the ſcandal, containing 4 ½ gallons Wincheſter meaſure. Oil is ſold by the millroe, containing 18 gallons, 2 millroes make a charge, 4 charges a butt, and 2 butts a ton, or 252 gallons. The wine meaſure is the ſame millroe: and the meaſure for linen and woollen is the cane of 8 palms; 100 of theſe canes making 214 ½ yards in London. The corn meaſures are the muid, minot, and load; the muid containing 24 minots, or 8 ½ quarters of London.

At Marſeilles, the cloth and ſilk meaſure is the cane, 100 of which make about 214 ½ yards in London. The corn meaſure is the load of 4 emines, which weighs 300 lb. of Marſeilles, or 243 lb. mark weight, which is equal to 1 ½ muid of Amſterdam, 1 ſeptier of Paris, 2 buſhels of Bourdeaux, and 4 ½ buſhels of London.

At Calais, the meaſure is the aun or ell of Paris: and the corn meaſure is the ſeptier, 12 of which make 13 ſeptiers of Paris, and ſomething leſs than 7 quarters of corn London meaſure.

Upon the whole, it ſhould be obſerved, that 100 French ells are 205 ¼ in Hamburgh, 213 ¾ in Breſlaw, 166 ⅔ in Brabant, 136 ⅘ baras in Spain, 171 cavadoes in Portugal, 175 braces in Venice, 199 ⅔ braces in Florence and Leghorn; as alſo equal to 100 ells in England, and 128 ¼ yards in London.

I. *The* MEASURES *of Aſia.*

1. *The Meaſures of Turky* are deſcribed under thoſe of Europe.

2. *The Meaſures of Arabia*, particularly at Mocha, for ſilk and cloth, is the covid, of 2 ſorts; the hand covid, being ½ yard Engliſh; and the iron covid, about ¾ of a yard Engliſh: there is alſo the tomond, containing 40 keltas, or 165 lb. Engliſh avoirdupois weight; and the pico about 26 ½ inches Engliſh.

3. *The Meaſures of Perſia*, for ſilk and linen, is the covid, equal to half an Engliſh yard: and the guz, 41 of which are about 44 yards Engliſh.

4. *The Meaſures of India*, are as follows. At Surat, the covid for ſilk and linen, being ½ yard Engliſh.

At Bombay, 5 pecks is a parah, and 25 parahs a morah, of uncertain meaſure.

At Fort St. George, 3 pints make a meaſure, 8 meaſures a mercal, 5 mercals a parac, and 80 paracs a garſe, of uncertain meaſure: but one corge is 20 pieces, and a covid ½ a yard.

At Bengal, the covid is the ſame as at Surat and Fort St. George.

At Bencoolen, one bamboo is an Engliſh gallon.

At Bantam, the covid is ½ yard; and the dry meaſure is the ganting, about 21 lb. Engliſh avoirdupois.

At Goa, the meaſures for length are the ſame with thoſe of Portugal: but the meaſure for corn is the medida, 24 of which make a maund, and 20 maund a candel, or about 14 buſhels Engliſh.

5. *The Meaſure of China*, for cloth and ſilk, is the covid, about 14 ⅛ inches Engliſh.

6. *The Meaſure of Japan*, for cloth, is the tattany, or ichan, of 2 ½ yards Engliſh; and the dry meaſure is the gant, containing ſix coca's, or 3 Engliſh pints.

II. *The Meaſures of Africa, are as follow:*

1. *In Egypt*, particularly at Grand Cairo, and Alexandria, the meaſure is the pico of two ſorts; that for cloth and ſilks being the pico, containing about 25 ⅛ inches Engliſh; and the other uſed in the ſale of wrought ſilks, gold cloth, and other ſtuffs, is the Turky pico, of which 165 make 100 yards of London.

2. *In Barbary*, particularly Tripoli and Tunis, the meaſure for cloth and ſtuffs is the pico, about 26 ½ Engliſh inches: but the ſilk pico is 1/10 ſhorter than the cloth pico, and the linen pico about ¼ ſhorter than the ſilk pico. The meaſure for oil is the meetar of 5 gallons Engliſh: but the meetar of wine is only half as much. The meaſure for corn is the ſaw, the weab, and the coffice; 12 ſaws are a weab, and 18 weab a coffice, or about 10 buſhels Engliſh. At Algier, the long meaſure is of two ſorts; the Turkiſh pico, and the Moriſco pico: the former is divided into 16 parts, every 8th part being called a robo; 1 ½ of theſe picos being about an Engliſh yard, by which all ſilks, ſtuffs, and woollen goods are ſold: but the latter is the common meaſure of the country, being about ¾ of the Turkiſh pico: and the meaſure for grain is the tarri, which is about 5 Engliſh gallons.

3. *In Morocco*, the meaſure for ſilk and cloth is the cavedo, or covid, 12 of which make a cane, and 182 canes make 100 yards of London.

4. *On the coaſt of Guinea*, the meaſures uſed by Europeans are generally the ſame as uſed in their reſpective countries in Europe: however, the Negroes have a meaſure for cloth, called a jacktam, being about 4 yards Engliſh, which they cut in half, and ſell their linen in ſuch ſmall quantities; but in woollen goods they ſeldom meaſure above a hand's breadth, which they cut for girdles.

MECCA. The capital of Arabia Felix, where Mahomet was born, ſituated in 43 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 21 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. 30 miles E. of Siden, the port-town of it on the Red ſea, 200 miles S. E. of Medina.

MECHANICS. See *Manufacture*, *Labour*, and *Journeyman*.

MECHLIN, or *Malines*. Capital of the lordſhip of Mechlin in the Auſtrian Netherlands, ſituated in 4 deg. 22 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 10 min. of N. lat. See Auſtrian *Netherlands*.

MECHOACAN, called alſo *white jalap*, *white rhubarb*, and *American ſcammony*, is a medicinal root, taking its name from a province of New Spain, from whence it is brought. Mechoacan was known and uſed as a purgative before jalap; tho' the latter is now in more general uſe, as being found more efficacious; yet mechoacan is the ſweeter and more gentle of the two, and on that account preferable. See *Jalap*.

The ſeat of its action is chiefly in the extreme parts, for which reaſon it is accounted good in arthritic pains: it has the advantage of needing no preparation or corrective, and of purging in its own proper ſubſtance ſuch as it grows.

M. Boulduc found by analyſing it, that it contains twelve times as much ſalt as reſin; but neither the ſaline nor reſinous extract purge ſo freely as the ſubſtance, even tho' taken in larger doſes; nor do they yet purge ſo gently.

In the choice of mechoacan, prefer thoſe pieces which are the browneſt within, and whoſe ſubſtance is the cloſeſt and moſt compact.

MECKLENBURGH *Duchy*. A province of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony. See *Germany*.

MECON. A great river, riſing in the north of Aſia, and running ſouth thro' the kingdoms of Laos and Cambodia, falls into the Indian ocean, in 10 deg. of N. lat. oppoſite to the iſland of Pulo-Condor.

MECONIUM. The juice of the poppy, drawn by expreſſion and dried. See *Poppy*.

Meconium differs from opium; the latter oozes out ſpontaneouſly after an inciſion made in the heads of the poppies; whereas the former is drawn by violence both from the heads and leaves, and even from the whole plant bruiſed and preſſed together. See *Opium*.

MEDAL. A ſmall figure, or piece of metal, in the form of a coin; deſtined to preſerve for poſterity the portrait of ſome great man, or the memory of ſome illuſtrious action.

The commerce of medals is chiefly among virtuoſos to enrich their cabinets of curioſities: however, it may be ſaid, that there are antiquary merchants in ſeveral of the chief cities in Germany, who make it their buſineſs to collect medals and reſell them with profit: but this traffic is not without its frauds, and a perſon to ſucceed therein ſhould be very well ſkilled in antique coins.

MEDALION, imports a medal of an extraordinary bigneſs.

MEDENBLICK. A port-town of the Netherlands, ſituated on the Zuyder ſea, in the province of Holland, in 5 deg. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 50 min. of N. lat.

MEDITERRANEAN *Sea*, is that large ſea which flows between the continents of Europe and Africa, entering by the ſtraights of Gibraltar, and reaching into Aſia, as far as the Euxine ſea, and the Palus Mæotis. See *Sea*.

The Mediterranean was anciently called the Grecian ſea, and the Great ſea; and is now cantoned out into ſeveral diviſions, which bear ſeveral names. To the weſt of Italy it is called the Liguſtic, or Tuſcan ſea; near Venice the Adriatic; towards Greece, Ionic, and Egean; between the Helleſpont and Boſphorus, the White ſea, as being very ſafe; and beyond, the Black ſea, the navigation being dangerous: but the Arabs call the Mediterranean ſea, the chamber-pot, by reaſon it ſeems of that figure.

The commerce of this ſea is greatly interrupted by the Corſairs of Barbary: but theſe piratical ſtates have concluded treaties of commerce with Great Britain, France, and the States General, whereby the ſubjects of theſe nations are permitted to trade in ſecurity, on producing proper paſſes. See *Treaty*, *Gibraltar*, *Spain*, and *Barbary*.

By an act paſſed in the 4th of Geo. II. the counterfeiting, altering, and eraſing of Mediterranean paſſes, or knowingly uttering, or publiſhing ſuch counterfeited, altered, or eraſed paſſes, is felony without benefit of clergy. See *Forgery*.

MEDWAY. A river, riſing in Aſhdown foreſt, in Suſſex, and taking its courſe generally N. E. by Penſhurſt, Tunbridge, Maidſtone, and Rocheſter, in Kent, beyond which it is divided into two branches by the iſle of Sheppy; the one called the E. Swale, and the other the W. Swale: the W. Swale, the chief entrance into this river, is defended by the fort of Sheerneſs: the E. Swale leads to Milton and Feverſham, where there are the fineſt oyſter fiſheries in the world: but what this river is moſt conſiderable for, is its being the ſtation for the royal navy, moſt of the firſt and ſecond rate men of war being built and laid up at the town of Chatham.

MEGERE. A corn meaſure uſed at Caſtres in Languedoc, 4 of which make a buſhel.

MEHAIGN. A river of the Auſtrian Netherlands, which riſes in the province of Namur, runs eaſt thro' that country, and falls into the Maes, a little weſt of Huy.

MEHON, or *Mau*. A medicinal plant, whoſe root enters the compoſition of the theriaca.

Its leaves are like thoſe of fennel, but much ſmaller: its ſtalk is about a foot in heigth, having on its extremity ſome umbrellas of white flowers, compoſed of five ſmall leaves, after which ariſes a brown and indented grain: its root is of the bigneſs of the little finger, blackiſh on the outſide, whitiſh within, long, accompanied with ſome ſmaller roots, a little bitter, and of an aromatic odour.

It is ranked among alexitaries and ſudorifics, and is proper alſo for exciting urine. The beſt comes from the Alps and Pyrenean mountains; though ſome of the ſame kind is alſo met with in the mountains of Auvergne in France.

MEIDIN, or *Maidin*, called alſo *Parat*, *Para*, and *Paraſi*, a ſmall ſilver coin very light; ſtruck by the baſhaws of Cairo in the name of the Grand Signior; and current throughout Egypt, where it is uſed in all payments, 33 meidins being worth 3 s. 7 d. ſterling.

MEIN. A weight uſed in the Eaſt Indies, particularly at Agra, being about 56 lb. avoirdupois.

MELANTERIA. A ſort of mineral vitriolic matter, commonly called chalcihs, or colcothar. See *Vitriol*, *Chalcihs*, and *Colcothar*.

MELASSES. See *Meloſſes*.

MELIDA. An iſland in the gulph of Venice, ſituated on the coaſt of Dalmatia, in 18 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 42 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. ſubject to Raguſa.

MELIKTU-ZIZCAR. An officer in Perſia, who has the general inſpection of all the trade in the kingdom, particularly of Iſpahan; who decides all the differences ariſing among merchants; and has alſo the direction of all the brokers charged with the King's merchandiſe, or who trade therewith in foreign countries.

MELINDA. A port-town of Zanquebar in Africa, ſituated on the Indian ocean, in 39 deg. of E. lon. and 3 deg. of S. lat.

MELIORAT, is a term at Amſterdam for one of the three ſorts of the Bologna orgenzins which are ſold there.

MELITITES. A greyiſh ſtone, which, when pulverized, yields a milky liquor, of a taſte ſomewhat like honey; whence it takes its name.

It is found in mines of metals, and ſeems to partake pretty much of the nature of lead; having a ſweetneſs ſomewhat like the ſal ſaturni, but much fainter: and it only differs from the galactite, in that it is milder to the taſte.

MELLILA. A port-town of the coaſt of Barbary, in the province of Fez, ſituated in 3 deg. of W. lon. and 35 deg. 50 min. of N. lat.

MEMBERS *of a port*, is a name for an inferior port being under the direction of the ſame officers which belong to a ſuperior one. See *Port*.

MEMCEDA. A liquid meaſure uſed at Mocha in Arabia, containing 3 Engliſh pints.

MEMEL. A port-town of Poland, in the province of Samogitia, ſituated on the Baltic, in 21 deg. 30 min. E. lon. and 56 deg. of N. lat.

MEMPHITES. A ſort of ſtone, mentioned by Dioſcorides, Pliny, and other hiſtorians; ſuppoſed to be found in Egypt not far from the city of Cairo, the ancient Memphis; whence it received this denomination.

MENAN. A great river of the further India, in Asia, which, riſing north of the kingdom of Siam, runs thro' that kingdom from N. to S. paſſes by the city of Siam, and falls into a bay of the Indian ocean, below Bancock.

MENCAULT, or *Maucaud*. A corn meaſure uſed in ſome parts of Flanders; particularly at Landrecy, Queſnoy, and Caſteau. At Landrecy the mencault of wheat is 97 lb. avoirdupois; of maſlin-corn 94, of rye 90, and of oats 72. At Queſnoy, of wheat 80, of maſlin-corn 76, of rye 79, of oats 71. At Caſteau-Cambreſy, of wheat 85, of maſlin-corn 80, of rye 72, and of oats 6[illegible].

MENON. A quadrupede land animal of the goat kind, found particularly in the Levant, of whoſe ſkin the morocco leather is made.

MENSURATION, is a certain way of meaſuring the works of builders and other mechanics; as alſo of land.

MENTZ *Electorate*. See *Germany*.

MENUF. A kind of flax which grows in Egypt, and is ſold at Cairo for about 1 l. 6 s. ſterling the hundred.

The property it is famed for, is, that being pulverized and ſmeared on any part of the body to be cut off, it deadens it ſo, as that the patient ſhall perceive no pain from the operation.

MEOTIS *Palus*, or *Palus Meotis*, is a ſea of Turkey, which divides Europe from Aſia, extending from Crim Tartary to the mouth of the river Don, or Tanais, being about 200 miles long and 100 broad; to which there is no other paſſage than thro' the ſtraights of Kaffa, from the Black ſea; of both which ſeas the Turks have the ſole navigation ſince the demolition of the fortifications of Aſoph, at the mouth of the river Don.

MERCANTILE. Any thing belonging to the buſineſs of a merchant.

MERCANTILE *Affairs*. Any tranſaction that belongs to a merchant: but for Mercantile accompts, ſee *Book-keeping*.

MERCATOR'S *Chart*, or *Projection*. For the conſtruction, uſe, advantages, &c. hereof, ſee Mercator's *Chart*.

MERCATOR'S *Sailing*, is that performed loxodromically by means of mercator's charts. See Mercator's *Sailing*.

MERCER. A tradeſman that ſells ſilks of all ſorts ready wrought; and ſometimes ſtuffs, and other articles.

MERCER'S *company of London*, was incorporated by letters patent of the 17th of Richard II. in 1393. by the name of The wardens and commonalty of the myſtery of the mercers of the city of London, with a licence to purchaſe in mortmain an eſtate of 20 l. *per annum*, which by numerous gifts, and additional grants, is ſo vaſtly increaſed, that when the company in the year 1698 accepted of Dr. Aſhton's project for providing a maintenance for clergymens widows, they ſettled for that purpoſe a fund of about 14,000 l. *per annum*, and for ſecuring to the widow of each ſubſcriber 30 l. *per cent. per annum* during life: but the company ſoon perceiving that this was more than they could afford to pay, reduced the ſame

ime to 20 l. *per annum* for each 100 l. after which there vas ſo great a deficiency in theſe annuities, that tho' hey amounted to 7,500 l. a year, the eſtate belonging o the company did not exceed 4,150 l. a year. and the ar- ears due to the annuitants at Michaelmas 1747, amounted o 96,128 l. but as they were due to the widows of poor lergymen, and other widows, the parliament in 1748, ranted 3000 l. a year for 35 years, towards the relief of heſe annuitants, payable out of the duty of 6 d. on every halduron of coals imported into the port of London, ranted for the relief of the orphans and other creditors of he city.

This fraternity is governed by a prime and three other wardens, and 40 aſſiſtants, with 230 liverymen, who pay a fine on their being admitted as above mentioned: they have a ſtately hall in Cheapſide to manage their affairs in.

ERCHANDISE. Any ſort of vendable goods, or com- modities; as alſo any trade, or buſineſs of traffic.

ERCHANT. A general term, ſignifying a perſon oc- cupied in ſome commercial employment, for the purchaſe, ſale, and exchange of commodities; by wholeſale, or re- tail; by land, or by ſea; or both conjointly.

A merchant in England is one that buys and trades in any thing: and as merchandiſe includes all goods and wares expoſed to ſale in fairs or markets; ſo the word mer- chant anciently extended to all ſorts of traders, buyers, and ſellers. But every man who buys and ſells goods, is not at this day under the denomination of a merchant; only thoſe that traffic in the way of commerce, by im- portation and exportation, or carry on buſineſs by way of emption, vendition, barter, permutation or exchange, and who make it their living to buy and ſell, by a con- tinued aſſiduity, or frequent negotiation, in the myſtery of merchandiſing, are eſteemed merchants: a banker, and ſuch as deals by exchange, is regularly called a merchant.

It has been obſerved, that there is no profeſſion in which more courage is required than in this; for merchants who trade to foreign countries, encounter and ſtrive among men, and ſometimes againſt the four elements together; which is the ſtrongeſt proof that can be of the reſolution of man. And as affairs of merchandiſing at ſea can only be executed by the rich, ſome perſons have wiſhed that noblemen, who are commonly the richeſt in eſtate, might be permitted to practice themſelves in commerce, without prejudice to their condition, which would be more ho- nourable unto them than to be uſurers, as in Italy; or to impoveriſh themſelves, in doing nothing but to ſpend and make conſumption of their fortunes.

The ſeveral qualifications of a merchant, are to write a good hand, to be a good accomptant, to be acquainted with all coins, weights, and meaſures; to have a know- ledge of the places of all manufactures, the goodneſs of a manufactured piece, its length and breadth; the re- ſpective commodities of all countries, and ſuch whoſe importation and exportation are permitted, or prohibited; the price of exchange purſuant to the currency of dif- ferent places; the duties of imports and exports, accord- ing to the uſage of places, tariffs, and regulations; the price, and manner of freightage, and inſurances; foreign languages reduced to three principal ones; the Spaniſh underſtood and uſed in almoſt all parts of the Eaſt, par- ticularly on the coaſts of Africa from the Canaries to the Cape of Good Hope; the Italian in the Levant, and the high Dutch in all northern countries; conſular juriſpru- dence; and laſtly geography, and the art of navigation. See *Commerce*, *Company*, *Trade*, *Navigation*, *Alien*, and *Denizen*.

The bartering of goods ſignifies to exchange one com- modity for another, or truck wares for wares by mer- chants; ſo it is mentioned in the ſtatute, 1ſt Rich. III. cap. 9. And exchange was the original and natural way of commerce precedent to buying; for there was no buying till money was invented, tho' in exchanging both parties are as buyers and ſellers, and they equally warrant. In foreign countries, the uſual method of buying and ſell- ing of commodities, between merchants, is now by bills of debt, or bills obligatory, which by the law-merchant are there alienable or aſſignable over.

In former times it was a received opinion, that thoſe laws, which were prohibitory againſt foreign goods im- ported, &c. did not bind a merchant ſtranger: tho' it hath been a long time ſince adjudged otherwiſe; for in the leagues that are eſtabliſhed between nation and nation, the laws of either kingdom are excepted; and as the Engliſh merchants in France, or in any other nation in amity, are ſubject to the laws of that country where they reſide, ſo muſt the people of France, or any other country, be ſubject and liable to the laws of England, when reſi- dent there.

By the common law, merchants were always parti- cularly regarded in England; but the municipal laws of the kingdom, or indeed of any realm, are not ſuffi- cient for the ordering and determining the affairs of traf- fick, and matters relating to commerce; merchandiſe being ſo univerſally extenſive, that it is impoſſible: there- fore the law-merchant, ſo called from its univerſal con- cern, all nations take ſpecial knowledge of; and the common and ſtatute laws of England leave the cauſes of merchants, in many caſes, to their own peculiar law.

In the reign of King Edw. IV. a merchant-ſtranger made ſuit before the King's privy council, for ſeveral bales of ſilk feloniouſly taken from him; wherein it was moved, that this matter ſhould be determined at common law; but it was anſwered by the Lord Chancellor, that as this ſuit was brought by a merchant, he was not bound to ſue according to the law of the land.

Merchants abroad are very circumſpect and careful in giving characters one of another, leaſt unawares they thereby become ſureties. And a merchant at a mart-fair in Germany, being in a merchant's warehouſe, where was another merchant of his acquaintance, cheapening a parcel of ſilk wares, unknown to the ſeller; and the ſel- ler aſking him, whether he were a man of good credit, who anſwered he was; upon which the bargain was made, and the goods delivered to the buyer to a conſiderable value, taking his bill obligatory for the ſame, payable at the next fair following: here the buyer not appearing at the time, demand of the money was made of the mer- chant that gave the buyer the character; but he refuſing to pay it, a ſuit was thereupon commenced, and he was adjudged to pay the money; and all the recompence he had to reimburſe himſelf, was the buyer's bill obligatory aſſigned over to him, which was of no value, as the buyer became inſolvent.

This determination was according to the civil law, and general law and cuſtom between merchants; tho' the opinion of ſome merchants being demanded, they were divided therein: and it was by all agreed, that if the party had ſaid of the buyer of the goods, he is taken or reputed to be a good man of credit, or I take him to be ſo, without affirming it, he had been cleared by the law and cuſtom of merchants; which may be a good caveat for merchants and all men. See *Bankrupt*.

The wares, merchandiſes, debts, or duties, that mer- chants have as joint-traders or partners, on the deceaſe of either of them, are not to go to the ſurvivor, but to the executor of the deceaſed; and the ſurviving merchant is obliged to join in an action with the executor for re- covery thereof. But it has been told, that if two joint- merchants make a perſon their factor, if one of them dies leaving an executor; this executor and the ſurvivor can- not join, for the remedy ſurvives, but not the duty or intereſt; and therefore on recovery, he muſt be account- able to the executor for that. 2 Salk. 444.

If there are two merchants partners in trade, who are in- debted, and one breaks, the other may not be charged with the whole; but the eſtate belonging to the joint- trade ought to be divided, *&c.* But where there are two partners, and one dies, the ſurvivor ſhall be charged for the whole debt. 1 Mod. 45. Acts diſcharging bankrupts, ſhall not diſcharge any partner in trade, or one jointly bound with the bankrupt. 1 Danv. Abr. 686.

In caſe two joint-merchants occupy their ſtock, goods, and merchandiſe in common, to their common profit, one of them naming himſelf a merchant, ſhall have an account againſt the other, naming him a merchant, and ſhall charge him as a receiver: and if two merchants are

found in arrear upon an accompt with another, and they promiſe to pay it at certain days, but do not; then either of them may be charged for the whole ſingly; and an action of the caſe will lie on the cuſtom of merchants. 1. Co. Inſt. 172. 2 Roll. Abr. 702.

If one merchant draws a bill of exchange upon another, either at home or abroad, if it be by way of exchange, the acceptance of the bill by the party ſhall bind him to that party to whoſe uſe the money in the bill is to be paid, and he may bring his action in his own name *per legem mercatoriam:* and ſo it is if a third perſon, that is a ſtranger to the bill, ſhall accept the ſame for the honour of the drawer, it will bind him as effectually, as if he upon whom it was drawn had done it. 2. Cro. Rep. 7. And where two merchants have a joint trade, and one of them only accepts a bill of exchange, if he do not pay it, an action lies againſt the other; but the regular method is to proceed againſt both.

The exception in the ſtatute 21 Jac. I. of limitations concerning merchandiſe, as to actions of accompt, being brought within the time limited, extends only to accompts current between merchants, betwixt which and an accompt ſtated there is a diverſity; for when the accompt is ſtated and balanced, the certainty of the debt appears, and all the intricacy of accompt is out of doors: and the action muſt be brought within ſix years after the accompt is ſtated. But it was here ſaid, if after an accompt is ſtated, upon the balance of it a ſum appear due to either of the parties, which is not paid, but is afterwards thrown into a new accompt between the ſame parties, it is then ſlipped out of the ſtatute again: and the reaſon of the exception in this ſtatute was, becauſe merchants are often out of the realm, and cannot always proſecute their actions in due time. 1 Mod. Rep. 268, 270.

In England, merchants, traders, and others, deſiring to end any ſuit or controverſy, for which there is no other remedy but by perſonal action, or ſuit in equity, by arbitrament may agree, that their ſubmiſſion of the ſuit to the award or umpirage of any perſon or perſons, ſhall be made a rule of any of his Majeſty's courts of record, which the parties ſhall chuſe, and may inſert ſuch their agreement in their ſubmiſſion, or the condition of the bond or promiſe; and when upon filing the proper affidavit thereof, the ſame is entered of record, and a rule of court thereupon made, the parties ſhall ſubmit to, and be finally concluded by ſuch arbitration or umpirage; and in caſe of diſobedience thereto, the party refuſing to perform the ſame ſhall be ſubject to the penalties of contemning ſuch rule of court; and proceſs of attachment, &c. ſhall iſſue accordingly.

By the ſtatute 7th Anne, cap. 12. no merchant or trader, within the deſcription of any of the ſtatutes of bankrupt, putting himſelf under the ſervice of any ambaſſador, &c. here from abroad, ſhall have any benefit by this act to be privileged from arreſts, &c.

The ſtatutes in general, relating to merchant-ſtrangers and others, are the following:

By Magna Charta, 9 Hen. III. cap. 30. all merchant-ſtrangers, if they are not openly prohibited before, ſhall have ſafe conduct of coming into, going out of, and remaining in England, to buy and ſell, without being exacted upon by any manner of exceſſive tolls, except in time of war, and they be of our enemies country; and altho' they be of a land making war againſt us, ſo long as our merchants are well uſed there, they ſhall have the like good uſage here.

The act of 9th Edw. III. cap. 1. ordains, that merchant-ſtrangers may freely buy and ſell goods within the realm, except they be alien enemies: and if any diſturbance or abuſe be offer'd to them, or any other merchant in a corporation, and the head officer there do not, upon requeſt, provide a remedy, the franchiſe ſhall be ſeiſed into the King's hand, and the diſturber, on being attainted thereof, ſhall anſwer double damages to the party grieved, ſuffer one year's impriſonment, and be ranſom'd at the King's will: and if the diſturbance be out of a franchiſe, the lord, or his bailiff, &c. neglecting to provide remedy, are liable to the ſame penalty.

By the ſtatute of 27th Edw. III. cap. 2. ſafe conduct

ſhall be granted to merchant-ſtrangers, except alien enemies, to come and dwell in this realm, and return when they pleaſe; as alſo to ſell their commodities, without having them taken from them againſt their will, on any colour or pretence whatſoever. And officers, or others offending againſt this law, ſhall be arreſted by the head officer of the place, if it be out of the ſtaple; and if within it, then by the mayor and miniſters of the ſtaple; and ſhall be proceeded againſt according to the ſtaple-law, and not at the common law; and on conviction of the offence, incur double damages to the party grieved, and as much to the King.

By the 27th Edw. III. ſtat. 2. c. 11. & 17. all merchants may freely ſell their merchandiſe at the ſtaple by groſs, or by retail, without challenge or impeachment; but it ſhall be felony to foreſtall, buy, or give earneſt for any merchandiſes, before they come to the ſtaple or port, or to enter ſhips for that purpoſe. No merchant may be impleaded for another's treſpaſs, debt, &c. And if any difference ariſe between the King, and any foreign prince who hath merchants here, thoſe merchants his ſubjects ſhall have, by proclamation, forty days given them to depart; and if for any juſt cauſe they cannot leave the kingdom ſo ſoon, they ſhall have longer time allowed until they may conveniently go; and in the mean time may ſell their merchandiſe, if they can do it.

And by 38th Edw. III. cap. 2. it is ordained, That a merchant may uſe more merchandiſes than one, notwithſtanding the ſtatute of 37th Edw. III. cap. 5. by which merchants were prohibited to do it; and all merchants as well aliens as denizens, may buy all manner of merchandiſe, and freely carry them out of the realm, paying the cuſtoms, &c. except that Engliſh merchants ſhall not go abroad with wool, or woolfells, &c.

The 5th Rich. II. cap. 1. enacts, That all merchant-ſtrangers, of whatſoever kingdom or country they may be, being in amity with us, coming into England, ſhall be welcome, and friendly entertained and treated here, in all parts within this kingdom, with their merchandiſe and all manner of goods, without being diſturbed. But by the ſtatute of 16th Richard II. it is enacted, That no merchant-ſtranger, an alien, ſhall buy or ſell, or merchandiſe within the realm with another merchant-ſtranger, to ſell again; nor ſell any merchandiſe by retail, but victuals only wine he ſhall ſell by whole veſſels, and ſpicery by whole bales, and in no other manner.

By the 4th Henry IV. cap. 15. merchant-ſtrangers and denizens, that bring merchandiſes into England, and the ſame do ſell here and receive Engliſh money for the ſame, ſhall beſtow ſuch money upon other merchandiſe of England, to carry the ſame out of the realm, without carrying any gold or ſilver in coin or maſs, excepting the reaſonable coſts.

And the 5th Hen. VI. cap. 9. ordains, that for the better keeping of gold and ſilver within this kingdom, and for the increaſe of our commodities and manufactures, merchant-ſtrangers ſhall give ſecurity to the King's cuſtomers and controllers, to employ their money on the commodities of this realm; which they ſhall do, in pain to forfeit the ſame money: alſo merchant-ſtrangers were to ſell their merchandiſe within a quarter of a year next after their arrival; but this clauſe is repealed by a ſubſequent act. And by this ſtatute, the head officer of the place where a merchant-ſtranger ſhall arrive, ſhall aſſign him a ſufficient hoſt or inn, at which and with whom he ſhall reſide, and in no other place; and the hoſt ſo aſſigned ſhall take for his pains as hath been accuſtomed.

The ſtatute of 8th Henry VI. cap. 24. ordains, That no merchant alien ſhall conſtrain any of the King's ſubjects by promiſe, covenant, or bond, to pay him in gold for any debt, which to him may be due for any merchandiſe ſold; nor refuſe to receive payment thereof in ſilver upon pain of forfeiting double the value of the ſame; and to prevent loſs to the Engliſh merchants having dealings with foreigners here, no Engliſhman ſhall ſell within this realm, to any merchant-alien, any manner of merchandiſe, but for ready money paid preſently, or for other merchandiſe preſently delivered.

By the 1ſt Rich. III. cap 9. the Italian merchants trad-

either ſhall ſell their goods and merchandiſe at the port where they land them, and in groſs, not by retail, or ſhall forfeit the full value thereof: they are alſo to ſell their commodities within eight months time, and in that ſpace lay out and employ the money received upon Engliſh commodities, their expences deducted, and not make over the money by exchange; and if within that time they cannot diſpoſe of their goods, in two months after the eight months they ſhall convey them out of the realm; in pain to forfeit the money made over by exchange, and the merchandiſe ſold after eight months, and not conveyed away as aforeſaid, or the value of the ſame. Theſe merchants may tranſport their merchandiſe from one port to another, ſo as they ſell them within the ſaid eight months: but no ſuch merchant ſhall buy and ſell any wool in this realm; nor ſhall he make any woollen cloth, or deliver wool to that end, upon pain of forfeiture. By the 3d Hen. VII. cap. 8. it is enacted, That every merchant of Ireland, Jerſey, or Guernſey, that brings any merchandiſes into England, ſhall lay out the money received for the ſame merchandiſe, his reaſonable expences being deducted, upon the commodities of this land, or without fraud employ the money in due payment here; the ſame to be proved by writing, from the merchant or merchants to whom he hath paid the money by him received, witneſſing that he hath ſo done, or by ſuch other proof as ſhall be thought reaſonable to the cuſtomer or controller of the port; on pain of forfeiting the value of the merchandiſe ſo brought into this kingdom; the one half of the ſaid forfeiture to go to the King, and the other half to the party that will ſue for the ſame. And by this act, the 17th Edw. IV. is made perpetual; which ſtatute ordains, that merchant aliens guilty of theſe offences, ſhall forfeit all their goods found within this realm, and ſuffer a year's impriſonment.

The 2 d of Hen. VIII. cap. 7. ordained, That no merchant ſhall lay on land out of a ſhip any French wine, between the feaſt of St. Michael, and the Purification, on pain of forfeiture thereof: and the Lord Chancellor and other great officers, have authority to ſet the price of French and other wines, by the butt, barrel, &c. and perſons ſelling at greater prices, ſhall forfeit 40 l. alſo the price of retailing wines is limited by this ſtatute.

By the 1ſt Eliz. cap. 11. no merchants, or other perſons, are to lade or unlade into, or out of any ſhip or veſſel, any goods, wares, or merchandiſe whatſoever, except fiſh taken by Engliſhmen, but only in the day-time, and at certain ports and places appointed; in pain to forfeit the goods, wares, or merchandiſe otherwiſe laden or unladen, or the value; the places aſſigned, to be London, Southampton, Briſtol, Newcaſtle, Weſt-cheſter, &c.

The ſtatute of 12th Car. II. cap. 4. which grants the cuſtom-duties of tonnage and poundage to be paid by merchants to the King, and declares what particular things may be tranſported, paying the ſaid duties; provides and enacts, That all manner of wines imported in the port of London, or elſewhere, ſhall be freed from the impoſition of exciſe.

By the 1ſt Will. and Mary, cap. 34. If any merchant, wine-cooper, or other perſon, ſelling wines by wholeſale or retail, ſhall corrupt or adulterate any wine, or utter wine corrupt or adulterated, they ſhall forfeit 300 l. for every offence; one moiety to the King, the other to the proſecutor, to be removed by action of debt, bill, plaint, or information, &c. and be impriſoned for three months.

And by the 9th of Q. Anne, cap. 8. merchants importing French wine, are to do it in ſhips of 70 tons burthen, and ſo as the ſame comes directly from France into Ireland, and from thence to England: but before ſuch ſhips return to France, they are to be loaden with Engliſh goods to the value of the wines; and oath is to be made before a cuſtom-officer, that the goods are intended to be landed in France, &c. See *Cuſtoms*.

The general complaint of the decay of trade, and a humour which has been obſerved among the better ſort of people in England, to make a kind of aukward and ill-grounded excuſes for breeding their children up to it; together with a tendency to prefer, what we call the profeſſions, as law, divinity, and phyſic, to merchandiſe; has put ſome perſons upon examining on what foundation this way of judging was erected. The more they looked into it, the leſs cauſe they really ſaw for ſo feeble a way of thinking; being fully convinced, that there is not only leſs likelihood for a man to raiſe himſelf to any great degree of eminence in the profeſſions, than by trade; but alſo that the road to honour and preferment is as open, where the merit is equal, in trade, as in law, divinity, or phyſick; and that many more conſiderable eſtates are acquired, and even with leſs obloquy, from the one than from the others.

In a pamphlet lately publiſhed, the author ſays, "Suppoſing an eminent trader arrives only at the office of Lord Mayor; in that capacity alone he is Right Honourable, and inveſted with the ſacred character of a judge, both in capital and civil matters, preceding even the Chancellor, and all other judges and officers of the crown in his own juriſdiction. And in caſe of an interregnum, is the chief magiſtrate in the realm. Great and wiſe traders have arrived at the dignity of Lord Chancellor; have been created peers of the realm, knights of the garter and bath, bannerets, and privy counſellors; which is as much as can be affirmed of either lawyers or divines, and more than can be proved in any one ſingle inſtance of the profeſſors of phyſick.

Trade, by the conſtitution of our country, both with reſpect to its public and private, its ancient and modern, its general and particular laws, is certainly no degradation whatever; and it may with ſtrict truth be affirmed, that commerce is that alone by which our nation keeps up its head, and what renders us of that conſequence with foreign powers as we are. And if the following of trade had here ever degraded, which in effect it never did, yet the brave ſtand which was lately made by the citizens of London, to ſupport the credit and honour of the nation, and the proteſtant ſucceſſion, ſhould be a ſufficient cauſe alone to make traders eſteemed by all degrees, as gentlemen of worth; and not only ſo, but as a people and body of men, the moſt reſpectable and fitteſt to be encouraged of any in theſe realms, and a full proof, to all intents and purpoſes, that merchandiſe is a worthy and honourable employment.

Having ſhewn what honour and reſpect the Jews, Greeks, and Romans, paid to trade, the author proceeds to examine on what footing of honour trade ſtood with our anceſtors, and how it now is, or ſhould be eſteemed by us. To begin then with our legiſlative power. There is no body of people, who have ſo large a ſhare allotted in it as traders. Our houſe of commons conſiſts of knights and burgeſſes; but the former, who are to be conſidered the landed intereſt, are but few when compared with the latter. There are no more than two allowed for any county, for many, only one; but moſt trading towns ſend one, or more burghers to parliament, to look to their trading intereſt; and theſe the law, which is termed right and reaſon, intends to be ſuch in the reſpective towns as live there, and underſtand the intereſt, and are concerned in the benefit of the manufacture eſtabliſhed in that burgh or town for which they are choſen, and not ſtrangers, who, perhaps, are too often elected for their money. This was the juſt ſcheme of our wiſe anceſtors, and evidently proves how high a value is ſet on our trade by us: nor is this all, for trade, neither by the laws of the land, or honour, in the leaſt detracts from gentility; but on the contrary, great traders have been frequently admitted by our princes into the upper houſe of parliament; have been appointed privy counſellors for their wiſdom; and have been created not only knights, but baronets, barons, and earls; which muſt fully demonſtrate that trading was not only formerly, but is, even now, of the greateſt conſequence to the Engliſh nation; and never did, or can, by our laws or cuſtoms, detract from a man, or family; but on the contrary, that a great part of our nobility are immediately deſcended from great traders. Verſtegan the Engliſh antiquary, in his titles of honour, mentions, That in old times, if a merchant ſo thrived, that he was able to croſs the ſeas thrice, he was ever after reputed a right worthy *Thein*, and capable of higher advancement: ſo that from hence it appears that traffic at

that time of day ennobled its followers, who were not ſo before. Nor let any one conceit it to be a new or extraordinary matter, that wealth alone ſhould entitle a man to honour, ſince it was a law of old in the moſt flouriſhing ſtates. Among the Romans, the cenſus ſenatorius, or eſtate of a ſenator, was affixed by Auguſtus at 120,000 ſeſterces; he who had 100,000 ſeſterces was ranked as a decurio, or kind of ſenator in the provinces, as Pliny obſerves in his letters; and he was a Roman knight, whoſe eſtate amounted to 400,000 ſeſterces compleat; which Dr. Middleton, in his life of Tully, ſays, made 3229 l. of our money. And with us till lately was a law of this kind: every man who had 40 l. a year in land was qualified to be a knight; and from hence came the term of a knight's fee with us: but as King Charles greatly miſuſed this law in his wants, compelling every man that had that qualification in land to become a knight, or to compound; it was for that cauſe ranked among the chief grievances of his reign, and therefore was aboliſhed by act of parliament at the reſtoration, as may be found in the hiſtories and ſtatutes of thoſe days.

The learned Cambden notes, that Richard II. advanced Michael de la Pole, a merchant, to the honour of Earl of Suffolk, and made him Chancellor of England: he was the ſon of William de la Pole, the firſt Mayor of Kingſton upon Hull; who, on account of his great wealth, had the dignity of a baronet conferred upon him; and was alſo made ſecond baron of the exchequer by Edward III. "However," ſays Cambden, "his being a merchant did no "how detract from his honour: for who knows not "that even our noblemens ſons have been merchants? "Nor will I deny that he was nobly deſcended, tho' a "merchant." This Michael was alſo knight of the garter, as Vincent in his review of Brooke obſerves; and that he could not have been ſo at that time of day, by the ſtatutes of the order, had he not been a gentleman of three deſcents, as he was, being the ſon and grandſon of a knight; but that ſon a merchant. From whence, ſays he, it follows, "that *mercatura non derogat nobilitati*," that is, trade is no abatement of honour. And as it here may be aſked, What conſtitutes a gentleman with us? So, the reply is eaſy, being a gentleman, is being entitled to bear arms. And Mr. Cambden obſerves, that the diſtinction of a gentleman of coat armour, or a gentleman of blood, is the bearing of arms from his grandfather; and that he who bears arms from his grandfather, is to all intents and purpoſes a gentleman of blood; for which cauſe it is requiſite by the ſtatutes of the Bath, that every knight before his admiſſion proves that he is ſo qualified. And when a knight of the Bath has thus evidenced his qualification for that moſt honourable order, it carries with it, if his merit be equal to the thing, a paſſport alſo to the order of the garter. "The King "having ordered and ordained, that for the great love, "favour, and confidence, he bears towards the knights "of the Bath, that a ſpecial regard ſhall be had to the "preferring, advancing, and preſenting them to be companions of the moſt noble order of the Garter."

Guillim, in his chapter of gentlemen, ſays, they have their beginning either of blood, as that they are born of worſhipful parents; or, that they have done ſomething in peace or war, whereby they deſerve to bear arms and be accounted gentlemen. He farther ſays, if a gentleman be bound apprentice to a merchant, or other trade, he hath not thereby loſt his gentility; and he deſires it may be remembered for the honour of trade, that Hen. VIII. thought it no diſhonour to him, when he quitted his queen, to take to wife Anne, the daughter of Thomas Bullen ſometime Mayor of London. To which may be added, the thought that the firſt William, who founded our royal race, was only the grandſon of a tanner.

The number of great traders, who have been advanced to high honours, or poſts of truſt, which might be here mentioned, are ſufficient inſtances to prove, that England has few better houſes among the nobility than ſome of thoſe families, many of which titles ſtill live in their deſcendents.

As therefore it cannot be doubted, but commerce is of the greateſt advantage to a nation, ſo the more country gentlemen breed their younger children to it, the likelier ſuch families are to be continued, and become uſeful to the public. The importance of an idle younger brother is very finely ſet forth by Mr. Addiſon in his character of Will. Wimble, who greatly laments the folly of ſome great families, that had rather ſee their children ſtarve like gentlemen, than thrive in a profeſſion or trade that they think is beneath their quality. "This humour, ſays he, "fills ſeveral parts of Europe with pride and beggary; "but it is the happineſs of a trading nation, like ours, "that the younger ſons, tho' incapable of any liberal "art or profeſſion, may be placed in ſuch a way of life "as may, perhaps, enable them to vye with the beſt of "their family." And here it may not be amiſs to ſet down his further opinion in this affair.

"When I have been, ſays he, upon the Exchange, "have often fancied one of our kings ſtanding in perſon "where he is repreſented in effigy, and looking down "upon the wealthy concourſe of people with which "that place is every day filled. In this caſe, how would "he be ſurpriſed to hear all the languages of Europe "ſpoke in this little ſpot of his former dominions, and "to ſee ſo many private men, who in his time would "have been the vaſſals of ſome powerful baron, negociating like princes for greater ſums of money, than "were formerly to be met with in the royal treaſury! "Trade, without enlarging the Britiſh dominions, has "given us a kind of additional empire; it has multiplied "the number of our riches, made our landed eſtates infinitely more valuable than they were formerly, and "added to them an acceſſion of other eſtates, as valuable "as the lands themſelves." And in another place he ſays, "It is the great advantage of a trading nation, "as there are very few in it ſo dull and heavy, who "may not be placed in ſtations of life, which may give "them an opportunity of making their fortunes. "well regulated commerce is not like law, phyſic, "divinity, to be overſtocked with hands; but on the "contrary, flouriſhes by multitudes, and gives employment to all its profeſſion: fleets of merchantmen are "ſo many ſquadrons of floating ſhops, that vend the "wares and manufactures in all the markets of the "world, and find out chapmen under the Tropicks."

The learned biſhop of Cambray gives alſo his ſentiments on this ſubject, in his character of Narbal, in account of the Phenicians, by whom, it is ſuppoſed, the learned archbiſhop means the Engliſh. "You ſee, ſays he, "the power of the Phenicians, who have rendered "themſelves puiſſant to all their neighbouring nations "by the grandeur of their fleets. Trade, which they "carry to the furtheſt quarters of the earth, has ſo enriched them, that they ſurpaſs the moſt flouriſhing "people in glory." And again, inſtructing Telemachus how to eſtabliſh a flouriſhing trade in Italy: "Do, ſays "he, "as thoſe people do; receive with kindneſs and "with eaſe all ſtrangers; let them find in your harbours "ſafety and convenience free from reſtraint, and never "ſuffer yourſelf to be overcome, at any time, either "with pride or avarice: the true way to get much is "never to be covetous, and even ſometimes to forego "gain. Make yourſelf beloved of all ſtrangers, and "even bear with ſlight inconveniencies from them; "to excite jealouſies from your pride; be ſteadfaſt to "follow the laws of commerce, which are ſimple and "eaſy; and ſuffer not your ſubjects on any account "infringe them. Keep a ſtrict hand over the fraud, negligence, or vain glory of the merchants, which ruin "commerce, in ruining the trade themſelves; and, above "all things, never attempt to confine commerce to your "own proper intereſt."

This, continues our author, is ſufficient to ſhew, how clearly this great prelate ſaw the advantage accruing from a free trade; and his countrymen the French have greatly increaſed theirs, by following many of theſe maxims, to the infinite diſadvantage of the Britiſh nation. But even foreigners themſelves make a very great diſtinction and difference in our favour, betwixt an Engliſh trader, and thoſe of other nations. To this effect writes the Baron of Polnitz, a perſon well known in

of the courts of Europe. "In England, ſays he, the "nobility intermix with traders daughters, as they do "in France: however, a great diſtinction ſhould be "made betwixt the one and the other. In England, "merchants are ſometimes ſprung of the greateſt houſes "of the kingdom; and it has often happened that "younger branches of noble families, who have been "brought up to trade, by the right of ſucceſſion have "become peers. And frequently it falls out, that when "a lord eſpouſes a merchant's daughter, ſhe may be his "couſin, or at leaſt a lady of a good family. Whereas "in France, it is always the daughter of a roturier, "which means, born of the dregs of the people."

By the ſtatute of the 12th of Car. II. it was enacted, That no alien, or perſon not born within the allegiance of the King, or naturalized, or made a free denizen, ſhould exerciſe the occupation of a merchant or factor in any plantations or territories to his majeſty belonging, in Aſia, Africa, or America, upon pain of forfeiture of all his goods, or which are in his poſſeſſion, one third to his Majeſty, one third to the governor of the plantations, and the other third to him that ſhould inform or ſue for the ſame in any of his Majeſty's courts in the plantations; and all who ſhould be made governors of ſuch plantations by his majeſty, ſhould, before their entrance into their government, make an oath to do their utmoſt that the above clauſe ſhould be punctually obſerved.

In France there are court merchants for ſummarily deciding all controverſies in trade; and ſeveral Engliſh merchants, particularly Mr. Carey, p. 26. ſays, that the eſtabliſhment of court merchants in England would be of great ſervice to trade; and Sir Joſiah Child was of the ſame opinion. To which may be added what another public-ſpirited merchant has lately ſaid, That as there is now found to be more room in the Manſion-houſe than the Lord Mayors have need of, a convenient apartment ſhould be allotted for a public mercantile library, to be conſulted by all the citizens, as occaſion may require.

I need not, ſays the author, inform you, of the various branches ſuch a library ſhould conſiſt of. Yet for the ſake of ſome, it may not be amiſs to give a ſummary of them.

1. All the ſtatutes, and alſo the principal hiſtories of Britain, Ireland, and our colonies, with their geography and itinerary deſcriptions.

2. The hiſtories, geography, and topography, of all the other parts of the univerſe; with maps, globes, and ſea-charts; as alſo the principal voyagers.

3. A collection of whatever has been written, in any language, on navigation, commerce, manufactures, plantations, fiſheries, mines, metals, minerals, gems, foſſils, drugs, agriculture, gardening, manual-arts, &c.

4. The charters, by-laws, uſages, and hiſtories of London; and alſo of all home and foreign ſea-ports, and of other trading corporations at home and abroad.

5. Reports, law-deciſions, &c. relating to every branch of commerce, navigation, manufactures, inſurances, &c.

6. All the particular rules and uſages of the Britiſh revenues of the cuſtoms, exciſe, &c. with whatever elſe may relate to commercial affairs, in the moſt extenſive ſenſe.

Were once a beginning made to ſuch a library, it would, in all probability, ſoon ſwell to a conſiderable bulk, both by donations from the living, and legacies of the dead. On this ſuppoſition, the author ſays, he would engage to bequeath ſuch a ſet of old, ſcarce, curious, and valuable tracts and treatiſes, on the hiſtory, &c. of commerce, the product of many years collections, as he humbly conceives are not to be found in many private hands.

As ſuch a public repoſitory of mercantile knowledge would be the firſt of its kind probably in all Europe, it would be therefore the more worthy of the firſt commercial city in the univerſe.

And with reſpect to a ſuitable ſalary for the librarian, he makes very little doubt of finding the means for it, were but once ſo noble a deſign ſet on foot.

MERCHANT-*Adventurers*. See Merchant-*Adventurers*, and *North* companies.

MERCHANT's *Waterworks*. See *Waterworks*.

MERCHANT-*Taylors company of London*, was anciently denominated taylors and linen-armourers, and was incorporated by letters-patent of the 5th of Edw. IV. in 1466. But many of the members of the company being great merchants, and Henry VII. a member thereof; for their greater honour, by his letters-patent of the 18th of his reign, in 1503, he re-incorporated the ſame, by the name of the maſter and wardens of the merchant-taylors of the fraternity of St. John the Baptiſt in the city of London.

They conſiſt of a maſter, four wardens, thirty-eight aſſiſtants, and 394 liverymen, whoſe fine is 20 l. when admitted: to whom belongs a ſpacious and ſtately hall in Threadneedle-ſtreet, in which the buſineſs of the company is tranſacted. They are poſſeſſed of a great eſtate, out of which they pay to charitable uſes, purſuant to the wills of the reſpective donors, about 2000 l. a year: ſo that they are, at this day, a very conſiderable company, though their appellation is ſomewhat contemptible, and the occupation by the vulgar deſpiſed and ignominiouſly treated. See *Taylor*.

MERCHANTABLE. Any ſort of goods that are in ſuch a condition as the market will vend; faſhionable, in good order, and fit for uſe.

MERCHANT-*man*, among ſeamen, is a ſhip fitted out not only with the neceſſaries for a voyage, but with commodities for trade, to which it is peculiarly appropriated, and ſo has ſeldom more hands than what are ſufficient to work the ſhip, or conduct it through its voyage, without regard to fighting or defence; unleſs in dangerous places, or in times of war, where convoys are not to be procured,

MERCURY, denotes a fluid mineral matter, perfectly reſembling ſilver in fuſion.

The chief mines of mercury are thoſe of Hungary, Spain, Italy, and Peru. The greateſt part of our quick-ſilver is brought us from Friuli in Italy, where there are abundance of mines belonging to the emperor, tho' now mortgaged to the Dutch. It is found under three ſeveral forms; 1ſt, in ruddy glebes or clods called cinnabar; 2d, in hard ſtony glebes, or a mineral ſubſtance of a ſaffron, and ſometimes a blackiſh colour; 3d, it is alſo found pure: for upon opening holes in the beds of ſtones, &c. there ſometimes guſhes a vein or ſtream of pure mercury, called virgin mercury. This laſt ſort is moſt valued: Paracelſus, and Baſil Valentine, prefer it far to any other ſort, for chemical preparations. Dr. Brown aſſures us in his travels, that enquiring of one of the directors of the quick-ſilver mines, wherein the difference between this and common mercury conſiſted, he was anſwered, that virgin mercury, mixed and amalgamated with gold, renders the ſulphur of the gold volatile: but this has been ſeveral times tried without ſucceſs.

The uſes of mercury are very conſiderable in gilding, making looking-glaſſes, refining gold, but eſpecially in medicine.

Mercury ſhould be choſen white, fluid, clean, quick, and of a beautiful water colour; if, on the contrary, the colour is brown and leady, if it ſticks to the hands, if it runs in minute globules, it is a ſign that it is not pure, that there is ſome mixture of lead, and conſequently that it is good for nothing.

Mercury is ſold at Amſterdam for about 34 s. ſterl. *per* lb. and is weighed with the bags which hold it, without any allowance for deduction.

MERK. A river of the Auſtrian Netherlands, which riſes in the province of Brabant, and running north by Breda, afterwards turns weſt, and falls into the ſea, oppoſite to the iſland of Overflakee in Holland.

MERIDIAN, in geography, is a great circle paſſing thro' the poles of the earth. Hence, 1ſt, as the meridian inveſts the whole earth, there are ſeveral places ſituated under the ſame meridian. 2d, As it is noon tide whenever the center of the ſun is in the meridian of the heavens, and as the meridian of the earth is in the plane of the former, it follows that it is noon, at the ſame time, in all places ſituated under the ſame meridian. 3d, There are as many meridians on the earth, as there are points conceived in the equator. In effect the meridians always change as you change the longitude of the place, and

may be ſaid to be infinite: each ſeveral place from eaſt to weſt having its reſpective meridian.

Firſt MERIDIAN is that from which the reſt are accounted, reckoning from weſt to eaſt. The firſt meridian is the beginning of longitude. See *Longitude*.

The fixing of a firſt meridian is a matter merely arbitrary; and hence different perſons, nations, and ages, have fixed it differently; whence ſome confuſion has aroſe in geography. The rule among the ancients was to make it paſs thro' the place fartheſt to the weſt that was known; but the moderns knowing, that there is no ſuch place in the earth as can be eſteemed the moſt weſterly, the way of computing the longitudes of places from one fixed point is much laid aſide.

Ptolemy aſſumed the meridian that paſſes thro' the fartheſt of the Canary iſlands as his firſt meridian; that being the moſt weſtern place of the world then known. After him, as more countries were diſcovered in that quarter, the firſt meridian was removed farther off. Some fixed it to the iſland of St. Nicholas, near Cape Verd: Houdius to the iſle of St. James; and others to the iſland of Del Corvo, one of the Azores. The lateſt geographers, particularly the Dutch, have pitched on the pike of Teneriff; others on the iſle of Palm, another of the Canaries; and laſtly the French, by command of their King, on the iſland of Fero, another of the Canaries.

But, without much regard to any of theſe rules, geographers frequently aſſume the meridian of the place where they live, or the capital of their country, for a firſt meridian, and thence reckon the longitudes of their places.

Aſtronomers in their calculations uſually chuſe the meridian of the place where their obſervations are made, for their firſt meridian; as Ptolemy at Alexandria; Tycho Brahe at Uraniburg; Riccioli at Bologna; Mr. Flamſted at the royal obſervatory at Greenwich; and the French at the obſervatory at Paris.

In the *Philoſophical Tranſactions* there is a ſuggeſtion, that the meridians vary in time. This ſeems very probable, from the old meridian line in the church of St. Petronio at Bologna, which is found to vary no leſs than eight degrees from the true meridian of the place at this time, and from that of Tycho at Uraniburg, which M. Picart obſerves, varies 18 minutes from the modern meridian. If there is any thing of truth in this hint, Dr. Wallis ſays, the change muſt ariſe from a change of the terreſtrial poles, here on earth, of the earth's diurnal motion, not of their pointing to this or that of the fixt ſtars; for if the poles of the diurnal motion remain fixed to the ſame place on the earth, the meridians which paſs thro' theſe poles muſt remain the ſame.

But the notion of the changes of the meridian ſeems overthrown by an obſervation of M. Chazelles, of the French academy of ſciences, who, when in Egypt, found that the four ſides of a pyramid built 3000 years ago, ſtill looked very exactly to the four cardinal points. A poſition which can never be looked upon as fortuitous.

Magnetical MERIDIAN is a great circle paſſing thro' or by the magnetical poles; to which the magnetic needle, or needle of the mariners compaſs, if not otherwiſe hindered, conforms itſelf. See *Magnet* and *Compaſs*.

MERIDIONAL *diſtance*, in navigation, the ſame with departure, or eaſting and weſting; being the difference of longitude between the meridian, under which the ſhip now is, and any other meridian ſhe was under before. See *Longitude*

MERIDIONAL *parts*, *miles*, or *minutes*, in navigation, are the parts by which the meridians in Mercator's chart increaſe, as the parallels of latitude decreaſe. See *Chart*.

The co-ſine of the latitude of any place being equal to the radius, or ſemi-diameter of that parallel, therefore in the true ſea-chart, or nautical planiſphere, this radius being the radius of the equinoctial, or whole line of 90 degrees, the meridional parts at each degree of latitude muſt increaſe as the ſecants of the arch contained between that latitude and the equinoctial decreaſe.

The tables therefore of meridional parts in books of navigation, are made by a continual addition of ſecants, calculated in ſome books for every degree and minute of latitude; and theſe will ſerve, either to make or graduate a Mercator's chart, or to work the Mercator's ſailing.

To uſe them you muſt enter the table, with the degree of latitude at the head, and with the minute on the firſt column towards the left hand; and in the angle of meeting, you will have the meridional parts.

Having the latitudes of two places, to find the meridional miles or minutes between them: conſider whether the places be, one under the equinoctial, and the other wide thereof; or the one on the one ſide the equinoctial, and the other on the other; or whether they both lie on the ſame ſide.

If one place lies under the equator, the meridional minutes next under the degree of latitude of the other place is the meridional difference of latitude, or latitude enlarged.

If one be in north, and the other in ſouth latitude, the meridional minutes correſponding to the ſecond latitude added together, give the meridional minutes between them.

Both places lying towards the ſame pole; ſubtract the meridional parts anſwering to the leſs latitude from thoſe of the greater, the remainder gives the meridional minutes.

MERIGAL. A kind of gold coin current at Sofalo, and Monomotapa, in Africa; worth about 18 s. ſterling.

MERSEY. A river which empties itſelf into the ſea at Liverpool in Lancaſhire.

MERUE. The north branch of the river Maes, near its mouth, on which the city of Rotterdam in Holland is ſituated.

MESANIO. A ſort of coral, brought by Europeans to the Levant.

MESCAL. A ſmall Perſian weight, about the 100th part of 1 lb. avoirdupoiſe weight; 600 meſcals making the batman of Tauris, which weighs 5 lb. 14 oz. See *Batman*.

MESEEN. A port-town of Ruſſia, ſituated on the coaſt of the White ſea, in 46 deg. of E. lon. and 66 deg. N. lat.

MESSALINES. A linen manufactured in Egypt, ſold at Cairo and Alexandria.

MESSETERIA, or *Meſſetena*. A duty of entry paid at Conſtantinople for the merchandiſes that arrive there, particularly furs, and coffee; which duty was eſtabliſhed for the Sultana Valida, or Queen mother.

MESSIEURS. A French title of honour and civility, now frequently made uſe of in England for perſons trading in partnerſhip, whether merchants, bankers, or tradeſmen.

MESSINA. A city and port-town of Sicily, ſituated on the ſtraight, or Pharo of Meſſina, in 15 deg. 40 min. E. lon. and 38 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

MESS-MATE, on board of a ſhip, one that aſſociates with another in eating.

METAL. A ſimple, ponderous, ſhining, fixt, foſſil body that fuſes, and becomes fluid, by fire, and by cold coagulates and hardens into a ſolid maſs, capable of being diſtended under the hammer.

Thoſe who hold preciſely to this definition of metals allow but of ſix, as gold, ſilver, lead, tin, iron, and copper. But chemiſts, perſons who uſually wrap up all things in myſtery, and who would fain have the number of metals ſquare with that of the planets, add thereto quickſilver for a ſeventh, though neither hard nor ductile; thus according to them gold anſwers to the ſun, ſilver to the moon, lead to Saturn, tin to Jupiter, iron to Mars, copper to Venus, and quickſilver to Mercury.

Proportion of the weights of metals among themſelves.

	Ounces.	Drachms.
A cubic inch of gold weighs	12	2
Of mercury - -	8	6
Of lead - -	7	3
Of ſilver - -	6	5
Of copper - -	5	6
Of iron - -	5	1
Of tin - -	4	6

By the proportion of theſe weights, that of their bulk or volume may be calculated.

Biſmuth is a kind of metal, or half metal, diſcovered first in Bohemia; and, as it is pretended, is a medium between lead and tin.

The regulus of antimony and ſputer paſs alſo for half metals.

th METAL, called alſo *Princes Metal*, is a kind of factitious metal, compoſed of the fineſt and pureſt braſs mixed with tin, or rather with ſome mineral as zink, whereby it becomes more diſpoſed to receive a poliſh, luſtre, &c. as alſo fitter to be gilt. It is ſaid to have been invented by Prince Rupert, from whom it receives its name. See *Zink*.

ll-METAL is a compoſition of copper and tin melted together. See *Bell*.

The ordinary proportion is 22 or 23 pounds of tin to 100 weight of copper. Some add lead and braſs to the compoſition. See *Braſs*. See likewiſe the nature, characters, production, uſes, &c. of all metals under their proper articles.

By acts paſſed in the 28th of Edw. III. 33d Hen. VIII. 2d and 3d Edw. VI. 5th and 6th Will. and Mary, 9th and 10th Wil. III. 12th Anne, and 13th Geo. I. braſs, copper, latten, bell metal, or ſhruff metal, clean or mixed, except tin, lead, and foreign copper in bars, and alſo except iron, copper, or mundick metal of Britiſh ore, may not be exported, upon forfeiture of double the value, and 10 l. for every 1000 lb.

By an act of 2d and 3d Edward VI. metal is not to be laden coaſtwiſe in any port, or creek, where the cuſtomer or his deputy are not reſident, on forfeiture thereof, and 10 l. for every 1000 lb. Carried coaſtwiſe, if bond be taken without date, the cuſtomer and comptroller forfeit their office, and the value of the metal; and the cuſtomer or ſearcher knowingly ſuffering the ſame to be ſhipped, and not ſeizing it, forfeit office, and the value; as alſo maſters, owners, &c. of ſhips, willingly permitting the illegal ſhipping, or not diſcloſing it within three days to the cuſtomer, or comptroller of the port, are to forfeit double the value.

ETALIC, or *Metaline*, an adjective applied to ſome thing that bears a relation to metals.

Painting in enamel is performed with metallic colours, that is, with ſuch as come from metals, or are made with metals; no other being able to endure fire.

ETALLURGIA. The art of metals, that is, of preparing and working metals, from the glebe or mineral to the utenſil.

The metallurgia includes what relates to the finding of the metalic glebe, or ore in the mine, the judging of its kind, richneſs, and the proportion of metal therein; the digging and ſeparating it from the earth, and other matters, and the purifying and diſpoſing it into a compleat, pure, malleable metal. See *Mine*.

Boerhaave divides metallurgia into four parts. The firſt teaches how metals grow in the mine, how they are diſcovered, and how procured out of the ſame. The ſecond how to ſeparate the metalic, from the other matter of the ore. The third, how to reduce the ſeparated matter to its ſimplicity and ductility. The fourth, to work, gild, poliſh, and imitate the finer metals in the coarſer.

ETECAL. A kind of gold ducat ſtruck at Morocco, and in ſome other towns of that empire, worth about 1s. 9d. ſterling.

ETEDORS. A Spaniſh term, particularly in uſe at Cadiz, where it ſignifies certain adventurers, who favour the exportation of the ſilver bars which the Engliſh merchants are obliged to land there, on the arrival of the galeons and flota.

Theſe metedors are generally the younger ſons of good families, who have no fortune, and who, for one *per cent.* of all the effects they ſave for merchants, expoſe themſelves to the riſques, which may accompany this contraband trade.

ETHEGLIN. A drink prepared of honey; one of the moſt pleaſant and general drinks the northern parts of Europe afford, and much uſed among the ancient inhabitants. See *Mead*.

There are divers ways of making it, one of the beſtwhereof follows. Put as much live honey naturally running from the comb, into ſpring water, as that when the honey is thoroughly diſſolved, an egg will not ſink to the bottom, but be juſt ſuſpended in it. This liquor boil for an hour or more, till ſuch time as the egg ſwim above the liquor about the breadth of a groat; when very cool, next morning, it may be barreled up; adding to each 15 gallons an ounce of ginger, as much of mace and of cloves, and half as much cinnamon, all groſly pounded: a ſpoonful of yeſt may be alſo added at the bung-hole, to promote the fermenting. When it has done working, it may be cloſely ſtopped up, and after it has ſtood a month, may be drawn off into bottles.

METKAL, or *Mitkal*. A weight uſed by the Arabs, 12 of which make 1 ounce.

METRICOL. A ſmall weight, the ſixth part of an ounce, uſed by Portugueſe druggiſts in the Eaſt Indies. Under the metricol is the metricoli, which weighs but the eighth part of an ounce.

MEXICO. See *Spaniſh* America.

MICONA. One of the iſlands of the Turkiſh archipelago. See *Turkiſh* iſlands.

MIDDLE *latitude*, in navigation, is half the ſum of two given latitudes.

MIDDLE *latitude ſailing*, is uſed for a method of working the ſeveral caſes in ſailing, nearly agreeing with Mercator's way, but without the help of meridional parts.

MIDDLEBURG. The capital of the province of Zealand in the United Provinces, ſituated in 3 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 33 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

MIDDLEFAR. A Daniſh town on the iſland of Funen. See *Denmark*.

MIDSHIP-*men*, are officers aboard a ſhip, whoſe ſtation, when they are on duty, is, ſome on the quarter-deck, others on the poop, and in other parts; their buſineſs being to mind the braces, to look out, and to give about the word of command from the captain, and other ſuperior officers: but they alſo aſſiſt on occaſion both in ſailing the ſhip, and in ſtowing and rumaging the hold; though they are uſually gentlemen, who, having ſerved their time as volunteers, are upon their preferment.

MILAN *dutchy*. See *Italy*.

MILAZZO. A port-town of Sicily, ſituated on a promontory of the Mediterranean, in 15 deg. 5 min. of E. lon. and 38 deg. 36 min. of N. lat.

MILE. A long meaſure, whereby the Engliſh, Italians, and other nations, uſe to expreſs the diſtance between places: in which ſenſe mile amounts to much the ſame with league uſed by the French and other nations for the like purpoſe. See *League*.

The mile is of different extent in different countries: the geographical or Italian mile contains 1000 geometrical paces, *mille paſſus*, whence the term milo is derived.

The Engliſh mile conſiſts of eight furlongs, each furlong of 40 poles, and each pole of 16 feet one half.

Caſimir has made a curious reduction of the miles, or leagues, of the ſeveral countries in Europe into Roman feet, which are equal to Rhinland feet, generally uſed throughout the north.

	Feet.
The mile of Italy	5000
of England	5454
of Scotland	6000
of Sweden	30000
of Muſcovy	3750
of Lithuania	18500
of Poland	19850
of Germany, the ſmall	20000
The middle	22500
The largeſt	25000
of France	15750
of Spain	21270
of Burgundy	18000
of Flanders	20000
of Holland	24000
of Perſia, called alſo Paraſanga	18750
of Egypt	25000

MILFORD-HAVEN, is ſituated on a bay of the Iriſh ſea, in the S. W. part of Pembrokeſhire in Wales, at the north entrance of Briſtol channel, and eſteemed one of the moſt ſecure and commodious harbours in Europe; having

having 13 roads, 5 bays, and 16 creeks, all known by ſeveral diſtinct names.

MILL, is applied to all machines whoſe action depends on a circular motion: of which there are various kinds, acquiring different names, according to the different manners in which the moving power is applied: however, they may all be reduced to three; namely, wind-mills, water-mills, and hand-mills; under which laſt are alſo comprehended all thoſe worked by horſes, or other animals.

Water-MILLS, are thoſe turned by the force or fall of a river or brook; of which there are two kinds; thoſe, where the force of the water is applied above the wheel, called over-ſhot mills; and thoſe, where it is applied below the wheel, called under-ſhot mills.

Wind-MILLS, are thoſe turned by the force of wind gathered in their ſails: of theſe ſome are called vertical, others horizontal, according to the poſition of the ſails; or rather according to the direction of their motion, with regard to the horizon.

Portative, or *Hand*-MILLS, are thoſe kept in motion by the hand; or whoſe mill-ſtones are turned, or piſtons driven, by the force of horſes or other beaſts.

The uſe of mills and mill-ſtones, according to Pauſanias, was firſt invented by Myla, ſon of Meleges, the firſt King of Sparta: tho' Pliny attributes the invention of every thing belonging to bread and baking to Ceres. Polydore Virgil was not able to diſcover the author of this uſeful machine; and it is doubted whether or no water-mills were known to the Romans; there being no mention made in the Digeſt but of mills turned by ſlaves and aſſes. Salmaſius and Gothofred, however, will not allow water-mills to be unknown to the ancient Romans, tho' they were not in ordinary uſe. Wind-mills are of a much more modern invention; the firſt model of which was brought from Aſia into Europe, in the time of the holy wars.

MILL is alſo uſed for any machine which, being moved by ſome external force, ſerves to give a violent impreſſion to things applied thereto. In this ſenſe they are machines of vaſt uſe in the manufactures, arts, and trades, for the making and preparing various kinds of merchandiſes, of which the principal are thoſe that follow.

Fulling-MILL, is a water-mill which raiſes and beats down large wooden piſtons in proper veſſels, called peels, or troughs, in order to full, cleanſe, and ſcour woollen ſtuffs. See *Fulling*.

Linen-MILLS, are not much different from fulling-mills; their uſe being to ſcour linens, after having been firſt cleanſed, and taken out of the lixivium or lye. See *Bleaching*. Some of theſe go by water, but the generality by horſes.

Paper-MILL, is a water-mill furniſhed with ſeveral large hammers, which beat, or pound the rags, in a kind of wooden trough; and thus, by reducing them to little pieces, turn them into a ſort of pulp, by means of water conveyed into the troughs by a pipe for that purpoſe. See *Paper*.

MILL, in coinage, is a machine uſed to prepare the laminæ, or plates of metal, to give them the proper thickneſs, hardneſs, and conſiſtence, before they are ſtruck or ſtamped. This machine has not been long known in England, but is of ſome ſtanding in Germany, and conſiſts of ſeveral wheels, indented like thoſe of clocks, which move two cylinders of ſteel, between which the metal is paſſed, to be brought to its proper thickneſs; this machine was firſt turned by water, ſince by horſes.

MILL, among gold wire-drawers, is a little machine conſiſting of two cylinders of ſteel, ſerving to flatten the gold, or ſilver wire, and reduce it into laminæ, or plates. See *Gold wire*.

They have alſo mills to wind the gold-wire, or thread, upon ſilk, compoſed of ſeveral rows of bobbins all turned at the ſame time.

Forge-MILLS, turned by water, ſerve to raiſe, and let fall one or more large hammers, to beat and form the iron into bars, anchors, or other maſſive works.

Gun powder-MILLS, are thoſe uſed to pound, and beat together the ingredients, of which gun-powder is made. See *Gun-powder*.

This is done in a ſort of iron or braſs mortar, by means of iron peſtles worked by a wheel, without ſide the mill, turned by the water falling on it.

Leather-MILLS, are uſed to ſcour, and prepare with oil, the ſkins of ſtags, buffaloes, elks, and bullocks, to make what we call buff-leather, for the uſe of military men. This is effected by means of ſeveral large piſtons, riſing and falling on the ſkins, in large wooden troughs, by means of a wheel on the outſide, turned by the force of water.

Oil-MILLS, whether turned by water, men, hand, or horſes, ſerve to bruiſe, or break the nuts, olives, and other fruits, or grains, whoſe juice is to be drawn by expreſſion, to make oil.

Sawing-MILLS, are water-mills ſerving to ſaw ſeveral planks or boards, at the ſame time; which are frequent in France, eſpecially in Dauphiné. They were lately prohibited in England, where they were begun to be introduced, from a view to ruin the ſawyers, which muſt have enſued.

Silk-MILLS, for ſpinning, throwing, and twiſting ſilks, are large round machines in form of turrets, five or ſix feet high, and ſix yards in diameter; which being turned either by the force of water, or that of men, work, at the ſame time, an infinity of bobbins faſtened thereto, whereon the ſilk had been wound to be here ſpun, and twiſted. There are abundance of mills of this kind in France, eſpecially about Lyons and Tours; ſome of which are ſo diſpoſed, as that three of them will go at the ſame time, and by one wheel, worked by water, or by hand. That in the Hoſpital de la Charité at Lyons, is wonderful indeed, a ſingle man working no leſs than forty-eight of theſe mills.

Stamping-MILL, or *Knocking Mill*, is an engine in tin works to bruiſe the ores ſmall.

Sugar-MILL, is a machine that ſerves to bruiſe the ſugar canes, and expreſs the liquor or juice contained therein. The ſugar mills are very curious contrivances; of which there are four kinds, being turned by water, wind, men, or horſes. Thoſe turned by the hand were firſt in uſe, but are now laid aſide, as being an intolerable hardſhip among the poor negroes, who were doomed thereto; beſides the ſlowneſs of their progreſs.

Wind mills are the moſt modern, tho' as yet ſomewhat rare, except in St. Chriſtophers and Barbadoes, and among the Portugueſe. Theſe make good diſpatch, but have one inconvenience, which is, that they are not eaſily ſtopped; which often proves fatal to the negroes that feed them.

Tan, or *Bark*-MILLS, worked by water, or horſes, ſerve to cut certain barks into a coarſe ſort of powder, proper for the tanning of the hides of beaſts.

MILLS, for ſword-blades, are alſo moved by water, and are frequent at Vienne in Dauphiny. By working heavy hammers, they forge thoſe excellent blades called blades of Vienne.

MILLENER. A perſon who trades principally in women's toys, and attire, ſuch as head-cloths, ribbands, necklaces, gloves, and the like. See *Haberdaſhers* company.

MILLEPEDES, *Wood lice*. A ſort of little inſects, with a multitude of feet, uſually of a dark colour, and which when touched roul up into a ball; being of conſiderable uſe in diſorders of the reins, obſtructions of the viſcera, and particularly in the jaundice.

There are ſeveral chemical preparations of millepedes, ſpirit, volatile ſalt, oil, and wine of millepedes.

MILLET. A ſmall and numerous ſeed in the pod, which it is produced, uſed like rice for puddings and bread.

MILLING. See *Fulling*.

MILLION. The number of ten hundred thouſand, or a thouſand times a thouſand.

The revenues of princes are now only computed in millions. A million of gold, or million of money, is ſometimes underſtood of a million of pounds, and ſometimes a million of crowns.

MILLONES, is a ſubſidy in Spain, which commenced in the year 1601, by a grant of the kingdom, upon wine, fleſh, oil, tallow, candles, and ſoap.

MILL-REE, or *Mille-ray*, a Portugueſe gold coin, current for ſomewhat more than the Spaniſh piſtole, or about 16 ſterling.

The mill ree is thus called as conſiſting of 1000 rees: it is alſo called a St. Stephen, from the figure of that martyr impreſſed thereon.

They have alſo a mill-ree of the little croſs, which in reality is only half the former; and whoſe value is that chiefly uſed in computations.

MINDANAO. The largeſt of the Philippine iſlands, ſituated between 120 and 126 deg. of E. lon. and 5 deg. 10 min. of N. lat. See *Philippine* iſlands.

MINDORA. One of the Philippine iſlands, lying S. W. of the iſland of Lyconia, and ſubject to the Spaniards. See *Philippine* iſlands.

MINE. A place under ground, where metals, minerals, or even precious ſtones are dug up.

The matter dug out of mines being various, the mines themſelves muſt acquire various denominations; as gold-mines, ſilver-mines, copper-mines, iron mines, diamond-mines, ſalt-mines; mines of antimony, of alum, and others.

For gold and ſilver mines, the richeſt and moſt celebrated are thoſe of Peru and Chili in America. Iron-mines are more abundant in Sweden than elſewhere. Copper mines are chiefly in Sweden and Denmark. Lead and tin mines abound moſt in England: quick-ſilver mines in Hungary and Spain, diamond mines in Golconda, and ſalt-mines in Poland.

The Engliſh, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, having but little knowledge in the diſcovering and working of mines, the Queen, by the advice of her council, ſent for many Germans experienced in ſuch works, and thoſe of ſmelting and refining of minerals; who, on their arrival, were no ſooner naturalized, than the Queen, by her letters-patent of the 10th of October 1564, granted to Thomas Thurland and Daniel Houghſetter, and their heirs for ever, licence to ſearch for gold, ſilver, copper, and quickſilver, in the ſeveral counties of York, Lancaſter, Cumberland, Weſtmorland, Cornwal, Devon, Glouceſter, and Worceſter, and the principality of Wales, for their ſole uſe and profit; other than that her Majeſty reſerved to herſelf the tenths of all gold, ſilver, and quick-ſilver ores, and the re-emption of refined gold and ſilver, the former at 8 d. and the latter at 1 d. *per* ounce, lower then the current price of the ſaid metals; and 2 s. 6 d. for every hundred weight of copper.

Thurland and Houghſetter having, by virtue of the powers granted them, ſold divers parts, or ſhares, of their ſaid privileges, they were, with the purchaſers, by letters-patent, bearing date the 28th of May 1568, incorporated by the ſtile of governors, aſſiſtants, and commonalty of the mines royal. The ſhares of this company at firſt conſiſted of twenty-four; which have ſince been increaſed to ninety-ſix.

MINE, is alſo a corn meaſure uſed in France, conſiſting of 6 buſhels.

MINEHEAD. A port-town of Somerſetſhire, ſituated on the Briſtol channel, in 3 deg. 40 min. of W. lon. and 51 deg. 18 min. of N. lat.

MINERAL, is ſometimes uſed in general for *foſſil*, and applied to any body ſimple or compound, dug out of a ſubterraneous place or mine; from which it takes the denomination. In this ſenſe metals, ſulphurs, foſſil ſalts, ſemi-metals, &c. are minerals, which are divided into two claſſes; the one fuſible and malleable, properly called metals; the other deſtitute of theſe properties, and therefore in a ſtrict ſenſe called minerals.

Some divide minerals into ſimple and compound: to the firſt belong ſtones, ſalts, as alum, nitre, &c. inflamable minerals, as ſulphur and bitumen; and metals, as gold, &c.

Other more accurate writers, reſtrain the word mineral to what is otherwiſe called ſemi-metal; and, in this laſt ſenſe,

MINERAL may be defined a compound foſſil, wherein there is ſomething diſcovered, in all reſpects like metal, only that it is not malleable, joined, or compounded with ſome other foſſil, as ſalt, ſulphur, ſtone, or earth. Such are antimony, cinnabar, biſmuth, calaminaris, vitriol, pyrites, marcaſites, cobalt, oker, the magnet, lapis hæmatitis, armenus, cryſtal mineral, and ſtellatus. See each under its proper article.

MINERAL *Agaric*. See *Agaric*.

MINERAL *Waters*, are thoſe which, at their ſpringing forth from under ground, are found impregnated with ſome mineral matter; as ſalt, ſulphur, vitriol; ſuch are hot baths, ſpaws, and purging ſprings.

MINGLE. A Dutch liquid meaſure, which in general weighs about 2 lb. 4 oz. avoirdupoiſe.

MINGRELIA. See *Perſia*.

MINHO. A great river of Spain, which riſes in the N. E. of the province of Galicia, and running S. W. thro' that principality, paſſes by Lugo, Ortenſe, and Tay; then dividing Galicia from Portugal, falls into the Atlantic ocean at Caminha, to the northward of Viana.

MINIUM. A mineral colour, called alſo red lead, being a preparation of lead performed by fire: which is uſed by painters, and illuminers: it is alſo an ingredient in an officinal compoſition, called *Emplaſtrum de Minio*, uſed as a deſiccative and cicatrizer. See *Vermillion*.

MINORCA, is an iſland in the Mediterranean ſea, about 60 leagues to the ſouthward of the coaſt of Catalonia in Spain. In its neighbourhood are Majorca, Yvica, and Formentera, which, together with this, conſtituted the ancient kingdom of Majorca. The lat. of Port-mahon is 39 deg. 40 min. north. Minorca is upwards of 33 m. long, and varies in breadth from 10 to 13 miles and more; ſo that it is nearly of the ſame bigneſs as the iſle of Wight, and is divided into four terminos; the termino of Mahon, the termino of Alaior, the united terminos of Mercadel and Fererias, and the termino of Guidadella. Theſe four terminos, of which that of Mahon is by far the moſt conſiderable, contain in all about 27,000 inhabitants. Their chief towns are thoſe from which the ſeveral terminos take their denomination.

The ſituation of Gibraltar and Port-Mahon are extremely commodious for vending ſeveral ſorts of commodities in Spain and Barbary; and the iſland of Minorca is no leſs happily ſituated, for carrying on an advantageous commerce with ſome parts of France and Italy; as it is by means of the neighbouring iſland of Majorca with Spain. Several ſorts of coarſe woollen ſtuffs, and Mancheſter goods, would be acceptable in Barbary, provided they could be had reaſonably cheap; which can never be, till they are all made free ports. Several ſorts of the manufactures of Mancheſter and Spittlefields would be very agreeable to the taſte of the Spaniards, French, and Italians: but above all Birmingham ware, cutlery, razors, and ſciſſars, watches and chains, locks, metal buttons, ſnuff-boxes, toys, and all the *Bijoux d' Angleterre*, as the French call them, which they are inexpreſſibly fond of, would find a prodigious vent in all theſe countries. The leaſt account of the whole trade, that might be carried on by means of theſe ports, were they made free, would be 100,000 l. *per anuum*, and ſurely ſuch a ſum is worth the getting, eſpecially by a nation 80,000,000 l. in debt.

If a ſcheme of this kind was to take place in the iſland of Minorca, it would then alſo ſtand a fair chance to be peopled by Engliſh families, or by ſuch as are well affected to the Engliſh government; whereas, at preſent, there are ſcarce any, except the garriſon, but biggotted Spaniards, who at the firſt taking of the place, would be glad to have parted with their poſſeſſions for a trifle, and to have retired into Spain. But now they are got immenſely rich, and their lands are ſaid to be more than five times their former value; yet their bigottry and averſion continue as ſtrong as ever. See *Gibraltar*.

MINOT. A French dry meaſure, containing three buſhels.

MINT. The place where the King's money is coined, which is at preſent in the Tower of London; though formerly there were mints in moſt cities of England.

Officers of the MINT, are, 1. The warden, who is the chief, and is to receive the bullion, and over-ſee all the other officers. 2. The maſter-worker, who receives the bullion from the warden, cauſes it to be melted, and delivered to the moneyers, and takes it from them again when coined. 3. Comptroller, who is to ſee that the

money be made to the juſt aſſize, and to overſee the officers. 4. The aſſay-maſter, who weighs the ſilver and gold, and ſees whether it be ſtandard. 5. The auditor, who takes all the accounts. 6. The ſurveyor of the melting, who is to ſee the ſilver caſt out, and that it be not altered after it is delivered to the melter, that is, after the aſſay-maſter has made trial of it. 7. The clerk of the irons, who is to ſee that the iron be clean and fit to work with. 8. The graver, who engraves the dies and ſtamps for the coinage of the money. 9. The melters, who melt the bullion before it comes to coining. 10. The blanchers, who anneal, or boil and cleanſe the money. 11. The porters, who keep the gate of the mint. 12. The provoſt of the mint, who provides for all the moneyers, and overſees them. And, laſtly, the moneyers, ſome whereof ſhear the money, ſome forge it, ſome ſtamp or coin it, and ſome round and mill it. See *Coinage*.

MIRZEOU. A town of India. See *India*.

MISACOMBY. An iſland in the Indian ocean. See *Celebes*.

MISSEIT. A drug for dying; which grows, and is cultivated in Arabia; being brought to Surat by the return of the ſhips which the Mogul's ſubjects ſend every year to Aden. The Europeans buy up but little of it; becauſe it is almoſt all conſumed at Surat, and in other parts of Guzarat, where it is employed for the printing and painting of cotton cloths.

MISSELTOE. See *Miſtletoe*.

MISSEN-*maſt*, or *Mizzen-maſt*, of a ſhip, is a maſt, or round long piece of timber, ſtanding upright in the ſternmoſt part.

MISSEN-*ſail*, is that belonging to the miſſen-yard. When at ſea they uſe the word *miſſen* alone, they always mean the ſail, and not the maſt.

Some great ſhips require two miſſens; in which caſe, that next the main-maſt is called the *main-miſſen*, and that next the poop the *bonaventure miſſen*.

Change the miſſen, is to bring the miſſen-yard over to the other ſide of the maſt.

Peek the miſſen, is to put the miſſen right up and down the maſt.

Spell the miſſen, is to let go the ſheet, and peek it up.

MISSISSIPI. A country of North America; ſo called from a river of the ſame name, which riſes in Canada, and runs ſouthward above 2000 miles, till it falls into the gulph of Mexico. See *French* America.

MISSISIPI *Company*. See French *Weſt* India companies.

MISSITAVIA. A duty of entry paid at Conſtantinople by Chriſtian ſhips, for which they are exempted from the duties of exportation.

MISTLETOE. A plant of the paraſite kind; growing not on the ground, but on other trees, as the oak, apple-tree, pear-tree, white thorn, aſh, lime, willow, elm, &c.

Miſtletoe, by phyſicians, &c. called *viſcus*, grows to the height of about two feet, conſiſting of ſeveral ſtems, uſually covered with a greeniſh, ſometimes a yellowiſh bark, about a finger's thickneſs; hard, woody, and divided by knots, whence ſpring the leaves; which lie two and two oppoſite to each other; oblong, thick, of a greeniſh or yellowiſh colour, veined their whole length, and rounded at the end. Its flowers grow by three and three, trefoil-wiſe, at the extremes of the branches; each flower being a yellow calyx, one third of an inch in diameter, divided into four parts.

The fruit likewiſe grows by three and three, at the extremes of the branches: they are a kind of white oval berries, not unlike little pearls, filled with a flattiſh ſeed in form of a heart, covered with a fine ſilvered membrane, and encloſed by a viſcid, glutinous humour, of a whitiſh colour, wherein the ſeed naturally buds or germinates, and puts forth two eyes. From this juice it is that the Latins denominate the plant *viſcus*; but the fruit grows on different branches from the flowers.

For the virtues of miſtletoe, it ſeems of the moſt efficacy in the epilepſy; againſt which ſome will have it ſpecific. Dr. Colbatch has wrote expreſsly to prove it ſuch. It is alſo preſcribed in apoplexies, lethargies, and vertigos; and wore about the necks of children to prevent convulſions, and eaſe the cutting of their teeth.

The beſt is the miſtletoe of the oak; though it is not this which is commoly uſed, but that of the apple or pear tree.

M. Perrault obſerves, that the miſtletoe is full of a poiſonous juice, which weakens the tree whereon it grows; and that the fruit has always a diſagreeable taſte while it ſticks on.

MISY. A name given by the antients to a kind of vitriolic mineral matter, called now chalcitis. See *Chalcitis*, and *Vitriol*.

MITE. A ſmall coin, formerly current, equal to about one third part of a farthing. See *Money*, and *Coin*.

MITE, alſo denotes a ſmall weight uſed by moneyers, equal to the 20th part of a grain, and divided into 24 doits. See *Weight*.

MITHRIDATE. An antidote, or compoſition, in form of an electuary; ſerving either as a remedy, or a preſervative againſt poiſons. It is one of the capital medicines in apothecaries ſhops, being compoſed of a great number of drugs, as opium, myrrh, agaric, ſaffron, ginger, cinnamon, ſpikenard, frankincenſe, caſtor, pepper, gentian, and others, and accounted a cordial, opiate, ſudorific, and alexipharmic. Matthiolus ſays it is more effectual againſt poiſon than Venice treacle, though eaſier to be made.

It takes its name from its inventor, Mithridates King of Pontus, who is ſaid to have ſo fortified his body againſt poiſons with antidotes and preſervatives, that when he had a mind to diſpatch himſelf, he could not find any poiſon that would take effect. The receipt of it was found in his cabinet, written with his own hand, and was carried to Rome by Pompey. It was tranſlated into verſe by Damocrates, a famous phyſician, and was afterwards tranſlated by Galen, from whom we have it; though there is room to imagine it has undergone conſiderable alteration ſince the time of its royal preſcriber.

MIXTURE, in matters of drapery, denotes the union or blending of ſeveral wools of different colours, not yet ſpun; hence a mixture or mixed ſtuff, is that whoſe woof and warp are of wools of different colours dyed and mixed before they were ſpun.

MOCO, *Mocha*, or *Mocca*. A port town of Arabia Felix, ſituated near the ſtraits of Babelmandel, in 45 deg. of E. lon. and 13 deg. of N. lat. See *Arabia*.

MODENA. See *Italy*.

MODON. A port-town of Turky in Europe, ſituated in the province of Morea, in 21 deg. 30 min. of E lon. and 37 deg. of N. lat.

MOEDA. See *Moidore*.

MOFUMA. A large tree, growing in ſeveral parts of Lower Ethiopia, particularly near rivers, and in marſh grounds; which is a kind of cork, its timber ſerving for the making of canoes: the principal commodity it produces is a ſort of cotton or wool, with which its trunk and branches are entirely covered.

MOGULSTAN, or *Indoſtan*. See *India*.

MOHABUT. A coloured cotton cloth, brought from the Eaſt Indies; the piece being of ſeven ells and a half and 3-4ths breadth.

MOHAIR. The hair, or wool, of an animal, very common in Turky, called a mo, and like the Engliſh ſhag. The hair is uſed for covering buttons, and in other manufactures; particularly it is frequently uſed in making rukes; but it is prohibited to be exported from Turky on pain of death, unleſs it is manufactured in ſtuff, however, under the ſanction of the Muſſulmen and Greek prieſts, it is commonly exported raw.

MOHAIR, is alſo a kind of ſtuff, ordinarily of ſilk, both woof and warp, having its grain wove very cloſe.

There are two kinds of mohair; the one ſmooth and plain, the other watered like tabbies; the difference between the two conſiſting only in this, that the latter is calendered, the other not. There are alſo mohairs, both plain and watered, whoſe woof is woollen, cotton or thread.

The Chineſe mohairs are but very indifferent: thoſe manufactured at Paris are much in eſteem; but thoſe of England are by far better.

MOH

OHILA. One of the Comora iſlands, in the Indian ocean, ſituated in 43 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 12 deg. of S. lat. See *Comora* Iſlands.

OHOC *Country*. One of the five nations of the Iroquois. See *Indian* America.

OIDORE. A Portugueſe gold coin, ſtruck for 4 milrees, and current in England for 27 s.

OIETY. The half of any thing.

OLDAU. See *Muldaw*.

OLOSSES, or *Melaſſes*. That groſs, yet fluid matter, remaining of ſugar, after refining; which no boiling will bring to a conſiſtence more ſolid than that of ſyrup; hence alſo called *ſyrup of ſugar*. See *Sugar*.

Properly, moloſſes are only the ſediment of one kind of ſugar called *chypre*, or brown ſugar, which is the refuſe of other ſugars, not to be whitened, or reduced into loaves. Moloſſes are much uſed in Holland among poor people, for the preparation of tobacco, and inſtead of ſugar.

There is alſo a kind of brandy, or ſpirit, made of moloſſes; but by ſome held exceedingly unwholſome, and therefore diſcouraged. See *Brandy*, and *Spirits*.

e MOLUCCA'S, or *Clove Iſlands*, are ſituated in the Indian ocean, ſouth of the Philippines, in 125 deg. of E. lon. and between 1 deg. ſouth, and 2 deg. of N. lat. comprehending the iſlands of Bachian, Machian, Motyr, Ternate, Tydore, and Amboina.

The Spaniards diſputed their poſſeſſion for ſome time; but, by the treaty of 1520 between the two nations, the Moluccas were ceded to the Portugueſe, who poſſeſſed them till 1601; when the Dutch entirely expelled them theſe iſlands, which they commonly called the ſpice-iſlands, upon account of the nutmeg, ſpice, and cloves, which ſeveral among them produce in abundance, not found in any other part of the world.

The land of the five firſt iſlands is much elevated; each of them conſiſting of one only mountain, beginning from the coaſts, and raiſing its ſummit very high.

They are all very ſmall; Ternate the principal being but ſeven leagues in circumference, Machian about ſix, Motyr only four; Bachian is larger, but half waſte.

The King of Ternate reigned formerly, not only over theſe five iſlands, but alſo over ſeveral others of the Celebes, and others, to the number of 72. His ſubjects were then obliged to bring their ſpice into his capital; where foreign merchants, ſuch as the Javans, Maleſe, Chineſe, and Portugueſe, came to furniſh themſelves.

A little time after the arrival of the Portugueſe in the Eaſt Indies, this great power of the Ternateſe began to be ſhaken; for the inhabitants of Macaſſar, Tydore, and ſeveral other iſlands, having revolted, and entered into a league with each other, marched in a body to attack their King. The Portugueſe, attentive to all that might extend their empire and conqueſts in the Indies, interfered very ſoon in the quarrel; and taking advantage of the preſent ſituation of things, eſtabliſhed themſelves in Ternate, even with the King's conſent, and afterwards by right of conqueſt; as alſo in Tydore, Machian, Amboina, Banda, Timor, and Solor, where they erected forts, and made themſelves maſters of the ſpice-trade.

In 1605, the Dutch appeared at Ternate; when the Ternateſe, tired of the Portugueſe power, received and permitted them to build the fort of Terluco, one of the firſt they had in the Indies.

This change of maſters not having made the Ternateſe ſervitude more eaſy, who to the yoke of the Portugueſe had added that of the Dutch, they ſtrove ſeveral times to ſhake off that of the latter, but always unſucceſsfully, being obliged to make divers treaties in 1609, 1612, and laſtly in 1638; which tending to deprive them of the little liberty they had, excluded ſtrangers entirely from the Moluccas, and aſcertained ſolely to the Dutch all the clove-trade of theſe iſlands.

By this treaty, which reſtored to the King of Ternate all the places the Dutch had poſſeſſed themſelves of in the war of 1638, it was ſtipulated, that all the ſubjects of the King ſhould evacuate Amboina; and that this prince ſhould renounce for ever in favour of the Dutch, all right and title to this iſland.

That no Indian or European trader ſhould be received in his ports, without a paſſport from the governor-general of Batavia; and that thoſe arriving with a paſſport ſhould put in at Amboina, no where but under the fort of the Victory; and at Hitou, Hou, and Cambelles, in the iſland of Ceram, no where but under the redoubts.

That thoſe who ſhould weigh anchor in theſe places might negotiate their merchandiſe; but not take in cloves, under the penalty of confiſcation, and life.

That thoſe who ſhould arrive there without a paſſport ſhould pay the fines regulated by the treaty.

That for hindering a contraband clove trade, it ſhould be in the option of the Dutch to make entrenchments and forts where they ſhould judge proper, and that the Ternateſe ſhould be obliged to work at them.

That the crimes and miſdemeanors of the King's ſubjects ſhould be judged by the Dutch governor at Ternate, as having the principal authority.

That the cloves ſhould not be delivered to any but to the company's factors.

Laſtly, that in caſe of nonperformance of this article, all the countries and inhabitants depending on the King of Ternate ſhould belong to the company; which notwithſtanding reſerved to itſelf the liberty of taking in ſago at Ceram, and other places reſtored to the Ternateſe.

Since this treaty the Dutch have remained abſolutely in poſſeſſion of theſe five iſlands; in which they have ſeveral forts, and ware-houſes for the clove-trade.

The forts of Ternate are three in number, namely, Maloya, or Orange fort, near which the King reſides; Tolucco, called alſo Holland, to the eaſt of the iſland; and Tacomma, which the Dutch call Villemſtad.

The iſland of Machian has likewiſe three, Taffalo, Noſtagnia, and Tabillola.

Motyr has but one fort.

The forts of Bachian are Labora on the coaſt, and Gemmedoura up the country.

Laſtly, the compāny has three forts at Tydore.

All theſe iſlands are ſcarce productive of any thing but cloves; which is almoſt the only trade of the Dutch in theſe parts.

Ternate affords, one year with another, 4 or 500 bars of cloves, and about 1000 in the plentiful ſeaſon, which happens once in ſeven years, each bar belng 550 lb. avoirdupoiſe.

Tydore 300 bars, Motyr only 100, Machian 300, and Bachian about 100; but in plentiful ſeaſons they yield more.

Beſides cloves, ſome tortoiſe-ſhells are brought from Ternate. An abundance of coarſe cottons are imported there, particularly from Guinea; beſides other cotton cloths and handkerchiefs, called tamettes, brought from Bouton; ſeveral ſtuffs, and other European merchandiſe, for the Dutch; and proviſions from Batavia, particularly rice and ſago.

The iſland of *Amboina* is ſituated in 126 deg. of E. lon. and 3 deg. 40 min. of S. lat. 300 miles S. W. of Ternate, and 100 N. W. of the Banda iſlands, being about 70 miles in circumference; and the iſthmus, dividing it into two parts, being very narrow, makes it appear as two iſlands.

When the Portugueſe took poſſeſſion of it in 1517, it belonged to the King of Ternate. The Dutch took it in 1603 or 1605, and kept it only till 1620; but having afterwards retaken it, they have ever ſince kept it; pretending, that beſides the right of conqueſt, it alſo belonged to them by the ceſſion which the King of Ternate made thereof by the treaty of 1638.

Beſides the great iſland of Amboina, there are ſome ſmall ones near it, where the Dutch have planted clove-trees, which grow and produce fruit, as well as at Amboina. Theſe iſlands are Oma, Ulcaſter, Noſslaw, Onima, Maſſalon, Mulana, and Octava, where the company has forts and factories, both for keeping the inhabitants in awe, and for hindering a clandeſtine trade.

The Dutch have three forts at Amboina, namely, the Victory, Hitou, and Low.

The fort of the Victory has four baſtions, and is ſituated two leagues in the bay, defended by 60 pieces of cannon, and a garriſon of 600 men. It is the reſidence of the

governor, and the ſecond of the great governments of the Dutch India company, which keeps there a council of 15 perſons, for regulating the affairs of the iſland, and its commerce, but ſubordinate to the council of Batavia.

When the Dutch made themſelves maſters of this iſland, there were but few clove-trees in it; but they planted ſuch a number there, that it furniſhes alone more than all the other Moluccas.

The greateſt crop is at Hitou, Lohor, Cambell, and Liſſedi; as alſo at Natua, Cayola, Caboar, Lariſque, Vaſqueſia, Ouri, and Aſſelouli, in the ſmall iſlands.

The whole iſland of Amboina is divided into ſeveral villages, and each village has ſeveral orchards, equally cultivated by the Dutch, the Metives, and the iſlanders; each of whom is obliged to plant 10 clove-trees every year; which has extremely multiplied them, and leaves ſcarce any room for the culture of other fruits, legumes, and neceſſaries of life, which are brought from other parts, particularly from Batavia.

Nutmegs have been planted in this iſland, but with little or no ſucceſs.

At Victoria there are large warehouſes always ſtored with ſtuffs, cloths ready made, cotton cloths, and other Indian and European merchandiſe, which the inhabitants furniſh themſelves with according to their wants, and by which the company has conſiderable profits.

The proviſions, ammunition, and merchandiſe, come there from Batavia every year, in two of the company's ſhips, which return entirely laden with cloves; there being ſometimes ſuch an abundance of this ſpice, that they are obliged to be burnt, or caſt into the ſea; and this happens by the treaty of the Dutch with the inhabitants, to take all their cloves at the fixed price.

At Amboina are reckoned upwards of 60,000 inhabitants, including the Dutch, who are much the ſmaller part: ſo that there is a neceſſity of behaving with circumſpection, and of holding great garriſons to keep the natives in reſpect, if they were not duly ſatisfied for their cloves.

The Engliſh had formerly factories and ſettlements in this iſland as well as the Dutch: but the latter, under pretence that the former were concerned in a plot againſt them, fell upon the Engliſh merchants and factors, tortured them by all the cruel methods they could invent, in order to oblige them to confeſs a plot, and then cruelly put them to death, in 1622; ſince which time the Dutch have monopoliſed the fine ſpices, and excluded all the reſt of the world from them.

The Little MOLUCCAS, or the *Iſlands of the Celebes*. See *Celebes*.

MOMBAZA, or *Monbaſa*. A city and iſland on the eaſt coaſt of Africa, ſituated in 48 deg. of E. lon. and 4 deg. of S. lat.

MONA. An iſland of the Baltic, ſituated S. W. of the iſland of Zeland, in 12 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 55 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. ſubject to Denmark.

MONACO. An Italian ſilver coin, worth 1 s. 7½ d. ſterling, and current in the principality of Monaco.

MONACO. A port-town of Italy, in the territory of Genoa, ſituated in 7 deg. 18 min. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 53 min. of N. lat. but ſubject to the prince of Monaco, who is a general in the French ſervice. See *Italy*.

MONDEGO. A river of Portugal, which runs from E. to W. through the province of Beira; and having paſſed by the city of Coimbra, falls into the Atlantic ocean 30 miles below that city.

MONDILO. A corn-meaſure uſed at Palermo; 4 of which make the tomolo, and 16 tomolos the ſalmo, or 7½ buſhels Wincheſter meaſure.

MONEY. A piece of metal marked for coin with the arms of a prince or ſtate, who make it circulate or paſs at a fixed rate, for things of different value, to facilitate the buſineſs of commerce.

Paulus the lawyer defines money, a thing ſtamped with a public coin, and deriving its uſe and value from its impreſſion rather than its ſubſtance.

Monſieur Boizard defines money a piece of matter to which public authority has affixed a certain value and weight, to ſerve as a medium in commerce.

The æra of the invention of money is not eaſy to be ſettled. There is no room to doubt, but that in the earlieſt ages the ordinary way of traffic among men was by trucking or exchanging commodity for commodity. Thus in Homer, the golden armour of Glaucus was valued at 100 cows, and that of Diomedes at ten. See *Exchange*. But, in courſe of time, it was found neceſſary in the way of commutative juſtice, to have ſome common meaſure or ſtandard, according to which all other things ſhould be eſtimated. This, as ſome gather from Joſephus, was firſt invented by Cain; though the firſt we hear of it, is in the time of Abraham, who paid 400 ſhekels for a burying place. On the foot money now ſtands, it may be divided into real or effective, falſe and imaginary.

Real money includes all coins, or ſpecies of gold, ſilver, copper, and the like, which have courſe in commerce, and really exiſt: ſuch are guineas, crowns, piſtoles, pieces of eight, ducats, &c.; which ſee under their proper heads, as alſo under *Coin*.

Real money, civilians obſerve, has three eſſential qualities, as matter, form, and weight or value. For matter, copper is thought to have been firſt coined, afterwards ſilver, and laſtly gold, being the moſt beautiful, ſcarce, cleanly, diviſible, and pure, of all metals.

The degrees of goodneſs are expreſſed in gold by carats, and in ſilver by pennyweights; becauſe there are ſeveral reaſons for not coining them pure and without alloy, as the great loſs and expence in refining them, the neceſſity of hardening them to make them more durable, and the ſcarcity of gold and ſilver in moſt countries. See *Alloy*.

Among the antient Britons, iron rings, or iron plates, were uſed for money; among the Lacedemonians, iron bars, quenched with vinegar, that they might not ſerve for any other uſe. Seneca obſerves, that there was anciently ſtamped money of leather, *corium formâ publicæ impreſſum*. And the ſame thing was put in practice by Frederic II. at the ſiege of Milan; to ſay nothing of an old tradition, that in the confuſed times of the barons wars, the like was done in England: but the Hollanders coined great quantities of paſte-board in the year 157[illegible]. Numa Pompilius made money of wood and leather; nor does it appear that the Romans were much acquainted with the art of ſtriking money in metal during the time of their kings; the firſt ſilver money they coined being in the year of Rome 484, and their firſt gold money in 546. See *Coinage*.

As to the form of money, it has been more various than the matter; under this being comprehended the weight, figure, impreſſion, and value.

For the impreſſion; the Jews, though they deteſted images, yet ſtamped on the one ſide their ſhekel, the golden pot which had the manna, and on the other Aaron's rod; the Dardans, two cocks fighting; Alexander, as is held by ſome, his horſe Bucephalus; though this may be doubted of, in regard the horſe is found frequently on the coins of ſeveral of the Kings of Macedon, his predeceſſors, as on his. The Athenians ſtamped their coins with an owl, or an ox; whence the proverb on bribed lawyers, *Bos in lingua*: the inhabitants of Egina, with a tortoiſe; whence that other ſaying, *Virtutem et ſapientiam vincunt teſtitudines*. For the Romans, the monetarii ſometimes impreſſed the images of men that had been eminent in their families on the coins; but the head of no living perſon was ever ſtamped on a Roman coin till after the fall of the commonwealth: from that time they bore the Emperor's head on one ſide; and hence the practice of ſtamping the prince's image on coins, has obtained among all civilized nations, the Turks and other Mahometans alone excepted; who, in deteſtation of images, inſcribe only the prince's name, with the year of the tranſmigration of their prophet.

As to the figure, it is either round, as in England; multangular or irregular, as in Spain; ſquare, as in ſome parts of the Indies; or nearly globular, as in moſt of the reſt.

After the arrival of the Romans in Britain, the Britons imitated them, coining both gold and ſilver with

images of their kings ſtamped on them: but when the Romans had ſubdued the kings of the Britons, they alſo ſuppreſſed their coins, and brought in their own; which were current from the time of Claudius to that of Valentinian the younger, about the ſpace of 500 years.

Camden obſerves, that the moſt ancient Engliſh coin he had known was that of Ethelbert King of Kent, the firſt Chriſtian King in the iſland; in whoſe time all money-accompts began to paſs by the names of pounds, ſhillings, pence, and mancaſes.

Pence ſeems borrowed from the Latin *pecunia*, or rather from *pendo*, on account of its juſt weight, which was about 3 d. ſterling; theſe being coarſely ſtamped with the King's image on the one ſide, and either the mint-maſter's, or the city's where it was coined, on the other: 5 of theſe pence made their ſcilling, probably ſo called from *ſcilingus*, which the Romans uſed for the 4th part of an ounce: 40 of theſe ſcillings made their pound, and 400 of theſe pounds were a legacy, or a portion for a King's daughter, as appears by the laſt will of King Alfred. See *Penny*.

By theſe names they tranſlated all ſums of money in their old Engliſh Teſtament; talents, by pounds; Judas's 30 pieces of ſilver, by 30 ſcillinga; tribute-money, by penining; and the mite, by feorthling.

It muſt be obſerved they had no real money, but pence only; the reſt being imaginary monies, that is, names of numbers or weights: 30 of theſe pence made a mancus, which ſome take to be the ſame with a mark; manca, as appears by an old MS. being *quinta pars unciæ*. See *Mark*.

Theſe manca's, or mancus's, were reckoned both in gold and ſilver; for, in the year 680, Ina, King of the Weſt Saxons, obliged the Kentiſhmen to buy their peace at the price of 30,000 manca's of gold. In the notes on King Canute's laws, there is this diſtinction, that mancuſa was as much as a mark of ſilver, and manca a ſquare piece of gold, valued at 30 pence.

The Danes introduced a way of reckoning money by ores, *per oras*, mentioned in Domes-day book; but whether they were a ſeveral coin, or a certain ſum, does not plainly appear. This, however, may be gathered from the abbey book of Burton, that 20 ores were equivalent to two marks.

They had alſo a gold coin called bizantine, or bezant, as being coined at Conſtantinople, then called Bizantium; the value of which coin is not only now loſt, but was ſo entirely forgot, even in the time of King Edward III. that whereas the Biſhop of Norwich was fined a bizantine of gold, to be paid to the Abbot of St. Edmond's Bury, for infringing his liberties, as it had been enacted by parliament in the time of the conqueror, no man then living could tell how much it was; ſo it was referred to the King to rate how he ſhould pay; which is the more unaccountable, becauſe but 100 years before, two hundred thouſand beſants were exacted by the ſoldan for the ranſon of St. Lewis of France, which were then valued at one hundred thouſand livres.

Though the coining of money is a ſpecial prerogative of the King, yet the antient Saxon princes communicated it to their ſubjects; inſomuch that in every good town there was at leaſt one mint, but at London eight; at Canterbury, four for the King, two for the Archbiſhop; one for the Abbot at Wincheſter; ſix at Rocheſter; at Haſtings two, &c.

The Norman Kings continued the ſame cuſtom of coining only pence, with the prince's image on one ſide, and on the other the name of the city where it was coined, with a croſs ſo deeply impreſſed, that it might be eaſily parted, and broken into halves; which ſo broken they called halfpence; or into four parts, which they called fourthings, or farthings.

In the time of Richard I. money coined in the eaſt-parts of Germany came in ſpecial requeſt in England, on account of its purity, and was called Eaſterling money, as did the inhabitants of thoſe parts were called Eaſterlings. And ſhortly after ſome of thoſe people ſkilled in coining were ſent for to England, to bring the coin to perfection; which ſince has been called Sterling, for Eaſterling. See *Sterling*.

King Edward I. who firſt adjuſted the meaſure of an ell by the length of his arm, herein imitating Charles the Great, was the firſt alſo who eſtabliſhed a certain ſtandard for the coin; which is expreſſed to this effect by Greg. Rockley, mayor of London, and mint-maſter.—A pound of money containeth 12 ounces; in a pound there ought to be 11 ounces, 2 eaſterlings, and 1 farthing; the reſt alloy. The ſaid pound ought to weigh 20 s. and 3 d. in accompt and weight. The ounce ought to weigh 20 d. and a penny 24 grains and a half. — *Note*, That 11 oz. 2 dwt. ſterling ought to be of pure ſilver, called leaf-ſilver; and the minter muſt add of other weight 17 d. halfpenny farthing, if the ſilver be ſo pure.

Falſe or *baſe money*, is either that ſtruck by an unqualified perſon, and of unſtatutable metals; or that which has loſt of its weight, either by being clipped on the corners, or filed on the edges; or laſtly, by having ſome of its ſurface peeled off; if gold, by aqua regalis; if ſilver, by aqua fortis.

Another kind of baſe money, is that made of pieces of iron, copper, or other metal, covered on each ſide with a thin plate or leaf of gold or ſilver, neatly ſoldered and joined around the edges, and ſtruck like other coin, with figures, legends, &c. only to be diſtinguiſhed from them by the bulk, weight, and ſound.

Imaginary money, or *money of accompt*, is that which has never exiſted, or at leaſt which does not exiſt in real ſpecie; but is a denomination invented, or retained, to facilitate the ſtating of accompts, by keeping them ſtill on a fixed footing, not to be changed like current coins, which the authority of the ſovereign raiſes or lowers according to the exigencies of ſtate; of which kind are pounds, livres, marks, maravadies, &c.

Money of accompt, according to Boizard, is a ſum of money, or a certain number of ſpecie, which may change in ſubſtance and quantity, but never in quality: thus 50 l. conſiſts of 50 pieces called pounds, which are not real, but may be paid in ſeveral real ſpecies, as in guineas, crowns, ſhillings, &c. which are changeable, as guineas, ſometimes higher, ſometimes lower.

Monies of accompt, or manners of reckoning money in Europe and Aſia.

It is here neceſſary to confine the ſubject to the monies of thoſe two parts of the world: America having none; the reſpective monies of accompt of the Europeans, who have made ſettlements there, being eſtabliſhed with them. As to Africa: in the cities of Barbary and Egypt, where the Europeans traffick, they reckon much after the ſame manner as in the Levant, and in the dominions of the Grand Signior: for the reſt, throughout that vaſt extent of coaſt where Europeans trade for negroes, gold duſt, elephants teeth, wax, leather, &c. either the miſerable inhabitants know not what money of accompt is; or, if they have any, it is only what ſtrangers, ſettled among them, have introduced. The macoute, however, and the piece, which are manners of accompting among theſe people, will be mentioned in their place.

Perſian monies of accompt. In Perſia they accompt by the toman, called alſo man and tumein, and the dinar biſti. The toman is compoſed of 50 abaſſis, or 100 mamodies, or 200 chapes, or 10,000 dinars, which amounts to about 3 l. 12 s. 6 d. ſterling the toman. They alſo accompt by larins, eſpecially at Ormus, and on the coaſts of the Perſian gulph; the larin being equivalent to 11 d. ſterling; and on that footing uſed alſo in Arabia, and a great part of the Eaſt Indies.

Chineſe monies of accompt, are the pic, picol, and tael; which, though in effect weights, likewiſe ſerve as monies of accompt, obtaining in Tonquin as well as China. The pic is divided into 100 catis, ſome ſay 125; the cati into 16 taels, each tael equal to 1 ounce 2 drachms: the picol contains 66 cotis 3-4ths; and the tael is equivalent to 6 s 8 d. ſterling.

Japoneſe monies of accompt, are the ſehuites, cockiens, oebans or oubans, and taels.

Mogul monies of accompt. At Surat, Agra, and the reſt of the eſtates of the Great Mogul, they uſe lacres, acres, or leeths; implying a hundred thouſand: thus a lacre of rupees is a hundred thouſand rupees.

Monies of accompt of other iſlands and coaſts of India. Throughout Malabar, and at Goa, they uſe tangas, vintins, and pardos xeraphin. The tanga is of two kinds, good and bad alloy. Hence their cuſtom is to count by good or bad money; the tanga of good alloy being 1-5th better than the bad; ſo that 4 tangas good being allowed the pardos xeraphin, there will be required 5 of the bad; 4 vintins good make a tanga likewiſe good; 15 barucos, a vintin; the good baruco equal to a Portugueſe ree, a French denier, or 1-13th of a penny ſterling. In the iſland of Java, they uſe the ſonta, ſapacou, fardos, and catis; which laſt, together with the leeth, or lacre, is much uſed throughout all the Eaſt Indies: the ſanta is 200 caxas, or little pieces of that country hung on a ſtring, equal to 10-12ths of a penny ſterling; 5 ſantas make the ſapacou; the fardos equal to 2 s. 8 d. ſterling; the cati contains 20 taels; the tael 6 s. 8 d. ſterling.

There are iſlands, cities, and ſtates of the Eaſt Indies, whoſe monies of accompt are not here expreſſed; partly becauſe reducible to ſome of thoſe above mentioned, and partly becauſe there is no certain conſiſtent accompt of them.

African monies of accompt. From Cape Verd to the Cape of Good Hope, all exchanges and valuations of merchandiſe are made on the foot of the bar, macoute and piece; which, though no monies of accompt, ſerve in lieu thereof; for thoſe people having no real monies, need no imaginary ones to eſtimate them by. At Loango de Boirie, and other places on the coaſt of Angola, the eſtimations are made by macoutes; and at Malimbo and Cabindo, on the ſame coaſt, the negroes reckon by pieces. Among the firſt, the macoute is equivalent to 10; and 10 macoutes make 100; which likewiſe leaves a kind of imaginary money. To eſtimate any purchaſe, exchange, &c. they fix on the one ſide the number of macoutes required; as ſuppoſe for a negro; on the other, for how many macoutes they agree to receive of each kind of merchandiſe for the negro; ſo that there are ſeveral bargains made for one. Suppoſe the ſlave to be fixed at 3500, this amounts to 350 macoutes; and to make up this number of macoutes in merchandiſes, they fix the price of each in macoutes. Two Flemiſh knives are accounted 1 macoute, a copper baſon two pounds weight 3, a barrel of gun-powder 3, &c. For the piece, it ſerves in the like manner to eſtimate the value of goods, duties, &c. on either ſide. Thus the natives require 10 pieces, or bars, for a ſlave; and the Europeans put a fuſee at 1 piece; a piece of Salampoures blue, at 4 pieces, &c. Belloni obſerves, that money, with relation to commerce, is no more than a certain determinate meaſure of ſuch things as can be bartered or ſold, invented to ſupply the place of any aſſignable quantity of a commodity, when that cannot be exchanged in kind.

When there was no money, as is before obſerved, men uſed to barter one commodity for another; a cuſtom which ſtill obtains among the ſavage, unpoliſhed nations of Chili, on the South ſea, in the land of Jeſſo in the Eaſt Indies, and other barbarous countries. But as ſuch a method of bartering commodities was on many occaſions attended with great difficulty, and always inconvenient, men agreed to make choice of one commodity: which being in general and conſtant eſteem, an equivalent quantity of it might always remove the difficulty of bartering in kind.

The ſame opinion concerning the origin of money, we find expreſſed very much to our purpoſe in the firſt book of Ariſtotle's politics, chap. vi. "As all uſeful things, "ſays he, could not without great difficulty be tranſ- "ported from place to place, it was reſolved by common "conſent, that in bartering commodities they ſhould "reciprocally give and receive ſome ſubſtance, which, "being in its nature applicable to the purpoſes of life, "might at the ſame time be eaſily carried about." From which words of Ariſtotle, it is very plain, that the introduction of money was owing to the difficulty of bartering, as human ſociety could not ſubſiſt without the exchange of neceſſaries; nor could this matter be managed without the uſe of money.

The Athenians not having at firſt the uſe of metals, made uſe of oxen, as the meaſure and ſtandard of trade; and the Romans of ſheep, for the ſame purpoſe: but this was extremely inconvenient, ſeeing one ox is not the ſame as another, in the manner that two pieces of metal may be the ſame. Herodotus, lib. 1. tells us, the Lydians were the firſt, who, for the facility and convenience of commerce, coined money of gold and ſilver, and the Greeks learned it of them. The Athenian coin had the impreſſion of their ancient ox. One of theſe pieces is to be ſeen in the Earl of Pembroke's collection. *Spirit of Laws*, b. xxii. c. 2.

To determine therefore this ſubſtance, that ſhould be in univerſal and conſtant eſteem, they made choice of gold and ſilver, not only becauſe they were more valuable than other metals; but alſo becauſe, in the various uſes to which they might be applied, they were particularly adapted to the ſupport and improvement of human life. But becauſe there was a conſiderable difference in the nature of theſe two metals, and gold was more precious than ſilver, both by its intrinſic worth and greater ſcarcity, and alſo far exceeded the other in the expence that was neceſſary for working it, as appears by the tax that is paid to the ſovereign lords of mines, who require no more than 5 l. *per cent.* for gold; whereas they exact 20 l. *per cent.* for ſilver; therefore a greater value was aſcribed to gold: and becauſe the baſer metal ought to be given in greater meaſure, that what was wanting in value might be made up in quantity, it was neceſſary to fix the proportion between them by a certain determinate rule.

Hence it is, that in the practice of commerce, though formerly the proportion of gold to ſilver was ſettled at ten to one; yet at preſent the matter is ſo regulated, almoſt over all Europe, that one ounce of gold is reckoned equal in value to fifteen of ſilver, or thereabout.

Now, when the ſubſtance was agreed upon at firſt, the particular quantities of it were originally determined by their bulk and weight only; but afterwards, to ſave the trouble and expence of providing this weight upon every occaſion, it was coined into a certain form by public authority, and impreſſed with a mark of diſtinction, expreſſing the quantity each piece contained; ſo that it ſhould always have the ſame determinate value, and be every where the ſame, both for matter and weight. But now in order to inquire more particularly into the nature of money, and the better to illuſtrate what may be further offered concerning the effects it produces in trade, and the various advantages and diſadvantages of one kingdom in reſpect to another, ariſing from money, it muſt be conſidered, that we are to diſtinguiſh two ſorts of value in money; the one intrinſical, conſiſting of the matter itſelf, its weights and quantity; the other extrinſical, founded on the rate or value, according to which it uſed to paſs. And though in different places, on ſeveral preſſing occaſions, the intrinſical value of money may be raiſed higher, at the diſcretion of the ſupreme power; ſuch is the nature of commerce, that in it money is never eſtimated but at its intrinſic value; ſo that in the courſe of trade, money can have no higher value than a maſs of the ſame metal and quantity would have, if given in barter for any ſort of goods. We muſt alſo obſerve further, that ſuch is the cuſtom of well regulated kingdoms, that when money is ſuffered to paſs current therein, ſo much is deducted from the intrinſical value, as is neceſſary for defraying the charge of coining, and it never paſſes for more than its intrinſic value. And the intention of this regulation is, that the money of the ſtate itſelf, which bears the ſtamp and authority of the prince, may always have the preference. From all which conſiderations it is extremely plain, that it is a matter of the utmoſt conſequence, that the ſyſtem of money be ſettled under ſome fixed regulations, as it may conſtantly keep pace with the courſe of trade, and never in the leaſt deviate therefrom; it being certain, that no variation can ever happen in this reſpect, but it will at the ſame time produce a remarkable alteration in commerce.

fter all, however certain it may ſeem, that money is at which alone conſtitutes the riches of a nation, and cannot be denied, that, conſidered in itſelf, it has this erogative; nevertheleſs it will never diſcover its effects, it is not put in motion by commerce; ſo that as the ody of a planet being in itſelf opake, would never diſco- r to us its form and figure, if, according to that hypo- eſis, it did not revolve round the ſun, whoſe light eſents it to our view, we muſt form the very ſame dgment concerning money, which, it is certain, has in ſelf no power at all to encreaſe and multiply, and hereby to form the riches of a kingdom, or even, on the ontrary, to reduce it to poverty; for if a proſperous or nfavourable motion were not communicated thereto by ommerce, we ſhould never be ſenſible of its effects. nd becauſe we can no otherwiſe arrive at a clear and iſtinct knowledge of theſe effects, but by a fixed and cer- ain rule, which can ſhew with accurate exactneſs the ituation of any kingdom with regard to its internal and xternal commerce; that is, whether the balance of trade ands in equilibrio, or is inclined to either ſide: there- ore, ſeeing there is not a more infallible rule by which his knowledge can be attained than the courſe of ex- hange, ſee *Exchange*, and *Coin*.

European accompts are kept in the following manner.

In England,

By pounds, ſhillings, pence, and farthings.

1 Pound	is equal to	20 ſhillings.
1 Shilling		12 pence.
1 Penny		4 farthings.

In Scotland, Value in ſterling money.

Formerly by pounds, ſhillings, and pennies. s. d. f.

1 Pound	was equal to	20 ſhillings	1	8	0
1 Shilling		12 pence	0	1	0
1 Penny			0	0	0 1/5

But ſince the union their money of accompt is the ſame as in England.

In Ireland,

By pounds, ſhillings, pence, and farthings.

1 Pound	was equal to	20 ſhillings	15	0	0
1 Shilling		12 pence	0	9	0
1 Penny		4 farthings	0	0	3
1 Farthing			0	0	0 3/4

But the Engliſh pound is now 1 l. 1 s. 8 d. Iriſh money; the Engliſh ſhilling is a thirteen, or 1 s. 1 d. Iriſh; aud the others in propor- tion.

In Holland, and the other United Provinces,

By florins or guilders, ſtivers, and penningens.

1 Florin or guilder	is equal to	20 ſtivers	0	1	9
1 Stiver		16 penningens	0	0	1 1/20
1 Penningen			0	0	0 21/320

In Flanders and Brabant,

By pundis, ſchellings, and pennings. s. d.

1 Pundi	is equal to	20 ſchellings	11	3
1 Shelling		12 pennings	0	6 3/4
1 Penning			0	0 1/2 1/8

In ſome places by florins, ſtivers, and pen- ningens, as in Holland: and in others by livres, ſols, and deniers, as in France.

In Germany. At Vienna, Francfort, Nurem- berg, &c.

By rixdollars, creuxers, and pennins.

1 Rixdollar	is equal to	100 creuxers	4	8	
1 Creuxer		8 pennins	0	0	7/15
1 Pennin			0	0	7/60

In Hamburgh, Berlin, &c.

By rixdollars, marc-lub, ſchelling-lub, denier-lub or phenning.

1 Rixdollar	is equal to	3 marcs	4	6	
1 Marc		16 ſchellings	1	6	
1 Schelling			0	1	1/8

In Leipſick and Naumburgh,

By ſpecie dollars, groſs, and phennings. s. d.

1 Dollar	is equal to	32 groſs	4	8	
1 Groſs		12 phennings	0	1	3/4
1 Phennlng			0	0	7/32

In Poland, Dantzic, Riga, Koningſberg, and Pruſſia,

By rixdollars, groſs, and deniers.

1 Rixdollar	is equal to	90 groſs	4	6	
1 Groſs		18 deniers	0	0	3/4
1 Denier			0	0	3/2 1/15

In Denmark and Norway,

By rixdollars, hors, and ſchellings; or by rixdol- lars, marc, and ſchellings.

1 Rixdollar	is equal to	4 hors	4	6	
1 Hors		12 ſchellings	0	1	1/2
1 Schelling			0	0	9/16
1 Rixdollar	is equal to	6 marcs	4	6	
1 Marc		16 ſchellings	0	9	
1 Schelling			0	0	9/116

N. B. A Lubeck ſchelling, &c. is double to thoſe of Denmark.

In Sweden,

By rixdollars, copper dollars, and runſtucs.

1 Rixdollar	is equal to	9 copper dollars	4	8	
1 Copper dollar		32 runſtucs	0	6	2/9
1 Runſtuc			0	0	7/36

In Ruſſia,

By rubles, grivenas, and copecs.

1 Ruble	is equal to	10 grivenas	4	6	
1 Grivena		10 copecs	0	5	1/2
1 Copec			0	0	2 7/36

In Turky,

By abukeſb or dollars, and aſpers.

1 abukeſb	is equal to	80 aſpers	3	4	
1 aſper			0	0	1/2

A purſe of ſilver	£	112	10	0
Ditto in gold		6750	0	0

In *Candia* the ſame as in *Venice*.

In Italy. In Venice,

By livres, ſolidis, and denier pichilis or current.

1 Livre	is equal to	20 ſolidi	0	7	
1 Solidi		12 pichili	0	0	1/12
1 Pichili			0	0	5/84

In Bergamo, Genoa, Mantua, Milan, Modena, and Novi,

By livres, ſolidis, and deniers.

1 Livre	is equal to	20 ſolidis	0	10	2/5
1 Solidi		12 deniers	0	0	1/2
1 Denier			0	0	1/24

In Rome, Ancona, and Ferrara,

By crowns, julios, grains, and quartrines.

1 Crown	is equal to	10 julios	5	0	
1 Julio		8 grains	0	6	
1 Grain		4 quartrines	0	0	3/4
1 Quartrine			0	0	6/16

In Naples,

By ducats, tarins, and grains.

1 Ducat	is equal to	5 tarins	3	4	
1 Tarin		20 grains	0	8	
1 Grain			0	0	2/3

In Sicily and Malta,

By ounces, tarins, carlins, grains, and picholis.

1 Ounce	is equal to	30 tarins	12	6	
1 Tarin		2 carlins	0	5	
1 Carlin		10 grains	0	2	1/2
1 Grain		6 picholis	0	0	1/4
1 Picholi			0	0	1/24

In Switzerland,

By rixdollars, florins, kreuxers, and kellers.

1 Rixdollar	is equal to	1 3/10 florins	4	6	
1 Florin		60 kreuxers	2	6	
1 Kreuxer		8 kellers	0	0	1/2
1 Keller			0	0	1/10

In

In Portgual,

By millrees and rees; ſeparating the former from the latter thus, 540 : 820; which imports 540 millrees and 820 rees.

			s.	d.
1 Millree	is equal to	1000 rees	5	7 1/2
1 Ree			0	0 27/46

In Spain,

By dollars or piaſtres, rials, and quartos.

1 Dollar	is equal to	8 rials	3	7
1 Rial		17 quartos	0	5 3/7
1 Quarto			0	0 43/136

Or by maravedis; of which 68 are equal to 1 rial, or 1 maravedis to 0 0 43/544

In France,

By livres, ſols, and deniers.

1 Livre	is equal to	20 ſols	0	10 1/2
1 Sol		12 deniers	0	0 1/2
1 Denier			0	0 1/24

They keep their accompts throughout all the Engliſh ſettlements in America, in pounds, ſhillings, pence, and farthings, the ſame as they do in London; but their pounds, ſhillings, and pence, which they keep their books in, is what is called *currency*; and the difference between the pounds, ſhillings, and pence, of London, and their currency, is between 20 and 800 *per cent.* They often draw upon London. If it be from any of the iſlands of the Weſt Indies, they give from 125 to 170 l. of their currency, to receive 100 l. in London: but if it be from New England, Carolina, or on the continent, they give from 170 to 800 l. and upwards, of their currency, for 100 l. in London, becauſe gold and ſilver is ſo very ſcarce among them.

By an act of parliament made in the 6th year of Queen Anne, for aſcertaining the value at which foreign coins ſhould paſs in the Britiſh colonies, it was regulated as follows.

	Weight. dwt.	gr.	true val. s.	d.	curr. value. s.	d.	f.
Pieces of 8/8, old plate, of Sevil	17	12	4	6	6	0	0
Ditto of new - -	14	0	3	7 1/4	4	9	2 2/3
Mexico ditto -	17	12	4	6	6	0	0
Piller ditto - -	17	12	4	6 3/4	6	0	0
Peru ditto, old plate -	17	12	4	5	5	10	2 1/3
Croſs dollars - -	18	0	4	4 3/4	5	10	1 1/3
Ducatoons of Flanders	20	21	5	6	7	4	0
French crowns or ecus	17	12	4	6	6	0	0
Cruſadoes of Portugal -	11	4	2	10 1/4	3	9	2 2/3
Three gilder pieces of Holland	20	7	5	2 1/4	6	10	3 1/3
Old rixdollars of the empire	18	10	4	6	6	0	0

The half quarters, and other parts in proportion to their denominations, and light pieces to their weights.

And to remedy the inconveniencies which was cauſed by the different rates at which pieces of the ſame ſpecies was current, it was ordered by proclamation, and confirmed by the ſaid act of parliament, that no Piller, Mexico, or Sevil pieces of eight, though of full weight as above, ſhould be received or paid at above 6 s. a piece; and the half, quarters, and the other leſſer pieces, in proportion.

And the currency of all the other pieces above mentioned are not to exceed the ſame proportion.

And the ſaid act enjoins, That if any one ſhall receive or pay any of the ſaid pieces for any more than as above, they ſhall forfeit 10 l.

Moneyed Intereſt of Great Britain, means the public funds, or moneyed property; which is a term uſed in oppoſition to the landed intereſt. See National *Debt*, *Fund*, and *Taxes*.

MONGOPOES. A cotton cloth manufactured in the Eaſt Indies, and bought by the Engliſh of Madras in great quantities, who ſend them to the Manilles.

MONGUL, or *Mogul*. A name for the Emperor or King of India; which is derived from a country of the ſame name in Tartary, where Tamerlane governed. See *India*.

MONKS-HOOD. See *Aconite*.

MONKS *Rhubarb*. See *Rhubarb*.

MONKS *Seam*, among ſailors, is when the ſelvedges of ſails are laid a little over one another, and ſewed on both ſides.

MONOEMUGI. See *Ethiopia*.

MONOMOTAPA. See *Ethiopia*.

MONOPOLY, is an allowance of the King, by grant, commiſſion, or otherwiſe, to any perſon or ſons, for the ſole buying, ſelling, making, working uſing of any thing, by which other perſons are reſtra of any freedom or liberty that they had before, or dered in their lawful trade. Though a monopoly be more truly defined to be, a kind of commerce buying, ſelling, exchanging, or bartering, uſurped few, and ſometimes but by one perſon, and foreſt from all others, to his or their private gain, and to hurt and detriment of other men; whereby of co or by authority, the liberty of trade is reſtrained, the monopoliſt enabled to ſet what price he pleaſe commodities.

Theſe monopolies uſed in England, have been di guiſhed in three parts; 1ſt, Reaſonable, of things trifles for pleaſure, ſuch as cards, lute-ſtrings, tob or the like; 2dly, Unreaſonable, as of fleſh, fiſh, ter, cheeſe, or other needful things for the ſuſten of man, without which he can hardly live; 3dly, L ferent, of velvets, ſilks, ſpices, and other delica and curioſities, which are indifferent to be uſed or But all monopolies are contrary to the ancient and damental laws of the realm, being againſt the free of trade. Upon which ground it hath been held, the King's grant to any corporation of the ſole impor tion of any merchandiſe, is void by the common law.

Some men are ſatisfied, if a prohibition of any commo be made by act of parliament, and they will not call monopoly, though it be ſo in effect; as when a ſociety private merchants have a privilege to themſelves only, ſell certain commodities, or to import them, and all ot ſubjects are excluded, although they were neither the coverers nor firſt inventors thereof: but if it be done the King's prerogative, then they take it to be a mon poly. There are others who would have all things large in the courſe of traffic, and that there ſhould be ſocieties or corporations of merchants for any places trade; for by way of partnerſhip merchants might aſ ciate themſelves, to make or enterpriſe any voyages, in ſending any goods or merchandiſe abroad, witho having regard to companies for carrying on trade, for whereof are of great antiquity. And other perſo make a difference between companies or aſſociation dealing in a joint ſtock or apart; affirming the manag ment of a joint ſtock to be within the compaſs of a mon poly; nevertheleſs they would be contented to toler the ſame for the employment outward, but for retur homeward they would have a particular diviſion of t commodities which they receive.

The learned judge Vaughan ſays, that if the exportatio or importation of a commodity, or the exerciſe of a trad be prohibited generally by parliament, and no cauſe ex preſſed of the prohibition, a licence may be granted b the King to one or more perſons, without limitation, t export or import, or to exerciſe the trade: for by ſuch general reſtraint, the end of the law is no more than t limit the over-numerous exporters, importers, or trade in that kind, by putting them to the difficulty of procuri licences; and therefore ſuch general licences ſhall not b accounted monopolies: in which caſes the law impli that the King may licenſe, as well as if the prohibitor law had been, that no ſuch exportation, &c. ſhould b without the King's expreſs licence.

Theſe are the various opinions of different men, concernin what is a monopoly or not ſo: but it is now proper to tak particular notice of the great caſe of monopolies in th reign of Queen Elizabeth, as tranſmitted down by tha excellent lawyer Sir Edward Coke. Queen Elizabeth in tending that her ſubjects, being able men fit for huſbandry ſhould be exerciſed therein, and not employ themſelve in making playing cards, which had not been any an tient manual occupation within the realm; and conſi dering that by making a multitude of cards, card-playing was become more frequent, and eſpecially among ſer vants and apprentices, and poor artificers; and to the end her ſubjects might apply themſelves to more lawful

and neceſſary trades; by her letters-patent under the great ſeal, dated the 13th of June, in the 30th year of her reign, granted to R. B. eſq; full power, licence, and authority, by himſelf, his ſervants, factors, and deputies, to provide and buy in any parts beyond the ſea, all ſuch playing cards as he thought good, and to import them into the kingdom, and to ſell them within the ſame; and that he, his ſervants, factors, and deputies, ſhould have and enjoy the whole trade, traffic, and merchandiſe of all playing cards, to have and to hold for twelve years. And by the ſame letters-patent, the Queen charged and commanded, that no perſon or perſons beſides the ſaid R. B. &c. ſhould import or bring any cards into the realm during the ſaid time, nor make, buy, or ſell, any ſuch playing cards, &c. upon pain of the Queen's higheſt diſpleaſure, and of ſuch fine and puniſhment as offenders deſerve in caſe of voluntary contempt. On an action of the caſe brought by the patentee againſt one for importing and making cards, contrary to theſe letters-patent, notwithſtanding the glorious preamble and pretence thereof, it was reſolved that this grant was void; for it is a monopoly, and againſt the common law, and likewiſe divers acts of parliament; for all trades, as well mechanical as others, which prevent idleneſs, the bane of the commonwealth, and exerciſe men and youth, for the maintenance of themſelves and their families, and for increaſe of their ſubſtance, to ſerve the Queen when occaſion ſhall require, are profitable to the realm. And the ſole trade of any mechanic art, or any other monopoly, is not only a damage and prejudice to thoſe who exerciſe the ſame trade, but alſo to all other ſubjects; for the end of theſe is for the private gain of the patentees. And there are three inſeparable incidents to every monopoly againſt the commonwealth, that is, the price of the ſame commodity will be raiſed; after the monopoly granted, the commodity is not ſo good and merchantable as it was before; and it tends to the impoveriſhment of divers artificers and others, who before, by the labour of their hands in their art or trade, had ſupported themſelves, but now will be idle and in beggary.

And it is evident by the act of 3d Edward IV. cap. 4. That the importation of foreign cards was prohibited, at the grievous complaint of the poor card makers, who were not able to live at their trades, if ſuch cards ſhould be imported; and the ſaid act provides remedy for maintaining of the trade of making cards, foraſmuch as it maintained many families by their labour and induſtry; and the like proviſion is made in 1ſt Rich. III. cap. 12. And perſons may not be reſtrained from exerciſing any trade, but by parliament. Now, when the wiſdom of the parliament has made a ſtatute to reſtrain, for the good of the public, the importation of foreign manufactures, to the intent that the ſubjects of the realm might be employed in making of the ſaid manufactures, and thereby maintain themſelves and their families; to grant the ſole importation of them to one for private gain, or to divers without limitation, notwithſtanding the ſaid ſtatute, is a monopoly againſt the common law: and therefore the diſpenſation or licence to have the ſole importation and merchandizing of cards, without any limitation, notwithſtanding the act 3d Edw. IV. is utterly againſt the law.

King Edward III by his letters-patent, granted to one John Peche the ſole importation of ſweet wines into London; and at a parliament held 50th Edw. III. this grant was declared void. And Queen Elizabeth having granted unto certain patentees, the ſole coinage and tranſportation of all the tin in Cornwall and Devonſhire, for 21 years, under a large yearly rent to be paid at the exchequer, it was adjudged that this patent was a monopoly, in the 39th year of King James I.

In an action, the plaintiff ſet forth, That in the reign of Henry IV. there was a ſociety of merchant adventurers in England, and Queen Elizabeth incorporated them by that name, with privilege to trade to Holland, Brabant, Flanders, &c. prohibiting all others not free of that company from trading thither; and that the defendant, not being free of that company, did trade there without their leave, and imported goods to their damage, &c. To which the defendant pleaded the ſtatute 15th Edw. III. That the ſeas ſhall be open to all merchants to paſs with their merchandiſe whither they pleaſe. The queſtion was here, whether the King had power to reſtrain his ſubjects from trading to particular places? This caſe was not determined; but the better opinion was, that ſuch a grant was void, it agreeing with Lord Coke's definition of a monopoly. It is againſt the ſtatute of Edward III. which gives liberty to merchants to buy and ſell without diſturbance; and it is expreſsly againſt the ſtatute 21ſt James I. The caſe of the Eaſt India company is not like this, becauſe that patent reſtrained the ſubject from trading with infidels, without leave; if it had been to reſtrain them from trading with Chriſtians, it had been void.

By the ſtatute 21ſt James I. cap. 3. it was enacted and ordained, That all monopolies, commiſſions, grants, letters-patent, and licences, for the ſole buying, ſelling, and making of goods and manufactures within the King's dominions; and all warrants, proclamations, and reſtraints, &c. for the erecting, ſtrengthening, or countenancing thereof, againſt the tenor of any law or ſtatute, ſhall be void; and perſons grieved by the putting them in uſe, ſhall recover in the courts at Weſtminſter treble damages and double coſts, by action on the ſtatute; and if any perſon ſhall cauſe ſuch action to be ſtayed or delayed before judgment, by any order, warrant, &c. except only of the court where it is depending; or ſhall, after judgment had, cauſe or procure the execution to be ſtayed, by colour or means of any ſuch order or warrant, power, or authority, ſave only by a writ of error or attaint, he or they ſo offending ſhall incur a *præmunire*.

But this act doth not extend to any grants allowed or confirmed by act of parliament; nor to any grant or charter to any corporation, company, or fellowſhip of any art, trade, or myſtery; nor to any company or ſociety of merchants for enlargement of trade; nor to grants of new manufactures, made to the inventors thereof by patent for fourteen years, being not contrary to law, or prejudicial to the commonwealth; nor to any grant of privilege for printing, or making or compounding of ſaltpetre for gun-powder, or for caſting or making ordnance, &c.; and certain patents granted to divers perſons, are excepted out of the ſtatute.

And letters-patent, and grants of privilege, formerly made for 21 years or under, to the inventors of any new manufactures, where they are not contrary to law, or miſchievous, by raiſing the prices of commodities at home, or hurt of trade, or generally inconvenient, are ſaved; ſo alſo ſuch patents granted heretofore for more than 21 years from the date thereof, notwithſtanding this act.

All matters relating to monopolies, grants, licences, &c. ſhall be examined, heard, and determined, by and according to the common laws of this realm, and not otherwiſe; and the making uſe of or procuring any unlawful monopoly, is puniſhable by fine and impriſonment at common law.

It is held, that a new invention to do as much work in a day, by an engine, as formerly uſed to employ many hands, is contrary to the ſtatute; by reaſon it is inconvenient, in turning ſo many men to idleneſs. And concerning inventors of new manufactures, &c. it hath been determined on this ſtatute, that the manufacture in ſuch caſe muſt be ſubſtantially new, and not barely an improvement of any old one, by any addition, &c. thereto, to be within the ſtatute. It muſt be ſuch as no other perſons uſed at the time of granting the letters-patent; and no old manufacture in uſe before can be prohibited in any grant for any new invention.

A grant of a monopoly may be to the firſt inventor, by the 21ſt James I.; and if the invention be new in England, a patent may be granted, though the thing was practiſed beyond ſea before; for the ſtatute mentions new inventions within the realm: ſo that if they be new here, it is within the act, which intended to encourage new devices uſeful to the kingdom; and it is the ſame thing, whether acquired by experience or travel abroad, and ſo brought hither, or by ſtudy at home.

A perſon had a grant by letters-patent from K. Cha. II.

for the ſole printing of blank writs and bonds, &c. for the term of 30 years; and one Darrel, a ſtationer, having printed 500 blank bonds, action of the caſe was thereupon brought againſt him; who pleaded, that the company of ſtationers, for the ſpace of 40 years then laſt paſt, before the granting of theſe letters-patent, had conſtantly printed blank bonds, and ſo made a general concluſion. It was here argued, that the King hath a prerogative in printing, and may grant it excluſive to others; and that ſuch grants have been made by the Kings of England ever ſince printing was invented; of which ſeveral inſtances were given. Now the ſtatute againſt monopolies doth not reach to this caſe, becauſe of the proviſo therein to exempt all grants of ſole printing; and there being an inherent prerogative in the King, in theſe caſes, whenever he exerts it, all other perſons are bound up who were at liberty before.

To this it was anſwered, and confeſſed, that the King hath a prerogative to grant the ſole printing to a particular perſon; but then it muſt be in ſuch caſes where no other perſons whatſoever can claim a property in it. On conſidering printing as an art excluſive from the thing printed, this patent is not good; for if a man invents a new art, and another learns it before the inventor can obtain a patent, if afterwards granted, it is void: and then, if this be conſidered in relation to the blank bonds printed, it is not a new invention, which might have made the grant good, becauſe the ſtationers company have printed ſuch ſo long a time; and for that reaſon this patent is void, for where the invention is not new, there trade ſhall not be reſtrained. And ſole printing is a manufacture; it is an art and ſkill which the King cannot reſtrain; but when it is of public concern, then the prerogative may interpoſe. 1

The court of King's Bench made a difference in this caſe between things of a public uſe, and thoſe which are public in their nature; and the court inclined that the patent was not good.

It is agreeable to the common law of England, and the fundamental laws of all nations, to grant projectors or inventors of uſeful things privileges for 21, 14, 11, or 7 years; and as to the time granted, the thing itſelf ought to make the difference, upon good conſideration, and ſo as not to meaſure all things alike. But the general intention of all grants by letters-patent for manufactures, hath or ought to have relation to ſet the people on work, to recompence the inventor of the art or ſcience, and that things may in ſome reſpect be better and cheaper to the ſubjects.

There may be letters patent granted to reward a projector, and the ſame be not any monopoly, although the public liberty may ſeem thereby to be reſtrained; and it may be rather a common diſtribution than reſtraint, whenever it brings a general good to the nation. The ſtatutes of the kingdom, reſtraining from exerciſing divers crafts all ſuch as have not ſerved an apprenticeſhip unto the art which they would exerciſe, do it to no other end, but that thoſe arts might be brought to better perfection, and the things be good and ſerviceable for thoſe that buy and uſe them.

'Theſe remarks concerning monopolies are extracted from a treatiſe on naval trade. However, monopolies in commerce are like rocks in the Danube and the Nicaragua, which obſtruct the courſe of the channels, and form thoſe cataracts which impede the navigation of two of the moſt ſpacious rivers in the univerſe; but a free and open trade may be compared to the Thames and the Elbe, whoſe waters flow in an eaſy, regular, uninterrupted motion, ſpreading their broad and beauteous boſoms as an invitation for all mankind to haſten to their arms, and enjoy thoſe benefits which nature ordained them to afford.

It is uſual in ſome countries, to grant an excluſive privilege to ſome perſons, that no other perſon, for a certain number of years, ſhall manufacture the commodities they are under an obligation to introduce and eſtabliſh: but before diſpenſing with indulgencies of this nature, the affair ought to be conſidered thoroughly; and when, for ſpecial reaſons, it is found abſolutely neceſſary, they are even then limited and guarded with the utmoſt care, leſt they be converted into monopolies, which are of great profit to the proprietor, but of the utmoſt prejudice to the public. Moreover, in diſpenſing of them, though it be with all poſſible precaution, it ought at leaſt to be attended with the following circumſtances, of its being a new fabric, and very difficult to be ſet on foot; that there will enſue an improvement to commerce, and conſiderable advantage to the public, as it happened in France, and lately in Spain, in order to revive and eſtabliſh glaſs-houſes.

Monopolies of any kind are alſo liable to great objections on account of the frauds that by this means may be committed, by importing and ſelling foreign goods free of all duties in cities and towns, to the prejudice of the king's revenue, and of the manufactures of the country, without any poſſibility of detecting thoſe frauds, even with the precaution that the goods ſhould bear the mark as proofs of being their own fabric; for both of them are often counterfeited, and eaſily miſtaken, as marks and ſeals are not known in many cities and towns very remote from the parts where they are manufactured.

In an *Eſſay on the cauſes of the decline of the foreign trade*, p. 41. the following reaſons are urged againſt the monopolies of trading companies.

Theſe companies prevent the increaſing the vent of our manufactures abroad, conſequently they ſtarve our poor, as will appear by the following reaſons.

1. By being all of them confined to London, the price of the woollens they export are enhanced by long land carriages up to town, with the additional charges of commiſſion, warehouſe-rent, porterage, &c. much to the prejudice of their ſale; and what materials of manufacture they import are diſperſed over many parts of the kingdom by the like expenſive conveyance, to the great diſadvantage of the nation in general.

2. The Turky company, whoſe trade is almoſt dwindled away, can prevent diſpatching their ſhips for one year, if they pleaſe, to raiſe the price of ſilk at home for their own advantage, though the nation thereby loſes a whole year's vent and conſumption of its woollen goods in Turky, which it is ſaid hath happened formerly; and if an iniquitous riſe is given to ſilk here, we cannot manufacture it with ſuch advantage as our neighbours. The reader will be pleaſed to conſider the fine ſituation of the poor employed in the woollen and ſilk manufactures muſt be in at ſuch a time.

3. It is not the intereſt of the Eaſt India company to increaſe the quantities of the woollens they export, but rather to contract them, which is ſuppoſed to be the reaſon for obliging them by their charter to-export woollens to a certain value; for at all markets where there are any demands for goods, the ſmallneſs of the quantities naturally enhances the price; and if the company can gain as much on 5000 cloths as on 10,000, is it not their intereſt to prefer the leſſer quantity on account of the leſs diſburſement and riſk? though it is plain the nation would loſe the ſale of one half of the manufactures capable of being vended; whereas private traders puſhing againſt one another, ſtudy to increaſe the vent of their goods by trading at moderate profits, making the quantities anſwer themſelves and their country.

4. The large charges the Eaſt India and South ſea companies are forced to be at for the ſalaries of the directors, governors, ſupercargoes, &c. beſides what may ſlip through their fingers ſometimes, muſt make theſe companies neglect all trades that will not yield extraordinary profits to defray them; which trades private merchants would be glad of, and turn to good account for themſelves and their country, were they not debarred by excluſive charters.

5. The Eaſt India and South ſea companies buying at home by directors, and ſelling abroad by ſervants, who may have an eye to their own or friends intereſt, and the foundation of all being the company's money, they cannot naturally be ſuppoſed to be ſo induſtrious as thoſe that trade only on their own ſtocks; therefore companies

ver extend trade like private dealers, but muſt decay here interlopers are admitted; of which our African mpany is a ſtrong inſtance.

What confirms the whole, is the prohibition of the aſt India company againſt their ſervants carrying out oth; which would be needleſs, did they not know that eir ſervants can underſell them, for the company wants t money to ſupply all the cloth that can be vended with e uſual profit. In the year 1741, a ſeizure was made one of the out-ports of a large quantity of cloth deigned for India, belonging to one of the company's ſerants; when at the ſame time, by the decay of our oollen trade, the poors rates were at 8 s. in the pound ſome of our clothing towns; from whence this bſurdity aroſe, that whilſt our clothiers were ſtarving, e exportation of cloth was a contraband trade.

t is impoſſible to make any inquiry into our companies, ithout taking notice of their paſt villanies, which, as hey have been made ſufficiently public, few can be ignoant of; therefore the bare mention of them is enough; uch as the fatal South ſea ſcheme, that ruined thouſands f families. What need to mention former directors reeiving ſalaries from companies, and, though contrary o law, being notwithſtanding concerned in the Oſtend rade to India, whereby they were cutting the throats of heir benefactors; the ſelling goods by falſe ſamples, and buying them for their private accounts; carrying on priate trade contrary to treaty, and bribing officers to wink t them with the company's money, and charged to acount by the genteel name of preſents, ſubjecting thereby he company's effects to ſeizures, and their country to perpetual jars? The rapaciouſneſs of governors abroad, who by engroſſing goods, nay even the neceſſaries of life, have oppreſſed the people by arbitrary prices, and drove away our trade! Supercargoes, cheating by falſe invoices! Captains, quitting or loſing ſhips, to defraud inſurers and bottomree lenders!

But the greateſt miſchief of all is, that the honeſty of the people hath been corrupted, by having preſented to their eyes roguery lightly puniſhed, if not triumphant.

Theſe companies prevent the increaſe of our navigation.

By their excluſive charters, debarring us from a free trade to 3-4th parts of the known world. The dominions of the Grand Signior in Europe, Aſia, and Africa, are confined to the Turky company. All South, and part of North America, from Vera Cruz to Carthagena, from Buenos Ayres round Cape Horn to California, that vaſt extent of coaſt, is the portion of the South ſea company. All the coaſts of Africa, and Aſia, from the Cape of Good Hope to Japan, are the lot of the Eaſt India company. And what a ſmall number of ports do they all trade to, and what a trifling navigation do they all maintain? There are a greater number of ſhip-tonnage employed in the trade to the free port of Leghorn only, than all theſe three companies employ in their monopolies to 3-4th parts of the world; like the fable of the dog in the manger, not eating themſelves, but preventing thoſe who would.

There is alſo another kind of monopoly, wherein freemen exclude by charter any of the ſame trade from ſettling in their towns; for is not this a monopoly againſt the reſt of the inhabitants? Cannot they impoſe extravagant prices for their goods on their cuſtomers, and do they not do it?

Where no journeymen but freemen can work in towns, have they not a monopoly for wages againſt their maſters? Do not both theſe caſes advance the firſt coſt of goods, to the prejudice of their ſale abroad, and account for foreigners reckoning our country ſo dear?

If a journeyman, not being a freeman, gets into work in a city or town-corporate, what an outcry is there not made of a foreigner's being come among them, to eat the bread out of their mouths? How! can a free-born Briton be reckoned a foreigner in any part of his own country? What an abſurdity is here! yet nevertheleſs true. Can one man eat the bread out of another's mouth, without being more induſtrious than he? Impoſſible! it muſt therefore be idleneſs and luxury they contend for, not bread.

This is one of the reaſons why foreigners flock to our plantations, inſtead of ſettling here, and by our decay of trade many of our own people go over to live there yearly; ſo that many going, and few coming to ſupply their places, a ſcarcity of people will hereafter enſue, to the great damage of the mother country.

Mr. Stanian, in his excellent account of Switzerland, p. 140, obſerves, That the tradeſmen citizens of Berne, are generally eſteemed to be proud and lazy; which qualities proceed chiefly from two privileges they enjoy; one is their right of being choſen into the government by virtue of their burgerſhip, which makes them proud; and the other is, that of hindering any but a citizen from exerciſing any trade within the cities, which makes them lazy. From whence two inconveniencies naturally flow; one, that the inhabitants pay very dear for their goods; and the other, that the workmen are bad; for where there is no great choice of artificers, one muſt be contented, not only with bad work, but to pay ſuch a price for it as they pleaſe to impoſe.

Laws to prevent the importation of cattle, butter, &c. from Ireland, give a monopoly to a few breeding counties to impoſe upon the reſt of the people high prices for cattle, &c. to the ruin of our manufactures, forces the labourer to live dear, and of courſe to raiſe his wages; is greatly prejudicial alſo to our navigation; for whatever enhances the expences of a ſhip, enhances its freight, and gives opportunity to foreigners to victual cheaper in Ireland than we can do at home.

By aboliſhing monopolies, is only meant all excluſive trades; not to prevent any from trading with a large joint ſtock who chuſe it, but that every one ſhould trade in the manner he found moſt beneficial; and by ſuch an abolition the following benefits may ariſe.

It will encreaſe trade,

By reſtoring our people to their natural rights, and allowing them to gain, by their induſtry, an honeſt livelihood, wherever they can find it.

By preventing any ſet of people from combining together to raiſe extravagant wages for labour, or prices for goods.

By furniſhing us with the cheapeſt neceſſaries, and at the cheapeſt freights, the market being open for all.

By taking away from our goods all their preſent fictitious value, whereby their cheapneſs muſt prodigiouſly increaſe their vent; eſpecially the woollens, whereby the price of wool will be raiſed, and its ſmuggling prevented.

By leſſening the French and Dutch woollen trades, in depriving their people of our wool to aſſort their goods.

By extending our commerce to three quarter parts of the globe, where it now languiſhes.

By ruining all foreign Eaſt India companies, who could not ſupport themſelves againſt our free traders.

By increaſing the number of buyers at home for our goods, conſequently raiſe their value; a company being but one buyer.

By increaſing the number of buyers abroad; private dealers trade at a leſs expence than companies, and puſhing againſt one another, muſt ſell for reaſonable profits, whereby a greater vent is given to our goods.

By giving us the herring fiſhery.

By increaſing our navigation vaſtly; for by the fiſhery, and by opening the Eaſt India and Turky trades, 20 ſhips would be employed where one is now.

MONSOON. A regular, or periodical wind, in the Eaſt Indies; blowing conſtantly the ſame way during ſix months of the year, and the contrary way the remaining ſix. See *Wind*.

In the Indian ocean, the winds are partly general, and blow all the year round the ſame way, as in the Ethiopic ocean; and partly periodical, blowing half the year one way, and the other half near on the oppoſite points; which points and times of ſhifting differ in different parts of this ocean, the latter of theſe being properly the monſoons; ſo that theſe are a ſpecies of what is otherwiſe called *trade-winds*. See *Wind*.

They take the denomination *monſoon* from an ancient pilot who firſt croſſed the Indian ſea by means hereof; though

though others derive the name from a Portugueſe word ſignifying motion, or change of wind and ſea.

Lucretius and Apollonius make mention of annual winds which ariſe every year, *eteſia flabra*, which ſeem to be the ſame with what in the Eaſt Indies we now call *monſoons*.

MONTAUBAN. A city of France, ſituated in 1 deg. 5 min. of E. lon. and 44 deg. of N. lat. See *France*.

MONTET, or *Monteſſ*. A large ſcolloped baſon to waſh and cool glaſſes in.

MONTHLY *Book*. See *Book*-keeping.

MONTICHICOURS. A cotton and ſilk ſtuff manufactured in the Eaſt Indies, the piece being 5 ells long, and 2-3ds broad.

MONTPELIER. A city of France. See *France*.

MONTSERAT. One of the ſmalleſt of the Caribbee iſlands, ſituated in 62 deg. of W. lon. and 17 deg. of N. lat. See *Britiſh* America.

MOORING, at ſea, is the laying out of anchors, in a proper place, for the ſecure riding of a ſhip. See *Anchor*.

To *moor acroſs*, is to lay out one of the anchors on one ſide.

To *moor along*, is to have an anchor in a river, and a hawſer on ſhore.

To *moor quarter-ſhot*, is to moor quartering, between the two firſt ways.

Mooring for eaſt, weſt, &c. is when they obſerve which way, and on what point of the compaſs the wind or ſea is moſt likely to endanger the ſhip, and there lay out an anchor.

MOORS. A general name for the inhabitants of Morocco, Barbary, and for the natives of ſeveral other countries profeſſing the Mahometan religion.

MORAVA. A river of European Turky, riſing in the mountain of Rhodope or Argentum; and running north through Servia by Niſſa, falls into the Danube at Semendria, to the eaſtward of Belgrade.

MORAW. A river that riſes in the north of Moravia; and running ſouth through that province by Olmutz, afterwards divides Auſtria from Hungary, and falls into the river Danube to the weſtward of Preſburg.

MORFIL, or *Marfil*, is a term for elephants teeth before they have received a faſhion from art; for when cut, and worked, they are called *ivory*.

MORISQ. A money of accompt uſed at Algiers; being of two ſorts, ſimple, and double; the ſimple computed at about $5\frac{1}{2}$ d. ſterling; and the double at 7 d. ſterling.

MORLAIX. A port town of France in the province of Bretagne, ſituated on a bay of the Engliſh channel, in 4 deg. of W. lon. and 48 deg. 37 min. of N. lat.

MOROCCO. The empire of Morocco lies between 28 and 36 deg. of N. lat. and between 2 and 11 deg. of W. lon. bounded by the ſtraits of Gibraltar and the Mediterranean, on the north; by the river Mulvia, which ſeparates it from Algiers, on the eaſt; by Biledulgerid on the ſouth; and by the Atlantic ocean on the weſt; being upwards of 500 miles in length from the N. E. to the S. E. and about 480 miles in breadth: Some extend this empire as far ſouth as the river Niger, making it upwards of 1200 miles from N. to S.; but all that tract of land, from the province of Suz to Nigritia, being only a barren deſart, inhabited by Arabs, who wander from place to place, and are under no manner of government, is very improperly comprehended in the empire of Morocco.

The chief rivers are the Suz, which runs from E. to W. and falls into the Atlantic at the city of Santa Cruz: the Rabatta, which runs from E. to W. and falls into the ocean at the piratical town of Sallee: the Seba, at the mouth of which lies the piratical town of Mamora: the Lecus, on which ſtands the port-town of Larach; and the Mulvia, which runs from S. to N. divides Morocco from Algiers, and diſcharges itſelf into the Mediterranean. But none of theſe rivers are navigable for ſhips, except the Mulvia, and the mouth of that is almoſt choaked up with ſand; nor will the ports at their mouths admit of large veſſels. Arzilla, to the north of Larach, is another conſiderable port-town; and the Portugueſe are yet in poſſeſſion of Maſignan on the ſame coaſt, to the ſouth. There are alſo the bays of Tangier and Tetuan in the Mediterranean, where ſhips may ride during ſome winds, but ... very unſafe in others; and the Spaniards are yet in po... ſeſſion of Ceuta over againſt Gibraltar, as alſo of Pe... de Veloz, further to the eaſtward; but there is no ... harbour at any of theſe places.

The empire of Morocco is divided into the three gr... provinces or kingdoms of Fez, Morocco, and Suz.

1. The metropolis of Fez bears its name; being ſituated ... 6 deg. of W. lon. and 33 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. ... miles ſouth of Gibraltar; and is rather two cities join... the one called the Old, and the other the New Fe... Mequinez, the preſent reſidence of the Emperor of M... rocco, is ſituated in a delightful plain, 60 miles S. W. ... Fez, and 2 to the E. of Sallee, on the ſame river th... Sallee ſtands, and is ſaid to contain 300,000 ſou... Moors, Negroes, and Jews; which laſt tranſact all mo... ney-affairs, and all foreign trade: beſides, ſeveral Chri... ſtian ſlaves get money here, and are allowed a proper... in it; in which reſpect their condition is preferable ... that of the Moors themſelves.

The town of Tetuan is ſituated on the aſcent of ... rock, about 8 miles from a bay of the Mediterranean ... being between 20 and 30 miles S. of Ceuta, and abou... 60 S. E. of Tangier. It contains about 30,000 in... habitants; of which 5000 at leaſt are Jews, who ar... ſaid to be very poor, though all the trade of the plac... paſſes through their hands; for they are the only broke... between Chriſtians and Moors.

Tangier is ſituated on a bay of the ſea near Cape Spar... tel, juſt at the entrance of the ſtrait of Gibraltar. It w... taken from the Moors by the Portugueſe, and transferr... by them to Charles II. King of England, on his marria... with the Princeſs Catharine. When the Engliſh had ... there was a mole built for the ſecurity of ſhipping, th... heads whereof run out 300 fathom into the ſea, and were ... defended by three batteries of cannon: but theſe, upo... the parliament's refuſing to let the King have money t... maintain the garriſon, were demoliſhed by the Engliſh ... when they abandoned the place in 1683, which is now ... not very ſtrong, and has ſcarce any trade.

Sallee is ſituated in 7 deg. of W. lon. and 34 deg. of N. ... lat. on the Atlantic, 150 miles ſouth of Gibraltar; hav... ing generally a ſmall body of pirates, who make prizes o... ſuch Chriſtian ſhips as come in their way.

2. The chief town of the kingdom of Morocco, is Mo... rocco; a large old city, ſituated in a fine plain about the ... center of the kingdom, in 9 deg. of W. lon. and 32 deg. ... of N. lat.; but ſince the ſeat of the empire has been re... moved from hence, the town is extremely declined: and ... the reſt of the towns in this province are no better than ... villages.

3. The chief towns of the province of Suz, in which is ... comprehended Taffilet, are Taradant, and Taffilet; the ... former the capital of Suz, and the latter of Taffilet: but ... the reſt of the towns in this diſtrict are noted for no con... ſiderable trade; except Santa Cruz, which is a ſea-port. ... The Engliſh, Dutch, and French conſuls reſide at Sal... lee; as alſo Chriſtian merchants and Jews, who come ... from Europe for the commerce of this empire; and they ... have their warehouſes in this town.

The three nations which have conſuls at Sallee, have ... often attempted to keep ſome at Morocco, or in the ... kingdom of Suz, but it was never allowed of; and they ... were obliged to content themſelves with conſuls at ... Sallee, or Tetuan.

The ſoil produces great quantities of corn, wine, and ... oil. No country affords better wheat, barley, or rice; ... both the French and Spaniards fetching theſe from the ... Barbary coaſt, when they have ſcarcity at home. The ... Engliſh garriſons of Gibraltar and Port Mahon are alſo ... frequently ſupplied with proviſions from the African coaſt; ... though the natives of Morocco make ſome ſcruple of ... ſending corn out of their own country, as it is prohi... bited by their law.

The plains of Fez and Morocco are well planted with ... olives, and there are no better grapes for making wine in ... the world; though, as wine is prohibited Mahometans, ... the cultivation of vines is not encouraged. They have ... alſo dates, figs, raiſins, almonds, apples, pears, cherries, plums,

plums, citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, with plenty of roots and herbs, beſides excellent hemp and flax. They have alſo ſome mines of very fine copper; but they have little timber.

They have no ſhipping to carry on a trade by ſea, but the Europeans bring them whatever they want from abroad; particularly linen and woollen cloth, ſtuffs, iron wrought and unwrought, brimſtone, arms, gunpowder, and lead: for which Europeans take in return copper, wax, hides, Morocco leather, fine wool, gums, honey, ſoap, elephants teeth, oſtrich feathers, dates, almonds, and other fruits; as alſo barbs, the fleeteſt horſes in the world.

The duties of importation and exportation are 10 *per cent.* except for ſilver, which pays but 2. The duties of conſulſhip are alſo 2 *per cent.* A barrel of gunpowder is alſo paid for entrance, 12 ounces for loading and anchorage, and 12 to the government; though veſſels trading to and from Gibraltar pay but half this duty for loading and diſcharging.

European merchandiſes are firſt laid up in the warehouſes Chriſtians have at Sallee, or in other maritime towns, being afterwards ſold to the Moors and Jews; the former of which ſend them to their factors up the country.

Their trade by land is either with Arabia or Negroland. They ſend caravans to Mecca twice every year, conſiſting of ſeveral thouſand camels, horſes, and mules, partly for traffic, and partly upon a religious account; carrying with them woollen manufactures, Morocco ſkins, indigo, cochineal, and oſtrich feathers; and bringing back from thence ſilks, muſlins, and drugs. By their caravans to Negroland, they ſend ſalt, ſilk, and woollen manufactures; bringing back gold, ivory, and negroes. Theſe caravans go ſtrong enough to defend themſelves againſt the wild Arabs of the deſarts; though, notwithſtanding all their vigilance, ſome of the ſtragglers and baggage often fall into their hands. They are alſo obliged to load one half of their camels with water, to prevent periſhing with drought and thirſt over theſe extenſive deſarts.

Their navy conſiſts of only 3 or 4 ſhips, from 16 to 20 ſmall guns, with a few row-boats; and it is a great happineſs to Europeans that there is not one tolerable harbour in all the dominions of Morocco. However, with this little force, they iſſue out from Sallee and Mamora, and make prizes of great numbers of Chriſtian merchant ſhips, carrying their miſerable crews into captivity.

The manner of trading between the Arabs and the Negroes of Tombut is too ſingular and curious to be omitted.

When the caffila or caravan arrives in the place of exchange, the commanding alcair, or the King himſelf if there, deputes perſons to receive it with a great deal of ceremony, and joins always with his deputies ſome Arab or other eſtabliſhed among the Negroes, to take down the names of the ſalt merchants, or the other commodities; and to obſerve to them, that the trade is to be conducted without ſpeaking to each other, in order to avoid quarrels and diſorder; which is more religiouſly obſerved than can be expreſſed.

This commerce is always carried on by exchange, and only twice a day, that is, in the morning and evening, upon account of the too great heat of the ſun; and care is taken that the firſt comers of both nations ſhould be alſo thoſe who are firſt to diſpoſe of their merchandiſe.

For this traffic ruſh mats are extended on the ground, where each Arab ſucceſſively lays down his ſalt in different heaps of different meaſures, retiring after he has done ſo. Immediately after a Negro comes; and having conſidered ſuch heaps of ſalt as ſuit him, he places by their ſide as much gold-duſt as he thinks proper to give in exchange.

If the Arab, who returns when the Negro is gone, is ſatisfied with what is offered him, he puts a handful of ſalt near the gold, which is a ſign that he accedes to the bargain; otherwiſe the Negro adds to the gold.

When the exchange is concluded, the alcair's guards come to meaſure the ſalt, and weigh the gold; taking for his duty, or that of the King, the twelfth part of the ſalt, and an ounce for each pound of gold.

What is obſerved in the exchange of ſalt and gold, is in proportion for the other merchandiſes.

The exchanges finiſhed, which continue for ſome time, the caſilla proceeds on its journey; and the Arabs, when returned, ſell their gold, and other commodities, to ſuch Mooriſh or Jewiſh merchants as are eſtabliſhed among them, or rather make a ſecond exchange for ſuch European merchandiſes as ſuit them.

This trade to Tombut brings a great deal of gold into the territories of the King of Morocco, where it is very common; and would be more ſo, if a great quantity of it was not loſt in the ground, where the Arabs hide it, either for defrauding the King in his duties, or for uſing it according to occaſion.

Such Europeans as are willing to trade for gold-duſt ſhould be very intelligent in the matter, as the Jews and Moors often mix with it the filings of braſs. So the grand maxims for Chriſtian traders to Sallee ſhould be, to diſtruſt the Mooriſh and Jewiſh merchants as cheats by profeſſion, and moſt expert in this art. The Moors, it is true, are more to be depended upon than the Jews, though not altogether exempt from the ſuſpicion of infidelity in trade.

The Emperor has 40,000 Negroes in his army, to keep all his ſubjects in the utmoſt awe, who are of a browniſh complexion. He has a tenth of all corn, cattle, fruits, and produce of the ſoil, as well as of the captives and prizes; ſo that his annual revenue is ſuppoſed to amount to 190,000 l. ſterling.

Barbary and Morocco were formerly remarkable for trade; but it was deſtroyed when the Romans conquered Carthage. However, it revived again under the Roman and Grecian emperors; but the Vandals afterwards proved as fatal to it as the Romans under Scipio. The Moors diſpoſſeſſed the Vandals, and ſtill keep poſſeſſion of this part of Africa; where the arbitrary power of the prince, and the indolence of the people, are incompatible with the nature of trade: ſo that this fine country is of little ſervice to mankind.

MOROCCO, or *Marroquin*. The ſkin of a goat, or ſome other animal reſembling it, called menon, common in the Levant, dreſſed in ſumac or galls, and coloured of any colour at pleaſure; much uſed in tapeſtry, bookbinding, and other things.

The name is ordinarily derived from the kingdom of Morocco; whence it is ſuppoſed the manner of preparing them was firſt borrowed.

There are Morocco ſkins brought from the Levant, Barbary, Morocco, Spain, Flanders, and France, of red, black, yellow, blue, and other colours.

MOROEDJE. A ſilver coin current in Perſia, particularly at Iſpahan, 7 of which make the Engliſh crown.

MORSE. See Sea-*Horſe*.

MORTAR, in architecture, a compoſition of lime, ſand, and hair, mixed up with water; ſerving as a cement to bind the ſtones, and other parts of a building.

MORTAR-PIECE. A ſhort piece of ordnance, thick and wide, proper for throwing bombs, carcaſſes, ſhells, and ſtones.

MORTICAL. A ſilver coin ſtruck at Fez, worth 1 s. 9 d. ſterling.

MOSAIC *work*, otherwiſe called *Muſaic*, is an aſſemblage of little pieces of glaſs, marble, ſhells, precious ſtones, wood, or the like, of various colours, cut ſquare, and cemented on a ground of ſtucco, &c. imitating the natural colours and degradations of painting; in which ſenſe moſaic work includes marquetry, or inlaid work, vaneering, &c.

But, in its more proper and reſtrained ſenſe, moſaic only takes in works of ſtone, metals, and glaſs; thoſe of wood being diſtinguiſhed by the name of *marquetry* or *inlaying*.

MOSAIC *Gold*. See Moſaic *Gold*.

MOSAMBIQUE. The capital of the province of Moſambique in Africa, ſituated on an iſland at the mouth of the river Moſambique, which forms a commodious har-

bour; being in 40 deg. of E. lon. and 15 deg. of S. lat. ſubject to Portugal. See *Zanguebar*.

MOSCOSQ. A ſmall coin current in Ruſſia; 2 of which make the copeac, and 100 copeacs the ruble, or 4s. 6d. ſterling.

Moscosq is alſo a money of accompt; books being kept at Archangel in rubles, grievnas, and moſcoſqs.

MOSCOVY *empire*. See *Ruſſia*.

MOSCOW, the capital of Ruſſia before the foundation of Peterſburg, is ſituated in 38 deg. of E. lon. and 55 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. See *Ruſſia*.

MOSCOWA *river*, riſes in the weſt of the province of Moſcow, runs eaſt through that province, paſſes by the city of Moſcow, and falls into the river Ocka at Kolomna.

MOSECK. See *Arabia*.

MOSELLE. A river of Germany, riſing in the mountains of Vauge in Lorrain, runs north through that duchy, paſſing by Toul, Metz, and Thionville, to Triers; and then running north-eaſt through the electorate of Triers, falls into the Rhine at Coblentz.

MOSKITO *country*, is ſituated in North America, between 85 and 88 deg. of W. lon. and between 13 and 15 deg. of N. lat. being inhabited by people who are accounted enemies to the Spaniards, and great friends to the Engliſh. See *Spaniſh* and *Indian* America.

MOSS, *Muſcus*, in natural hiſtory, a little plant of the paraſite kind, growing on the barks of ſeveral trees, as oak, poplar, aſh, cedar, and others, as well as on the ground.

The moſt eſteemed and odoriferous moſs is that of the cedar; being of ſome medicinal uſe as an aſtringent, and proper to ſtop hæmorrhages and dyſenteries.

Moſs makes an article of commerce, ſeveral kinds thereof being uſed in medicine, perfuming, &c. among others the ſea-moſs, called coralline, and the moſs of cedar and fir, which enter the compoſition of cyprus powder.

The moſs of common trees, as oak, aſh, poplar, &c. is uſed for caulking of veſſels; as alſo by birdſellers, to prepare cages for certain kinds of birds to hatch in.

MOTYR. One of the Molucca iſlands, ſituated in 125 deg. of E. lon. and 30 min. of N. lat. See *Molucca* iſlands.

MOVEABLES, or *Moveable goods*, by civilians called *bona mobilia*, are thoſe whch are capable of being removed from one place to another; or which may be concealed or perverted, as not being fixed to the ground.

In England, there are two kinds of effects, moveable and immoveable. The moveable are ready money, merchandiſe, bonds, book-debts, cattle, and houſhold furniture, not faſtened either with iron or nail, nor ſealed in the plaiſter, but which may be tranſported without either fraction or deterioration. See *Chattel*.

MOUNT-BAY, is a harbour on the Engliſh channel, 18 miles weſt of Falmouth in Cornwall.

MOURIS. A cotton cloth brought from the Eaſt Indies, of ſeveral ſorts; as fine, coarſe, broad, narrow, white, and red; the pieces being 12 ells in length, and of different breadths; the broad fine having 1 ell 3 4ths, the narrow fine 1 ell 1 4th, the coarſe white 1 ell 3-4ths, and the red 1 ell 5-8ths.

MOUTA, is a term in the Eaſt Indies for one of the kinds of raw ſilk brought from Bengal.

MOUTASSEN. A ſort of cotton brought from Smyrna, worth 3l. ſterling the quintal.

MOUWER. A corn-meaſure uſed at Utrecht; 6 muids make 5 mouwers, and 25 the laſt, or about $10\frac{1}{4}$ quarters of London meaſure.

MOXA. A ſort of cotton, or downy ſubſtance, brought from China, and by ſome ſaid to grow on the lower part of the mugwort leaf.

It is not known in Europe for any medicinal efficacy, however celebrated in the Indies for curing the gout, by being burnt upon the part, Europeans not having faith enough to try it this way; and ſome think if they had, in all likelihood, any other cauſtic would do as well; though Sir William Temple has wrote in its praiſe.

MUDE. A ſort of Chineſe ſtuff, made of the bark of trees.

MUER. A river of Germany, which riſes in Bavaria; and running eaſt through the duchy of Stiria, by Muer and Gratz, unites with the river Drave at Legrad, near Kaniſha in Hungary.

MUID. A dry meaſure, uſed in France, or rather an eſtimation of ſeveral other meaſures; ſuch as the ſeptier, the mine, the minot, and the buſhel.

The muid of Paris is compoſed of 12 ſeptiers, each ſeptier making 2 mines, the mine 2 minots, the minot 3 buſhels, the buſhel 3-4ths, or 16 citrons, each citron being of 36 cubic inches.

The muid of Rouen contains alſo 12 ſeptiers, but make 14 of Paris, and weighs 3360 lb. avoirdupois weight.

The muid of Orleans weighs 600 lb. and that of Berry of 21 buſhels; of which there are 16 to the ſeptier.

But the muid of oats is double of that of wheat, though like it compoſed of 12 ſeptiers, each ſeptier of oats being 24 buſhels.

MUID is alſo one of the 9 caſks, or regular veſſels uſed in France for wine and other liquors, containing 36 ſeptiers, each ſeptier compoſed of 8 pints; ſo that the muid is 288 pints. One muid and a half make the queue of Orleans, Blois, Nuys, Dijon, or Macon, and one piece of Anjou, which is equal to the queue.

MUID, or *Mudd*, is alſo a Dutch meaſure for grain; ſcheppels being 1 ſack, 4 ſcheppels 1 muid, and 36 ſacks or 27 muids 1 laſt, weighing 4000 lb. avoirdupois, or about $10\frac{1}{4}$ quarters of London meaſure.

MUKEN. A corn-meaſure uſed at Antwerp; 4 of which make the viertel, and $17\frac{1}{2}$ viertels the laſt.

MUKHTESIB. A Perſian officer who has inſpection of the markets, and regulates the price of proviſions and other commodities brought into the bazars. He examines alſo the weights and meaſures, and puniſhes thoſe who uſe falſe ones.

MUL. A ſort of plain and fine muſlin, brought by the Engliſh from the Eaſt Indies; being 16 ells in length and 3-4ths in breadth.

MUL *of Cantire*. The ſouth cape or promontory of the county of Cantire, or Mul, in the frith of Clyde, on the weſt of Scotland.

MUL *of Galloway*. The ſouth cape or promontory of all Scotland, in the county of Galloway, on the Iriſh ſea.

MULATTO. A name given in the Weſt Indies to thoſe who are begotten by a Negro man on an Indian woman, or an Indian man on a Negro woman.

Thoſe begotten of a Spaniſh woman and an Indian man are called *metis*, and thoſe begotten of a Negro by a meſtis are called *jambos*; but all theſe are very different in colour, and in their hair.

MULDAW. A river of Bohemia, riſing on the confines of Auſtria; and running north through Bohemia, visiting Budeweis and Prague, uniting with the Elbe and Moldnick.

MULDER. See *Malder*.

MULMUL. See *Mallemolle*.

MULVIA. A river of Barbary; which riſing in the mountains of Atlas, runs north, dividing the empire of Morocco from the kingdom of Algiers, falling into the Mediterranean weſt of Marſalquiver.

MUM. A wholeſome kind of malt liquor, chiefly prepared in Germany; the proceſs of making which, as recorded in the town houſe of Brunſwick, the place of most note for this liquor, is as follows.

Take 63 gallons of water that has been boiled to the conſumption of a third; brew it with ſeven buſhels of wheaten malt, one buſhel of oat malt, and one buſhel of ground beans; when it is tunned, let not the hogſhead be too full at firſt; and as ſoon as it begins to work, put into it of the inner rind of fir three pounds, tops of fir of birch one pound, carduus benedictus three handfuls, flower of roſa ſolis one handful or two; burnet, betony, marjoram, avens, pennyroyal, wild thyme, of each a handful and a half; of elder flowers two handfuls and more, ſeeds of cardamum bruiſed thirty ounces, and of berries bruiſed one ounce: put the herbs and ſeeds into the veſſel when the liquor has wrought a while; and after they are added, let the liquor work over the veſſel as little as may be, then fill it up: at laſt, when it is ſto

put into the hogſhead ten new laid eggs unbroken or cracked; ſtop it up cloſe, and drink it at two years end.

Engliſh brewers uſe cardamum, ginger, and ſaſſafras, inſtead of the inner rind of fir; and add walnut rinds, madder, red ſanders, and elecampane. See *Beer*.

MUMMY. A carcaſs, or body embalmed or dried in the manner of the antient Egyptians.

Properly ſpeaking, mummy is not the fleſh of the deceaſed, but the compoſition wherewith it is embalmed; though moſt commonly mummy is alſo uſed for the body.

The preparation of mummy is of ſo old a ſtanding, that it was in uſe in Egypt before the time of Moſes. The coffin where the mummy is contained is of ſycamore wood, which is found to keep ſound for the ſpace of 3000 years; but it is very different from European ſycamore.

Mummy is ſaid to have been firſt brought into uſe in medicine by the malice of a Jewiſh phyſician, who wrote, that fleſh thus embalmed was good for the cure of divers diſeaſes, and particularly bruiſes, to prevent the blood's gathering and coagulating; but the Turks prevent the exportation of mummy into Europe as much as poſſible.

There are two kinds of bodies denominated mummies: the firſt are only carcaſſes, dried by the heat of the ſun, and by that means kept from putrefaction, frequently found in the dry ſands of Lybia.—Some ſay they are the bodies of deceaſed people buried there on purpoſe to keep them entire without embalming; others, that they are carcaſſes of travellers, overwhelmed with clouds of ſand raiſed by the hurricanes frequent in thoſe deſarts. Be that as it will, theſe mummies are of no uſe in medicine, and are only preſerved as curioſities.

The ſecond kind of mummies, are bodies taken out of the pits or catacombs near Cairo, wherein the Egyptians depoſited their dead after embalming. Theſe make the mummy ſo much valued, and to which ſuch extraordinary virtues are aſcribed.

It is ſaid that all the mummy ſold in the ſhops, whether brought from Venice or Lyons, or even directly from the Levant, is fictitious, and the work of certain Jews; who, knowing the value Europeans ſet on the Egyptian mummy, counterfeit it by drying carcaſſes in ovens, after having prepared them with powder of myrrh, Caballin aloes, Jewiſh pitch, black pitch, and other coarſe or unwholſome drugs.

The French Charlatans, it ſeems, have likewiſe got the art of preparing mummies; and their method is ſimple enough. Out of the carcaſs of a perſon hanged they take the brain and entrails, dry the reſt in an oven, ſteeping it in pitch and other drugs; and this they ſell for right Egyptian mummy.

Paræus has a very curious treatiſe of mummies, wherein he ſhews the abuſes thereof, and makes it appear that they can never be of any real medicinal uſe.

Matthiolus is of the ſame opinion, after Serapion: but both theſe authors take even the Egyptian mummies to be no more than bodies embalmed with piſſaſphaltum.

Mummy is more particularly uſed for the liquor or juice oozing from human bodies aromatized and embalmed, gathered in the ſepulchres; which is the mummy chiefly ſpoke of among the antient writers.

MUMMY alſo denotes a medicinal drug, or a viſcous compoſition, partaking of bitumen and pitch, found in the mountains and foreſts of Arabia, and other hot countries of the Eaſt, much uſed in embalming of dead bodies.

Dioſcorides ſpeaks of mummy found on the ſea-coaſt near Epidaurus, brought thither by the torrents from the Ceraunian mountains, and there dried by the ſun into great heaps. It ſmells like bitumen mixed with pitch; the people thereabouts calling it mineral wax; in Latin, or rather Greek, *piſſaſphaltum*. See *Piſſaſphaltum*.

MUN-CORN. See *Maſlin*.

MUNDICK. A ſort of marcaſite, or mineral glebe, found in the tin mines, ſometimes white, yellow, or green, but generally of a dark brown colour.

It is frequently called *maxy*, and appears to be nothing elſe but a kind of ſulphur; fire alone being found to ſeparate it from the tin, in which caſe it evaporates into ſmoke. See *Tin*.

The mundick ore is eaſily diſtinguiſhed by its brown ſad-coloured glittering, and by its diſcolouring the fingers. Some ſay it feeds the tin; and yet allow, that where there is much mundick there is little or no tin.

Tinners ſeparate it with great care from the tin, becauſe it makes it thick and curdy; but of late it has been tried, and wrought ſingly, being found to turn to very good advantage by affording copper.

The ſteams of mundick are very troubleſome to miners; yet it is found a good vulnerary; and miners uſe no other remedy for wounds but waſhing them in water that runs from the mundick ore.

MUNICH, is the capital of the electorate and duchy of Bavaria, ſituated in 11 deg. 32 min. of E. lon. and 48 deg. 5 min. of N. lat. See *Germany*.

MUNITION, or *Ammunition*. The proviſions wherewith a veſſel is ſtocked for a voyage, or that follow a camp for its ſubſiſtence. See *Ammunition*.

MURAGE, in the Engliſh cuſtoms, a reaſonable toll to be taken of every cart or horſe coming laden into a city or town, for the building or repairing the walls thereof.

MURAIS, or *Morais*. A meaſure uſed at Goa, and other Portugueſe colonies of the Eaſt Indies, for meaſuring rice and other dry pulſe; the muray containing 25 paras, and the para 22 pounds.

MURON. A fiſh found in the Black ſea, eſpecially about the mouth of the Danube, where a great fiſhery is carried on by the Turks of Kilia, who make a kind of caviac of this fiſh.

MUSCADINE. See *Wine*.

MUSICIAN. A perſon who obtains a livelihood by his ſkill in playing on ſome inſtrument of muſic.

MUSICIANS *company of London* was incorporated by letters-patent of the 2d of James I. dated the 8th of July 1604, by the title of The maſter, wardens, and commonalty of the art or ſcience of the muſicians of London; who are governed by a maſter, 2 wardens, and 20 aſſiſtants, with a livery of 31 members, whoſe fine of admiſſion is 40 s. but having no hall, they occaſionally meet elſewhere to ſettle their affairs.

MUSK. A kind of perfume, of a very ſtrong ſcent, brought from the Eaſt Indies, agreeable only when moderated by the mixture of ſome other perfume; being found in a kind of bag, or tumour, growing about the bigneſs of a hen's egg under the belly, towards the genital parts of a wild animal, called the *muſk-cat*; and appears to be nothing elſe than a kind of bilious blood congealed there, and almoſt corrupted.

This animal is pretty common in the kingdoms of Boutan, Tunquin, Cochinchina, and ſome other places; but the moſt eſteemed are thoſe in the kingdom of Thibet. They inhabit the woods and foreſts, where the natives hunt them down. When the beaſt is killed, they cut out the bladder under the belly, and ſeparate the coagulated blood, and dry it in the ſun; where it is reduced into a light friable ſubſtance, almoſt of the nature of a powder, of a duſky reddiſh colour, and acquires a very ſtrong and diſagreeable ſmell. It is then tied up again in bladders, and exported to other countries, which is the muſk introduced among Europeans.

What the antients have wrote of it is fabulous, as that it comes from the teſticles of a caſtor, which, to ſtop the purſuit of the hunter, caſtrates itſelf. The occaſion of their error may be owing to this, that among the Indians the muſk animal goes by the name of caſtor. See *Caſtoreum*.

Muſk is in conſiderable uſe among perfumers and confectioners, though much leſs now than formerly. It is ſuppoſed to fortify the heart and brain, and is good againſt deafneſs; but is little uſed in medicine, being apt to occaſion vapours.

Muſk ſold at Amſterdam is uſually from Tunquin, Bengal, and ſometimes from Muſcovy. That of Tunquin is of two kinds, in bladders, or out of bladders, both ſold by the ounce; that in bladders for about 9 s. ſterling the ounce, and out of bladders for about 14 s. ſterling.

Muſk of Bengal is ſold for about 8 s. the ounce, and all equally give 1 *per cent.* deduction for prompt payment.

As to Muſcovy muſk, it is leſs eſteemed than the other kinds; its odour, though at firſt very ſtrong, eaſily evaporating; and its price is about 3 s. the ounce.

MUSKET, or *Muſquet*. A fire-arm borne on the ſhoulder, and uſed in war, to be fired by the application of a lighted match.

The length of the muſket is fixed to 3 feet 8 inches from the muzzle to the touch-pan; and its bore is to be ſuch as may receive a ball of 16 in a pound.

Muſkets were antiently borne in the field by the infantry; at preſent they are little uſed, ſave in the defence of places, fuſees or fire-locks having taken their place. See *Arms*.

MUSKETOON. A muſket ſhorter, though thicker, than the ordinary muſket. It is fired by the colliſion of a ſteel and flint in the lock, whereas the muſket is fired by a match. Its bore is a thirty-eighth part of its length, and carries five ounces of iron, or ſeven and a half of lead, with an equal quantity of powder.

MUSKOFSKE. A ſmall ſilver Muſcovite coin, two of which are about a farthing ſterling. They are ſo ſmall, and hard to be handled, that the Ruſſians thruſt whole handfuls of them into their mouths, leſt they ſhould ſlip from their hands; yet without any impediment to their ſpeech.

MUSLIN. A fine ſort of cotton cloth, brought from the Eaſt Indies; which, with callicoes, makes the two general names of this branch of the Indian commerce. But there are ſeveral names for muſlins, as cogmoria, tans, bans, coſſas, muls, moſs, ſeer-coſſas, dom-coſſas, bords coſſas, torps-coſſas, tangs, and others. See *Callicoes*, and *Linen*.

By the ſtatute of the 11th and 12rh of William III. muſlins, landed or put out of any ſhip before entry, or without a warrant, are to be forfeited, or their value.

MUSSELBOROUGH. A port-town of Scotland, in the ſhire of Lothian, ſituated on the frith of Forth, in 2 deg. 45 min. of W. lon. and 56 deg. of N. lat.

MUST. Sweet wine, newly preſſed from the grape, or the new liquor preſſed from the fruit before it has worked or fermented. See *Wine*.

MUSTACHIO. A Venetian liquid meaſure, 76 of which make the amphora, or 16 quarts.

MUSTAGAN. A port-town of Barbary in the kingdom of Algiers, ſituated under the meridian of London.

MUSTARD. A preparation of a ſeed of that name, ground or beaten up with vinegar, or the muſt of wine, whence it is denominated.

MUSTARD *ſeed*. A warm biting ſeed, which gives the denomination to a ſpecies of topical medicines called *ſinapiſms*; and it is alſo uſed in preparing ſhagreen. See *Shagreen*.

MUSTIC. A liquid meaſure, uſed by retailers at Amſterdam; where the mingle is divided into 2 pints, 4 half pints, and 8 muſtics. See *Mingle*.

MUXADAVAT. The capital of the kingdom of Bengal, where the Engliſh have the factory of Caſſimbuzar, ſubordinate to Fort William. See *India*.

MUXARA. A port-town of Spain, in the province of Granada, ſituated on the Mediterranean in 1 deg. 50 min. of W. lon. and 37 deg. 6 min. of N. lat.

MYCONE. One of the iſlands of the Turkiſh Archipelago, ſituated in 25 deg. of E. lon. and 37 deg. of N. lat. See *Turkiſh* iſlands.

MYROBALANS. A kind of medicinal fruit, brought from the Eaſt Indies, much more uſed in the Arabic than the Greek pharmacy, and more among the antients than the moderns; but ſtill more abroad than in England.

There are five kinds of myrobalans, or purging Indian plumb; the firſt called *citrini*, yellowiſh, red, hard, oblong, and the ſize of an olive; the ſecond called *black*, or *Indian myrobalans*, the bigneſs of an acorn, wrinkled without ſtone; the third *chebuli*, the ſize of a date, of a yellowiſh-brown, pointed at the end; the fourth *emblici*, round, rough, the ſize of a gall, of a dark brown; the laſt called *bellerici*, hard, yellow, round, the ſize of an ordinary prune, leſs angular than the reſt. Myrobalans of each kind are ſlightly purgative and aſtringent.

MYRA-BOLTS. A kind of Arabian myrrh, but brought from Surat in the Eaſt Indies by Europeans.

MYRA-IGLET, is another kind of myrrh brought from the ſame place, but much inferior to the former, both in quality and price.

Myrrh is ſold at Amſterdam by the pound, affording 2 *per cent.* deduction for good weight, and 1 *per cent.* for prompt payment, its price being from 5 s. to 15 s. *per* pound.

MYRRH. A kind of gum, or reſin, iſſuing by inciſion, and ſometimes ſpontaneouſly, from the trunk and larger branches of a tree growing in Arabia, Egypt, and eſpecially Abyſſinia.

Authors are not agreed about the tree which produces this gum; for though all of them make it ſmall and thorny, they diſagree about the form of its leaves.

The inciſions are made twice a year, and the myrrh oozing out is received on ruſh mats diſpoſed underneath.

Druggiſts ſell two kinds of myrrh; one in tears, called ſtacte; the other ungulata, or in nails.

Of the firſt kind, the beſt is in bright, yellow, tranſparent drops, friable, light, of a ſtrong diſagreeable ſmell; but this is very rare; and moſt of that in uſe is the nailed myrrh, ſo called from little white ſpots obſerved thereon, much like thoſe on the nails of fingers.

The beſt is in little maſſes, or tears, red and tranſparent; which, when broken, contain a kind of unctuous liquor, the moſt precious part of the myrrh, and the real ſtacte of the antients.

This gum enters a great number of medicinal compoſitions; its bitterneſs rendering it good for the ſtomach, and againſt worms, being chewed to prevent infection from contagious diſeaſes. Dr. Quincy ſays it is excellent to cleanſe and ſtrengthen the womb, and againſt tickling rheums; a good detergent, and as much added externally in unguents for the healing of wounds. It alſo makes the principal ingredient in embalming; and chymiſts draw from it oils, ſpirits, tinctures, &c. to which they attribute extraordinary virtues.

MYRTLE *berries*. The fruit of a ſhrub well known under the name of myrtle, growing common in Spain, eſpecially in the mountains of Siera-Morena, and other places.

There are two kinds of myrtle, male and female; the latter of which produces the beſt berries, and in the greateſt quantity. The fruit is firſt green, but becomes black gradually within. It is a white ſeed, in form of a creſcent, ſolid, hard, and of an aſtringent taſte: while the fruit continues on the trees, it is ſucculent and ſmooth, and only becomes hard and wrinkled becauſe dried in the ſun for the convenience of carriage.

Myrtle berries are rough and aſtringent, being chiefly uſed in the way of ſyrup, as a ſtrengthener againſt fluxes and abortion; but they are alſo an ingredient in ſeveral of the ſtrengthening plaiſters; beſides, perfumers uſe them in their perfumes.

N.

NAP NAT

NAB. A river of Bavaria, in Germany, which riſes in Franconia; runs from N. to S. thro' the Palatinate of Bavaria, and falls into the Danube above Ratiſbon.

NAIL, is a piece of manufactured iron, braſs, or ſilver, to faſten boards together, or to adorn furniture. It alſo ſometimes ſignifies to ſtrike or confirm a bargain, by paying a part of the purchaſe immediately, or upon the nail.

NAIL, is likewiſe a ſort of Engliſh long meaſure, chiefly uſed in the commerce of cloths, containing the 16th part of a yard; being the leaſt ſubdiviſion, or ſmalleſt meaſure that drapers and mercers make uſe of, or ſell by. See *Yard* and *Meaſure*.

NAIRNE. A port-town of Scotland, in the ſhire of Inverneſs, ſituated at the entrance of the Frith of Murray, in 3 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 57 deg. 40 min. of N. lat.

NANFIO. One of the Turkiſh Archipelago iſlands, ſituated in 26 deg. of E. lon. and 35 deg. of N. lat. See *Turkiſh Iſlands*.

NANGASAQUI. One of the Japoneſe iſlands, ſituated in 130 deg. of E. lon. and 32 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. See *Japan*.

NANKING. The capital of the province of Nanking in China, ſituated in 118 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 32 deg. of N. lat. See *China*.

NANQUE. One of the ſmall five weights uſed by the inhabitants of Madagaſcar, for gold and ſilver, weighing but five grains; the ſompi, the vari, the ſacari, and the nanqui being above it. See *Sompi*.

NANTS. A city of great trade in the province of Bretagne in France, ſituated on the river Loire, in 1 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 47 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. See *France*.

NANTUCKET. An iſland of the coaſt of New England in North America, ſituated in 70 deg. of W. lon. and 41 deg. of N. lat. the people whereof apply themſelves chiefly to the whale-fiſhery on the coaſt. See *Britiſh America*.

NAP. That part of the wool or hair of woollen cloth, which riſes above the ſhoot.

NAPHTHA, or *Naptha*. A kind of liquid bitumen, very oily and inflammable, exuding out of the earth, in ſeveral places of Chaldea, particularly on the ſite of the antient Babylon; though it is alſo found in ſome provinces of Italy, and France, particularly Auvergne, and near Raguſa.

Naphtha is found ſwimming on the ſurface of the water of ſome ſprings, and is uſually of a black colour; tho' that found in certain ſprings about Babylon is ſaid to be whitiſh.

That of France is ſoft and black, like liquid pitch, and of a fetid ſmell: but that of Italy is a kind of Petrol, or a clear oil, of various colours, oozing out of a rock, ſituated on a mountain in the duchy of Modena.

Naphtha is eſteemed penetrating, reſolutive, and vulnerary; but its virtues are little known in medicine; its chief uſe being in lamps, &c. on account of its inflammability.

The Turks call the naphtha, carah ſakiz, or black maſtic, to diſtinguiſh it from pitch. Voſſius has an expreſs treatiſe on naphtha antient and modern, where he ſays it is a flour of bitumen, of more virtue than any other bitumen.

NAPLES, or one of the *Sicilies*. A kingdom of Italy. See *Italy*.

NAPLES *city*, is the capital of the kingdom, ſituated on a fine bay of the Mediterranean, in 15 deg. of E. lon. and 40 deg. of N. lat. See *Italy*.

NAPOLI *de Malvaſia*. A port-town of the Morea, ſituated at the entrance of the gulph of Napoli de Romania, in 23 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 37 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. See *Turky*.

NAPOLI *de Romania*. A port-town of the Morea, ſituated at the bottom of a bay of the ſame name in the Archipelago, in 23 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 37 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. See *Turky*.

NARBOROUGH. An iſland of South America, in the Pacific ocean, ſituated in 85 deg. of W. lon. and 45 deg. of S. lat. on the coaſts of Chili, 100 miles S. of the iſland of Chiloe, where Sir John Narborough refreſhed his men, when he was ſent into the South Sea, in the reign of King Charles II. to ſee if it was feaſible to ſettle colonies on the coaſt of Chili.

NARENZA. A port-town of European Turky, in the province of Dalmatia, ſituated on a bay of the gulph of Venice, in 18 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 42 deg. 50 min. of N. lat.

NARHAL. A large fiſh in the north ſeas, particularly upon the coaſts of Greenland, from which oil, and a kind of ivory is extracted. See *Walrus*.

NARVA. A large city and port-town of Livonia, ſituated in 27 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 59 deg. of N. lat. See *Ruſſia*.

NASARA. A ſquare ſilver coin, ſtruck at Tunis.

NATA. A port-town of Darien in Spaniſh America, ſituated on the bay of Panama, in 82 deg. of W. lon. and 9 deg. of S. lat.

NATAL *Terra*. A country on the S. E. coaſt of Africa, between 23 and 30 deg. of S. lat. and between 25 and 35 deg. of E. lon. where ſeveral European ſhips have touched, and agree it is a plentiful country; but no nation of Europe has thought fit to ſend any colonies thither.

NATRON, or *Anatron*, in natural hiſtory, a browniſh kind of ſalt, when taken out of a lake of ſtagnant water, in the deſert of Nitria in Egypt; being much of the nature of nitre, whence it is called Egyptian nitre, and is even ſuppoſed to be the proper nitre of the ancients. See *Nitre*.

It is uſed in the whitening of linen; but burns them, if not corrected by a mixture of aſhes.

The natron of Egypt, as deſcribed by Pliny, Matthiolus, and Agricola, is an alkali ſalt perforated in the manner of a ſponge, and of a lixivial taſte.

Its principles Dr. Leigh takes to be chiefly two; a ſea-ſalt and an urinous ſalt: the firſt, he takes it for granted, it receives from the earth; the ſecond, from the air.

Dr. Huntington, who was on the ſpot, ſays the natron is thought to riſe from the bottom of the lake; where, by the heat of the ſun, it is condenſed, and hardened into the form in which it is introduced among Europeans; but his opinion is, that it is rather ſeparated by the ſun from the water.

M. de la Chambre adds, that three or four days before the Nile begins to overflow, there falls a certain dew, of a fermentative virtue, inſomuch as to leaven a paſte expoſed to it; and that at the ſame time the natron riſes.

Hippocrates, Galen, Matthiolus, Dioſcorides, and others, mention it as of uſe in phyſic; and M. de Cloſs is even of opinion, that all the mineral waters of France are impregnated with this kind of nitre; from whence they derive their medicinal virtues.

It is of ſingular efficacy in fertilizing ground, which Dr. Leigh accounts for, by ſuppoſing its volatile particles heated by ſome ſubterraneous fire, or by the warmth of the ſun; and thus readily made to aſcend the minute tubes of plants, and carry with them the juices of the earth.

Pliny derives the invention of glaſs from ſome of this natron accidentally melted down into the ſand, where it ran into ſtreams of glaſs.

This nitre is diſtinguiſhed from the modern nitre or ſaltpetre, by its fermenting with acids, which ſaltpetre will not do; by its volatile ſpirit, its lixivial ſmell, the clammy inſipid ſubſtance it yields, &c. It agrees with ſaltpetre in that, by dropping ſpirit of ſulphur into it, it ſhoots into pyramidal cryſtals: but Dr. Leigh thinks it comes nearer ſal ammoniac than ſaltpetre.

Dr. Liſter conjectures, that moſt of the ſalt-water of the lakes of Egypt, having paſſed thro' the bodies of thoſe vaſt animals wherewith they are ſtocked, as crocodiles, hippopotami, and others, muſt of conſequence be rendered urinous, or ſalino-urinous, which is a part of the compoſition of ſal armoniac.

NATURALIZATION, in law, the act of naturalizing an alien, or putting him into the condition of a natural born ſubject, and intitling him to the rights and privileges thereof; whereby he becomes both a ſubject and a native of a king or country, that by nature he did not belong to. See *Alien*, and *Denizen*.

In France, naturalization is the prerogative of the King; but in England, it is done by act of parliament.

By an act of 13th Geo. II. it was enacted, that from 1ſt June 1740, all perſons born out of the liegeance of his Majeſty, who had, or ſhould reſide for ſeven years or more, in any of his Majeſty's colonies in America, and ſhould not have been abſent out of ſome of them longer than two months, at any one time during, the ſaid ſeven years; and ſhould take and ſubſcribe the oaths; or being quakers, ſhould make, and ſubſcribe the declaration of fidelity; or being people of the congregation called Moravian brethren, and other foreign proteſtants not quakers, who ſcruple the taking of an oath, are ſettled in his Majeſty's colonies in America, and demean themſelves there as a ſober, quiet, and induſtrious people, and many others of the like perſuaſion deſirous to tranſport themſelves thither, ſhall enjoy the privileges of natural born ſubjects, and all the benefits of this act: but with the proviſo of having received the Lord's ſupper, which muſt be certified by the adminiſtrator, and two credible witneſſes.

Another act of parliament was lately paſt, for naturalizing the Jews: but it was ſo diſguſtful to the people, that the legiſlature thought proper to repeal it.

NAVAL. Something belonging to the ſhipping, or ſea-affairs.

NAVAL *Power*. See *Maritime* Power.

NAVAL *Stores*. See *Stores*.

NAVAL *Trade*. See *Trade*.

NAVAL *Timbers*, among ſhip-builders, are ſometimes what they call puttocks, and ſometimes the ribs.

NAVARINO. A port-town of European Turkey, in the province of the Morea, ſituated 12 miles N. of Modon, and 90 S. W. of Corinth.

NAVARRE, was formerly a diſtinct kingdom, ſubject to its own ſovereign; but one part is now become a province to Spain, and the other part a province to France.

NAVIDAD. A port-town of Mexico in North America, in the province of Mechoachan, ſituated on the Pacific ocean, in 110 deg. of W. lon. and 19 deg. of N. lat.

NAVIGATION, is a compound branch of practical mathematics, that applies arithmetic, geometry, and aſtronomy, to the conducting of a ſhip from one port, kingdom, or place, to another; the neareſt, ſafeſt, and beſt way, in the ſhorteſt time: by computing the ſeveral courſes ſteered, and allowing for currents and other hindrances; and frequently obſerving the latitude of the ſeveral places they ſucceſſively are in, to direct their courſe.

It is to this art, ſuppoſed to be handed down to us from the Tyrians, and Carthaginians, that commerce owes its increaſe, or rather its entire perfection; and it muſt be confeſſed that trade flouriſhes in a maritime ſtate, in proportion to the ſolid eſtabliſhment of its navigation; on the contrary, that it languiſhes, and often falls to nothing by reaſon of its neglect. See *Commerce*, *Merchant*, *Sailing*, and *Shipping*.

Common NAVIGATION, uſually called *Coaſting*, is where the ports are on the ſame, or very neighbouring coaſts, and where the veſſel is ſeldom out of ſight of land, or out of reach of ſounding. In this little elſe is required but an acquaintance with the lands, the compaſs, and ſounding line.

Proper NAVIGATION, is where the voyage is long, and out in the main ocean. In this, beſides the requiſites in the former, are likewiſe required the uſe of Mercator's chart, azimuth, and amplitude compaſſes, log-line, and other inſtruments for celeſtial obſervations, as quadrants, ſtaffs, &c.

Navigation turns principally on four things; two whereof being known, the reſt are eaſily found from them by tables, ſcales, and charts. Theſe four things are, the difference of latitude; difference of longitude; the reckoning, or diſtance run; and the courſe, or rhumb ſailed on.

The determining of longitude is what is wanting to the perfection of navigation; mathematicians of many ages have applied themſelves with the utmoſt aſſiduity to ſupply this grand deſideratum, but hitherto in vain, notwithſtanding the magnificent rewards of ſeveral princes, and ſtates, to the diſcoverer. See *Longitude*.

It does not appear which of the European people firſt took themſelves to navigation, and commerce. Some think it began with the French; though the Italians ſeem to have the juſteſt title to it, particularly thoſe of Venice and Genoa.

About the ſame time that navigation was retrieved in the ſouthern parts of Europe, the famous league of the hans towns, commonly ſuppoſed to have begun about the year 1164, was formed in the north. See *Hans*-towns.

It need only be added, that in examining the reaſons why commerce paſſed ſucceſſively from the Venetians, Genoeſe, and hans-towns, to the Portugueſe and Spaniards, and from thoſe again to the Engliſh and Dutch, it muſt be eſtabliſhed as a maxim, that the relation between commerce, and navigation, or rather their union is ſo intimate, that the fall of the one, inevitably draws after it the other, and that they will always either flouriſh or dwindle together.

Hence ſo many laws, ordinances, ſtatutes, &c. for the regulation, and hence particularly that celebrated act of navigation, which an eminent foreign author calls the Palladium, or tutelar deity of the commerce of England, which is too important not to be here mentioned, as it is the ſtanding rule, not only of the Engliſh among themſelves, but alſo of other nations with whom they trade.

Act of Engliſh NAVIGATION, is a ſtatute whereby the parliament of England have ſettled divers matters relating to the navigation and commerce of the kingdom.

Till this act all nations were at liberty to import into England all kinds of merchandiſes, whether of their own growth, or laden elſewhere, and that on their own veſſels.

Cromwell firſt perceiving the prejudice this liberty did the Engliſh commerce, which was now almoſt wholly in the hands of foreigners, chiefly the Dutch, whom he hated, animated the Engliſh, by ſeveral acts of parliament, to reſume their trade into their own hands; particularly paſſed an act prohibiting the Dutch from importing any merchandiſes, except thoſe of their own growth, or manufacture, which were very few.

Upon the reſtoration, the firſt parliament Charles II. called diſtinguiſhing in Cromwell the politician from the tyrannicide, condemned the memory of the one, and followed the plan of the other with regard to navigation and commerce; by paſſing that celebrated bill, or act for the encouraging of ſhipping, and of navigation, which ſubſiſts in its full latitude, and antient vigour. Its date is from the firſt December 1660 12th Car. II. c. 18. and its chief articles are as follow:

1. That no goods, or commodities, ſhall be imported or exported to, or from any of the Engliſh colonies in Aſia, Africa, or America, but on veſſels built within the dominions of England, or really belonging to Engliſh ſubjects, and whoſe maſters, and at leaſt three fourths of the mariners are Engliſh, on pain of forfeiture of the goods and veſſels.

Under the name Engliſh here are comprehended all the King's ſubjects of England, Ireland, and the plantations, as was explained in a ſubſequent act 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11.

2. That no perſon born out of the ſubjection of England, or not naturalized, ſhall exerciſe any commerce in thoſe colonies for himſelf or others.

3. That no merchandiſes of the growth of Aſia or America ſhall be imported into any of the dominions of England, on any other than Engliſh veſſels.

4. That no goods of foreign growth, or manufacture, that ſhall be brought into England, Wales, Ireland, iſlands of Jerſey or Guernſey, or town of Berwick on Tweed, in Engliſh built ſhipping, or other ſhipping belonging to the foreſaid places, and navigated by Engliſh mariners as aforeſaid, ſhall be ſhipped, or brought from any other place, or country, but only from thoſe of the growth, or manufacture thereof.

5. That all kinds of dry and ſalted ſea-fiſh, train-oils, blubber, and whale-fins, not caught by Engliſh veſſels, imported into England, ſhall pay double duties.

6. That the commerce from port to port in England and Ireland ſhall be carried on wholly by Engliſh veſſels and Engliſh merchants; the crew to be always three-fourths Engliſh.

7. That none but Engliſh veſſels ſhall reap the benefit of the diminutions made, or abatements to be henceforth made in the cuſtoms.

8. All veſſels are prohibited importing into England, and Ireland, any of the commodities of Muſcovy, or even any maſts or other timber, foreign ſalt, pitch, roſin, hemp, prunes, raiſins, oil of olive, any kind of corn, or grain, ſugars, aſhes, ſoap, wine, vinegar, or brandy, except veſſels, whereof Engliſh are owners, or part owners, and where the maſter and three-fourths of the mariners are Engliſh. And that no currants, or other commodities, the growth or manufacture of the Turkiſh empire, ſhall be imported, but in Engliſh built veſſels, and navigated as aforeſaid, except only ſuch veſſels as are of the built of the country, or place whereof ſuch commodities are the growth, or manufacture, or of ſuch part where ſuch goods are uſually ſhipped for tranſportation, and unleſs the maſter, and three-fourths of the crew be natives of the country where they are laden.

9. All timber, maſts, boards, ſalt, pitch, tar, roſin, hemp, flax, raiſins, figs, prunes, olive oils, corn, or grain of any kind, ſugar, potaſhes, brandies, or wines, and all goods of the growth and manufacture of Muſcovy, all currants, and Turkiſh goods imported into England, &c. in other than ſuch ſhipping, and ſo navigated, ſhall be deemed aliens goods, and pay accordingly.

10. That to prevent frauds in buying, and diſguiſing foreign veſſels, the proprietors ſhall take an oath that they really belong to them, and that no alien has any part in them.

11. That Engliſh veſſels, and navigated by Engliſh, may import into the dominions of England any merchandiſes of the Levant, tho' not taken up in the places where they grow, or are manufactured; provided it be in ſome parts of the Mediterranean, beyond the ſtraights of Gibraltar. And the ſame is underſtood of commodities brought from the Eaſt Indies, provided they be taken up in ſome port beyond the Cape of Good Hope; and thoſe from the Canaries, and other colonies of Spain, and the Azores and other colonies of Portugal, which are allowed to be ſhipped, the one in Spaniſh ports, the other in Portugueſe.

12. Theſe penalties, prohibitions, and confiſcations, not to extend to goods taken by way of repriſal from the enemies of England, nor to fiſh caught by the Scots, or their corn, and ſalt, which may be imported into England by the Scotch built ſhips.

Laſtly, that ſugars, tobacco, and other commodities of the growth of the Engliſh colonies, ſhall not be imported into any other part of Europe but the dominions of England. And that veſſels going out of the ports of the ſame crown for the Engliſh colonies, ſhall give 1000 l. ſecurity if under 100 tons, and 2000 l. if above, before they depart, that they will import their cargo into ſome port in the ſaid dominions, and the like before they quit thoſe colonies, that they will land their whole cargo in England. See Great *Britain*.

NAVY, is ſometimes underſtood of the whole maritime force, or power of any nation, or kingdom; and ſometimes it means alſo ſo many ſhips as are in company together for ſome warlike expedition.

The direction of the royal navy of England is in the lord high Admiral, or commiſſioners of the admiralty, and the principal officers under them, who hold their places by patent. See *Admiralty*.

The principal officers of the navy are four; The treaſurer, whoſe buſineſs is to receive monies out of the Exchequer, and to pay all the charges of the navy, by warrant from the principal officers. The comptroller, who attends, and comptrolls all payment of wages, is to know the rates of ſtores, to examine and audite all accompts, &c. The ſurveyor, who is to know the ſtate of all ſtores, and ſee wants ſupplied, to eſtimate repairs, charge boatſwains, &c. with what ſtores they receive, and at the end of each voyage, to ſtate, and audite accompts. The clerk of the acts, whoſe buſineſs is to record all orders, contracts, bills, warrants, &c.

Commiſſioners of the NAVY are five. The firſt executes that part of the comptroller's duty which relates to the victuallers accounts. The ſecond another part of the ſaid comptroller's duty relating to the accompts of the ſtore-keepers of the yard. The third has the direction of the navy at the port of Portſmouth. And the fourth has the ſame at Chatham.

The navy was antiently victualed by contract, but the victualling is now under commiſſioners, who keep their office on Tower-hill.

The ordinary expences of the navy in a year of peace, continuing in harbour, is ſo well regulated that it amounts to ſcarce 130,000 l. a year.

The number of ſhips and veſſels in the navy as it ſtood in 1710, was 7 firſt rates, 13 2d rates, 46 3d rates, 65 4th rates, 68 5th rates, 40 6th rates, 5 fireſhips, 7 bomb-veſſels, 18 yachts, 1 advice boat, 2 brigantines, 7 ſloops, 4 ſtore-ſhips, 13 hulks, 26 hoys, and 2 ſmacks.

But in 1748, there were 6 ſhips of 100 guns, 13 of 90, 16 of 80, 25 of 70, 32 of 60, and 34 of 50; being 126 ſhips of the line including the laſt; beſides 30 of 40 guns, and 45 of 20; 43 ſloops, 16 bombs, and 19 fireſhips; in all 279.

And in 1751, there were 5 firſt rates, 11 ſecond rates, 48 third rates, 58 fourth rates, 42 fifth rates, and 50 ſixth rates; in all 90 ſhips of the line; beſides 125 frigates, 42 ſloops, 12 fireſhips, 8 yachts, and 14 hoſpital ſhips; in all 291.

The building, and maintaining many good ſhips, both for war and traffic, is the chief and main foundation of an extenſive and advantageous commerce: for it is certain, this cannot be attained without the ſupport of a conſiderable fleet; as it is on the other hand impoſſible to keep up a great fleet, without the conſtant ſuccour of a very extenſive and advantageous commerce. So that theſe are two inſeparable companions, and one cannot ſubſiſt without the other.

A prince employing his ſhipping with ſpirit, and courage, is arbiter and lord of the world. Arms upon land threaten, and ſtrike in one part only, but upon the ſea every where. No prudence can keep a coaſt always provided, and upon its guard; no power ſufficiently protect it. It is the ſea that humanizes nations, that would otherwiſe be fierce and untractable, without the communication of ſhipping, by means of which nations underſtand each others language; and antiquity hints it to us by a fable, that makes the helm of the ſhip Argos ſpeak, giving us to underſtand, that by means of ſhips nations aſſiſt, and have communication with each other. For it is the rudder that makes a kingdom ſhare in the bleſſings and riches of all other kingdoms: one country furniſhes mutually another with all it wants; which neceſſity, and convenience, oblige to a friendly commerce, and a benevolence to mankind, from the want they have of each other.

A maritime power is more convenient to ſome than other kingdoms, according to their ſituation and circumſtances. The monarchies of Aſia require rather land forces than a

navy,

navy. Venice and Genoa, that are ſituated, the former in the ſea, the latter cloſe to it, and rather upon a rock in the ſea, than in a bay, and in a territory barren and incapable of cultivation, placed all their ſtrength in the oar and the ſail. Both republics were glorious, and dreaded by all the world, ſo long as theſe were ſet a juſt value upon; eſpecially as commerce provides arms for its own defence, bringing along with it ſkill in navigation, making ports ſo many armouries and magazines, and introducing wealth into a kingdom for the ſupport of each individual. The Republics of Sidon, Ninive, Babylon, Rome, and Carthage, by means of commerce, abounded in wealth, and armies. When trade and navigation began to droop at Venice, and Genoa, all opportunities of exerciſing their valour, and of acquiring trophies of glory were loſt. In a ſmall ſandy diſtrict, incapable of cultivation by the ſpade, or plough, Holland maintains powerful armies, from the abundance and riches of the ocean, and provides for populous cities ſo near to one another, that the moſt fruitful ſoil could not ſupply their wants. France poſſeſſes neither mines of gold nor ſilver; but with traffic, and puerile toys of iron, lead, and tin, makes its induſtry valuable. And the Portugueſe ſenſible of the advantages of commerce, opened in unknown ſeas, and by force of arms, a trade with the Eaſt.

To compleat this article, it will not be improper to give the dimenſions, number of guns, and men of a ſhip, built after the rules practiſed in Spain, and alſo of ſome others built in France, England, Genoa, and Campeche, as repreſented by a Spaniſh author.

The St. Lewis built in Spain in the year 1715, a third rate.

	Spaniſh Cubits.	Inches.
Length of the tread of the keel	60 1/3	
Length on the gun-deck	70 1/2	
Breadth on the beam	18 1/2	
Depth	9 1/4	
Main tack	19	2
Quarter deck	17 1/4	

	Pounders.	Guns.
The loweſt tier	18	26
The ſecond tier	12	26
The third tier	6	8
Total of guns		60

It is to be obſerved, that in manning ſhips of war at Cadiz, they neither obſerve the old cuſtoms of Spain, nor yet that of the French, Engliſh, or Dutch, and therefore each of them ſhall be given diſtinctly.

The number of hands on board the ſhips of the Spaniſh fleet in general, was after the rate of 26 ſailors, and 26 mariners to 100 tons. But in the capitana, and admiral's ſhip, after the rate of 28 of each ſort to 100 tons; and upon account of the ſignals 100 hands more; as 50 ſailors, and 50 mariners, were added to the compliment of each ſhip, agreeable to ſeveral royal ordinances made between the years 1677 and 1682.

To a ſhip of 60 guns were allowed as many gunners, and a fourth more, making in all	75
There was added a fourth of this number 75, and 16 ſea officers which make	18
There were ſailors equal in number to both theſe ſums, and a fifth more, or	111
Boys equal to a third part of the ſailors, or	37
Total	241
To theſe 241 mariners were added, the ſame number of marines	241
Both ſums, in which their officers are included, make	482

The compliment of a French man of war is three men, a gunner, a marine, and a ſailor, to every four pounder.

To a 6 pounder	5 men.
To an 8	7
To a 12	9
To an 18	11
To a 24	13
To a 36	15

So that a ſhip of 60 guns, as the St. Lewis, which mounted 26 eighteen pounders, 26 twelve pounders, and 8 ſix pounders, according to this rate had for her compliment 560 hands.

The Engliſh and Dutch ſay they have a man leſs than the French to every gun, ſo that their compliment of a 60 gun ſhip muſt be after this rate 500 hands.

A Spaniſh ſhip's compliment for 60 guns, 482 hands. French, 560 hands. Engliſh and Dutch, 500 hands.

The ſhip Nueſtra Senora de Begona, built at Genoa, in the year 1703, a fourth rate.

	Cubits.
Length by the tread of the keel	63
Length on the gun-deck	70
Breadth on the beam	20
Depth	9
Main-tack	20
Quarter-deck	19

N. B. The Roman cubit is 1 Engliſh foot, 5 1/2 inches.

Tons 905
Men 450

	Pounder.	Guns.
Lower tier	24	1
Ditto	12	1
Upper tier	8	2
Forecaſtle	6	
Stern chaſe	8	
Total of guns		5

The ſhip Nueſtra Senora de Guadalupe built at Campeche in the year 1702, a fourth rate.

	Cubits.
Length by the tread of the keel	55
Length on the gun-deck	64
Breadth on the beam	17
Depth	9
Main-tack	17
Quarter-deck	16
Tons 725	
Men 358	

	Pounders.	Guns.
Lower tier	18	2
Upper tier	8	2
Forecaſtle	4 and 6	8
Total of guns		5

The Hermione frigate built at Breſt in 1702, a fourth rate.

	Cubits.
Length by the tread of the keel	56
Length on the gun-deck	64
Breadth on the beam	16
Depth	7
Main-tack	16
Quarter-deck	15
Tons 500	
Men 300	

	Pounders.	Guns.
Lower tier	8	2
Upper tier	6	2
Forecaſtle	3	
Total of guns		5

The ſhip Conqueſtador built in England, 3d rate.

	Cubits.
Length of the tread of the keel	63
Length on the gun-deck	73
Breadth on the beam	18
Depth	8
Main-tack	18
Quarter deck	17
Tons 776	
Men 530.	

	Pounders.	Guns.
Lower tier	18	2
Upper tier	12	2
Forecaſtle	8	1
Total of guns		6

From what has been laid down, is ſeen the dimenſions, onnage, number of guns, and the complement of hands n certain ſhips of war, built within the laſt 25 years in pain and other kingdoms; as alſo how much nations iffer from one another in their rules of naval architecture. The Dutch ſhips of war are not in general of ſo large a uilt, and force, as thoſe of the French and Engliſh; which owers during the reign of Lewis XIV. not only rivaled ach other in the rates and force of their men of war, ut in theſe reſpects exceeded other nations; as we are enſible that the ſhips of war in Sweden, Denmark, Muſcovy, Venice, and the Ottoman empire, are inferior ven to the Dutch, at leaſt according to the plan which heſe powers for ſeveral years paſt have laid down, and urſued.

Tho' the French fleet contains ſeveral ſhips that exceed 80 guns, and it is alſo known that in the vaſt navy of England there are alſo ſeveral ſhips of war from 90 to 100 uns, it is allowed, as it were, by all people of experi- nce in maritime affairs, that theſe are not of ſervice in roportion to their charge, magnitude, and number of ands, from the difficulty there is in managing them, the reat danger they run in going in and out of ports, and pon the coaſts, and from other inconveniencies; ſhips f this vaſt bulk, and number of guns, being uſually uilt in times when money was very plentiful; ſerving ather for oſtentation than uſe in expeditions at ſea.

n the 22d year of King Geo. II. an act was paſſed for mending, explaining, and reducing into an act, the laws elating to the government of his Majeſty's ſhips, veſſels, nd forces, by ſea: whereby all former acts were repealed; nd it was enacted, that the articles and orders therein mentioned, as well in time of peace as in war, ſhould be bſerved and put in execution as therein appointed.

AVY *Debt.* See Navy *Debt.*

AUTICAL, or *Nautic*, ſomething belonging to ſea af- airs.

AUTICAL *Planiſphere*, is a deſcription of the terreſtrial globe upon a plane, for the uſe of mariners.

AUTICAL *Chart.* See Sea *Chart.*

AUTICAL *Compaſs.* See *Compaſs.*

AXIA, or *Nixia.* One of the Turkiſh iſlands in the Archipelago, ſituated in 26 deg. of E. lon. and 36 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

AZE, or *The Naze*, is the moſt ſoutherly point of land n Norway, dividing the German ocean from the Scag- erick ſea.

EALED *too*, in navigation, is ſpoke of the ſhore, ſtrand, or bank of a ſea, that is very deep without any gradual topping, or regular ſhallowneſs.

EAP, or *Neep Tides*, are thoſe tides which happen when the moon is in the middle of the ſecond and fourth quarters. The neap tides being low tides, in reſpect to their oppoſites the ſpring tides. See *Tide.*

As the higheſt of the ſpring tides is three days after the full or change; ſo the loweſt of the neap is four days before the full or change; on which occaſion the ſeamen ſay, it is *deep neap.*

EAPED, when a ſhip wants water, ſo that ſhe cannot get out of the harbour, off the ground, or out of the dock, the ſeamen ſay, ſhe is *neaped*, or *beneaped.*

NEAR, among ſailors, is the directing the ſteerſman to let the ſhip fall to the leeward.

EAT, or *Net Weight*, the weight of a commodity alone, clear of the caſk, bag, caſe, and even filth. See *Net and Weight.*

EAT. A beaſt, or one of the larger eatable cattle; as oxen, cows, heifers, and ſteers.

EAT-*leather*, is made from the hides of ſuch cattle; and neats foot oil from their feet.

ECANEES. Striped, blue and white linens, manu- factured in the Eaſt Indies; the broad ſort of 12 ells in length, and 3-4ths in breadth; the narrow, 10 ells in length, and 2-3ds breadth.

ECKAR. A river of Germany, which riſes in the ſouth of the circle of Suabia, runs north through that circle; then, paſſing by Tubingen, Stutgard, Hailbron, and Morſbac, turns weſt, and falls into the Rhine at Man- heim. See *Rhine.*

ECK-*lace.* See Neck-*lace.*

NEEDLE. A very familiar little inſtrument, or utenſil, made of ſteel, pointed at one end, and pierced at the other; uſed in ſewing, embroidery, tapeſtry work, and other occaſions.

Needles make a very conſiderable article in commerce; and the conſumption thereof is almoſt incredible. The ſizes are from N° 1. the largeſt, to N°. 25 the ſmalleſt; diſtinguiſhed by the names of ſtitching-needle, ſtocking-needle, packing-needle, and others.

There is ſcarce any commodity cheaper than needles, which will appear ſomething extraordinary, conſidering the great number of operations they undergo before they are brought to perfection.

German and Hungary ſteel is of moſt repute for needles; which is drawn in wire to the fineneſs of the needle deſigned, cut into lengths, then the eye is ſtruck, and the point filed down.

Magnetical NEEDLE, denotes a needle touched with a loadſtone, and ſuſtained on a pivot or centre, on which playing at liberty, it directs itſelf to certain points in or under the horizon. See *Magnet.*

Magnetical needles are of two kinds, *horizontal* and *inclinatory.*

Horizontal NEEDLES, are thoſe equally balanced on each ſide the pivot which ſuſtains them; and which playing horizontally, with their two extremes point out the north and ſouth points of the horizon: but for their application and uſe, ſee *Compaſs.*

Dipping NEEDLE, or *Inclinatory Needle*, a magnetical needle ſo hung, as that inſtead of playing horizontally, and pointing out north and ſouth, one end dips or inclines to the horizon, and the other points to a certain degree of elevation above it. Or a dipping needle may be defined, with Mr. Whiſton, to be a long ſtrait piece of ſteel every way equally poiſed on its center, and afterwards touched with a loadſtone; ſo contrived as not to play on the point of a pin, as does the common horizontal needle; but to ſwing in a vertical plane, about an axis parallel to the horizon, and this in order to diſcover the exact tendency of the power of magnetiſm.

In order to find the longitude or latitude by the dipping needle; if the lines of equal dip below the horizon be drawn on maps, or ſea charts, from good obſervations, it will be eaſy from the longitude known to find the latitude, and from the latitude known to find the longitude, either at ſea or land.

Suppoſe you were travelling, or ſailing along the meridian of London, and found the angle of dip, with a needle of one foot, to be 75 degrees; the chart will ſhew, that this meridian, and the line of dip meet in the lat. 53 deg. 11 min. which therefore is the latitude ſought.

Or ſuppoſe you were travelling, or ſailing along the parallel of London, that is in 51 deg. 32 min. north latitude, and you find the angle of dip to be 74 deg. this parallel, and the line of this dip, will meet in the map in 1 deg. 46 min. of eaſt longitude from London; which is therefore the longitude ſought.

Declination of the NEEDLE, is the variation of the horizontal needle from the meridian; or the angle it makes with the meridian, when freely ſuſpended in a horizontal plane. The needle is not found to point preciſely to the north, except in very few places; but deviates from it more or leſs in different places, and that too at different times; which deviation is called the *declination.*

NEEDLE-*maker.* A perſon who makes needles.

NEEDLE-*makers company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of Oliver Cromwell, dated the 10th of November 1656, by the ſtile of The maſter, wardens and ſociety of the art or myſtery of needle-makers of the city of London; who are governed by a maſter, two wardens, 18 aſſiſtants, and 48 liverymen; whoſe fine is 3 l. 6 s. and 8 d. but having no hall, they tranſact their buſineſs in Guildhall.

NEEDLES. Two capes, or points, at the weſt end of the Iſle of Wight, very difficult to paſs on account of the ſands and rocks.

NEESEWORT. See *Hellebore.*

NEGAPATAN. A port-town of the Hither India, ſituated on the Coromandel coaſt, in 79 deg. of E. lon. and 11 deg. 15 min. of N. lat.

NEGOMBO. A port-town of the iſle of Ceylon, ſituated in 78 deg. of E. lon. and 7 deg. 25 min. of N. lat. See *Ceylon*.

NEGRAIS. A port-town of Pegu in the Further India, ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the bay of Bengal, in 92 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 17 deg. of N. lat.

NEGRIL-*point*. The moſt weſterly promontory of the iſland of Jamaica, in America.

NEGRILLO. A kind of metallic or mineral ſtone, taken out of ſome mines of ſilver in Chili; which is black, and when mixed with lead is called *plomo-ronco*.

NEGRO *Cape*. A promontory of Angola, on the weſt coaſt of Africa, ſituated in 14 deg. of E. lon. and 17 deg. of S. lat. being the moſt ſoutherly country of Africa, to which the Europeans reſort to purchaſe ſlaves.

NEGROE-*land*, or *Nigritia*. See *Guinea*.

NEGROES, are black ſlaves, which make a conſiderable article in the modern commerce. See *Guinea*, and *Slave*; *Aſſiento*, and *African* Companies.

The negroes, called alſo blacks, and Moors, are a people of Africa, whoſe country extends on each ſide the river Niger, and is called Nigritia; tho' whether the people communicated their name to the river and country, or received it therefrom, is not eaſily determined.

The origin of negroes, and the cauſe of that remarkable difference in their complexion from the reſt of mankind, has much perplexed the naturaliſts; nor has any thing ſatiſfactory been yet offered on that head.

They are brought from Guinea and other coaſts of Africa, and ſent into the colonies of America to cultivate ſugar, tobacco, indigo, and other things; but in Peru and Mexico they are employed to dig in the mines.

This commerce, ſcarce juſtifiable on the footing either religion or humanity, is now carried on by all the nat s that have ſettlements in the Weſt Indies; particularly ıe Engliſh, Dutch, Spaniards, and Portugueſe.

The Spaniards indeed have few negroes at firſt hand, but have always treated with other nations to furniſh them therewith: thus they were formerly furniſhed by the company of the Grilles eſtabliſhed at Genoa, ſince by the Aſſiento in France, and after the peace of Utrecht by the Engliſh South Sea company.

The beſt negroes are brought from Cape Verd, Angola, Senegal, the kingdom of Toloffis, that of Galland, Damel, and the river Gambia.

A negro, between 17 or 18 and 30 years of age, was antiently only valued at about 45 s. in the commodities proper for that country, which are brandies, iron, linen, paper, braſs-pots, baſons, &c. but their value is now much enhanced, and it is ſeldom they meet with a good negro for 5 l. frequently giving 7 or 8.

There are various ways of procuring them: ſome to avoid famine ſell themſelves, their wives and children, to their princes or great men, who have wherewithal to ſubſiſt them: others are made priſoners in war; and great numbers ſeized in excurſions made for that very purpoſe by the petty princes upon one another's territories, in which it is uſual to ſweep off all both old and young, male and female.

The negroes make a frequent practice of ſurpriſing one another while the European veſſels are at anchor; dragging thoſe they have caught to them, and ſelling them; it being no extraordinary thing to ſee the ſon ſell after this manner his father or mother, and the father his own children, for a few bottles of brandy, and a bar of iron.

As ſoon as the ſhip has its complement, it immediately makes off; the poor wretches while yet in ſight of their country, falling into ſuch deep grief and deſpair in the paſſage, that a great part of them languiſh, fall into ſickneſs and die: others of them diſpatch themſelves by refuſing their food; others by ſtopping their breath in a manner peculiar to themſelves, by turning and folding their tongue, which immediately ſtrangles them; others daſh out their brains againſt the ſhip, and others jump over board.

The only ſure means to preſerve them is to have ſome muſical inſtrument play to them, be it ever ſo mean: but this exceſſive love for their country abates as they get farther off.

At their arrival in the colonies, a good negroe is ſold for 38

or 40 l. they make the chief riches of the inhabitants of the plantations; and a man who has 12 negroes is eſteemed to be in good circumſtances.

NEGROES-*Iſland*. One of the Philippine iſlands in the Indian ocean, ſituated in 120 deg. of E. lon. and 10 deg. of N. lat. See *Philippines*.

NEGROPONT. Capital of the iſland of Negropont in the Turkiſh archipelago, ſituated in 24 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 38 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

NEIVA. A river of Muſcovy, ſeparating Carelia from Ingria, on which the capital city of Peterſburg ſtands having its riſe in the lake Ladoga; and, running weſt falls into the gulph of Finland.

NELSON *Fort*. A Britiſh ſettlement on the weſt ſide of Hudſon's bay, ſituated at the mouth of Nelſon's river in 91 deg. of W. lon. and 57 deg. of N. lat.

NEMBROSI. A kind of ſaffron, much eſteemed, and growing in Egypt.

NEPHRITIC *Wood*, *Lignum Nephriticum*, a kind of medicinal wood growing in New Spain, chiefly in the kingdom of Mexico, called by the Indians *Coult*, and *Tlacopatly*, as being reputed ſovereign againſt nephritic pains. It muſt be choſen well cleared of its bark and rind, of a bitter taſte, and a reddiſh yellow colour; but when infuſed in cold water, gives it a ſky blue tincture, if viewed by a falſe light, and a gold colour by a true one: a little of any acid being mixed with the tincture, both colours diſappear; but a little oil of tartar reſtores its ſky blue. Some ſubſtitute ebony, and others red Brazil wood, for lignum nephriticum; but the deceit becomes apparent by infuſing it in water.

NEPHRITIC *Stone*. A ſort of precious ſtone, ſo called from its extraordinary virtues againſt the ſtone and gravel in the kidneys.

It is a ſpecies of jaſper, commonly of an uniform duſky green colour; but ſometimes variegated with white, black, or yellow; ſeeming only to differ from jaſper in its being harder, and always without any red.

It is brought chiefly from New Spain, where it is ſometimes found in pieces large enough to make moderate cups; but there is ſome likewiſe found in Old Spain and Bohemia.

This ſtone is very dear, by reaſon of the wonderful virtues aſcribed to it: a cup made of it being ſold for 160 crowns in the time of the Emperor Rudolphus II.

The beſt for medicinal uſe is of a bluiſh grey, fat and unctuous, as talc of Venice.

The Indians of New Spain, who firſt diſcovered its uſe and taught it the Europeans, wear it hung about their necks, after having cut it into various figures, chiefly beaks of birds: whence ſome Charletans take occaſion to counterfeit it, by cutting jada and other ſtones into the figures; and ſell them at great prices to thoſe who have an opinion of their nephritic faculty.

NERIND. A white cotton cloth, being a ſort of baffeta but narrow, and pretty coarſe, brought from the East Indies.

NERO, or *Fort Naſſau*. A fortreſs at the weſt end of the Banda iſlands of the ſame name; by which the Dutch command the navigation of theſe ſeas, ſituated in 128 deg. of E. lon. and 4 deg. of S. lat. See *Banda* Iſlands.

NESTS *of birds*. A kind of ſpice much eſteemed in China and throughout the Eaſt Indies, found in Tunquin and Cochinchina; but particularly in Chiampa. The birds which make theſe neſts for laying and hatching their eggs are not unlike ſwallows; and when engendering evacuate by the bill a kind of glutinous matter, with which they build their neſts, faſtening them to the rocks, by applying this viſcous ſubſtance in different ranks one over the other till the firſt are dry; theſe neſts being of the form of a middling ſpoon, but with higher raiſed edges.

There is ſuch an abundance of theſe neſts, that every year ſeveral quintals are gathered, and brought to China, where they are ſold for 50 taels the quintal, or more ſterling. They are reputed good for the ſtomach and brain; and they give the meats they ſeaſon a very delicious taſte.

NET, in commerce, ſomething pure and unadulterated with any foreign mixture.

Thus wine is ſaid to be net when not adulterated, and coffee, rice, pepper, &c. are net when the filth and ordures are ſeparated from them.

A diamond is ſaid to be net when it has no ſtains or flaws; and a cryſtal when tranſparent throughout.

NET, is uſed for what remains after the tare has been taken out of the weight of any merchandiſe; that is, when it is weighed clear of all package. See *Tare*.

Thus we ſay, a barrel of cochineal weighs 450 pounds; the tare is 50 pounds, and there remains net 400 pounds.

NET-*produce*. A term to expreſs what any commodity has yielded, all tare and charges deducted: but merchants ſometimes uſe the Italian words *netto proceduto* for net produce.

NETHERLANDS, or the *Low Countries*, ſo called from their low ſituation, near the mouths of ſeveral great rivers, had the ancient name of Belgia. Theſe provinces are 17 in number, and formerly enjoyed great privileges; being governed by ſeveral princes, and in 1430 became united in the houſe of Burgundy: in 1506 they came under the dominion of Spain, by a marrgiage between the heireſs of Burgundy with a prince of Spain; and were conſtituted part of the circle of Burgundy by the emperor Charles V. But Philip II. of Spain ſucceeding his father Charles V. perſecuted and oppreſſed his ſubjects in the low countries, either upon account of their oppoſing his encroachments on their liberties, or embracing the doctrines of the reformation; which occaſioned a civil war in theſe countries. The ſeven provinces of Holland, Zealand, Friezeland, Groningen, Overyſſel, Guelderland, and Utrecht, formed an alliance in 1579, threw off the Spaniſh yoke, made themſelves a free people, and have ever ſince been called the *United Provinces*. But the other ten provinces were reduced to the obedience of Spain, and were ſubject to that crown, till conquered by the allies, and reſigned to the Houſe of Auſtria by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713; under whoſe dominion moſt of the ten ſtill remain, and are called the Auſtrian Netherlands: though the French and Dutch are in poſſeſſion of ſome parts of them, called the French and Dutch Netherlands.

The whole 17 provinces are ſituated between 2 and 7 deg. of W. lon. and 50 and 54 deg. of N. lat. being 300 miles long from N. to S. and 200 broad from E. to W. bounded on the German ſea on the north; by Germany eaſt; by Lorrain and France ſouth; and by the Britiſh ſeas weſt. But for the ſeven united provinces, ſee *United* Provinces.

The ten provinces of the Netherlands, not comprehended in the union of Utrecht, and now ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria, and France, except ſome ſmall part of Brabant, and Flanders, which the Dutch have made themſelves maſters of, are the duchy of Brabant, the county of Flanders, the county of Artois, the county of Hainault, the county of Cambreſis, the county of Namur, the duchy of Luxemburg, the duchy of Limburg, the marquiſate of the Holy empire, or Antwerp, and the lordſhip of Malines, or Mechlin. Theſe ten provinces are bounded by the ocean, and the united Netherlands towards the north; by Germany on the eaſt; by Lorrain and part of France on the ſouth; and by another part of France, and the Britiſh ocean towards the weſt; being ſituated between 2 and 7 deg. of E. lon. and 49 and 51 deg. of N. lat. about 200 miles in length from E. to W. and about 130 in breadth from N. to S.

The N. W. part of theſe provinces only is waſhed by the ocean, and is a very unſafe coaſt, on account of the numberleſs ſhelves and ſands which lie upon it. The only ports are thoſe of Graveling, Dunkirk, Newport, Oſtend, and Sluys, and theſe will ſcarce admit ſhips of any great burden; the beſt being Oſtend and Sluys.

The chief rivers of theſe ten provinces are the Maeſe, Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Nethe, Geet, Senne, Rupple, Scheld, Lis, Scarpe, Deule, Dender, and Aa. Beſides theſe rivers, there are as fine canals here as in Holland, tho' not ſo many, the chief whereof are thoſe of Bruſſels, Ghent, and Middleburg.

The towns poſſeſſed by the Dutch in the Netherlands are Boiſleduc, Breda, Bergen-op-zoom, Maeſtricht, Grave, Lillo, Steenbergen in Brabant: Sluys, Axel, Hulſt, and Sas van Ghent in Flanders. By the Auſtrians, Bruſſels, Louvain, Vilvorden, Landen in Brabant: Antwerp, Mechlin, in their reſpective lordſhips: Limburg, Dalem, Franquemont, Valkenburg, in Limburg; Luxemburg in the province of the ſame name; Namur, Charleroy in Namur; Mons, Aeth, Enguien, in Hainault; Ghent, Bruges, Oſtend, Neuport, Oudenard, Courtray, Dixmude, Ypres, Tournay, and Menin, in Flanders. By the French, in Luxemburg, Thionville, and Montmedy; in Hainault, Valenciennes, Buchain, Conde, Landrecy; in the Cambreſis, Cambray, Crevecœur; in Artois, Arras, St. Omer, Aire, St. Venant, Bethune, and Terouen; in Flanders, Liſle, Dunkirk, Douay, Mardike, St. Amand, and Graveling.

The ſoil of this country is very different, being in ſome parts a deep rich mould, in others a barren ſand: in the former are large corn fields, paſture grounds, with plenty of foreſt and fruit trees; and that which was formerly eſteemed a barren ſoil is equal, if not preferable to the former at preſent, as it produces the beſt flax and hemp; having alſo received great improvements with ſown graſs, turneps, and other garden ſtuffs.

Their principal manufactures conſiſt of fine lawns, cambrics, lace, and tapeſtry; with which they carry on a very advantageous trade, eſpecially with Great Britain, from whence it is computed they receive a balance of half a million annually in time of peace. They have alſo a good woollen manufacture, particularly camblets and ſtuffs.

The French NETHERLANDS. Liſle, or Ryſſel, in French Flanders, is the capital and centre of its commerce; being ſituated in 3 deg. of E. lon. and 50 deg. 42 min. of N. lat. on the river Deule, 12 miles W. of Tournay. Its different manufactures, and the enterprizes of its traders, employ upwards of a hundred thouſand artificers, either within the city, or in its ſuburbs, or in the flat country, and the neighbouring towns; which are Douay, Mardike, St. Amand, Graveling, and others.

The commodities produced in this part of Flanders, are corn, turneps, hay, wood, fruits, wool, flax, horſes, horned cattle, butter, and oil of Colzat.

The manufactures conſiſt in woollen cloths, ſerges, ratines, and ſeveral other ſtuffs of wool only, or mixed with ſilk and thread. There is alſo a diverſity of linens, leathers variouſly dreſſed, ticking, or tent-cloth, camblets, damaſks, velvets, white and black lace of thread or ſilk, tapeſtries, gilt leather, pipes, matches, paſteboard; ſtockings, breeches, and other hoſiery wares, either knitted or woven; baſkets of fine oſiers; hats; barracans, crapes, blanketting, and a variety of ſuch like merchandiſes. All theſe manufactures are eſtabliſhed in the city of Liſle, and the commerce of them is very great.

The manufactures of the other towns are as follow: at Orchies mock velvets are made; at Douay the ſame things in proportion as at Liſle; at Armentiers, ſtamines, ſome cloths, and a few woollen ſtuffs, it being alſo in this town that all the cloths manufactured in the neighbourhood are ſold. At Lanoy, and its dependencies, ſome woollen ſtuffs are made.

Great parcels of linens are manufactured at Gorche, and bleached admirably well in the ſame place: the fair called Mayolle, held there yearly on the firſt of May, being famous for the great ſale of linens of all qualities.

At Roubais and Turcoing are ſeveral manufactures of woollen ſtuffs, or mixed with ſilk and wool, principally deſigned for Spain, and other foreign countries; ſome alſo are ſent into France, and even to Paris.

Beſides all theſe merchandiſes, woollen yarn ſpung at Turcoing, and in the low country; flax prepared aud unprepared; raw and bleached thread; bituminous earth extracted from ſome marſhy grounds; ſeveral curious flowers for the embelliſhment of gardens, ſold at Paris and elſewhere; are no indifferent objects of commerce for French Flanders.

The city of Liſle maintains a great commerce, not only with the neighbouring ſtates, as France, Holland, the reſt of the low countries, and ſome places of Germany; but

but alſo with Spain, Portugal, England, Ireland, Italy, and the northern countries.

Its neighbouring commerce is carried on by the means of canals and rivers; beſides land-carriages for Paris, and ſome of the ſouthern provinces of France: it was alſo by land-carriages that the Spaniſh commerce was carried on, during the war for the ſucceſſion of this monarchy; and there are yet ſeveral perſons who continue this cuſtom.

The ports of Calais and Dunkirk ſerve for the freighting of the merchandiſes, which the Liſle traders embark for Normandy, Bretagne, Guienne, Provence, and Languedoc; it is alſo in the ſame ports, and in that of Oſtend, that they freight for the north, England, Italy, Holland, Spain and Portugal.

The merchandiſes which the Liſle traders ſend into France, are velvets, linens, flax, worſted yarn; the lace of the country, that of Bruſſels, Mechlin, and Louvain; butter, flowers, oils of Colzat, and ſeveral woollen ſtuffs. Thoſe they ſend to Holland conſiſt in unbleached linens, worſted yarn, oil of Colzat, and fruits. Thoſe to Spain and Portugal are diverſe woollen ſtuffs, white and black thread lace, ſilk lace of the ſame colours, linens, thread, haberdaſhery and hoſiery wares. Thoſe to the northern countries conſiſt in French wines, and brandies, ſalt, coarſe cloths, and ſpice. To Savoy, in linens, and woollen ſtuffs. To the Auſtrian Netherlands, in woollen ſtuffs, French wines, ſilks, and oil of Colzat.

The merchandiſes which the Liſle merchants have in return for thoſe they export, are from France, wine, brandies, confects, dry fruits, oils, ſilk ſtuffs, gauzes, gold and ſilver lace, ſilks, ribbands, cloths, fine woollen ſtuffs different from thoſe of the Flemiſh manufacture, hard and haberdaſhery wares, books, paper, Spaniſh wax, bougies, hats, ſtockings, perukes, arms, ſulphur, ſaltpetre, glaſs and earthen-ware. From Holland, woollen cloths, ſalt fiſh, ſpice, horſes, drugs, indigo, whale-fins, pot-aſhes, wood for dying, wood for joiners, cabinet-makers, and for building; ſaltpetre, ſulphur, alum, cheeſe, ſalt-fleſh, horn, ivory, wax, hemp, callicoes, porcelain, with other Chineſe and Japoneſe curioſities. Spain and Portugal furniſh them with gold and ſilver, wool, oils, ſalt, oranges, lemons, olives, and fruits, either dry or conſerved. England and Ireland ſend them woollen cloths, and ſtuffs; butter, ſalt-fleſh, tallow, leather, lead, tin, coals, cyder, bottles, beaver-hats, furs, cane and ruſh works, ſilk and woollen ſtockings, and Indian curioſities. The returns from the north are corn, hemp, honey, cordage, maſts, potaſhes, pitch, flax-ſeed, ſkins, and whale-fins. Italy and Savoy give them ſilks, oils, citrons, oranges, dry fruits, gauzes, and liquors. Laſtly, from the Auſtrian Netherlands, and ſome parts of Germany, they have wool, ſilk, butter, cheeſe, oil, glaſs, copper, iron, lead, wire, camblets, laces, and white and blue linens.

Dunkirk, is ſituated in 2 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. of N. lat. being a port-town on the Engliſh channel, at the mouth of the river Coln, 20 miles E. of Calais, 24 S. W. of Oſtend, and 50 E. of Dover. This port would never admit of large men of war; but great miſchief was done from thence by light frigates and privateers; which made Great Britain inſiſt on the harbour and fortifications being demoliſhed by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713.

It was always a place of conſiderable trade; however it muſt be confeſſed, that it was never more flouriſhing than ſince the French became maſters of it; eſpecially ſince the declaration of 1662, whereby it was re-eſtabliſhed in all its ancient franchiſes, exemptions, and immunities; its port declared free for all merchants and traders of what nation ſo ever to go aſhore, purchaſe, and bring out of the town all kinds of merchandiſes free, and acquitted from all duties.

The merchants of Dunkirk have two principal trades; that which they carry on themſelves, with their own ſhips, for exporting their own merchandiſes; and that which they have with ſtrangers, who come to them with the commodities of their own country.

A third trade for Dunkirk is the freighting of ſeveral merchandiſes brought to it from the neighbouring towns and provinces, particularly from Liſle. Laſtly, a fourth is that which it keeps on foot with the interior part of France, and with the towns of the Auſtrian Netherlands, as Bruges, Ghent, Antwerp, Bruſſels, and ſeveral others.

There are at Dunkirk merchants of all kinds, and from almoſt all the nations of Europe; ſome of whom trade on their own account, and others by commiſſion.

The foreigners with whom the merchants of Dunkirk trade moſt, or who ſend moſt ſhips to Dunkirk, are the Spaniards, Portugueſe, Engliſh, Iriſh, Scotch, Dutch, Swedes, Danes, and all the reſt of the north and Baltic ſea.

Spain ſends a diverſity of wines, Campechy wood, currants, and ſeveral Weſt India commodities.

Portugal furniſhes fruits, oils, Brazil tobacco, great cargoes of wines and ſugar.

The merchandiſes imported there from England, are coals, lead, copperas, alum, tin, raw hides and ſkins, leather, and tobacco.

Thoſe from Ireland conſiſt in butter, ſalt beef, tallow, an abundance of raw hides, leather, and pickled ſalmon in caſks. From Scotland ſcarce any thing but coals imported, except pickled ſalmon in caſks.

Theſe three trades are very briſk, and in time of peace more ſhips from theſe three nations are ſeen at Dunkirk than from all other nations together. But it ſhould be remarked, that more ſhips arrive freighted by commiſſion than upon the account of the Dunkirk merchants.

As to the commerce of the Dutch with Dunkirk, it conſiſts in ſo many different kinds of merchandiſe, that it is not poſſible to make an exact enumeration of them; ſo that it is more adviſeable to refer the treating thereof to the article of the Dutch commerce, under the United Provinces.

From Norway to Dunkirk are imported timber, ſpars, planks, and pitch; but not ſo good as that of Sweden.

From Riga, hemp, maſts, iron, ſteel, pitch, wax, corn, cordage, Pruſſia planks, potaſhes, corn, and linſeed.

From Sweden, iron, copper, pitch, and tar.

From Dantzic, corn, potaſhes, ſteel, wool, and leather which comes from Poland and Pruſſia.

Laſtly, from Hamburg, wool, tin, ſtarch, oak planks for ſhips, oats, peaſe, and wheat.

During the wars of Lewis XIV. the Swedes, Danes, and ſome other neutral nations, had all the trade of Dunkirk in their hands; but always with great riſques, upon account of the Oſtend and Zealand privateers who uſually blockaded the entrance, and who, notwithſtanding their neutrality, made prizes of all the ſhips they could ſeize.

Beſides foreign veſſels trading to Dunkirk, ſeveral French ſhips and barks alſo come there, for the moſt part laden with wines, brandies, ſalt, vinegar, prunes, raiſins, honey, and ſyrups: taking in return from thence corn, planks, pitch, little maſts, lead, and hemp.

The ports of France that ſend moſt ſhipping to Dunkirk are Bourdeaux, Nantz, Rochelle, Brouage, Bourneau, St. Martins de Rhe, and ſome other ports of Bretagne and the government of St. Aunis.

Some arrive alſo from Languedoc, and Provence: eſpecially from Marſeilles, which bring to Dunkirk oil, raiſins, anchovies, almonds, aniſe, rice, and all ſorts of Levantine drugs and merchandiſes.

Sometimes the cargo of theſe laſt is compoſed partly of the wines and brandies of Provence and Languedoc; but it is only when the Nantz and Bourdeaux wines and brandies are not good, or in ſufficient quantity.

All the merchandiſes that come from Marſeilles ſell well at Dunkirk; becauſe the merchants there can redistribute them into Ypres, Liſle, Cambray, Valenciennes, Tournay, St. Omers, Artois, and Picardy.

The merchandiſes of Nantz and Bourdeaux ſell well, but not ſo conſiderably; becauſe Calais, Boulogne, and ſome other ports of Picardy, jointly with Dunkirk furniſh the adjacent country with the like commodities.

When corn is ſcarce in Provence, Languedoc, or Spain, the merchants of Dunkirk ſend there great quantities.

They freight alſo for Cadiz ſeveral ſtuffs manufactured chiefly at Liſle: ſome of which are all of wool, others

nixed with ſilk, and others wholly of ſilk, goat, or camels hair. They add to theſe cargoes, linens of various ſorts, eſpecially cambrics.

It is true that the greater part of the ſhips from Dunkirk, for the Spaniſh and Portugal trade, are ſupplied with their cargoes by the merchants of Liſle, and ſome others of the principal towns of French Flanders; the Dunkirk merchants having ſcarce any thing more than the advantage of freight. However, there are ſome who trade upon their own account; but the greater number are freighters, who let their veſſels either by the month, the voyage, or otherwiſe.

The natives of Dunkirk pretend, that the cod-fiſhery formerly flouriſhed there in ſuch a manner as to employ between five and ſix hundred buſſes, with ſeveral thouſands of ſeamen; beſides fifty maſter-coopers, who had each ſeven or eight journeymen to work at caſk-making: but at preſent it is very inconſiderable.

Gravelike, is a port-town, ſituated in 2 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. of N. lat. 4 miles W. of Dunkirk; which the French were about to fortify after the demolition of Dunkirk; but deſiſted on ſome remonſtrances made on that head by the Britiſh court.

Graveling, is alſo a ſea-port, near the mouth of the river Aa, and the Engliſh channel, 12 miles S. W. of Dunkirk, and 8 miles E. of Calais: but not conſiderable for trade.

The provinces of *Artois* and *Cambreſis* are entirely ſubject to the French. The town of Arras is ſituated in 2 deg. 50 min. of E. lon. and 50 deg. of N. lat. on the river Scarpe, 12 miles S. of Douay, and 20 miles N. W. of Cambray; having both linen and woollen manufactures; but it is chiefly diſtinguiſhed for its tapeſtry, which from this town firſt received the name of Arras.

St. Omers is a town of ſome trade; having a communication with the ſea, by a navigable canal, cut from thence to Graveling: it is ſituated on the river Aa, 20 miles S. of Dunkirk, and 18 S. of Calais. But Aire, St. Venant, Bethune, and Terrouen, are no ways remarkable for trade.

Cambray is ſituated on the river Schelde, near its ſource, in 3 deg. 15 min. of E. lon: and 50 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. 12 miles S. E. of Douay; being conſiderable for its linen manufactory, particularly cambrics, which took their name from hence. But Crevecœur has no trade.

In the province of *Hainault*, the French have the town of Valenciennes, ſituated in 3 deg. 33 min. of E. lon. and 50 deg. 24 min. of N. lat. on the river Schelde, 15 miles S. of Tournay; having conſiderable manufactures of ſilk and fine linen. But Bouchain, Conde, and Landrecy have little trade.

In the province of *Luxemburg*, the French have the towns of Luxemburg, Thionville, and Montmeidy: but without any remarkable trade.

Auſtrian NETHERLANDS. In *Flanders*, the Houſe of Auſtria has ſubject to it, the cities of Ghent and Bruges; with the towns of Oſtend, Neuport, Oudenard, Courtray, Dixmude, Ypres, Tournay, and Menin.

Ghent, or *Gaunt*, is the capital of the earldom of Flanders, being the largeſt city of the Netherlands, and little inferior to the largeſt towns in Europe. Its ſituation is in 3 deg. 36 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. of N. lat. on four navigable rivers, the Schelde, the Lys, the Lieue, and the Mourwater, 30 miles N. W. of Bruſſels: being very commodious for commerce, upon account of the many canals that from all ſides of Flanders, Brabant, Zealand, and the ſea, empty themſelves into it.

It is 12 miles in circumference, being divided into 26 lands, by the rivers and canals which run throught it; over which are laid 100 bridges.

The principal merchandiſes brought from thence are corn, flax, hemp, and colzat, a kind of red cabbage, affording the rape-ſeed; of which laſt the trade is very conſiderable, and of great profit to this town.

Its threads and lace are almoſt as beautiful as thoſe of Mechlin: it has alſo ſeveral linen manufactures, and ſome of woollen ſtuffs.

The merchandiſes proper for this town are the ſame as for Antwerp; which are enumerated below.

Ghent is one of the three cities of the Auſtrian Netherlands, where the directors of the Oſtend company were to reſide every three years.

Bruges, is ſituated in 3 deg. 5 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 16 min. of N. lat. 11 miles E. of Oſtend, and 24 N. W. of Ghent. This town is one of the moſt mercantile places of all the Auſtrian Netherlands; and, with Oſtend and Ghent, was ſet apart for the reſidence of the directors of the Oſtend company.

It has a navigable canal which brings up the ſhipping from Oſtend; and it was once the ſtaple for Engliſh wool.

The commodiouſneſs of the canals that facilitate the communication of Bruges with Oſtend, is the reaſon that its merchants have bent the ſtreſs of their trade towards the ſea; tho' they alſo carry on a very conſiderable one by land.

Its port is at the end of the canal which comes from Oſtend; and the baſon where the canal terminates is ſo great, that it might very well contain upwards of a hundred merchant ſhips.

At Bruges, and in its neighbourhood, great parcels of beautiful linens, that paſs for hollands, are ſold in a market held weekly upon the arches of the town-houſe or guildhall.

It is in the ſquare before this town-houſe that almoſt all the warehouſes are erected for Spaniſh and Engliſh wool, Italian ſilks, cotton, and other materials, which ſerve to ſupport the manufactures of this important city.

The ſtuffs manufactured there are for the moſt part ſerges and camblets, for the uſe of Spain, and the Spaniſh Weſt Indies.

Bruges lace paſſes for that of Mechlin; being ſold on the ſame footing. And corn is a conſiderable article of its trade.

The imported merchandiſes are much of the ſame nature with thoſe proper for the other towns of Brabant and Flanders, which are mentioned below.

Oſtend, is ſituated in 2 deg. 45 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. 12 miles W. of Bruges. The ſituation of this town, which is the only conſiderable port of the Auſtrian Netherlands on the ocean, is very commodious for maintaining a conſiderable commerce. The tide which comes up to the little river Geule, at the mouth of which it is ſituated, brings up the largeſt ſhips to the midſt of its incloſure, where they ride entirely ſafe in the two ports formed there by the waters of the river, and the ſea.

It is by the merchant ſhips equipped in Oſtend that the greater part of the other towns of Flanders, and Brabant, ceded to the Emperor by the treaty of Raſtadt, particularly Antwerp, Bruges, and Ghent, carry on their maritime commerce.

Before this treaty, the merchants of Oſtend contented themſelves with ſending their ſhipping into the different ports of Spain; among others, to St. Sebaſtians and Bilboa; from whence they brought wool, iron, and ſome other commodities of the growth of Spain.

This is eſteemed one of the ſtrongeſt towns in Flanders, and is the beſt harbour on that coaſt, tho' the town is not large. The late Emperor Charles VI. intended to eſtabliſh an Eaſt India company here: but was obliged to relinquiſh his deſign by the Engliſh and Dutch.

Neuport, is a port-town, ſituated 9 miles S. W. of Oſtend, and 16 N. E. of Dunkirk: but it has little trade. Ypres has ſome ſilk and woollen manufactures. Menin has a manufacture of linen, and another of hats; beſides a bleach-yard for thread. Tournay has a manufacture for woollen ſtockings, aud earthen ware. But the other places for trade are very inconſiderable.

In the province of *Hainault*, the towns of Mons, Aeth, and Enguien, are ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria. Mons is ſituated 26 miles S. W. of Bruſſels, and 22 S. E. of Tournay, upon the confluence of the rivers Haine and Trouille; and Aeth is ſituated on the Dender, 12 miles N. W. of Mons: but neither of them are remarkable for

trade; though the province is productive of many things fit for commerce; particularly iron, coal, glaſs, linens, lace, earthen-ware, flax, hops, corn, bark for tanning, fire-wood, butter, and cheeſe.

The province of *Namur* is entirely ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria; containing the towns of Namur and Charleroy, which have little trade.

In the provinces of *Luxemburg* and *Limburg*, two towns of the ſame name are ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria, but are of no conſequence in trade; though the provinces have good arable and paſture land, with plenty of wood, and ſome of the beſt iron mines in the Netherlands.

The provinces of *Antwerp* and *Mechlin* are ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria, being ſurrounded by Brabant.

Antwerp is the capital of that part of the Netherlands, called the marquiſate of the Holy Empire, ſituated in 4 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. on the eaſtern ſhore of the Schelde, 25 miles N. of Bruſſels, and as many N. E. of Ghent.

This city is built in form of a creſcent upon the river, which is 22 feet deep, and 400 yards wide; ſo that veſſels of great burthen come up to the key; and canals are cut through the town from the river, which bring up the leſſer veſſels to their doors. Two hundred years ago, Antwerp was the greateſt port and place of trade in Europe; but this trade is now removed to Amſterdam, and other towns in Holland; the Dutch having built forts at the mouth of the Schelde, and ruined the trade of this city.

The ſuperb houſe of the Eaſterlings is a remarkable inſtance of the extent of the former commerce of Antwerp: and the remains of the great warehouſe, ſtill to be ſeen there, will be an eternal monument of the grandeur of a trade, which, divided as it now is, was the riſe, and is ſtill the ſupport, of Amſterdam, Rotterdam, and ſome other trading places in the United Provinces. See *United* Provinces.

Several free fairs are held at Antwerp, which bring merchants there from all parts of the world: the principal of which are, that of Whitſuntide, and that between the feaſt of St. Remigius and St. Bavon.

The bleach-yards eſtabliſhed in the neighbourhood of Antwerp are in ſuch great eſteem, that linens are ſent there to be bleached from the remoteſt parts of the Auſtrian Netherlands.

The Antwerp manufactures of tapeſtry are in ſome reputation; ſo is alſo the art of printing, but much degenerated ſince the time of the famous Plantin.

The chief of all the manufactures eſtabliſhed at Antwerp, and which principally ſupports its commerce, is that of thread-lace, made in imitation of Mechlin lace. Great quantities of this lace are yearly bought up by the French and Dutch; as well as threads of all kinds, which are ſpun excellently in that town and neighbourhood.

The merchandiſes ſent by ſtrangers there, eſpecially by the French and Dutch, and which ſell beſt, are all ſorts of gold, ſilver, and ſilk ſtuffs; cloths, and woollen ſtuffs; grocery-wares, potaſhes, wines and brandies; French, Spaniſh, and Portugueſe ſalts; herrings, and ſtock-fiſh; olive, train, and linſeed oils; callicoes, and muſlins; refined ſugar, and molaſſes.

The city of Mechlin, or Malines, is ſituated in 4 deg. 22 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 10 min. of N. lat. on the rivers Dyle and Demer, which unite before they reach this city. It ſtands 12 miles N. E. of Bruſſels, 11 N.W. of Louvain, and 13 S. E. of Antwerp; being a large well built city, conſiſting of ſeveral iſlands, made by the branches of the Dyle, or canals, over which are built a great many bridges. It is remarkable for its manufactures of lace and thread; as alſo of gilt-leather: beſides, it is famous for old ſtrong beer, with which they ſerve the other provinces. But its importations are much the ſame with thoſe of Amſterdam.

In the province of *Brabant*, there are ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria, the city of Bruſſels, with the towns of Louvain, Vilvorden, and Landen. Bruſſels is ſituated in 4 deg. 6 min. of E. lon. and 50 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. on the river Senne, 25 miles S. of Antwerp, and 30 S. E. of Ghent: it is the reſidence of the Auſtrian governor of the Low Countries; and its commerce is much the ſame with that of Antwerp. Louvain is ſituated on the river Dyle, 15 miles N. of Bruſſels, and 12 S. E. Mechlin; having been very conſiderable for its manufactures, and has ſtill a good trade in fine linen: but at preſent it is moſt conſiderable for its univerſity, which contains 43 colleges. But Vilvorden, and Landen, have no trade.

The Dutch NETHERLANDS. In *Flanders* the Dutch have the towns of Sluys, Axel, Hulſt, and Sas Van Ghent. Sluys is ſituated in 3 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 18. min. of N. lat. oppoſite to the iſland of Cadſant, 10 miles N. E. of Bruges, and 21 N. W. of Ghent; but neither this, nor any of the other towns are remarkable for trade.

In the province of *Limburg*, the Dutch have the towns of Dalem and Franquemont, or Valkenburg; which are of no conſequence in trade.

In the province of *Brabant*, the Dutch are in the poſſeſſion of the towns of Boiſleduc, Breda, Bergen-op-zoom, Maeſtricht, Grave, Lillo, and Steenbergen; none of any of theſe remarkable for trade; being conſidered only as fortified places, given to the Dutch as a barrier against the French.

Dr. Davenant ſays, that the balance between Great Britain and the Netherlands, is much in favour of the former; but he muſt have been miſtaken; as the Britiſh merchants export broad cloth, druggets, long-ells, flannels, ſtuffs, ſugar, tobacco, tin, and lead, to the Netherlands: from whence they receive fine cambrics, linens, lawns, lace, linen thread, and tapes, to a very great value; which are all articles of luxury, and make the balance very much againſt Britain.

NEVEL. A ſmall Indian coin of baſe alloy, uſed on the Coromandel coaſt, 8 or 9 of which make the fanam, and 15 fanams the pagoda, or 7 s. and 8 d. ſterling.

NEVIS. One of the Caribbee iſlands, ſituated N. W. of Guadalupe, in 62 deg. of W. lon. and 17 deg. 10 min. of N. lat. See *Britiſh* America.

NEUTRAL *Iſlands*. See *Caribbee* Iſlands.

NEW-BRITAIN. See *Britiſh* America.

NEWCASTLE. A town of Northumberland, on the river Tine, famous for its coal pits, ſituated in 1 deg. 10 min. of W. lon. and 55 deg. of N. lat.

NEW-ENGLAND. See *Britiſh* America.

NEWFIDLER *Sea*. A lake on the N. W. of Upper Hungary, 35 miles long.

NEW-FOREST. A part of Hampſhire, ſituated on the Engliſh channel, oppoſite to the Iſle of Wight; appropriated for the growth of oaks to build the royal navy, by act of parliament.

NEWFOUNDLAND. See *Britiſh* America.

NEW-*Guinea*. See *Papous Terra*.

NEW-*Holland*. An unknown country, S. of the Oriental iſlands, to which the Dutch have given this name, but planted no colonies in it.

NEWPORT, or *Neuport*. A port-town of the Auſtrian Netherlands, ſituated in 2 deg. 40 min, of E. lon. and 51 deg. 18 min. of N. lat. See *Netherlands*.

NEWPORT-*town*, is a maritime town of Natolia, in Turky, about 16 leagues diſtant from Smyrna. See *Turky*.

NEW-*River Company*. See *Water*-works.

NEWSOL. A town of Upper Hungary, ſituated 50 miles N. E. of Newhauſel, and 10 miles N. of Chremnitz, conſiderable for its copper mines, which are the richeſt in Hungary; ſilver being frequently extracted from them.

NEWS-*papers*, are periodical printed papers, either publiſhed by authority of ſtates for the intelligence of the people, or printed by private perſons for their own emolument. Theſe papers are now of great ſervice to the trading world, particularly in the Britiſh dominions, where they are the beſt channels of information between buyers and ſellers, who advertiſe what they want to buy or ſell. Theſe papers employ many hands in the printing buſineſs, conſume great quantities of paper, and contribute largely to the public revenue by the ſtamp and advertiſement duties to which they are ſubjected. See *Duty*.

Gazettes are the authoriſed news-papers of moſt countries, particularly of England and Ireland. The London Gazette, and ſeveral other news papers, are publiſhed in Lon-

London; at York, Briſtol, Norwich, Exeter, Reading, and Newcaſtle, two at each place; at Glouceſter, Worceſter, Northampton, Stamford, Nottingham, Cheſter, Derby, Ipſwich, Leeds, Canterbury, Kendal, Colcheſter, Sherborne, Birmingham, and Oxford, one in each place. At Edinburgh two; and at Dublin four, beſides the Dublin gazette.

NEW-*York*. See *Britiſh* America.

NEXIA. A Daniſh town, on the iſland of Bornholm. See *Denmark*.

NICARAGUA *Lake*, and river, runs thro' the middle of the province of Nicaragua in Spaniſh America; the weſt end lying within 5 leagues of the South Sea, and the river which runs from it falls into the North ſea; but there are ſuch terrible cataracts, or waterfalls, in the river, that it is not navigable in many places.

NICARIA. One of the Turkiſh Aſiatic iſlands in the Archipelago, ſituated in 26 deg. of E. lon. and 37 deg. of N. lat.

NICHOLAS, *St.* A port-town of Ruſſia, in the province of Dwina, ſituated on the White ſea, in 41 deg. of E. lon. and 64 deg. of N. lat.

NICHOLAS, *St.* See Cape *Verd* Iſlands.

NICOBAR *Iſlands*, are ſituated in the Indian ocean, between the iſland of Sumatra, and the Andoman iſlands, at the entrance of the bay of Bengal, 300 miles W. of the further peninſula of India, between 92 and 94 deg. of E. lon. and between 7 and 10 deg. of N. lat. The largeſt of theſe iſlands, which gives name to the reſt, and lies fartheſt ſouth, is 40 miles long, and 15 broad. The natives are of a tawny complexion, and live in little huts, having no towns, and go almoſt naked. Their country is covered with wood; producing no corn; but they have a fruit which they boil, and eat inſtead of bread. They have alſo cocoa nuts, plantains, and other tropical fruit, on which they live, with the fiſh they take; but ſeem to ſlight fleſh, though they have hogs and poultry enough, which they ſell to ſuch ſhips as touch here: and yet theſe people, as well as their neighbours of the Andoman iſlands, were reported to be Canibals, when the Europeans firſt viſited them. The natives, in return for the proviſions they furniſh ſhips with, take iron, tobacco, and linen: but they ſeem to have no commerce with the adjacent continent; nor do they appear to be of any of the ſects of religion among the Indians, as they have no images or temples, and ſeem to worſhip the moon.

NICOMEDIA. A city of Aſiatic Turky, ſituated at the bottom of a bay of the ſea of Propontis, in 39 deg. of E. lon. and 41 deg. 20 min. of N. lat.

NICOPOLIS. A port-town of Turky, 300 miles diſtant from Conſtantinople.

NICOPPING. Capital of the iſland of Hulſter in the Baltic, ſituated in 10 deg. of E. lon. and 55 deg. of N. lat. ſubject to Denmark.

NICOSIA. Capital of the iſland of Cyprus, ſituated in 35 deg. of E. lon. and 35 deg. of N. lat.

NICOTERA. A port-town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, ſituated on the Tuſcan ſea, in 16 deg. 14 min. of E. lon. and 38 deg. 50 min. of N. lat.

NICOTIANA, or *Herba Nicotiana*, a term given to tobacco, from Nicot the French ambaſſador at the court of Portugal, who firſt ſent it into France in 1560, and gave it his own name, as he ſays in his dictionary. See *Tobacco*.

NICOYA, or *St. Lucar*. A port-town of Mexico in the province of Coſta Rica, ſituated on a bay of the South Sea, in 88 deg. of W. lon. and 10 deg. 15 min. of N. lat.

NIEMEN, or *Berezina*. A river of Poland, which riſes in Lithuania, and runs weſt by Novogorod; then, turning north, paſſes by Grodno and Kowno, where it joins the Wilia; and then running weſt, falls into a bay of the Baltic ſea, near Memel.

NIEPER, or *Boriſthenes*. A river which riſes in the middle of Muſcovy; runs weſt by Smolenſko; then running ſouth through Poland, paſſes by Mogilof, or Mohilow; after which it enters the Ruſſian Ukrain, paſſes by Kiof and Circaſſia, and continues its courſe S. E. and ſeparates little Tartary from Budziac Tartary, falling into the Baltic ſea near Oczakow. The old Coſſacks inhabit the banks and iſlands of this river, who frequently croſs the Black ſea, and plunder the maritime places of the coaſt of Turky.

NIESTER. A river riſing near Lemburg in Poland, and running S. E. divides Podolia in Poland from Moldavia in Turky; it afterwards divides Beſſarabia from Budziac Tartary, and falls into the Black ſea near Belgorod.

NIGELLA *Romana*, or *Papaver Nigrum*, a medicinal ſeed, and plant, whoſe greateſt uſe is for the killing of worms in the human body.

There are two kinds of nigellas; that of the gardens, and the wild one: the one white, or grey; and the other black. The garden nigella ſprouts up to about the height of two feet; its leaves are green, ſmall, interſected, and pretty thin; its flower, like that of groundſel, is in the form of a ſtar inclining to a blue, and the ſeed in its pod is longiſh, grey coloured, of a ſharp taſte, ſtrong ſmell, and ſomewhat aromatic.

Wild nigella has ſmaller leaves, more interſected and diſheveled than that of the gardens; but like it in all other reſpects.

The red flowers growing among corn, and reſembling a roſe, make a third kind of nigella; but they have not the medicinal qualities of the two others.

The beſt of all is the Italian nigella; which muſt be choſen new, plump, of a beautiful yellow colour, and as aromatic as poſſible both in taſte and ſmell.

NIGER. A great river of Africa, whoſe ſource is uncertain: it runs from E. to W. through the middle of Nigritia, diſcharging itſelf into the Atlantic ocean, by three channels; the moſt ſoutherly called Rio Grande, that in the middle the Gambia, and that on the north the river Senega. It is 300 miles between the northern and ſouthern channels, and all the low country between them is annually overflowed, at the latter end of the ſummer, as Egypt is by the river Nile, much about the ſame time; both proceeding from the periodical rains, which fall within the tropics. But that all the three branches proceed from one river, is mere conjecture; for they may be three different rivers. However, near the mouth of them, the Portugueſe, Engliſh, and French, have ſeveral factories and ſettlements, where they traffic with the natives for ſlaves, gold, ivory, gum-ſenega, wax, and other drugs. See *Guinea*.

NIGRITIA. See *Guinea*.

NILE. A great river of Egypt in Africa, which has its ſource in Abyſſinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, in 12 deg. of N. lat. It runs generally from S. to N. thro' Abyſſinia into Egypt, and then continues its courſe N. in one ſtream, till it comes below Cairo to the Delta, where it divides; one branch diſcharging itſelf into the Mediterranean at Damieta, and the other 100 miles to the weſtward of it at Roſetta. In the upper part of the ſtream, we have been told, there are dreadful cataracts, where the water falls in ſheets, from high precipices; but later travellers of credit, of our own nation, aſſure us, there are no ſuch cataracts, only ſome rocks, which indeed hinder navigation; but the water falls not in ſheets from high hills, or precipices, as was currently reported by the antients and moderns till very lately. It runs, as is obſerved, thro' the hilly country of Upper Egypt, with greater rapidity than it does thro' the Delta, or Lower Egypt, where the country is level; which is the caſe of many other rivers. There are great rejoicings every year when the Nile riſes to a certain height; their future harveſt depending on it. The juſt height of the inundation, according to Pliny, is 16 cubits; when it riſes 12 or 13 a famine is expected, and when it exceeds 16 danger is apprehended; the cubit being 17 ½ inches. The moderns are not exactly agreed with the ancients about the height of the inundation; but there is no great difference in their accounts: the river begins to riſe uſually in May or June; and there ſtands a pillar on an iſland oppoſite to old Cairo, divided into picks, a meaſure of about 2 feet, to obſerve how much it riſes; and when it is high enough, the khalis, or great canal, is cut, from whence it is conveyed into other reſervoirs and ciſterns to be diſtributed to their fields and gardens as they want it. As to the Delta, or

Lower

Lower Egypt, it is all overflowed; ſo that there needs no art to carry it into their fields. This part of the country is therefore always ſowed with rice, which grows in water; and their towns, ſtanding on little eminences, during the flood appear like ſo many iſlands. This overflowing of the Nile is occaſioned by the periodical rains, which annually fall within the tropics, where the ſource of the Nile is; and the flood is greatly increaſed by the nature of the country of Abyſſinia where it riſes, which is full of high mountains, from whence the waters ſhoot in torrents, and ſwell the river beyond its uſual bounds.

NILLAS. A ſtuff made of bark, mixed with ſilk, which comes from the Eaſt Indies.

NIMPO. A city and port-town of China, in the province of Chekiam, ſituated in 122 deg. of E. lon. and 30 deg. of N. lat. See *China*.

NIO. A ſmall Turkiſh iſland in the Archipelago, ſituated N. W. of Santorini.

NIOU. One of the Siameſe long meaſures, being about an inch.

NIPHON. The largeſt of the iſlands of Japan. See *Japan*.

NIPPERKIN. A half-pint meaſure, uſed in England for wine and ale.

NIPPERS, in a ſhip, are ſmall ropes, uſed to hold off the cable from the capſtan.

NIPSII. A river of North Jutland, which falls into the German ocean a little below Ripen.

NISAN. A medicinal root much eſteemed in China, and ſold there for 65 l. ſterling the pound; being reputed ſovereign in ſeveral diſorders, particularly in faintings.

NISMES. A city of France, ſituated in 4 deg. 26 min. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. See *France*.

NITRE, or *Saltpetre*, in natural hiſtory, a ſulphureous, inflammable, bitter ſort of ſalt; thus called by the antients from Nitria, a province in Egypt, where it was found in great abundance.

By the moderns it is uſually called ſaltpetre; who differ as to the point, whether our ſaltpetre is the nitre of the antients, moſt holding the antient nitre to be a mineral or foſſil; whereas our ſaltpetre is in great meaſure artificial. See *Saltpetre*.

Nitre is an acid ſalt, impregnated with abundance of ſpirits out of the air, which render it volatile; being generally taken from among the ſtones and earth of old ruined buildings, cellars, and moiſt places.

The chief virtue the antients aſcribe to their nitre, is that of drying, deterging, and attenuating; and as ſuch it was uſed in ulcers, diſorders of the eyes, the itch, the bites of ſerpents, and other diſorders. They alſo took it inwardly, to reſolve and attenuate viſcid humours; but they were unacquainted with its cooling quality, which is ſo much eſteemed by modern phyſicians. It is alſo found excellent in diſeaſes of the heart, accompanied with a propenſity to vomit.

Spirit of NITRE, is an acid and corroſive liquor, extracted from nitre or ſaltpetre; being of uſe for the diſſolution of metals, and a good remedy againſt the ſtrangury.

Spirit of NITRE *dulcified*, or *ſweet ſpirit of* NITRE, is uſed as a remedy for the wind cholic, hyſterical diſtempers, and obſtructions. It is ſometimes effectual againſt vapours, which it will diſſipate in a moment; the doſe being from 4 to 8 drops in broth, or ſome other convenient liquor.

NIVELLE. A town of the Netherlands, in ſome reputation for its cambric manufacture, ſituated in 4 deg. 16 min. of E. lon. and 50 deg. 40 min. of N. lat.

NOBLE. Formerly an Engliſh money of accompt, being 6 s. 8 d. though it was alſo a real coin, under the denomination of *roſe noble*: however, authors obſerve, that there has not been any piece of gold or ſilver of this name coined ſince 9th Henry V. and they were firſt coined by Edward III. in 1334.

The noble contained 80 d. the ſame with the preſent money of accompt. Its half was called *obolus*, containing 40 d. and its fourth part the *quadrans*, or farthing, in thoſe days 20 d.

NOGAIAN *Tartars*. A nation inhabiting that part of Turky, which lies between the Palus Meotis and the Caſpian ſea. See *Tartary*.

NON *Cape*, or *Cape Non*. A promontory on the weſt coaſt of Africa, over againſt the Canary iſles.

NONA. A port-town of Venetian Dalmatia, ſituated on the gulph of Venice, in 16 deg. 35 min. of E. lon. and 44 deg. 25 min. of N. lat.

NOOK, or *Creek*. See *Port*.

NORDEN. A port-town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, ſituated in 6 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 53 deg. 40 min. of N. lat.

NORTH. One of the four cardinal points of the horizon, being that interſection of the horizon and meridian which is neareſt our pole.

NORTH *Cape*. A promontory on the iſland of Maggere, in the province of Wardhuys, in Norway, ſituated 100 miles N. W. of Wardhuys, and 500 miles N. E. of Drontheim; being the moſt northern point or promontory in Europe.

NORTH *companies*.

The Engliſh Hamburg company, is one of the moſt antient eſtabliſhments of any trading company in England; though it has not always been known by this name, nor confined within ſuch narrow limits as it is at preſent. It was firſt called "The company of merchants trading "to Calais, Holland, Zealand, Brabant, Flanders, and "other adjacent countries:" afterwards it received the general name of "Engliſh merchant-adventurers," as compoſed of all the Engliſh merchants trading in the Germanic ocean, the Low countries, and the Baltic ſea: laſtly, it was called "The company of Engliſh merchant-adven-"turers trading to Hamburg;" which appellation it retained, becauſe Hamburg at preſent is the ſole object of its commerce.

This company is not a ſociety of ſeveral traders, who furniſh each a part of the ſums that compoſe the capital fund of the company; but rather a ſimple aſſociation, or a body of merchants, who have nothing common but the authority and privilege of trading to Hamburg, and ſome other towns of Germany; each perſon otherwiſe carrying on his peculiar trade, and upon his own account; obſerving notwithſtanding certain regulations made by the company.

The firſt charter for the eſtabliſhment of the Hamburg company, was dated the 5th of February 1406, in the reign of Henry IV. which was afterwards confirmed and augmented with ſeveral privileges by the ſucceeding monarchs; among others, by Henry V. in 1413; by Henry VI. in 1422; by Henry VII. in 1493, 1505, 1506; by Henry VIII. in 1509, 1517, and 1531; by Edward VI. in 1547; by Mary in 1553; by Elizabeth in 1564 and 1586; by James I. in 1605, and by Charles II. in 1661.

From among theſe charters there are none properly but thoſe of Henry IV. Henry VII. Elizabeth, James I. and Charles II. that ſhew a face of importance, and grant ſomething new to this company; the others being only ſimple confirmations; wherefore it is from theſe five only that it is proper to extract the regulations and privileges of this company.

Before the charter of Henry IV. all Engliſh merchants trading out of the kingdom, behaved in their commerce with ſtrangers as they thought ſuited beſt their intereſts without any attention, either for the particular good of other traders, or the general advantage of the nation; which very often prejudiced both, and diſcredited the Engliſh trade.

Henry IV. having notice of this diſorder, thought to remedy it, by uniting in one body all the merchants of his ſtates; wherein, without loſing the liberty of trading in particular, and upon their own account, they might be governed by a company always ſubſiſting, and ſubjected to regulations that would preſerve the reputation of the general commerce of the nation, and not prejudice the intereſt of particulars.

For the execution of this project, he allowed the Engliſh merchants, and eſpecially thoſe of Calais, then ſubject to England, to form a political body; to have directors and governors, either in England or foreign countries; to hold aſſemblies, either for the management of trade, or to judge cauſes among merchants; to enact laws and regu-

lations;

lations; to punish by fine, or otherwise, all delinquents; and to impose small taxes upon the merchants and merchandise, to be employed for the common advantage of the association.

These few articles, which the charter of Henry IV. contained, were greatly augmented by that of Henry VII. as follows.

1. It was mentioned, that the associates of this company should be called, "The company of merchant-adventu-"turers trading to Calais, Holland, Zealand, Brabant, "Flanders, and other places beyond sea."

2. That they should be allowed to assemble at Calais, or elsewhere; and to nominate in this assembly, by a majority of voices, one or more governors, and 24 directors, who were to regulate and govern the company, pursuant to the laws and regulations agreed upon by the said governors and directors.

3. That nothing should be regulated and decided in the assemblies, unless they were composed of 13 directors, and the governor, or his deputy.

4. That he who was nominated director, and refused to discharge the office, should pay 20 l. sterling, one moiety to the King, and the other to the company.

5. That the governors and directors might levy small imposts, and impose certain fines; and for their receipts, might have a receiver, who should be accomptable only to the company.

6. That they should be empowered to publish and proclaim the free fairs of Calais; and even to prolong them for fifteen days, if they judged convenient.

7. That to enter into the company, and to be reputed a member thereof, 20 marcs sterling *per* head, according to act of parliament, must be paid.

8. That the members of the company, with its permission, might go into all the states and foreign countries not included in its concession, so that they were allies of England.

9. That the company should be allowed to make choice in Calais of measurers, porters, packers, and folders, for the taking care of the merchandise; and that these measurers, &c. should be entirely dependent on the company.

10. And lastly, That merchant-adventurers, members of this society, should be obliged to be present at the general assemblies held by the governors or directors, either at London, Calais, or elsewhere.

The want of executing this last article, and an opposition to several others, occasioning much trouble and delay in the company's affairs, the governors and directors obtained a new charter, whereby the penalty of imprisonment was ordained, both against those who should not be at the assemblies without just reasons to the contrary, and those who should infringe the laws and regulations therein enacted.

It is not necessary to speak here of the free fairs which Henry VII. established at Calais in 1493, the direction whereof, by the 6th article of the preceding charter, was given to the merchant-adventurers, because they only subsisted during the time this city was possessed by the English.

The governors and directors of the company having, in 1564, presented a request to Queen Elizabeth, for the explanation and interpretation of some articles of the charter of Henry VII. and the confirmation of all the others granted before, this princess, by a charter of the same year, declared,

1. That, to clear up all ambiguities, and prevent all contestations with regard to the said charter, she incorporated the company anew; which should be for the future called and incorporated by the name of "The assisting "governors, and the society of English merchant-ad-"venturers."

2. That the company should be directed by a governor, and 24 assistants; who sh uld be for life, but might be removed for a just and reasonable cause.

3. That all the English who had been members of the said society, should continue to be acknowledged as such.

4. That the sons of merchants, or those who were entitled by apprenticeship, might be also admitted, and made members of the said corporation, if required.

5. That the company should have a common seal.

6. That the governor and assistants assembled in any committee, or at least 13 from among them, might admit into their society all such persons as they should judge necessary, in such form, and on such conditions, distinctions, and diversity of franchise, as they should think expedient to grant them.

7. That all members of the society might be excluded, in case of ill conduct, by the governors and assistants, assembled at least to the number of 20.

8. That the city of Hamburg, the adjacent places, and East Frizeland, should be reputed the company's concession, as well as the cities of Holland, Zealand, Brabant, and Flanders, which always were, though they had not been specified in the preceding charters.

9. That the governors and assistants should hear and determine all disputes and causes between the members of the company, throughout the whole extent of its concession.

10. That the governors or deputies might appoint and call general assemblies, both in England, and in the towns of the states beyond sea where the company was established.

11. That no member of the company should marry out of England, or the states thereon depending; nor acquire any lands, funds, and inheritances, in all the towns and places beyond sea, which were not subject to the English; and that those who should do so, should be deprived of all their privileges, and excluded the society.

12. That the governors and directors assembled, at least to the number of 13, might enact and establish all kinds of new laws, confirm or annul old ones, and make them to be observed throughout the whole extent of their concession, by all merchant-adventurers, members of the company, who should trade in these places with the company's leave; provided they were not contrary to the laws of England, and that they no ways prejudiced either the rights of state, or the royal prerogative.

13. That the judgments made for the execution of the said laws, should be executed without appeal; with a prohibition to all masters, bailiffs, sheriffs, constables, and justices, to take cognisance thereof; who, on the contrary, should lend all aid and assistance for their full accomplishment: they even should be obliged to receive into their prisons the prisoners sent there by the company's governors and assistants.

14. That the company should make choice of one or more receivers of fines, established in the places thought most convenient; which receivers, in default of the payment of the said fines by those condemned thereunto, might prosecute them, in all just and necessary ways, till an entire satisfaction was made.

15. That the company might chuse, for the care and removal of merchandises, such a number of measurers, packers, and porters, as should be thought sufficient.

16. That the company should enjoy, both in England, and the countries beyond sea specified for its commerce, all the rights, privileges, liberties, pre-eminencies, immunities, authorities, jurisdictions, customs, benefices, advantages, and other things comprised, specified, declared, and granted, either by the charters of the Kings of England, or by any prince or foreign potentate, in whose states the said places were situated, wherein the said company was allowed to carry on its trade.

17. That her Majesty however reserved to herself the power to revoke and annul the present charter by other letters-patent, addressed to the governors and assistants of the said company.

Twenty-two years after this first charter, Queen Elizabeth granted the company a second; whereby, after having confirmed and ratified anew all the old ones, she gave it an exclusive privilege in all the places of its concession; forbidding all other English merchants, not members thereof, to exercise any traffic therein.

The company was also, by this charter, allowed to institute, in each town of its concession, a council, composed of a governor, and a competent number of assistants, chosen from among the members of the society, to take cognisance of the causes, and determine disputes in matters of commerce arising among the associates.

Laſtly, there was another privilege granted by this ſecond charter of Elizabeth, to import, excluſive of others, wherever the company has a right to trade, all kinds of cloths, ſerges, and other ſtuffs of wool manufactured in England; with a prohibition, notwithſtanding, of exporting any of the ſaid merchandiſes, whoſe exportation was not allowed by the laws of the kingdom, unleſs the merchant-adventurers of the ſaid company obtained an expreſs permiſſion by writing for that purpoſe.

Since this privilege was granted to the company, cloths and other woollen manufactures became one of the principal objects of its commerce; but not without ſome trouble in the following reign, by the eſtabliſhment of a ſociety called "The company of merchant-adventurers of "the new London trade;" which James I. incorporated in 1606, in favour of ſeveral private perſons, who propoſed to eſtabliſh at London a manufacture for the dying of cloths, and ways for dreſſing them; under which pretext, to give the new company a greater vent for their cloths, he prohibited the Engliſh merchant-adventurers to carry on their commerce.

Happily for the latter, the project proved abortive; the charter was repealed two years after; and, to re-eſtabliſh the adventurers in their antient privileges, James I. granted them another charter, dated the 28th of January 1618, whereby he not only fully reinſtated them in their excluſive right for the ſale of woollen manufactures, ſuch as cloths, ſerges, frizes, ſtockings, &c. in Germany, the Low Countries, Hamburg, and Eaſt and Weſt Frizeland; but alſo allowed them to keep clerks in all the cuſtomhouſes of England, to take care that their trade of woollen manufactures was not prejudiced, under the pretext of the trade of the like merchandiſes allowed to the Engliſh in France, Spain, ſome places of the North, and other foreign countries.

The charter of James I. was the laſt of thoſe which Charles II. repealed, and confirmed in his great charter of the firſt of January 1661.

The revolutions in the Low Countries towards the end of the ſixteenth century, which laid the foundations of the famous Dutch republic, having prevented the Engliſh company from continuing its commerce there with as much liberty as before, the company was obliged to trade only to Hamburg, and the towns on the Germanic ocean. This by degrees accuſtomed people to give it the appellation of the *Hamburg company*, which it ſtill preſerves; though, in all the ſubſequent charters, it was called by the antient name of the Engliſh merchant-adventurers; which was obſerved perhaps to retain ſome uniformity between the charters that granted its privileges, and thoſe that confirmed them.

The Engliſh Ruſſia company. This company was projected towards the end of the reign of Edward VI. and was executed in the 2d year of the reign of Philip and Mary; but was not brought to a full perfection till the year 1566, when the charter was confirmed by an act of parliament.

Some Engliſh adventurers, who ſet out to diſcover new countries, and who pretended to find a paſſage to China by the north, having advanced as far as the White ſea, and arrived at the port of Archangel, where they had a good reception from the Muſcovites, requeſted, when they returned to England, letters-patent for the Ruſſian commerce, for which they had formed an aſſociation.

The charter was promiſed by Edward VI. but the death of this young prince having hindered his ſigning it, his ſiſter Queen Mary, who had juſt married Philip of Spain, completed it the 26th February 1555.

By this charter the company was incorporated by the name of "The merchant-adventurers, for the diſcovery "of lands, territories, iſlands, ſtates, and dominions un-"known, and never frequented before they had ha-"zarded themſelves, or undertaken their diſcovery by "ſea."

Their privileges were, to have a governor, 4 conſuls, and 24 aſſiſtants, for the direction of their commerce; as alſo to enact by-laws; to admit into the ſociety as many perſons as the directors ſhould judge convenient; to puniſh by fines, or otherwiſe, any contravention to the regulations; to have officers for enforcing the payment of the ſaid fines, ſeizures, and confiſcations; to ſend ſhips for diſcovering new countries, and for eſtabliſhing a commerce therein; to take poſſeſſion of the new-diſcovered countries in their Majeſties names; and laſtly, to trade by an excluſive privilege to Archangel, and the other ports of Muſcovy not as yet frequented by the Engliſh. It is unneceſſary to enter into more particulars of the privileges granted the Ruſſia company by the charter of Philip and Mary; becauſe they were augmented and confirmed by an act of parliament made in the 8th year of Queen Elizabeth. It explains firſt the motives whereby three ſhips were equipped towards the end of the reign of Edward VI. the ſucceſs of the adventurers who commanded them, and the expediting of the letters promiſed them, which could not be ſigned before the demiſe of this prince: and having afterwards ſuccinctly related a part of the rights, powers, juriſdictions, privileges, franchiſes, and liberties, granted the new Ruſſia company by the charter of Philip and Mary, it enters upon the reaſons the parliament had to confirm them by an act.

Theſe reaſons are, That the company, ſince its eſtabliſhment, had been at great expences, not only to maintain its commerce in Muſcovy through the White ſea and Archangel; but alſo to penetrate through Ruſſia, the Volga, and the Caſpian ſea, into Armenia, Media, Hircania, Perſia, and the other ſtates of Aſia Major; and that theſe expences were ſtill continued, through the hopes of finding a paſſage for Cathay through the North, which would be of vaſt advantage to the crown of England: that notwithſtanding, contrary to what is enforced by the letters-patent, ſeveral Engliſh, not members of the company, undertook the ſaid trade, which tended to diſcredit this new eſtabliſhment, and ruin all commerce in Ruſſia, which was as yet in its infancy. But to put a ſtop to this diſorder, it was ordained by the ſtatute, That the company ſhould be for the future incorporated, and called by the ſole denomination of "The ſociety of Eng-"liſh merchants for diſcovering new places of trade," becauſe its firſt appellation was too long.

That any part of the continent, iſlands, ports, harbours, fords, gulphs, rivers, of any emperor, king, prince, or ſtate whatſoever, unknown before the firſt enterprize undertaken by the merchants of the ſaid community, or other ſubjects of the kingdom of England, and which they never frequented by ſea, ſituated north, north-weſt and north-eaſt, of the city of London; nor any part of the continent, lands, ports, iſlands, &c. belonging to the Emperor of Ruſſia, together with the countries of Armenia Major or Minor, thoſe of Media, Hircania, Perſia, or the Caſpian ſea, ſhould not be frequented by the other ſubjects of the kingdom of England, not being members of the ſaid company, unleſs by the order, approbation and conſent of the governor, conſuls, and aſſiſtants of the ſaid company, or of the greater part among them, under penalty of the ſeizure and confiſcation of their veſſels and whole cargo; one moiety of which ſhould belong to the crown, and the other to the company.

That, notwithſtanding the ſaid prohibition, it ſhould be allowable for all the ſubjects of her Majeſty to continue to reſort to the town and caſtle of Nardhouſe, and all the ports, towns, and coaſts of Norway, to carry on there the trade of fiſh, and all other accuſtomed Engliſh traffic.

That the company, nor no member thereof, ſhould be allowed to export from England any merchandiſes into the places of their new conceſſion, but upon Engliſh bottoms; nor to import any from the ſaid places into the kingdom, but upon Engliſh bottoms, under the penalty of 200 l. ſterling.

That neither the company, nor any of its members, ſhould for the future export from England into the places of its conceſſion, cloths, ſerges, or other woollen ſtuffs of the Engliſh manufacture, unleſs died and dreſſed, under penalty of 5 l. for each piece of cloth or ſerge ſo exported.

That, in caſe the company ceaſed of itſelf, during the term of three years, in time of peace, to unlade its merchandiſes at the ford of the abbey of St. Nicholas in R

ia, or did not unlade them in any other port of the nor-
hern coaſt of Muſcovy, or in any other place of Ruſſia,
not frequented here before by the Engliſh, all the other
ubjects of her Majeſty ſhould be allowed to trade to Nar-
va during the whole time that the company diſcontinued
ts commerce in Ruſſia; but upon condition to make uſe
nly of Engliſh veſſels.

This company ſubſiſted with reputation near a whole cen-
ury, that is, till the troubles in 1649 coſt Charles I. his
ife. As ſoon as the Czar of Muſcovy received the news
of this horrible parricide, he immediately expelled all the
Engliſh; and the Dutch, taking an advantage of his re-
entment, eſtabliſhed themſelves in their room.

Charles II. having aſcended the Britiſh throne after the
death of the uſurper Cromwel, the company re-eſtabliſhed
themſelves again at Archangel; but neither with the ſame
ſplendor nor ſucceſs as before; the Ruſſians being accuſ-
tomed to Dutch commodities, and unwilling to place the
ſame confidence in a people, whoſe murder of their King
had inſpired them with ſuch horror and deteſtation.

However, this company is ſtill ſubſiſting, almoſt upon the
footing of that of Hamburg.

By an act of the 10th and 11th William III. any Britiſh
ſubject may be free of the Ruſſia company, upon pay-
ment of 5 l. for admiſſion.

By an act of the 14th of Geo. II. any perſon free of this
company may import, in Britiſh built ſhips, from Ruſſia,
any goods of the growth, produce, or manufacture of
Perſia, purchaſed by barter, or with the produce of com-
modities exported from Great Britain to Ruſſia, except
gold and ſilver, in coin or bullion, and from thence
carried into Perſia; to the truth whereof the importer is
to make oath, paying the ſame cuſtoms as ſuch goods are
liable to if imported from the Levant ſeas, by any per-
ſon belonging to the Turky company.

If any doubt ſhall ariſe, whether any of the goods ſo im-
ported be of the growth, &c. of Perſia or not, or were
imported contrary to this act, and for that reaſon ſhall be
ſeized as forfeited, the proof thereof ſhall be incumbent
on the importer or claimer.

Wrought ſilks, and other manufactures of Perſia, men-
tioned in the ſtatute of the 11th and 12th William III.
are not to be worn in Great Britain, but are to be under
the regulations mentioned in the ſaid act: however, no-
thing in this act is to deprive the Eaſt India company from
enjoying their full powers, privileges, &c. See *Ruſſia*,
Perſia, and *Silk*.

The Engliſh Eaſtland company, or *North ſea company*, is eſta-
bliſhed upon the footing of that of Hamburg; of which
it ſeems to be a diviſion; the charter of its eſtabliſhment
being dated the 7th of Auguſt 1579, in the 21ſt year of
the reign of Queen Elizabeth.

By the firſt article of the charter, the company was in-
corporated by the name of "The governor, aſſiſtants,
"and ſociety of merchants of the Eaſt;" who were ſuch
perſons as were real merchants, and before the firſt of Ja-
nuary 1568 had traded to Norway, Sweden, Poland,
Livonia, Pruſſia, Pomerania, and the territories thereon
depending; as alſo Revel, Coninſberg, Elbing, Browſ-
berg, Dantzic, Copenhagen, Elſineur, Finland, Goth-
land, Elwland, and Branthoſin; excepting Narva and
Muſcovy, with their dependences.

Moſt of the following articles gave the new company all
the rights and privileges uſually enjoyed by theſe kinds of
eſtabliſhments; as to have a ſeal; to be directed by a go-
vernor and 24 aſſiſtants; to make by-laws; to impoſe
moderate taxes upon merchants and merchandiſes; to take
cogniſance of the debates between Engliſh merchants,
and to determine them definitely; to hold general courts;
laſtly, all ſuch other privileges, as may be ſeen in the
extract of the charters for the Hamburg company.

The regulations peculiar to the company of the Eaſt are:

That merchants already members of another company,
ſhall have no admittance into this ſociety.

That every member ſhall pay 6 l. 13 s. 4 d. ſterling on
admiſſion.

That the Engliſh merchant-adventurers, and thoſe trad-
ing to Spain and Portugal, who never traded to the places
in the Eaſt ſpecified by the charter, may notwithſtanding
be admitted members on paying 14 l. ſterling.

That the merchants of the Eaſt ſhall export from Eng-
land into the countries of their conceſſion, none but
cloths, dyed and dreſſed purſuant to the laws of the king-
dom, except 200 pieces of white cloths, which they may
export yearly by a ſpecial privilege.

That any merchant belonging to the Eaſt company ſhall
be allowed to carry 10 l. ſterling Engliſh coin out of
the kingdom, when he departs for his trade, without be-
ing ſubject to the penalties enacted by the laws againſt
thoſe who export gold and ſilver coins.

This charter of Queen Elizabeth, and the privileges ſhe
granted the Eaſt company, were afterwards confirmed
by Charles II. who for this purpoſe granted letters-pa-
tent, dated the 20th of February 1661; whereby it was
ordained, That no perſon, of what quality or condition
ſoever, dwelling in the city of London, or 20 miles about
the ſame, ſhould be admitted a member of this com-
pany, unleſs he was free of the city of London.

The French NORTH *company*. The commerce of the Bal-
tic and Archangel was the principal object of this com-
pany; which it alſo extended to all the northern coun-
tries upon the coaſts of Zealand and Holland, thoſe of
the Germanic ocean, Denmark, Sweden, and Norway.
The letters-patent for its eſtabliſhment are dated in June
1669, and regiſtered in parliament the 9th of July fol-
lowing.

The actions or ſhares were to be at 2000 livres each,
and its conceſſion was for 20 years.

Daniſh NORTH *company*. This company was eſtabliſhed at
Copenhagen in 1647, by Frederic III.

Its eſtabliſhments in Norway are not only conſiderable;
but it alſo ſends ſhips into the Varanger, whence it pe-
netrates by land into Daniſh Lapland, in ſledges drawn by
rein-deer.

It ſends alſo merchandiſe to Boranday and Siberia, where
its factors proceed likewiſe upon ſledges as far as Pani-
gorod, the capital of this part of the Ruſſian empire.

The commodities fit for the commerce of Lapland, Bo-
randay, and Siberia, are rix-dollars, tobacco, and linen
cloths; thoſe brought from thence conſiſt only in furs,
eſpecialy ſables, and grey ſquirrels.

Daniſh Iceland company, owes its eſtabliſhment to Frederic
III. who granted it his letters patent the ſame year he
granted thoſe for the North company. None but the
ſhips belonging to this company can trade to this iſland.
Kirkebar, is a ſmall town of Iceland, being the reſidence of
the merchants and clerks belonging to the company.

The Dutch NORTH *company*, has not any excluſive privilege.
The Dutch have alſo companies for the whale-fiſhery;
but other perſons may alſo fiſh in the ſame ſeas, though
they are not to land their fiſh.

NORTH *Eaſt and Weſt paſſage to India and America*. The
firſt northern diſcoveries were made at the charge of a
company of Engliſh merchants incorporated in the reign
of Edward VI. and called *The merchants-adventurers for
diſcovering lands unknown*. Their principal deſign was to
diſcover a paſſage to India and China by the north-eaſt,
and to come in for a ſhare of that rich trade with the
Portugueſe, by a ſhorter way than by the Cape of Good
Hope; or at leaſt to diſcover ſome countries where they
might eſtabliſh a trade of equal advantage to them. An-
other reaſon for their endeavouring to make theſe diſco-
veries ſeems to be, that it was then looked upon as baſe
and unfair to encroach upon or ſupplant any other nation
in trade, to take the advantage of their diſcoveries. And
the world ſeems to be much of the ſame opinion at this
day; or it is not to be conceived what pretence there
was to exclude the Emperor's ſubjects from a ſhare of
the India trade, which ſo many other nations enjoy at this
time.

Nay, we ſeem to think now, that the mere being poſſeſſed
of any branch of trade, however we came into it, en-
titles us to the monopoly of it, and that we may by force
exclude any other people who would endeavour to put
in for a ſhare.

But notwithſtanding Sir Hugh Willoughby, the admiral,
periſhed in this firſt attempt to diſcover the countries of
the North, one of his ſhips, called the Edward Bonaven-
ture, Capt. Chancellor commander, which had been ſe-
parated

parated from him, doubled the North cape, and diſcovered the bay of Archangel; whereby he ſettled a trade directly with Ruſſia, which the Engliſh enjoyed alone for many years, till the Dutch ſupplanted them.

The Engliſh company ſtill perſiſted in their endeavours to diſcover a north-eaſt paſſage; and accordingly, in the year 1556, fitted out a ſhip under the command of Capt. Borough, comptroller of the navy in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, who ſailed beyond the bay of Archangel to the north-eaſt part of Ruſſia and Samoieda, diſcovering the river Pechora, Nova Zembla, and the ſtraights of Waigats, which divide Nova Zembla from the continent of Ruſſia; after which he returned home: and the adventurers, wearied with endeavouring to find a paſſage this way, which might lead them to the Chineſe ſeas, next attempted to find a way to the Indies by the N.W.; in which they employed Sir Martin Forbiſher, in the years 1576,77, and 78, who was a bold and ſkilful navigator. But, after three years fruitleſs labour to make his way into the weſtern or ſouth ſea, he was obliged to deſiſt from that enterpriſe, either by the intervening land, or ice which adhered to the land; as were many other commanders afterwards.

In the 1580, the Engliſh company fitted out two ſhips, under the command of Capt. Arthur Pett, and Capt. Charles Jackman, to endeavour the diſcovery of a north-weſt paſſage again. They paſſed the ſtraights of Waigats, between Nova Zembla and Ruſſia, running as far eaſtward as they could for the ice, and then returned back through the ſaid ſtraights; but Capt. Pett was ſuppoſed to be loſt in his paſſage home, being never heard of more.

The Engliſh alone frequented the northern ſeas hitherto; but now the Dutch began to follow their ſteps, coming to Kola in Lapland, and afterwards into the bay of Archangel.

In the year 1596, the Dutch fitted out four ſhips, under William Barents; who ſailed to Nova Zembla, paſſed the ſtraights of Waigats, and ſailed to the eaſtward, till he was obliged by the ice to return back. The ſame Capt. Barents ſailed to the ſtraights of Waigats the following year, with ſeven ſhips, in order to force a paſſage through to the eaſtern ocean; but was again prevented by the ice.

Upon the return of theſe ſhips, the Dutch, being ſtill confident there muſt be a north-eaſt paſſage, ſent out William Barents with two other ſhips, who now ſtood more to the northward, and came to an iſland in the latitude of 74, by them called the Bear iſland, but by the Engliſh Cherry iſland; from hence they ſailed northward as high as 80, and ſaw the land by them called Spitzbergen, from its craggy promontories, but by the Engliſh Greenland; and here they went on ſhore. Barents afterwards ſailed back to Cherry iſland, and from thence to the the north-eaſt of Nova Zembla, till they came into the latitude of 76, anchoring in Ice haven, as they called it, where they were blocked up with ice in September, ſo that there was no getting out; whereupon they went on ſhore in order to build them a houſe, and winter there; when they found great ſtore of timber-trees, driven on the coaſt, for their purpoſe, though, as they obſerved, there were none growing in the country. By the end of September it froze ſo very hard, that the nails and iron they uſed ſtuck to their fingers and lips, if they touched them. The ſun left them about the 4th of November; but they ſaw the moon continually, day and night; which, with the ſnow, furniſhed them with a tolerable light.

Notwithſtanding the Dutch had found ſuch difficulties in ſearching for a north-eaſt paſſage, the Engliſh merchants determined to attempt it again; and accordingly fitted out a ſmall ſhip, of which Capt. Henry Hudſon had the command, who ſailed from England on the 1ſt of May 1607, and ſteering to the northward, arrived on the 20th of June, the year following, on the coaſt of Greenland, in the latitude of 78, and returned.

Capt. Hudſon ſet out again from the river Thames the 22d of April 1608, having 16 men on board, and on the 29th of May following found himſelf in 73 deg. 15 min. They directed their courſe afterwards to the eaſtward; and being in the lat. of 72 deg. odd min. came in ſight of Swart-cliff in Nova Zembla. This gave them great hopes of finding a paſſage to the Eaſtern ocean; but founding 6 or 7 leagues up the torrent, they found it too ſhallow for any ſhips of burthen, and returned home. Capt. Hudſon aſcribes the great quantities of ice in theſe ſeas near the pole, to the many ſounds, bays, and rivers in Nova Zembla, Greenland, Tartary, Ruſſia, and Lapland, where it is formed; and from hence he concludes, that there can be no navigable paſſage to the north-eaſt ſea.

The next adventurer who attempted the north-eaſt paſſage, was Capt. John Wood, who was fitted out by the Duke of York, afterwards King James II. in the reign of Charles II. and ſet ſail from the river Thames, in the Speedwell, on the 28th of May 1676, having another ſhip in company, called the Proſperous Pink. Capt. Wood following the opinion of Barents, the Dutch pilot, ſteered directly north-eaſt from the north cape of Norway, in order to fall in between Greenland and Nova Zembla; but he could find no ſea or inlet between the countries: on the contrary, he obſerved the ice to adhere immoveably to the coaſt of Nova Zembla, and that the Engliſh and Dutch pilots had been miſtaken in their conjectures of an open hereabouts; for he could paſs further this way than to the 76th deg. of lat. He found the ſea was frozen, without any breach in the ice, as he could obſerve, in coaſting along it, to that degree, that muſt have taken up ſome centuries to thaw. He concludes, therefore, that Greenland and Nova Zembla muſt be the ſame continent: beſides, ſays Mr. Wood, "had there been any paſſage, there wou'd have been "ſome current; whereas we found none, only a ſmall "tide, which riſes about 8 feet, and ebbs back again." As he ſuppoſes Nova Zembla to join to Greenland to the north, ſo he ſeems to be of opinion, that Nova Zembla joins to Tartary or Muſcovy on the ſouth: but if it does not, the ſtraight that divides them is ſo narrow, as to be choaked up with ice, that it is unnavigable.

However, the importance of new diſcoveries to trade and navigation, is too evident to be inſiſted on to an enterpriſing genius. We owe the firſt diſcovery of America, and the inexhauſted treaſures of that new world now flowing into Europe, to this peculiar turn of mind. Though the north-weſt regions of this vaſt continent were later known, yet their valuable produce has opened a very large fund of commerce to the northern nations of Europe; and the Britiſh colonies in thoſe parts, extending from almoſt the gulph of Florida to Hudſon's ſtraights, are now become very conſiderable.

The diſcoveries made by the Dutch in the north-eaſt parts of Aſia, towards China and Japan, together with those near the polar circle about Nova Zembla, firſt inſpired the Eaſt India company with a deſire of finding a north-eaſt paſſage to Aſia by the great Tartarian ocean, which they ſeveral times attempted without ſucceſs. This naturally led the Engliſh navigators, who ſaw the great advantages ariſing from ſuch a diſcovery, to turn their thoughts to the north-weſt parts of America, where there ſeemed a greater likelihood of obtaining a paſſage, as the difficulties were leſs, and the diſtance between Hudſon's bay in Davis's ſtraights, and the north-eaſt coaſt of America above California, no way ſo great as between Nova Zembla and the ſuppoſed ſtraights of Anian near Japan. Indeed, from the diſcoveries already made for the age paſt on the north-weſt coaſts of America, the general opinion of a paſſage is ſo ſtrong, that in the charter granted to the Hudſon's bay company, which inveſted them with very extenſive privileges, ſuch as a power of making peace or war, raiſing troops, and the ſovereignty of the lands they ſhould diſcover, not poſſeſſed by any Chriſtian power, it is recited as a chief motive for the grant, that they ſhould uſe all means for the diſcovery of ſuch a paſſage; to the ſucceſs of which their ſettlement and trade in Hudſon's bay, it was reaſonably ſuppoſed would greatly contribute.

Upon this preſumption, about the year 1730, Arthur Dobbs, Eſq; a gentleman of letters and fortune, a member of the Iriſh parliament at that time, and now governor of North Carolina, having drawn up reaſons for a paſſage to the South ſea by the north-weſt part of Hudſon's bay

and the great advantages ariſing to Britain from ſuch a diſcovery, communicated them to Colonel Bladen, one of the commiſſioners for trade and plantations, with a view of engaging the South Sea company to try the Welcome, which is the moſt N. W. part of Hudſon's bay, and where a paſſage appeared to him moſt likely, from the accounts of former adventurers: but Sir John Eyles being then gone out of the government, and the company having relinquiſhed the whale-fiſhery in Davis's ſtraights, the affair ſlept till the year 1733; when Mr. Dobbs coming to England, ſhewed his manuſcript to Sir Charles Wager, then firſt Lord of the Admiralty, who, on peruſing it, ſeemed ſatisfied of the probability of the diſcovery, and the propriety of the attempting it. As the Hudſon's bay company, from their charter, appeared the moſt proper body to be conſulted, Sir Charles mentioned the affair to Mr. Jones, formerly a deputy governor of that company, and at that time an elder brother of Trinity-houſe, who, as much as poſſible, diſcouraged Sir Charles from the deſign; relating to him the diſaſter, the company had in the loſs of two ſloops fitted out for this purpoſe in 1719, under Mr. Barlow. Mr. Dobbs, not ſatisfied with this, got Sir Charles to introduce him to Mr. Jones, who was ſtill againſt the attempt. But, notwithſtanding theſe diſcouragements, Mr. Dobbs accompliſhed his deſire; ſo that whether there is a N. W. paſſage or not is ſtill a matter of uncertainty.

However, by the ſtatute of the 18th of Geo. II. it was ſet forth in the preamble, that the diſcovery of a N.W. paſſage thro' Hudſon's ſtraights, to the weſtern American ocean, would be of great benefit to the trade of Great Britain; and therefore it was enacted, that if any ſhip or veſſel, ſhips or veſſels, belonging to any of his Majeſty's ſubjects, ſhould find out and ſail thro' any paſſage by ſea, between Hudſon's bay and the weſtern and ſouthern ocean of America, the owner or owners thereof, or their aſſigns, ſhould receive as a reward 20,000 l. and that all perſons being his Majeſty's ſubjects, and reſiding where the adventurers ſhould come, in proſecution of ſuch diſcovery, ſhould give them all aid requiſite, and ſhould no ways obſtruct, or refuſe them reaſonable ſuccour in any diſtreſs.

In 1740, his Majeſty was pleaſed to approve the ſcheme, and two veſſels were ordered to be fitted out, the command of which was given to Capt. Middleton, who ſailed in the ſummer of 1741; but it was the end of July before he could paſs Hudſon's ſtraights, ſo that he found himſelf neceſſitated to winter at the Prince of Wales's fort in Churchhill river, where he was accuſed of employing his men in the company's ſervice, but pleaded ſuch employment was neceſſary to preſerve them in health. Here he was detained by the ice till July 1742, when he ſail'd, and got as far N. as lat. 65 deg. 30 min. where he found a head land, which he called cape Dobbs, and abreaſt of of it a large fair opening, or inlet, which he called Wager river. Here he got his ſhips into a bay called Savage ſound, and ſent his boats about 60 miles up, who found a deep channel, with a ſtrong current againſt them, and high land on both ſides, the water ſalt or brackiſh. However, Auguſt 2d, Capt. Middleton left this river or ſtraight, and proceeded to 66 deg. 44 min. of N. lat. where he ſaw a cape, which he judged to be the moſt northerly point of America, the land falling off to the N. W. but next day finding himſelf embay'd on all ſides, he gave it the name of Repulſe bay. Into this bay he obſerved a tide come from the great ocean, W. of Greenland, by a paſſage he calls the Frozen ſtreights; tho' Mr. Dobbs aſſerts that theſe frozen ſtreights are imaginary, and that cape Frigid is joined to the north continent, to which Capt. Middleton gave the name of Prince William's land, in honour of his royal highneſs the Duke. From hence Capt. Middleton retired to the S. tracing the ſhore till Auguſt 15, when he bore away for England, having made no effectual diſcovery.

NORTHERN *ocean*. See *Ocean*.

NORTH-FORELAND. A cape or promontory in the iſle of Thanet, on the E. coaſt of Kent, ſituated 13 miles N. E. of Canterbury, 4 miles E. of Margate, 11 miles N. of Deal, and 20 miles N. of Dover and the South Foreland. Between the two Forelands are the Downs, thro' which all ſhips paſs that are bound to or from the W. or S. W. and here the fleets of the royal navy frequently rendezvous.

NORTH *River*. A great river which riſes in New Mexico, in North America; and running S. E. divides Mexico from Florida, diſcharging itſelf into the weſt end of the Gulph of Mexico, in 26 deg. of N. lat.

NORTH *Sea*, the gulph of Mexico ſo called by the Spaniards, becauſe they paſſed from thence over the iſthmus of Darien into the South Sea in America; and this name has of late been communicated to all that part of the Atlantic ocean which lies N. of Terra Firma in South America. See *Ocean*.

NORTH *Sea*, or *Eaſtland Company*. See *North* Companies.

NORWAY. See *Denmark*.

NORWICH. A city of Norfolk, ſituated on the river Yare; one of the largeſt and moſt populous places in England, having a very great woollen manufacture, eſpecially in crapes and ſtuffs.

NOSSARIS. A white cotton cloth, of the number of thoſe called baffetas, brought from the Eaſt Indies.

NOTARY, uſually denotes a ſcrivener, or a perſon who takes notes, or makes ſhort draughts of contracts, obligations, or other inſtruments. But, in a more particular ſenſe, the word is uſed for an officer, who draws and keeps notes, and minutes of contracts, obligations, and other inſtruments, executed before him, and delivers out authentic copies, &c. thereof.

NOTARY *Public*, is a perſon who draws and publickly atteſts deeds, or writings, between merchants; and alſo makes proteſts of bills of exchange, to make them authentic in another country: notaries have the drawing, paſſing, keeping, and iſſuing, of contracts, charter-parties, inſurances, and all deeds in the mercantile province; and in their books are regiſtred proteſts, remonſtrances, and other mercantile inſtruments.

The ſignatures of notaries carry along with them the proof of the acts which they ſign; becauſe they are public officers, appointed by the courts of Admiralty, in moſt of the principal trading places in Europe. They ſhould be acquainted with almoſt all the European tongues, eſpecially the trading languages; ſuch as the French, Dutch, Spaniſh, Italian, and Portugueſe; as alſo Latin, becauſe ſeveral foreign inſtruments are drawn up in that language.

NOTE. A minute, or ſhort writing, containing ſome article of buſineſs: in which ſenſe, we ſay *a promiſſory note*, *a note of hand*, *a bank note*, &c.

To NOTE *a bill*, is when a public notary goes as a witneſs, or takes notice that a merchant will not accept or pay it. See *Bill* and *Proteſt*.

Notes promiſſory, purſuant to an act of the 25th of Cha. II. made, and ſigned by any perſon, or by the ſervant or agent of any corporation, banker, goldſmith, merchant, or trader, who is uſually entruſted to ſign ſuch notes, are to be deemed payable according to the conditions thereof; and are aſſignable or endorſable over; an action thereon being to be maintained, in the ſame manner as for inland bills of exchange. See *Exchange*.

NOVA SCOTIA. See *Britiſh* America.

NOVA ZEMBLA, or *Newland*, which the Dutch call the iſland of Weygatz, is ſituated in the North or Frozen ocean, between 50 and 80 deg. of E. lon. and between 70 deg. of N. lat. and the N. pole, ſeparated from the province of Samoieda in Ruſſia, by a narrow ſtreight, called the ſtreights of Weygatz. Whether it is an iſland, or part of ſome great continent, is uncertain; no ſhips having ever paſſed to the northward of it, tho' many attempts have been made to find out a N. E. paſſage to China that way. The Dutch indeed paſſed the ſtreights of Weygatz S. of Nova Zembla, and wintered on the E. ſide of it in 1596, but found it not practicable to ſail further for the fields of ice they met with. There are no conſtant inhabitants here, but the Samoieds and Oſtiacs climb over the mountains of ice in the ſtreights, when they are frozen over, to hunt elks and rein-deer at the proper ſeaſon.

NOYALLE, is a term in France, for a kind of hempen cloth, very ſtrong and cloſe; which is manufactured in Bretagne, and whoſe chief uſe is for the making of ſails for ſhips.

The greateſt conſumption of theſe cloths is in the ports of France; but they are ſent in great quantities to other countries, particularly to England and Spain.

NUBIA. A kingdom of Africa. See *Ethiopia*.

NUMERO. A term prefixed to any number of things, marked or abbreviated thus, N°.

Book of NUMEROS. See *Book*-keeping.

NUMIDIA. A part of Africa. See *Biledulgerid*.

NUNNA. A white Chineſe linen, of three ſorts; the meaſure being the ſame, but the fineneſs different. Their chief deſtination being for Japan, where they are ſold in great quantities.

NURENBURG, or *Noremberg*. A city in the circle of Franconia, ſituated in 11 deg. of E. lon. and 49 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. See *Germany*.

NURSERY, among gardeners, is a place where they cultivate and grow young trees, which are intended to be tranſplanted.

NURSERY-*man*, is a perſon whoſe buſineſs conſiſts in furniſhing gentlemen with young trees, both fruit and foreſt; as alſo with flower-roots, and other branches of gardening.

NUTMEG. A delicate kind of aromatic nut; being the kernel of a fruit of the ſize of a green walnut, found only in the Banda iſlands in the Eaſt Indies; of which there are two kinds, the male and female. See *Banda* iſlands.

The female is that chiefly uſed in England; its form being round, and its ſmell agreeable, with a taſte hot and pungent.

The male is a wild nut of a longiſh form, without either taſte or ſmell; yet ſometimes put off, while in the pod, for the female.

The nutmeg-tree is about the bigneſs of the peach tree, and their leaves are ſomewhat like. The trees which bear the female, or common nutmeg, grow only in cultivated pl ces: but thoſe which bear the male, or long nutmegs, grow in woods and foreſts. The trees are always loaden with flowers and fruits; affording three crops a year, in April, Auguſt, and December.

Nutmegs are incloſed in four different covers; the firſt a thick huſk, ſomething like that of walnuts, under which lies a thin reddiſh coat, of an agreeable ſmell, and aromatic taſte, called *mace*, by others, thro' improperly *flower of nutmeg*. This wraps up the ſhell, and opens in proportion as the pod grows. The ſhell which makes the third cover is hard, thin, and blackiſh; under which is a greeniſh film of no uſe; wherein is found the nutmeg, which is properly the kernel of the fruit; every nutmeg having a little hole in it, which ſome ignorantly take for a defect.

The beſt nutmegs are thoſe gathered In April, which ſhould be choſen heavy, of a whitiſh brown colour, well marbled on the out ſide, reddiſh within, having a fine unctuous moiſture, and an agreeable ſmell.

As to the mace, it muſt be choſen in large blades of a high colour, like the nutmeg in taſte and ſmell. See *Mace*.

The whole commerce of nutmegs is in the hands of the Dutch Eaſt India company. See *Spice*.

The inhabitants of the Banda iſlands make a confection of green nutmegs; which the Dutch bring into Europe ſometimes with ſyrup, and ſometimes without. They are ſtrengtheners of the ſtomach, and are chiefly conſumed in the northern countries, where the people are fond of ſuch warm ſweet-meats.

There is an oil expreſſed from nutmegs, which ought to be of a thick conſiſtence, of a golden yellow colour, a ſweet aromatic ſmell, and a warm poignant taſte: but the Dutch adulterate it with butter.

NUTMEG *Iſlands*. See *Banda* iſlands.

NUX-VOMICA. The fruit, or, as ſome will have it, the ſtone of the fruit of a tree growing in ſeveral parts of Egypt, and in the iſlands of Timor and Ceylon, in the Eaſt Indies; of a ſtrong narcotic quality, ſo as to be ranked in the number of poiſons.

It is round and flat, of a grey mouſe colour without, and various colours within, ſometimes yellow, ſometimes white, and ſometimes brown: the largeſt, whiteſt, newest, and cleaneſt being the beſt.

This drug is ſaid to be an aſſured poiſon for all animals except men: on the contrary, Hermannus Botanic profeſſer at Leyden, who wrote expreſly on it, ſays that the vomic nuts of Timor and Ceylon are excellent ſudorifics, and to be ranked among diuretic medicines.

NYBYE. A town of North Jutland, ſubject to Denmark. See *Denmark*.

NYDER. A river of Norway, which falls into a bay of the northern ocean.

NYKOPPING. A Daniſh town on the iſland of Falſter. See *Denmark*.

O.

OBL — OCE

OAK. A large timber tree, growing in ſeveral countries: but thoſe of the Engliſh growth are moſt durable, and ſtrong, for ſhip building, and other heavy ſervices; the foreign oaks, when ſawn into planks of proper thickneſs, making what is called wainſcotting, principally uſed by the cabinet-makers and joiners.

The acorn is the fruit of the oak-tree, and generally called maſt, for the feeding of ſwine; though acorns are alſo employed in medicine. The miſſeltoe which grows on the oak, is not only reputed an excellent remedy againſt the apoplexy, palſy, and worms; but is likewiſe uſed as an ingredient in ointment, and plaiſters, as a reſolvent.

The bark of this tree is uſeful to tanners; being generally ſtript off in April. The oak delights in moiſt ground, of a good depth: it will flouriſh in the coldeſt clay, and alſo in gravel. See *Timber*.

OAK, is alſo a Turkiſh weight. See *Ocos*.

OAK-*Balls*, *Apples*, or *Cones*. A kind of galls, or excreſcencies, ariſing out of the oak. See *Galls*.

OAKAM, or *Oakum*. A ſea-term for old ropes untwiſted, and pulled out again into looſe hemp, like hurds of flax, to be uſed in the cauking of ſhips: but when tow, flax, or hemp, are employed in this manner, it is called white oakam. See *Cauking*.

OAR. An inſtrument whereby a boat, barge, or galley, is rowed, or advanced along the water.

In a veſſel with oars, the water is to be conſidered as the point of ſupport, or fulcrum; the oar as a lever; the boat as the burden to be moved, and the rower's hand as the moving power.

The burden is to be conſidered as applied to that point of the lever, where the oar reſts on the boat: the greater therefore the diſtance of the hand from that point, and the leſs the diſtance of the water from that point, the greater effect will the oar have.

OATHS, to be taken at the cuſtom-houſe. See *Cuſtoms*.

OATS. A ſmall ſort of corn, or grain, for the feeding of horſes, and ſometimes uſed for the making of bread, being generally ſold at the corn exchange in London from about 11 to 14 s. the quarter. See *Corn*.

OATMEAL, is the flower of oats, threſhed, cleanſed, and ground, for making oaten bread.

OAZY, or *Oozy ground*. A name given by ſeamen to ſoft, ſlimy, or muddy ground. See *Anchorage*.

OBLIGATION. An act whereby a perſon engages, or binds himſelf, or is bound by another, to do ſomething; as to pay a ſum of money, to be ſurety, or the like.

The acceptance of a bill of exchange is a kind of obligation to pay it. See *Exchange*.

The exacting of intereſt on a ſum due by a ſimple obligation is accounted uſury. See *Uſury*.

OBLIGATION, in a more ſtrict ſenſe, denotes a bond containing a penalty, with a condition annexed, for payment of money at a certain time; or for performance of covenant, or the like.

A Bond, or obligation, is ſaid to differ from a bill, in that the latter is commonly without a penalty, and without condition; yet a bill may be obligatory. See *Bill*.

OBLIQUE *ſailing*, is when a ſhip being in ſome intermediate rhumb, between the four cardinal points, makes an oblique angle with the meridian, and continually changes both its latitude and longitude.

Oblique ſailing is of three kinds; plain ſailing, Mercator's ſailing, and great circle ſailing. See *Sailing*.

Seamen call it alſo the application of the method of calculating the parts of oblique plain triangles, in order to find the diſtance of a ſhip from any cape, head-land, or other place.

OBOLUS, was formerly uſed among the Engliſh for half a noble, or florin; when the noble was eſteemed as the penny, and its quarter part a farthing. See *Noble*.

In old hiſtories and accounts of coins, we are to underſtand by the word *denarius* the whole coin, by the *obolus* its half, and by *quadrans* its fourth part. See *Money*.

There were formerly in France *oboli* of gold, ſilver, and copper; all current coins of different value, according to the metal and weight. In the 17th century the copper obolus was current there under the denomination of *maille*, being worth the half of a denier Tournois, or the 24th part of an Engliſh penny; but at preſent the obolus or maille is only a money of accompt.

OBOLUS, in medicine, is uſed for a weight of 10 grains, or half a ſcruple. Du Cange ſays the obolus weighs 3 carats, or 4 grains of wheat: others divide it into ſix arcolæ, and the arcola into ſeven minutes: others into three ſiliquæ, each ſiliqua into 4 grains, and each grain into a lentil and half. See *Grain*.

Among the Sicilians obolus denoted alſo the weight of a pound. See *Pound*.

OBSERVATION, in the ſea language, is the taking the meridian altitude of the ſun, or any ſtar, in order thereby to find the latitude; and the finding of a latitude from the meridian-altitude obſerved, is called *working an obſervation*. See *Latitude*.

OBY. A great river of Ruſſia, which riſes in the lake Kiſan in Kalmuck Tartary, in Aſia; and, running north, joins the river Irtis; after which, continuing its courſe north, it forms the boundary between Europe and Aſia, till it falls into the frozen ocean in 70 deg. of N. lat. having run a courſe of 2000 miles and upwards.

OCCIDENTAL. A term uſed in commerce to diſtinguiſh Weſt India commodities from thoſe of the Eaſt Indies, which are ſaid to be oriental: thus merchants ſay, *occidental bezoard*, and *oriental pearl*.

OCEAN. The grand ſea, or the vaſt collection of ſalt and navigable water, which encompaſſes the whole earth: being that great body of waters wherein the two grand continents known to us, the new and old, are incloſed like iſlands.

By computation it appears, that the ocean takes up conſiderably more of what we know of the terreſtrial globe than the dry land.

Dr. Keil computes the ſurface of the whole ocean to be 85,490,506 ſquare miles; ſo that, ſuppoſing the depth of the ocean at a medium to be 1-4th of a mile, the quantity of water in the whole will be 21,372,626 and 1-half cubic miles.

Yet Dr. Burnet computes that all the waters in the ocean were not ſufficient to drown or overflow the dry land ſo high as the Scriptures ſay it was at the deluge: ſeven or eight oceans, according to him, would ſcarce have ſufficed.

The ocean penetrating the land at ſeveral ſtreights, quits its name of ocean, and aſſumes that of ſea or gulph; to which are added ſome epithet for diſtinction ſake, as Meterranean ſea, Perſian gulph; and in very narrow places it is called ſtraights.

The ocean takes different names according to the divers countries it borders upon; as the Britiſh ocean, German ocean, Indian ocean, Atlantic ocean, and others.

According to Maty, the ocean may be properly divided into Upper and Lower.

Upper OCEAN, which the antients call the exterior, as environing all the known parts of the world, he ſubdivides, according to the four cardinal points, into the northern, ſouthern, eaſtern, and weſtern.

Northern OCEAN, called alſo *frozen*, and *Scythian*, is that part of the Upper ocean next the north pole, bounded

on the ſouth with the Arctic circle, and the northern coaſts of Europe and Aſia; and on the north with the unknown lands about the pole; which is called the icy or Frozen ocean, becauſe thoſe who have attempted a paſſage thro' it to China, &c. have always been ſtopt with the ice; and Scythian, becauſe waſhing the coaſts of Scythia.

Weſtern, or *Atlantic* OCEAN, is that part of the grand ocean which waſhes the weſtern coaſt of Europe and Africa, extending from the Arctic circle to the equinoctial.

Southern, or *European* OCEAN, is that part reaching from the equinoctial to the unknown and antarctic lands.

Eaſtern, or *Indian* OCEAN, has its firſt name from its ſituation to the Eaſt, as its latter from India, the chief country it waſhes; reaching from the coaſt of Anian to the Ladrone iſlands.

Lower, or *American* OCEAN, is that vaſt part of the grand ocean which waſhes the coaſt of America, unknown, in great meaſure, at leaſt, to the ancients: being divided into three parts; the North ſea, which waſhes the eaſtern coaſts of America, from the Arctic circle to the tropic of Capricorn; the Magellanic ſea, extending from the tropic of Capricorn to the Terra auſtralis incognita; the South ſea, or pacific, which waſhes the weſtern coaſt of America to the Eaſt, as far as the Ladrone iſlands, and from S. to N. from the tropic of Capricorn to the land of Jeſſo.

OCHAVO, or *Octavo*: A ſmall copper coin, current in Spain, being worth 2 maravedis of Veillon; and 34 of them make the rial, or 5 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. ſterling. There are alſo octavos of 4 and 5 maravedis; but the former are uſually called quarters, and the latter double quarters. See *Quarter*.

OCKA. A great river in Muſcovy, which riſes in the province of Sfeeſk, and running N. paſſes by Orel and Peremil; then running E. joins the river Moſco at Kolomna; after which it continues to run E. by Reſanſkoi and Niſe Novogorod, falling into the river Volga, a little below Novogorod.

OCKAMY. A ſort of mixed metal, formerly uſed for ſpoons, and other utenſils; but now left off, and inſtead thereof bath-metal, both white and yellow, are introduced.

OCOS, *Oak*, or *Ocqua*. A Turkiſh weight, being 400 drams, and 44 oaks compoſe the Turkiſh quintal, or cantar, making 120 lb. in London.

OCULI-CANCRORUM. See *Crabs* eyes.

OCZAKOW. A port-town of European Turky, capital of the province of Budziac Tartary, ſituated W. of the mouths of the rivers Boriſthenes and Bog, on the Euxine ſea, in 35 deg. of E. lon. and 46 deg. of N. lat.

ODENSEE. Capital of the iſland of Funen, one of the largeſt of the Daniſh iſlands in the Baltic ſea, ſituated in 10 deg. 25 min. of E. lon. and 55 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

ODER. A river riſing in the Carpathian mountains, on the confines of Hungary; it runs from S. to N. thro' the principality of Sileſia, after which it continues its courſe N. thro' Brandenburg; and then ſeparating the Eaſtern from the Weſtern Pomerania, divides itſelf into ſeveral channels, forming the iſlands of Uſedom, and Wollin, below which it falls into the Baltic ſea; having in its courſe paſſed by the cities of Ratiſbon, Opelen, Breſlaw, Glogaw, Croſſen, Frankfort, and Stetin.

OELAND. A Swediſh iſland, ſituated in the Baltic, in 16 deg. of E. lon. and between 56 and 57 deg. of N. lat.

OESEL. An iſland which lies at the entrance of the bay of Livonia, in the Baltic ſea, ſituated in 22 deg. of E. lon. and 58 deg. of N. lat. ſubject to Ruſſia.

OESYPE, or *Oeſypos*. A kind of fat mucilage, of the conſiſtence of an unguent; being of a greyiſh colour, and a ſickiſh diſagreeable ſmell; drawn from the greaſy wool growing on the throats and between the buttocks of ſheep.

This wool they waſh, boil it in water, let the lotions or decoctions ſtand for ſome time, and from the top ſkim off a fatty ſubſtance, which being ſtrained through a linen cloth, and ſet to cool, makes the oeſype, much uſed externally to reſolve, ſoften, and appeaſe pain.

OFFICE, ſometimes ſignifies the employment, or proper buſineſs a perſon is appointed to perform; and ſometimes the place where buſineſs is tranſacted.

OFFICERS *of the Cuſtoms*, and *Exciſe*, are now very numerous in Great Britain; though the former were anciently of three kinds only, being the cuſtomers, ſearchers, and comptrollers; but at preſent there are alſo collectors, ſurveyors, land-waiters, coaſt-waiters, tide-ſurveyors, tide-waiters or tideſmen, boatmen, or watermen, coal-meters, and riding officers; as alſo maſters of ſmacks. See *Cuſtoms*.

The officers of exciſe are collectors, ſupervifors, exciſemen, and ſupernumeraries. See *Exciſe*.

A deduction of ſixpence in the pound is made quarterly out of the ſalaries of all ſuch eſtabliſhed officers in the out-ports, in the cuſtoms, whoſe ſalaries are not above 60 l. a year, to be applied for the maintenance of ſuperannuated officers; and the ſame proviſion is made for the ſuperannuated officers of exciſe.

Several ſtatutes have been made for the regulation of theſe officers; whereby officers of the cuſtoms are not to obtain their offices for gift, favour or affection, but for deſert, as being of the beſt and moſt lawful men, and ſufficient to their eſtimation and knowledge: nor to have their offices for life or term of years, but during the ſovereign's pleaſure only; and the ſaid offices to remain in his hands, under the government of the treaſury. That they are to reſide by themſelves, or their ſufficient deputies, at the ſeveral head-ports, members, and creeks; on penalty of 100 l. loſs of office, and impriſonment.

That the officers of the cuſtoms, or their deputies or clerks, were not to have any ſhips of their own, nor to freight any ſhips, nor to buy or ſell any merchandiſe, nor to have any wharfs or keys, nor to hold any common hoſteries, or taverns, nor to be factors for any merchant denizen or alien, or hoſt to any merchant alien, on forfeiture of 40 l.

That officers taking a bribe, or conniving at a falſe entry of any goods, to the prejudice of his Majeſty, or ſuffering prohibited goods to paſs, are incapable of any office for the future, and to forfeit 100 l. and the perſon giving the bribe, or offering any bribe, whether it is accepted or not, to forfeit 50 l. But the offenders revealing their offences within two months, to the treaſurer of England, the chancellor, under-treaſurer, or barons of the exchequer, are to be acquitted.

Illegally detaining goods, or neglecting or refuſing to make repayments and allowances; or, after notice given, not giving out and executing their warrant, liable to double coſts and damages.

That officers granting a warrant for, or ſuffering any of the enumerated goods from the plantations, to be carried to any other country, until firſt landed in Great Britain, to forfeit their places, and the value of the goods.

Officers razing, counterfeiting, or falſifying any cocket, tranſire, let-paſs, certificate, or other cuſtom-houſe diſpatch, forfeit 100 l. and ſuch diſpatch to be void.

Granting a falſe coaſt certificate, forfeit their office, and 50 l. to be impriſoned a year without bail, and to ſuffer ſuch corporal puniſhment as the court of exchequer ſhall think fit, and to be incapable of ſerving again in the cuſtoms.

Cuſtomers not mentioning the colour, length, content, weight, and value of foreign goods in coaſt-certificates, are to forfeit their office, and to be fined at the King's pleaſure. Cuſtomers and collectors of the cuſtoms within ten days notice from the King, or ſix of his privy council, are to declare what money due to the King is in their hands, and to pay the ſame when commanded upon forfeiture of office. Cuſtomers, upon yielding their accompts in the exchequer, to be ſworn thereto. Cuſtomers, collectors, and comptrollers, concealing the cuſtoms duly entered and paid, forfeit treble the value of the goods, and are to make fine and ranſom. Collectors detaining public money, are to pay intereſt for the ſame after the rate of 12 l. *per cent. per annum*, with treble damages to the perſons grieved, and to be diſmiſſed.

Officers embezzling any goods, lodged in any warehouſe in their cuſtody, are to forfeit double the value, and

costs; they may not exact unlawful fees; but may take such recompence for extraordinary service in the execution of their office, not required by law, as the commissioners in the port of London, and the collector, customer and comptroller of the out-ports, or any two of them shall determine.

That officers, or their assistants, being resisted or molested in the execution of their duty, by persons passing armed with prohibited or uncustomed goods, may oppose force to foree in defence of themselves, and execution of their duty; and if apprehended for beating, maiming, or killing any person so resisting them, are to be admitted to bail.

OFFING, or *Offin*, in the sea-language, that part of the sea a good distance from shore; where there is deep water, and no need of a pilot to conduct the ship into port. If a ship from shore is seen sailing out to seaward, they say she stands for the offing: and if a ship having the shore near her, has another a good way from her, or towards the sea, they say, that ship is in the *offing*.

OIL, or *Oyl*. A fat, unctuous, inflammable matter, drawn from several natural bodies.

The word oil is sometimes applied to the juices which distill naturally from plants and trees, as balm, and others; but, more strictly, to those juices drawn by expression, &c. from plants, fruits, grains, or seeds, as oil of olives, nut oil, and others.

OIL *of olives*, is the most popular, and most universal of all others; which is chiefly used in medicine, food, sallads, and in manufactures; being drawn from olives by presses or mills made for the purpose. The fruit is gathered when at its utmost maturity, in December and January, as it begins to redden: being put under the mill, as soon as gathered, it yields that oil so very sweet, and of so charming an odour, called virgin oil. Though, as the olives newly gathered yield but little oil, those who rather regard quantity than goodness, leave them on the ground some time before they press them.

Neither the smell nor taste of this second oil is very agreeable; tho' there is a third kind still worse, which is the common oil procured by throwing boiling water on the pressings, and repressing them more strongly.

The consumption of this oil is incredible: the south parts of France, as also Candia, and many parts of Italy, yield vast quantities. Its use is generally known, being reputed one of the most universally useful things in the whole world. See *Olive*.

Gallipoli OIL, is imported from Naples in large quantities for the use of the British woollen manufacturers.

OIL *of sweet almonds*, cold drawn, or without fire, is prepared various ways. Some peel the almonds before they pound them; others pound them without peeling. Some warm them in luke-warm water; others in balneo mariæ; some only bruise them; others beat them into a paste. In effect, there are as many different ways of preparing this oil, as there are persons who make it their business to prepare it. See *Almond*.

In this diversity, Pomet gives a method easier and less expensive than any of the rest.

Take a pound and a half of sweet almonds new and dry; after pounding them in a mortar, pass them thro' a coarse sieve, lay them on a hair cloth, and put them under the press between two plates of copper, steel, or the like; press them gently; and when all the unctuous and fluid part is expressed, you will have a sweet oil without any sediments, which is scarce avoidable in any of the other manners.

Palm OIL, or *Oil of Senegal*. A thick unctuous liquor, of a yellow colour, and a violet smell; so called because drawn by ebullition, or by expression, from the fruit of a kind of palm-tree, growing in several places of Africa, especially in Senegal.

The Africans use this oil as Europeans do butter, and burn it when old. In Europe it is esteemed a sovereign remedy against cold humours; and is even said to give ease in the gout. It is sometimes counterfeited with wax, oil of olives, iris, and turmeric; but the adulteration is found out either by air or fire: the air alters the colour of the genuine, and leaves the counterfeit unchanged; and on the contrary fire changes the counterfeit, not the genuine. See *Palma*-Christi.

OIL *of camomile*, is an oil made with the flowers of this plant steeped in oil of olives, and exposed to the sun in the heat of summer; being of a bluish colour: to which some add fine turpentine. It is most esteemed when old: its use being for the cure of several kinds of wounds, and is reputed a kind of balm.

OIL *of aspic*, or *spike*, is an inflammable oil, drawn from the flowers or leaves of a plant frequent in the southern parts of France, resembling lavender, and called by botanists *lavendula mas*.

It is of a white colour, aromatic smell, and reputed the only oil that will dissolve in sandarach: whence the genuine oil is easily distinguished from the counterfeit, which is oil of turpentine mixed with a little petrol.

It is used by painters and farriers; being also of some use in medicine, where it makes a part in several galenical compositions.

Beech OIL, is an oil drawn from the fruit or mast of the beech-tree.

The beech mast is a kind of triangular seed, in form of a nut, or rather acorn, containing a whitish oleaginous pith, of a very agreeable taste; of which is made an oil much valued for sallads.

It is very common in Picardy, in France, where the mast abounds: they draw ir cold by expression, after the mast has been shelled, and ground or pounded.

An attempt was made some years ago, to introduce the manufacture of beech-oil in England, and a patent granted to the proprietor, but without success; the country people turning their mast to better account in feeding hogs with it, than in selling it to the patentee, and his co-proprietors for oil.

Whale or *Train* OIL, is the blubber or fat of the whale melted: of which a very considerable commerce is carried on, especially in time of peace, upon account of its vast use.

There is some also drawn off the livers of the cod at Newfoundland, by throwing up the livers in heaps when the cod is cured, and draining the oil.

It is employed principally for the refining of sulphur, for the preparing of certain leathers, and for greasing ships; as also that used for caulking and paying a seam. Some clothiers prepare their wool with this oil; tho', in manufactures of fine cloths, good oil of olives is only used. Painters use it likewise for certain colours: fullers for their scourings; even architects and sculptors to make white-lead incrustate, and resist the injuries of the air. In short, it would be too prolix to descend to all the particulars of the uses of train-oil.

Rape OIL, is expressed from the grain of a plant or wild cabbage called *colzat* by the Flemish, and by the English *rape*: its use being for the manufacture of wool, for burning in lamps, and to serve instead of train-oil when there is a scarcity of it.

Its good qualities are, a gold colour, an agreeable smell, and a sweet taste. It is sometimes mixed with linseed-oil, which is discoverable by its bitterness, and a less agreeable smell.

Horse OIL, is the fat of a horse melted and clarified; used by enamellers for their lamps; no other oil but this being proper for those kinds of works that require a very brisk and clear fire; which makes it, in proportion, as dear as the best oil of olives, and sometimes more.

OIL *of petrol*. See *Naphta* and *Petroleum*.
OIL *of amber*. See *Amber*.
OIL or *butter of Antimony*. See *Antimony*.
OIL or *butter of Arsenic*. See *Arsenic*.
OIL *of Balm*. See *Balm*.
OIL *of Ben*. See *Ben*.
OIL *of Bricks*. See *Bricks*.
OIL *of Camphor*. See *Camphor*.
OIL *of Cinnamon*. See *Cinnamon*.
OIL *of Castor*. See *Castoreum*.
OIL *of Wax*. See *Wax*.
OIL *of Cummin*. See *Cummin*.
OIL *of Nutmeg*. See *Nutmeg*.
OIL *of Cloves*, See *Cloves*.
OIL *of Neroli*. See *Orange*.

OIL *of black Pitch.* See *Pitch.*
OIL *of Roſemary.* See *Roſemary.*
OIL *of Sage.* See *Sage.*
OIL *of Tartar.* See *Tartar.*
OIL *of Turpentine.* See *Turpentine.*

Virgin OIL, is underſtood of oils expreſſed from olives, nuts, &c. freſh gathered, without being heated and too much preſſed.

Granulated OIL, is that fixed in little grains, which is the beſt and moſt eſteemed, eſpecially of oil of olives.

Dr. Slare gives a ſcheme or analyſis of oils, which he diſtinguiſhes into vegetable, animal, and mineral.

The vegetable he divides into eſſential, and not eſſential. The eſſential again, are either perfect ſtillations made by the analyſis of the chemiſts fire, where the oleaginous particles are truly ſeparated from all other, as thoſe from the ſeeds of cummin, fennel, and dill; or light and etherial, uſually drawn from the tops of plants, and ſpecifically lighter than water, ſome of them than ſpirit of wine, as thoſe from thyme, wormwood, hyſſop, lavender, roſemary, penny-royal, rue, ſage, ſavin, &c. or ponderous, which commonly ſink in water.

Thoſe not eſſential are imperfect, made by expreſſion; being decompounded of ſeveral parts of the plants; as of almonds, olives, walnuts, lime, rape, &c.

The animal oils are either thoſe of the ſolid parts, as harts-horn, human-ſkull, hoofs, &c. or thoſe of the fluids, as of human blood.

Laſtly, the mineral oils are thoſe of amber, petroleum, Barbadoes tar, to which ſome add bees-wax. Of theſe oils there are twelve, that by a mixture of compound ſpirit of nitre, make an ebullition, exploſion, and flame; eighteen that make an ebullition and exploſion without flame; and four that produce neither.

OIL-*mill.* See *Mill.*

OIL-*ſhop-man*, is a perſon who keeps an oil ſhop, particularly in London, where he ſells oils, pickles, ſoap, ſalt, hams, and ſeveral other family neceſſaries.

OKER. A yellow, dry, foſſil earth, harſh to the touch, found in mines of copper and lead; ſometimes in thoſe of ſilver, and ſometimes in mines of its own.

Others ſeem more rightly to refer oker to the claſs of ſemi-metals, than of earths; conſiſting, according to them, of earth and a metal, particularly iron, combined. Mr. Boyle aſſures us, he he has ſeen a piece of oker richer in metal than moſt iron ores, and which was even rendered magnetical by heating, and then cooling it in a perpendicular poſition.

Oker, in effect, is always impregnated with iron; and is what generally gives to chalybeat ſprings their medicinal virtues; many of which, upon the water's ſtanding, will depoſite the oker at the bottom of the veſſel.

Some authors eſteem oker proper to promote the melting of metals, when too harſh and brittle; but its chief uſe is in painting.

The yellow oker only is natural; the red is prepared from the yellow, by calcining it in the fire, till it has acquired its redneſs.

The beds are uſually from 150 to 200 feet deep, and their thickneſs from 4 to 8 inches, between a white ſand which covers them on the top, and a yellow argillous earth underneath.

The beſt oker is that of Berry in France; but there are ſeveral kinds dug up in England, all bordering on the red; ſome of them uſed in poliſhing looking-glaſſes.

OLDENBURGH. A city of Germany, ſituated in 7 deg. 32 min. of E. lon. and 53 deg. 35 min. of N. lat. See *Denmark.*

OLEB, or *Olep.* A kind of flax gathered in Egypt, as good as that called *forfetee*; but not ſo good as the *ſquinanti.* See *Flax.*

OLERON. An iſland of France, near the coaſt of Poictou, and territory of Aunis, ſituated 14 miles S. W. of Rochelle, being about 15 miles long, and 6 broad, and containing 10,000 people. The ancient inhabitants of this iſland had ſuch a reputation for their ſkill in navigation, that their rules became a model for other maritime powers to make their laws by, in relation to ſea affairs; and theſe were called the laws of Oleron, inſtituted by Rich. I. of England, containing 47 articles.

The ſoil of this iſland produces plenty of corn and wine; they make a great deal of ſalt of the ſea water, and there is a light-houſe on this iſland for the direction of ſhips.

OLEUM *Rodeum*, or *Oil of Roſe*, is a term given by druggiſts to a white and odorous oil extracted from roſe-wood by diſtillation: the beſt of which comes from Holland, where the natives ſucceed better in its extraction than any other nation.

OLIBANUM. A kind of gum, or reſin, uſually called *male frankincenſe.* See *Frankincſe.*

Olibanum is brought to Europe in large white tears, bordering a little on the yellow, very heavy, of a ſharp bitter taſte, and a briſk ſmell.

It is diſtinguiſhed from the female, or common frankincenſe, by the largeneſs of the drops. It is very glutinous, and conſequently ſtrengthening, and partakes enough of the turpentine to render it ſomewhat detergent; it is more uſed in compound ſtrengthening plaiſters, than in inward compoſitions.

OLINDA. A city and port-town of Brazil, and capital of the province of Fernambucco, in South America, ſituated in 35 deg. of W. lon. and 8 deg. of S. lat. See *Portugueſe* America.

OLIVA. A port-town of Poland, in the province of regal Pruſſia, ſituated on a bay of the Baltic, in 18 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 54 deg. 20 min. of N. lat.

OLIVE. A ſtone fruit, which yields plenty of oil, the produce of the olive tree. See *Oil.*

There are three kinds of olives frequently ſold, different in ſize and goodneſs: thoſe of Verona, which are the beſt; thoſe of Spain; and thoſe of Provence.

The olives while on the tree are intollerably bitter, without any thing of that delicious taſte which procures them admittance at the richeſt tables; to fit them for which, they muſt be prepared as follows.

In the months of June and July, long before the olives are fit to yield their oil, they are gathered and laid to ſteep ſome days in freſh water; when taken out they are put in a lye made of water prepared with barillia, or kali, with aſhes of olive ſtones calcined, or at leaſt with lime. They are next laid in a liquor of water and ſalt, with which they are put in thoſe little barrels, wherein they are brought to England. To give them the flavour, they throw over them an eſſence uſually compoſed of cloves, cinnamon, coriander, and fennel; which eſſence is a kind of ſecret among thoſe who deal herein; and in effect it is in this that all the difficulty of the preparation lies.

OLONE. A port-town of France, in the province of Orleanois, ſituated in 1 deg. 40 min. of W. lon. and 46 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

OLYMPIA, now *Longinico.* A port-town of the Morea, ſituated in 21 deg. 35 min. of E. lon. and 37 deg. 40 min. of N. lat.

OMERS, *St.* A city of the French Netherlands, in the province of Artois, ſituated on the river Aa, in 2 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 50 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. See *Netherlands.*

ONANDAGOES. One of the tribes of the Iroquois, or five nations; whoſe country is ſituated on the lake Ontario, or Frontenac, in Canada, in North America, being allies of the Engliſh. See *Indian* and *Britiſh* America.

ONEGA *Lake*, is ſituated in 35 deg. of E. lon. and between 61 and 63 deg. of N. lat. in the empire of Ruſſia and provence of Rubeninſka, being upwards of 100 miles in length, and 40 in breadth, having a communication with the lake Ladoga, and conſequently with Peterſburg; they have alſo been cutting a channel between the lake Onega and the White lake, by which it will have a communication with the Wolga, and the Caſpian ſea, when they will be able to continue the navigation from Peterſburg to Perſia.

ONEGLIA. A port-town of Italy, in the territory of Genoa, ſituated on a bay of the Mediterranean, in 8 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 44 deg. of N. lat.

ONRUST, or *No reſt.* A ſmall iſland at the mouth of the harbour of Batavia in the Eaſt Indies, where the Dutch are perpetually building and careening their ſhips. See *Sunda* iſlands.

NTARIO, or *Frontenac Lake*, lies in the country of the Iroquois, or five nations, in North America, ſituated in 79 deg. of W. lon. and between 41 and 43 deg. of N. lat. having a communication with the river of St. Laurence on the north, and with the lake Erie on the ſouth; being, by the cataract of Niagara, upwards of 150 miles long, and 50 miles broad. Upon this lake the French had built ſome forts, but the Iroquois Indians, in alliance with the Engliſh, demoliſhed them: and the French have ſince rebuilt them.

NYX. A kind of precious ſtone, accounted a ſpecies of opaque agate. See *Agate*.

It is of a dark horny colour, in which is a plate of a bluiſh white, and ſometimes of red; the ſeveral colours appearing as diſtinct as if laid on by art.

There are ſome brought from Arabia, mixed with a browniſh hue; which, after taking off one lay or zone, ſhews another underderneath, of a different colour: whence they take the name memphitis, or camehuia, that is, another ſtone.

White zones, or girdles, are eſſential to an onyx: but Dioſcorides and Galen rank alabaſter among onyxes; tho' this is very remote from the opinion of the moderns. See *Alabaſter*.

ORT, or *Rix-oort*, is a ſilver coin of Denmark, being s. 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. ſterling; 5 $\frac{1}{3}$ oorts making the double dollar, or s. ſterling.

RT, is alſo a ſilver coin of Dantzic, worth 10 $\frac{4}{5}$ d. ſterling; 5 of them making the rix-dollar, or 4 s. 6 d. ſterling.

RT or *Gould*, is likewiſe a ſilver coin of Frankfort, current for 7 d. ſterling; 8 of them making the ſpecie dollar, or 4 s. 8 d. ſterling.

AL. A precious ſtone of various colours, changeable according to the different poſition of the ſtone to the light, which ſhews the red of the ruby, the purple of the amethyſt, the green of the emerald; beſides yellow, blue, and ſometimes black and white: but, when the ſtone is broke, moſt of theſe colours diſappear; which ſhews that they ariſe by reflection from one or two principal ones.

Its form is always either round or oval; its prevailing colour white; and its diverſity of colours makes it almoſt of equal value with a ſapphire, or ruby.

Tavernier ſays, perhaps ſomewhat too poſitively, that there are mines of opal in Turkey. Other authors, ancient and modern ſay, Cyprus, Arabia, Egypt, Bohemia, and Hungary produce it; whence it is diſtinguiſhed into two kinds, oriental and occidental.

Artificial OPAL. In the Philoſ. Tranſact. Mr. Colepreſſe gives an account of the manner of counterfeiting opal as practiſed by the Dutch at Haerlem. He ſays, the counterfeit is very lively, and thinks it only performed by the degrees of heat, which produce the colours. When the compoſition is melted, they take out ſome on the point of an iron rod, which being cooled either in the air or water, is colourleſs or pellucid; but being put into the mouth of the furnace on the ſame rod, and there turned by the hand for a little ſpace, hath its little bodies ſo variouſly poſited in various parts of the ſame piece, that the light falling on them, being variouſly modified thereby, repreſents the ſeveral colours ſeen in the natural opal. He adds the colours may be deſtroyed and reſtored, according to the various motions of its particles by heat.

DALE. A port-town of Norway. See *Denmark*.

HITES. A ſort of variegated marble of a duſky green ground, ſprinkled with ſpots of a lighter green; otherwiſe called ſerpentine. See *Marble* and *Serpentine*.

ATE, is ſometimes applied to any confection or electuary: in which ſenſe it is defined an internal remedy, variouſly compoſed of powders, pulps, liquors, ſugar, or honey, reduced into a ſoft conſiſtence.

The opiate of Solomon is a compoſition of great fame; ſo called from one Solomon. a phyſician, its inventor; and firſt publiſhed by Laurence Joubert.

There are a particular kind of opiates called incarnatives for the teeth and gums, made of alum, ſumach, lignum

aloes, myrrh, maſtic, and other things, reduced into powder.

OPIATE, is alſo uſed for any medicine given with an intention to procure ſleep.

OPIATE, is more particularly uſed for a compoſition wherein opium is an ingredient.

OPIUM. A narcotic juice, commonly drawn from the head of the white poppy, and afterwards inſpiſſated. When the juice flows of itſelf, thro' inciſions made in the poppy-heads, it is properly called opium; when drawn by expreſſion it ought rather to be called *Meconium*. See *Meconium*.

The difference between the qualities and virtues of the two juices is very conſiderable. The former is preferable on all accounts, but exceeding rare; the Turks, among whom it is produced, and who make great uſe of it, never allowing it to be exported: ſo that it is the latter which is generally uſed among Europeans, and ſold for opium.

It is moſtly brought from the Levant and Cairo, generally very impure; the Levantines to ſhorten their labour, and to have the more juice, drawing it equally from the heads and leaves of poppies, by expreſſion, and then reducing it to the thickneſs of an extract by fire: though a late traveller into their countries aſſures us it is drawn by decoction, and afterwards inſpiſſated.

It muſt be choſen dry, the ſmoothеſt and blackeſt poſſible, of a drowſy ſmell, and neither rugged nor ſticky, nor all in a maſs.

It is a popular error, that there is any ſuch thing as white opium; for tho' the juice as it runs from the heads of the poppies is of a milk colour, it always becomes of a very deep brown as it thickens. Wherever it is found yelloweiſh or ſoft, it is a ſign the juice has not had fire enough.

Moſt of the opium ſold at Conſtantinople is brought from Anatolia, from a place called by the Turks *Aphium Carahiſſat*, that is black caule of opium. It is likewiſe produced in the territory of Thebes in Egypt, but held much inferior to the Anatolian opium.

There are alſo great quantities produced in the kingdoms of Bengal and Bahar in India, which are exported by the ſeveral Europeans factors to Pegu and the coaſt of Malacca.

Prepared opium is called *laudanum*, whereof there are two kinds: the one ſimple, extracted by means of rain water, and ſpirit of wine; the other compound, called *laudanum opiatum*; wherein ſeveral other ingredients enter. See *Laudanum*.

The uſes of opium are to ſooth pain, to excite ſleep, to ſtop vomiting and looſeneſſes. Its doſe is from half a grain to two grains: ſome perſons who have much habituated themſelves to it, can take 50 or 60 grains. Charas ſays, he has taken 12 grains himſelf, and adds, he knew one who made no ſcruple of 36. And in the Philoſophical Tranſactions we have an inſtance of one Mr. Lovelock, who in a fever, in three days time, took 102 grains.

Opium raiſes the ſpirits, occaſions agreeable ſenſations, and has much the ſame effect with wine, or ſtrong ſpirits. The Turks ordinarily take to the quantity of a drachm when they go to battle, or undertake any affair that requires vigour and reſolution.

Opium ſtops for a time all overflowing of humours, fluxes, hemorrhages, or the like; probably, from the ſmoothneſs and roundneſs of its parts, which, by a kind of titillation, oblige the inteſtines, and other veſſels, to contract themſelves.

Willis, Silvius, and Muller, look on opium as a coagulating poiſon, which fixes the ſpirits in the nerves. Wepfer and Pitcairn, on the contrary, maintain it to be a hot diſſolving poiſon, which ſubtilizes the blood, exalts and reduces it into vapours, which bloat up the arteries; and the bloated arteries compreſſing the veins and nerves, ſhut up the paſſage of the ſpirits.

By analyſis, opium is found to contain a great deal of volatile ſalt.

OPOBALSAMUM. A whitiſh juice, gum, or reſin, diſtilling from the branches of a tree called the balſam tree. See *Balſam*.

It is whitiſh, pretty thick, tranſparent, of a ſmell approaching turpentine, but much more agreeable; being the ſame

with the celebrated *balſamum verum*, or balm of the Levant; at leaſt the difference is not viſible, nor can authors fix it.

It obtains a place among alexipharmics, and is a good ingredient in the *theriaca Andromachi* and mithridate; very ill ſupplied with the expreſſed oil of mace for a ſuccedaneum, which does not at all come up to the ſubtilty and activity of its parts, and is of a much heavier texture. This, as all other balſams, is ſuppurative, deterſive, and incarnating, applied outwardly to tumours, ulcers, or green wounds.

OPOPONAX. A vegetable juice, or gum, yellow on the outſide, white within, fatty and brittle; of an agreeable taſte, and a very ſtrong ſmell.

The Latins call it *panax Herculeum*, from Hercules who is ſuppoſed to have invented it, or rather who firſt diſcovered its ſpecific virtues. It is one of the three celebrated panacea or univerſal medicines, to which the ancients attributed ſuch wonderful virtues: the two others being the aſclepium, and chironium; the firſt found by Eſculapius, the ſecond by Chiron.

The gum opoponax flows by inciſion from a plant growing abundantly in Achaia, Bæotia, Phocis, and Macedonia, in Greece: while it is liquid it is white; but, as it dries and hardens, it aſſumes a golden yellow.

There are three kinds imported; that in tears, that in the maſs, and that counterfeited and flatted. The firſt is the beſt; and the ſecond is the next, as it has the moſt tears; the third being a rank ſophiſtication, and good for little.

It is little uſed internally, tho' Etmuller ranks it among cathartics: its chief uſe being in the cure of wounds; whence it enters the compoſition of the *unguentum divinum*, with the galbanum, ammoniac, and bdellium.

OPORTO. See *Porto*.

OPTICAL *Inſtrument-maker*, is a perſon employed in making the various ſorts of teleſcopes, microſcopes, ſpectacles, and all other inſtruments invented for the help or preſervation of ſight, and in which glaſſes are uſed. The caſes, or machinery of his inſtruments, are made by different workmen, according to their nature, and he adjuſts the glaſſes to them.

ORAN. A city and port-town of Barbary, in the kingdom of Algiers, ſubject to Spain, and ſituated on the Mediterranean, under the meridian of London, in 36 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

ORANGE. A delicious fruit of the apple kind, too well known to need a particular deſcription; yet yielding too many kinds of merchandiſe, to be paſſed over.

Oranges are uſually brought from Nice, and Genoa, in Italy; the iſles of Hieres, and Provence, in France; Spain, Portugal, Barbary; the American iſlands; and even China, and the coaſts of India.

There are two kinds of oranges; the ſweet, or China oranges; and the ſour, or Seville.

Thoſe called China oranges were firſt brought into Europe from China by the Portugueſe; and it is ſaid the very tree whence all the European orange-trees of this ſort were produced, is ſtill preſerved at Liſbon, in the houſe of the Count St. Laurent.

Thoſe moſt eſteemed are made preſents of as rarities in the Indies, being no bigger than a billiard ball; when ſweetened with a little ſugar they are eſteemed excellent for diſorders of the breaſt, the juices being cooling and anti-ſcorbutic.

Great quantities of Seville oranges are conſumed in the Britiſh dominions for making punch and ſhrub; which are chiefly brought from Spain and Portugal.

Oranges are uſually confected in halves and quarters, when they are firſt peeled, then ſcoped and dried in a ſtove.

Orangeat is the orange-peel cut in pieces and candied.

Italy furniſhes a great deal of flower of oranges, either dry or liquid.

The water of flower of oranges called *aqua naphæ*, comes moſtly from Provence; which, to be good, muſt be very bitter, and not above a year old.

There are various oils drawn from oranges. The oil of neroli is the produce of the flowers by diſtillation. That drawn from the ſkin by water and an alembic, is alſo ther as good. There is alſo an oil drawn from lim oranges, or orangelettes, by ſteeping them five or days in common water, and diſtilling them with the ſa water in an alembic. Theſe oils are all eſteemed gre for deſtroying worms in children; but are very apt to ſophiſticated with oil of ben, or that of ſweet almon

ORANOCO. A ſtrong ſort of tobacco, and uſed making ſnuff. See *Tobacco*.

ORATAVIA. Capital of the iſland of Teneriffe. *Canary* iſlands.

ORBITELLO. A city and port-town of Italy, in duchy of Tuſcany, ſituated on a bay of the Mediter nean, in 12 deg. of E. lon. and 42 deg. 30 min. of N.

ORCADES, or *Orkney* iſlands, are ſituated between 3 of W. lon. and 1 deg. of E. lon. and between 59 and of N. lat. being about 40 in number. See *Britiſh* iſla

ORCHIES. A town of the French Netherlands. *Netherlands*.

ORCHILLA. One of the Sotovento, or Leeward ille near the coaſt of Terra Firma in America, ſituated 65 deg. of W. lon. and 12 deg. of N. lat.

ORDEFF, or *Oredef*. A word frequently uſed in char of privileges, for a liberty whereby a man claims the found in his own ground.

It properly ſignifies ore lying under ground; as a *of coal* is coal lying in veins under ground.

ORDER, in the commerce of bills of exchange, is an dorſement, or ſuccinct writing, placed on the back the bill, for tranſferring and making it payable to anot See *Endorſement*.

ORDER, among traders, ſignifies the power or commi which a merchant gives his correſpondent to make him ſuch and ſuch bargains, at ſuch and ſuch a price, on ſuch conditions as he preſcribes for him. And it is a term for the direction of any parcel of goods to be in from a merchant or trader, particularly from wholeſale dealers as ſupply country tradeſmen.

ORDER *Book*. See *Book*-keeping.

ORDNANCE. A general term for all ſorts of great or cannon, mortars, &c. uſed in war.

The parts of a piece of ordnance are the outſide, about the piece, which is called *the ſuperficies of her* the ſubſtance, or whole maſs of metal, called her *body* part next us, when ſhe ſtands ready to fire, the *breech coyle*; and the pummel, or round knob at the end o the *caſcabell*, by ſome the *caſcabell dock*. The *trun* are the two knobs, or ears, which hold the piece in carriage. *Maniglions*, or *dolphins*, in the German are two handles placed on the back of the piece near trunnions, and near the center of gravity, to moun diſmount them more eaſily.

The rings about a piece of ordnance are five; the *baſe* that which is next below the touch-hole; the next the touch-hole is called the *reinforced ring*; the ne that forward, the *trunnion ring*; the next the *cornice* that at the mouth, the *muzzle ring*, or the *frize*. the rings near the mouth are ſometimes called *freezes*.

As to the internal parts, the whole cavity or bore piece is called her *chaſe*; that part of the cavity bet the trunnions and the muzzle or mouth, the *vacu linder*; that part from the trunnions to the end of t vity, or ſo much of it as contains, or is loaded wi powder and ſhot, is called the *chamber*. The diame the mouth, the *caliber*; the ſpace between the ſhot the hollow ſuperficies of the piece within, the *vent* ing the difference between the diameter of the ſhot the mouth of the piece.

Ordnance in England is diſtinguiſhed into two *field-pieces*, which are from the ſmalleſt to 12 pou and *cannon of battery*, which are from a culveri whole cannon.

Each of theſe diviſions is again ſubdivided; th into baſe, rabinet, falconets, falcon, minion or minion largeſt, ſaker leaſt, ſaker ordinary, demi cu leaſt, culverin ordinary, culverin largeſt, demi leaſt, demi-cannon ordinary, demi-cannon large royal whole cannon.

The ſtrength and ſerviceableneſs of a piece of ordnance depends much on the thickneſs of the metal, eſpecially about its chamber and breech, which is called its *fortification.*

Of this there are three degrees, both for cannons and culverins. Such as are uſually fortified, are called *legitimate pieces*; thoſe whoſe fortification is leſſened, are called *baſtard pieces*; thoſe doubly fortified, are called *extraordinary pieces.*

The fortification of a gun is reckoned from the thickneſs of the metal at the touch-hole, at the trunnions, and at the muzzle, in proportion to the diameter of the bore. The doubly fortified pieces are a full diameter of the bore in thickneſs at the touch-hole, 11-16ths of it at the trunnions, and 7-16ths at the muzzle: the leſſened cannons have but 3-4ths, or 12-16ths of the diameter of their bore, in the thickneſs at the touch-hole 9-16ths at the trunnions, and 5-16ths at the muzzle.

All the double-fortified culverins, and all the leſſer pieces of that kind, have a diameter and 1 8th at the touch-hole, 15-16ths at the trunnions, and 9-16ths at the muzzle. And the ordinary fortified culverins are every way as the doubly fortified cannon, and the leſſened culverins as the ordinary cannon, in all reſpects. The ordinary fortified cannons have 7-8ths at the touch-hole, and at the trunnions, and 3-8ths at the muzzle.

ORDNANCE *Office*, is the ſtanding grand magazine of arms, habiliments, inſtruments, and utenſils of war, as well by ſea as land, not only for thoſe lodged in the Tower of London, but in all the garriſons, caſtles, forts, &c. in Great Britain; from whence, as occaſion requires, his Majeſty's armies, &c. are ſupplied.

The officers of the ordnance are the *maſter-general*, from whom are derived all orders and diſpatches relating to the ſame, as the ſervice ſhall beſt require.

Under him is a *lieutenant-general of the ordnance*, who receives orders from the maſter-general, and the reſt of the prime officers at the board, ſees them duly executed, orders the firing of the guns on days of rejoicing, and ſees the train of artillery fitted out when ordered to the field.

Next to him is the *ſurveyor-general*, who has the inſpection of the ordnance, ſtores, and proviſions of war, in the cuſtody of the ſtore-keepers; allows all bills of debts, keeps a check on labourers, &c.

Under theſe is a *clerk of the ordnance*, who records all orders, and inſtructions given for the government of the office; with all patents, grants, names of officers, &c. draws all eſtimates for proviſions, and ſupplies all letters, inſtructions, commiſſions, deputations, contracts, &c. ſerves as a check between the two accomptants of the office, the one for money, the other for ſtores.

This office has alſo a *ſtore-keeper*, who takes into his cuſtody all ordnance, ammunition, ſtores, &c. thereto belonging; and indents, and gives in legal ſecurity for the ſafe keeping thereof; rendering an exact account from time to time.

There is alſo a *clerk of the deliveries*, whoſe duty is to draw up all proviſions, either at the Tower, or any other of his Majeſty's magazines, to ſee them duly executed, &c. And laſtly, a *treaſurer*, through whoſe hands paſſes the money of the whole office, as well for payment of ſalaries as debentures.

ORDUNNA. A port-town of Spain, in the province of Biſcay, ſituated in 3 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 43 deg. 15 min. of N. lat.

ORE. The mineral glebe, earth, or ſtone, dug out of mines, to be purified, and the metalline parts procured and ſeparated from the ſame.

The ore is frequently called the mineral, and ſometimes marcaſite: though on other occaſions a difference is made; the denomination *ore* being only given where the mineral is rich enough of metal to be wrought; when it is not, it is denominated *marcaſite*. See *Mineral*, and *Marcaſite*.

ORE, is alſo a copper coin of Sweden; being 7-12ths of an Engliſh penny; and 96 of them make the rix-dollar, or 4s. 8d. ſterling.

ORE-GRUND. A port-town of Sweden, in the province of Upland, ſituated on the Bothnic gulph, in 18 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 60 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

ORELLAN. A plant that grows in ſome places of the continent of America, particularly at Brebia, a Dutch colony near the river Surinam in Terra firma, where it is cultivated like indigo; and from it a dye is extracted as good as that from Indigo. See *Indigo*.

ORFORD. A borough and port-town of Suffolk, ſituated on a bay of the German ocean, in 1 deg. 38 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 15 min. of N. lat.

ORGAL. The lees of wine dried, and uſed by dyers, to prepare the cloth for more readily taking their ſeveral colours.

ORGAGIS. A white cotton cloth brought from the Eaſt Indies; being a kind of baffetas, called orgagis from the place where it is manufactured. See *Baffetas*.

ORGANSIN, or *Orgenſin*. Silk open, and dreſſed, that is, ſpun and milled; compoſed of four twiſts of ſilk, which have been firſt ſpun, and milled ſeparately, two by two; and being afterwards milled all four together, compoſe but one thread.

Organſins have uſually their names from the countries and towns where they are dreſſed, and brought from: ſuch are thoſe of Milan, Bologna, Bergamo, Reggio, Piedmont, and Breſſe. Thoſe of Meſſina from Sicily are called *organſins of St. Lucia*; which, with thoſe of Bologna, are moſt eſteemed. See *Silk*.

ORIENT, is a term underſtood of all thoſe parts of the world ſituated with regard to us in thoſe places where we ſee the ſun riſe; yet commonly it is ſaid only of thoſe which are moſt diſtant from us, as China, Japan, the Mogul's country, and the reſt of India, Arabia, and Perſia; the other parts which we are nearer to, as the iſlands of the Archipelago, and the coaſt of the Mediterranean, wherein are Conſtantinople, Smyrna, Aleppo, Sidon, and even Cairo, are known only in commerce by the name of the *Levant*.

ORIENTAL. Something ſituated towards the eaſt with regard to us, in oppoſition to occidental; in which ſenſe we ſay *Oriental pearls*, that is, ſuch as are found in the Eaſt Indies. See *Occidental*.

ORIENTAL *Iſlands*, are the Philippines, Celebes, Moluccas, and Banda iſlands, with the reſt which lie ſouth of China.

ORISTAGNI. A city and port-town of the iſland of Sardinia, ſituated on a bay of the Mediterranean, on the weſt-ſide of the iſland, in 8 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 39 deg. 30 min of N. lat.

ORLEANS *iſland* and *town*, in North America, are ſituated in the river of St. Laurence, in 73 deg. of W. lon. and 47 deg. of N. lat. See *French* America.

ORLOPE, or *Orlopp*, in the ſea-language, the uppermoſt ſpace or deck in a great ſhip, from the main-maſt to the mizzen; but in three-decked ſhips, the ſecond and loweſt decks are ſometimes alſo called *orlope*.

ORMUS. See *Perſian* iſlands.

Gulph of ORMUS. See *Perſian* Gulph.

ORNIS. A kind of cotton cloth, or muſlin, manufactured at Brampour, a town of India, between Surat and Agra; being half cotton, and half gold and ſilver, from 15 to 20 ells long.

OROBE. A plant, whoſe ſeed and root are of ſome uſe in medicine and dying.

ORONOQUE. A river of South America, riſing ſouth of the equator; and running north through the countries of Guiana and Caribbiana, falls into the Atlantic ocean almoſt oppoſite to the iſland of Trinity. It was in this river that Sir Walter Raleigh went in ſearch of a gold mine, in the reign of King James I. where he took the town of St. Thomas, and diſturbed ſome others of the Spaniſh ſettlements on that ſide; which made the Spaniards never ceaſe to ſolicit the court of England to deſtroy him, till they brought that illuſtrious man to the ſcaffold.

OROPEZA. A city of Peru in South America; ſo called from the quantity of gold found near it.

ORPHAN'*s fund of the city of London*, was eſtabliſhed by act of parliament of the 5th and 6th of William and Mary. The city of London had for many ages acted as

a common parent to all her orphans: but by ſeveral accidents, and public calamities, their money, which had been depoſited in the chamber of the city for its ſecurity, was ſo much exhauſted, that the citizens became indebted to the orphans, and other creditors, in the ſum of 747,500 l. which was a greater ſum than they were immediately capable of diſcharging: therefore, to enable them to pay this debt, they applied for the aſſiſtance of parliament; by whom it was enacted,

That towards ſettling a perpetual fund for paying the yearly intereſt of 4 *per cent.* due by the city to their creditors, all the manors, meſſuages, lands, markets, fairs, and other income whatſoever belonging to the city, excepting the eſtates belonging to the city-hoſpitals, and thoſe appropriated for the repairs of London bridge, ſhould be for ever charged for raiſing the annual ſum of 8000 l. clear of all deductions. That all the profits ariſing from the ſeveral aqueducts belonging to the city be applied towards the payment of the ſaid intereſt. That towards the ſupport of the ſaid fund, the Lord Mayor and common council might annually raiſe 2000 l. by an equal aſſeſſment, upon the perſonal eſtates of the citizens. That the yearly ſum of 600 l. being the rent paid for the privilege of illuminating the ſtreets of the city with convex lamps, ſhould be applied towards the ſupport of this fund; which was afterwards taken off. That every apprentice, at the time of his being bound, ſhould pay 2 s. 6 d. towards this fund. That every perſon, upon his being admitted a freeman of the city, ſhould pay 5 s. towards the ſupport of this fund. That every ton of wine, imported into the port of London, ſhould pay 5 s. towards the ſupport of this fund. That towards the increaſe of this fund, all coals imported into the port of London, ſhould pay 4 d. the chaldron metage, above what was formerly paid; and alſo the meaſurable to pay 6 d. the chaldron; and the weighable 6 d. the ton, for 50 years, which expired in 1742; when all the monies, &c. belonging to the city, ſtood charged with the yearly ſum of 6000 l. over and above the 8000 l. a-year.

For better ſecuring the properties of the city-orphans for the future, they and their truſtees were for ever exempt from paying, or delivering into the chamber of London, any money, or other parts of their perſonal eſtates. And as a further ſecurity to theſe orphans, no money of theirs, which ſhall be veſted in the orphans fund, can be removed from thence, till they to whom it belongs be of age; or, if a daughter, when married.

As ſoon as application is made to the court of Lord Mayor and Aldermen in behalf of any of the city-orphans, to have the benefit of the orphan's fund, the money depoſited on account of ſuch orphan is taken in at par: on which occaſions a non-orphan is paid off to the amount of that money, to make room for others; and no fees are to be taken by any of the city-officers for any buſineſs done by them in relation to this fund. However, from the eſtabliſhment of this beneficial fund in 1694 to 1735, the ſeveral ſums veſted therein, on account of the city-orphans, only amounted to about 100,000 l.

ORPIMENT, *Auripigmentum.* A mineral, or ſemi-metal, uſually found in copper mines, and ſuppoſed to contain particles of gold; which may be extracted by chemiſtry, but were never found to countervail the expence.

Orpiment is found in ſtones, or glebes, of ſeveral ſizes and figures: its colour is always yellow, intermixed with ſhades of other colours, as green, red, orange, and others; but ſometimes it is found almoſt quite red, which is the proper ſandaracha of the antients. See *Sandaracha.*

That uſually called red orpiment, or red arſenic, is only the yellow orpiment heated to a great degree, and put in a crucible, with oil of hempſeed, olives, or nuts.

Painters, farriers, and others, make a great conſumption of this mineral; but as it is found a violent corroſive, and even reputed a poiſon, it ſhould be uſed with great precaution.

Orpiment muſt be choſen of a golden yellow colour, eaſy to ſcale, and the ſcales very thin, ſmall, and ſhining like gold.

Some diſtinguiſh three kinds of orpiment; *white*, which is the ſame with arſenic; *yellow*, which is the proper orpiment; and *red*, which is ſandarach, or realgar. See *Arſenic*, and *Realgar*.

The Indians uſe orpiment, corrected with juice, with good ſucceſs againſt fevers.

ORRICE, or *Orris.* Gold and ſilver lace, wove pretty broad, to ſew on mens and womens garments by way of ornament.

ORT. A term of commerce, uſed in French cuſtom-houſes; where *to weigh ort*, ſignifies to weigh merchandiſe with their package.

The tariff of 1664, and the ordonnance of the five great farms of 1684, import, that all commodities which pay duty by the weight, excepting thoſe of gold and ſilver, and ſpice, ſhall be weighed with their package. See *Tare.*

ORTIES. A ſmall Flemiſh copper coin, worth about a farthing ſterling; 80 of which make the guilder, or 1 s. 7 2/7 d. ſterling.

ORTOLAN. See *Hortolan.*

ORVIETAN. A celebrated antidote, or counter-poiſon, ſo called, becauſe invented and propagated by an operator from Orvieta in Italy; who made experiments thereof on his own perſon, on the public ſtage, by taking ſeveral doſes of poiſons.

In Charas's pharmacopœia is a method of making orvietan; where it appears that Venice treacle is one of the principal ingredients. See *Theriaca.*

ORWELL. A river of Suffolk, riſing in the middle of that county; and running S. E. by Ipſwich, falls into the German ſea at Landguard fort.

OSACA. A great city and port-town of Japan, ſituated on a bay of the ſea, on the eaſt-ſide of the iſland, in 13 deg. of E. lon. and 35 deg. of N. lat. See *Japan.*

OSERA. A Venetian iſland in the gulph of Venice, ſituated in 15 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 45 deg. of N. lat.

OSLIC. A ſilver coin of Turky, worth 4 1/2 d. ſterling; 26 of which make the zeriff, or 9 s. 9 d. ſterling.

OSTEND. A city and port-town of the Auſtrian Netherlands, ſituated in 2 deg. 45 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. See *Netherlands.*

OSTENSIO. A tax anciently paid by merchants, &c. for leave to ſhew, or expoſe their goods to ſhow and ſale in markets. See *Scavage.*

OSTEOCOLLA, *Glue-bone.* A white or aſh coloured ſparry ſtone, ſhaped like a bone, and by ſome ſuppoſed to have the quality of uniting broken bones; on which account it is ordered in ſome plaiſters.

OSTIA. A port-town of Italy, in the Pope's territories, ſituated at the mouth of the Tiber, in 13 deg. of E. lon. and 41 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

OSTRACITIS. A kind of cruſty ſtone, reddiſh, and in form of an oyſter-ſhell; being like that ſeparable into laminæ, found in ſeveral places of Germany, and held in ſervice in the gravel; the doſe being from half a dr. to a whole one, in white wine.

OSTRACITIS, is alſo the name of a kind of cadmia, found at the bottom of the furnaces where copper is purified. See *Cadmia.*

It is very heavy, and in ſtructure reſembles an oyſter-ſhell; whence its name. It is eſteemed aſtringent and deterſive, and is an ingredient in ſeveral unguents.

OSWEGO. A town of the Iroquois in North America, 300 miles weſt of Albany in New York, where the Engliſh trade with the diſtant Indians for their ſkins and furrs.

OTOQUE. An iſland of Terra firma, ſituated on the coaſt of Panama in America, in 82 deg. of W. lon. and 8 deg. of S. lat.

OUATE. A very fine and gloſſy kind of cotton, brought from Egypt.

OUCH. The bed, collar, or ſeat of gold or ſilver, in which jewellers put their precious ſtones, to keep them faſt in rings, buttons, and the like.

OVERFLACKEE. An iſland of the United Provinces, in the province of Holland, ſituated in the mouth of the river Maes. See *United* Provinces.

OVERKEYKERS. A term at Amſterdam for the white ſerges manufactured at Leyden. See *Serge.*

OVER-*maſted*, in the ſea-language, is when the maſts of a ſhip are diſproportioned to her bulk.

OVER-*meaſure*. Something given or allowed more than the exact quantity, for the encouragement of the buyer: thus they who buy 20 chaldrons of coals, have one allowed them for over-meaſure.

OVER-*rake*, in the ſea-language, when a ſhip riding at anchor, ſo overbeats herſelf into a head-ſea, that ſhe is waſhed by the waves breaking in upon her, they ſay the waves over-rake her. See *Rake*.

OUNCE. A little weight, the 16th part of a pound avoirdupois; and the twelfth of a pound troy.

The ounce avoirdupois is divided into 8 drams, and the dram into 3 ſcruples. The ounce troy into 20 pennyweights, and the pennyweight into 24 grains.

The ounce, or once, makes the 8th part of the French mark, and is divided into 3 gros, or drams; the dram into 3 pennyweights, or ſcruples; and the ſcruple into 24 grains, each grain computed to weigh a grain of wheat.

All precious merchandiſes, as gold, ſilver, ſilk, &c. are ſold by the ounce.

OUNCE. A gold coin of Sicily, worth about 7 s. $4\frac{4}{13}$ d. ſterling.

OUNCE *Pearls*, are thoſe too ſmall to be ſold by tale, uſually called ſeeds of pearl. See *Pearl*.

OUNCE cottons, are certain cottons brought from Damaſcus, of a kind and quality ſuperior to the reſt. See *Cotton*.

OUSE. A river which riſes on the confines of Oxfordſhire and Buckinghamſhire, and running N.E. through Bucks, Bedfordſhire, Huntingdonſhire, Cambridgeſhire, and Norfolk, paſſes by Buckingham, Bedford, Huntingdon, and Ely, diſcharging itſelf into a bay of the German ſea at Lynn.

OUSE, is alſo a river which riſes in the north of Yorkſhire, runs S. E. by York; and continuing its courſe S. E. falls into the Trent or Humber.

OUSTIACH, or *Oſtiach*. A country of Aſiatic Ruſſia. See *Ruſſia*.

OWLER. A maſter of a ſhip, or other perſon, who conveys wool, or other prohibited goods, in the night, to the ſea-ſide, in order to ſhip them off contrary to law. See *Smuggler*.

The name is derived hence, that, like owls, they only ſtir abroad in the night-time.

OWNER *of a ſhip*, is the proprietor of the ſame by lawful title, either as the builder of it, or by purchaſe of another intitled thereto. See *Ship*, and *Maſter*.

OWSE, among tanners, is oaken bark beaten, or ground ſmall, to ſerve in the preparation of the leather. See *Bark*.

OX, is a male of the neat kind, that has been gelt, to make him tamer, and more fit for labour, many farmers ploughing the ground with them.

OX-EYE. A ſea-term for a violent ſtorm, that ſometimes happens upon the coaſt of Guinea; which, at its firſt riſing, ſeems to be no bigger than an ox's eye, though ſoon after it ſpreads itſelf over the whole viſible part of the hemiſphere; breaking out into ſuch ſudden guſts of wind or ſtormy air, that it frequently not only ſcatters the ſhips one from another, but alſo ſinks and overturns them.

OXYMEL. A mixture of honey and vinegar, boiled to the conſiſtence of a ſyrup: of which there are two kinds; the one ſimple, the other compound; the ſimple is uſed to deterge any phlegm adhering to the throat or cheſt; the compound, whereto is added the decoction of the five greater opening roots, with the ſeeds of ſmallage, parſley, and fennel, is uſed in obſtructions of the liver and ſpleen.

OXUS. A river which riſes in the mountains on the north of India, runs north-weſt through Uſbec Tartary, afterwards ſeparates Perſia from Uſbec Tartary, falling into the Caſpian ſea in 44 deg. of N. lat.

OYSTER, and *Oyſter fiſhery*. See Oyſter *Fiſhery*.

P.

P, IN medicinal preſcriptions, is uſed for *pugil*, or the eighth part of a handful.

P. Æ. ſignifies *partes æquales*, equal parts of any ingredients, otherwiſe denoted by *ā*, or *ana*.

P. P. ſignifies *pulvis patrum*, Jeſuits powder, or the *cortex peruvianus* in powder; which is ſo called, becauſe firſt brought into Europe by thoſe fathers. See *Cortex*.

P. S. in letters between trading correſpondents, ſignifies *poſtſcript*.

PACE, or *Step*. A meaſure taken from the ſpace between the two feet of a man in walking. See *Meaſure*.

The ordinary pace of a man is two feet and a half, though many reckon it a yard; the geometrical, or German, called alſo the *greater pace*, is five feet. See *Foot*.

The antient Roman and modern Italic mile conſiſts of a thouſand paces, *mille paſſus*; the French league is 3000 paces, and the German 4000.

PACHSU. An iſland of the Mediterranean, near the coaſt of Epirus, ſubject to Venice, and ſituated in 20 deg. 45 min. of E. lon. and 39 deg. 15 min. of N. lat.

PACIFIC *Ocean*, or South ſea, ſeparates Aſia from America, being 10,000 miles wide in the broadeſt part. It was called Pacific from the moderate weather mariners met with on the coaſt of Peru, and generally between the tropics in that ſea; though it appears, it is no leſs ſtormy than other ſeas without the tropics, towards either pole: but Magellan happening to have a very favourable wind, and not meeting with any thing to ruffle him, when he firſt traverſed this ocean in 1520, gave it the name which it has retained ever ſince. Maty however adds, that the wind is ſo regular, that veſſels could frequently go from Acapulco to the Philippine iſlands without ſhifting a ſail. It was called the South ſea, becauſe the Spaniards paſſed the iſthmus to Darien, from north to ſouth, when they firſt diſcovered it; though it is properly the weſtern ocean with regard to America. See *Ocean*.

PACK *of wool*, in commerce, is a horſe's load; containing 17 ſtone and 2 pounds, or 240 pounds weight. See *Wool*.

To PACK, ſignifies to tie, or bundle up, goods in a convenient manner for removing or carrying them from place to place.

PACKAGE. A duty or cuſtom paid by ſome ſort of goods for the packing or package thereof. See *Scavage*.

By the ſtatute of the 13th and 14th of Charles II. the maſters of any ſhips from foreign parts, ſuffering any package to be opened, and the goods embezzled, carried away, or put into any other form or package, after the ſhip comes into the port of diſcharge, are to forfeit 100 l.

PACKBUYS, is a term in Holland for the warehouſes where goods are depoſited, either at their arrival in, or going out of the country, when for ſome reaſons the duties cannot be paid immediately; but there are alſo other cauſes for their being detained there.

PACKER, is a perſon whoſe buſineſs it is to pack up all ſorts of bale goods into proper parcels fit for exportation; being anſwerable to their employers if any damage happens to the goods through their ignorance or neglect. It is a very reputable buſineſs, attended with great profits; and many packers are large adventurers themſelves in the exportation of Britiſh manufactures. See *Preſs*.

PACKERS, are certain perſons appointed, and ſworn to put or pack up herrings, according to the direction of the act of parliament in that caſe made and provided.

PACKET, or *Pacquet*. A name generally applied to a mail or quantity of letters, brought from beyond ſea.

PACKET-*boats*, are veſſels, wherein ſuch mails are carried. See *Letters*.

By the ſtatute of the 13th and 14th of Charles II. packet-boats are not to import or export any goods, unleſs by the allowance of the officers of the cuſtoms; upon forfeiture of ſuch goods, and 100 l. by the maſter, beſides loſs of place.

PACO, is one of thoſe kinds of minerals, or metallic ſtones, found in the ſilver mines of Chili and Peru; being of a yellowiſh red, ſoft, naturally frangible into ſcraps, and produces but little ſilver.

PACOS. An extraordinary kind of ſheep met with in Peru; whoſe wool is very long and fine, and may be uſed for ſeveral beautiful manufactures.

PACOTILLE, or *Paquotille*. A French term of commerce, which ſignifies a certain weight or quantity of merchandiſe allowed to officers, ſailors, &c. to embark upon their own account; which pays no freight, either going or returning. See *Adventure*.

PACTOLUS. A river of Lydia in the Leſſer Aſia, celebrated by the antient poets for its golden ſands.

PADANG. A port-town of the Eaſt Indies, ſubject to the Dutch, ſituated on the weſt coaſt of the iſland of Sumatra, in 99 deg. of E. lon. and 1 deg. 5 min. of S. lat. See *Sunda* iſlands.

PADSTOW. A port-town of Cornwal, ſituated on a bay of the Iriſh channel, in 5 deg. 20 min. of W. lon. and 50 deg. 40 min. of N. lat.

PADUA. A city of Italy, ſituated in 12 deg. 15 min. E. lon. and 45 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. ſubject to the Venetians.

PADUASOY. A particular kind of rich ſilk, originally manufactured at Padua in Italy; though the ſame ſort is brought from China and India.

PAENSZAJIE. A ſilver coin current in Perſia, worth two mamodies and a half, or 1 s. 8 d. ſterling.

PAGIAVELLE. A particular way of ſumming up the pieces of merchandiſe, uſed in ſome places of the East Indies, when ſold by wholeſale; which is in proportion to what Europeans call a groce. Cotton cloths are ſold in Pegu by the Pagiavelle of four pieces.

PAGO. An iſland in the gulph of Venice, ſeparated from the continent of Morlachia by a narrow channel, ſituated in 16 deg. 12 min. of E. lon.

PAGOD, or *Pagoda*. A gold coin current in ſeveral parts of the Eaſt Indies, on the footing of the piece of eight. See *Coin*.

The Engliſh coin pagodas at Fort St. George, and the Dutch at Pel'icate.

There are alſo ſilver pagodas ſtruck at Narſingua, Biſnagar, and other places, which uſually bear the name of ſome monſtrous idol, whence they have their denomination. There are pagodas of various values and inſcriptions, thoſe of Fort St. George being worth 7 s. 8 d. ſterling, and others are worth 9 s. ſterling. The curious alſo give the name *pagod* to the little porcelain images brought from China.

PAINT. Colours mixed up with oil, for the uſe of painters.

PAINTER-*ſtainer*, or *Houſe-painter*. One who paints things with plain colours, as wainſcotting, doors, windows, frames, and other things.

PAINTER, among ſeamen, is alſo the rope that lies in the ſhip's long-boat, or barge, always ready to faſten or haul her on ſhore.

PAINTER, properly ſpeaking, is an artiſt, whoſe buſineſs conſiſts in painting, or the art of deſcribing upon a plane the figure and exact reſemblance of any object, by light and ſhade, or the proper uſe of colours. There are ſeveral branches of this noble art; the hiſtory, landskip, and portrait painter. Every nation has a particular

in painting. The Italians excel in hiſtorical repreſentations, the French in flowers and animals, the Dutch in drolls, and the Engliſh in portrait or face-painting. The gentry of England, of late years, have affected a taſte in Italian and Flemiſh paintings; but, in that reſpect, they are the bubbles of Europe; by private gentlemen laying out great ſums to purchaſe Italian originals, which they buy on the recommendation of ſome trading connoiſſeurs, who generally make them pay for the love of the name of eminent painters; while the Engliſh painters find their own valuable works neglected, and ſmoke-dried pictures, painted by indifferent hands abroad, purchaſed at home for works of the great maſters.

Rome and Venice are the beſt ſchools for painting; where they have academies with eminent profeſſors, who direct the ſtudents in their exerciſe; but theſe ſeminaries are wanting in England, which ſends great ſums of money abroad for pictures and prints.

Painters. There are ſeveral other kinds of painters; as the *drapery-painter*, who is employed in dreſſing the figures, after the portrait-painter has finiſhed the face, given the figure its proper attitude, and drawn the outlines of the dreſs or drapery. The *herald* and *coach-painter*, whoſe buſineſs it is to draw coats of arms, and atchievements, for noblemen and gentlemen. The *ſhip-painter*, who is employed in plain work about ſhips, like the houſe-painter about houſes, though his buſineſs is ſomewhat more curious. The *floor-cloth painter*, who paints floor-cloths in oil-colours. The *ſign-painter*, who paints ſigns on wood or pewter. And the *fan-painter*, who paints the mounts of fans.

AINTER *ſtainers company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 24th of Q. Eliz. dated the 19th of July 1582, by the appellation of The maſter, wardens, and commonalty of the freemen of the art and myſtery of painters, called painters-ſtainers, within the city of London; which is a corporation governed by a maſter, 2 wardens, and 19 aſſiſtants; who have a livery of 69 members, with a little convenient hall at London-wall, wherein they manage their affairs; their fine being 10 l. on admiſſion.

AITA. A port-town of Peru, in South America, ſituated 500 miles north-weſt of Lima, in 80 deg. of W. lon. and 5 deg. of S. lat. See *Spaniſh* America.

AIX. A port-town, ſituated on the north ſide of the iſland of Hiſpaniola, in 72 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 20 deg. of N. lat. See *French* America.

ALAMBOANG, or *Palambang*. The capital of a kingdom at the eaſt end of the iſland of Java, ſituated on the ſtraights of Bally, in 114 deg. of E. lon. and 7 deg. 30 min. of S. lat. See *Sunda* iſlands.

ALAMOS. A port-town of Spain, in the province of Catalonia, ſituated on the Mediterranean, in 2 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 41 deg. 50 min. of N. lat.

ALANQUIN. A ſort of chair, or ſedan, much uſed by the Chineſe, and other eaſtern people, to travel in; in England carried by men, in other countries by camels and elephants.

ALATINATE *of Bavaria*, and palatinate of the *Rhine*. See *Germany*.

ALERMO. Capital of the iſland of Sicily, ſituated on a bay of the Mediterranean, near the north coaſt of the iſland, in 13 deg. of E. lon. and 38 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. See *Italian* iſlands.

ALICAT, or *Pelicate*. A port of the Hither India, ſituated on the Coromandel coaſt, in 80 deg. of E. lon. and 14 deg. of N. lat. where the Dutch have a factory.

ALIMBAN. A town on the iſland of Sumatra, ſituated in 103 deg. of E. lon. and 3 deg. of S. lat. See *Sunda* iſlands.

ALL. A ſort of mantle, or looſe garment, ſometimes worn by knights of the garter; ſometimes applied to the decent covering, made of velvet, or other rich ſtuff, which is thrown over coffins, that move in proceſſion on foot to be buried; and alſo laid over the corps coming out of the herſe.

ALLAM. A weight of India, containing 3 ounces, and 3½ drams.

ALM. An antient long meaſure, taken from the extent of the hand.

The modern palm is different in different places where it obtains. At Rome it contains 7 inches $\frac{2}{10}$: at Naples, according to Riccioli, 8 inches: at Genoa, according to M. Petit, 8 inches $\frac{8}{10}$: at Morocco and Fez, 7 inches $\frac{2}{10}$: in Languedoc and ſome other parts of France, the palm is 8 inches $\frac{1}{3}$; and the Engliſh palm is 3 inches.

At Leghorn there are two kinds of palms, the one for woollens, the other for ſilks: the firſt being one third ſhorter than the latter.

PALMA-CHRISTI. A ſhrub growing abundantly in the Antilles iſlands, where the inhabitants call it carapat.

The trunk of the palma-chriſti is never thicker than the ſmall of the leg; its wood is light, knotty, and almoſt hollow, being filled only with a ſmall quantity of a white pith; its bark grey, thin, and ſmooth. Its leaves are interſected as thoſe of the vine, but ſmaller and rougher. It bears twice a year a kind of bean or almond, incloſed within a pod; being ſmooth, ſhining, of a brown colour, and variegated with ſeveral other colours; within there is a white, ſtrong, and oily ſubſtance, whoſe taſte is ſomewhat bitter.

It is from this almond that the oil of palma-chriſti is extracted; which is done two ways; either with, or without fire: the former affording the beſt, and the latter the moſt oil. For this purpoſe the almonds of palma-chriſti are pounded in a wooden mortar; afterwards they are boiled in water, and, as they boil, the oil ſwimming on the ſurface is ſkimmed off with a ſpoon: when they yield no more, the water is poured out by inclination, and the almonds are preſſed, wrapped up in a coarſe cloth, to extract what remains.

The other kind is drawn only by expreſſion, without either hot water or fire. The almonds are firſt pounded, next put into a coarſe cloth, and put under the preſs to ſqueeze out the oil, which never becomes rancid, or imbibes an ill taſte. This is that which is uſed moſt commonly in medicine; tho' for want of it, the other is alſo uſed with ſucceſs.

The diſorders it is good for, are cold humours, wherein it is uſed with brandy; contuſions alſo, and cholicks, are wonderfully allayed by it.

This oil is ſweet, void of either an ill taſte or ſmell; as tranſparent as oil of olives, burning as well as walnut-oil, and without ſmoke, wherein it by far ſurpaſſes train-oil, beſides that it conſumes not ſo readily.

PALM-*oil*, or *Oil of Senegal*. See *Oil*.

PALM-*tree*, is that which produces the date. See *Date*.

PALMA *Iſle*. One of the Canary iſlands, ſituated in 19 deg. of W. lon. and 29 deg. of N. lat. See *Canaries*.

PALMAS *Cape*. A promontory on the ivory coaſt of Guinea, in Africa, ſituated in 8 deg. of W. lon. and 4 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

PALOS. A port-town of Spain, in the province of Andaluſia, ſituated on the bay of Cadiz, in 7 deg. 15 min. of W. lon. and 37 deg. of N. lat.

PALOS *Cape*, or *Cape Palos*, is a promontory of Spain, in the province of Murcia, ſituated in 40 min. of W. lon. and 37 deg. 40 min. of N. lat.

PALUS MEOTIS. See Palus *Meotis*.

PAMPHLETS. Any ſmall book ſtitched, or unbound.

PANACHE. A meaſure uſed in the iſland of Samos for grains, and dry legumes, weighing 25 lb. 3 panaches making the quillot, which weighs 75 lb. avoirdupois.

PANAMA. The capital city of the province of Darien, or Terra Firma proper, in South America, ſituated in 82 deg. of W. lon. and 9 deg. of N. lat. See *Spaniſh America*.

PANARIA. One of the Lipari iſlands, ſituated in 15 deg. of E. lon. and 39 deg. of N. lat. ſubject to the King of the two Sicilies. See *Italian* Iſlands.

PANARO. A river of Italy, which riſes in the Appenine hills, on the confines of Tuſcany; runs N. into the Modeneſe, and afterwards divides Modena from Romania; then running E. paſſes by Ferrara, thro' the Ferrareſe, falling into the gulph of Venice at Valona; and is called the Po di Valona.

PANAY. One of the Philippine iſlands, ſubject to Spain, ſituated in 119 deg. of E. lon. and 11 deg. of N. lat. See *Philippines*.

PANGFILS. A kind of ſilk ſtuff, manufactured in China, eſpecially in the province of Nanquin; being chiefly deſtined for the Japaneſe trade.

PANOSSAKES. Woollen cloths worn by the negroes of the African coaſts, and diſtributed there in abundance from the kingdom of Cantor, where the beſt are made, by ſuch Europeans as trade on the river of Gambia; being uſually ſtriped with a flame colour.

PANQUE. A plant growing in Chili in America, and uſed for dying a fine black; the leaves of this plant being round, tufted as the acanthus, and its ſtalk of a reddiſh colour, which, eaten raw, is reputed to refreſh, and to have a very aſtringent quality.

PAPER. A thin flexible leaf, either white, brown, or blue, artificially prepared of ſome vegetable, or other ſubſtance, chiefly to write upon with ink.

Paper, with regard to the manner of making it, and the materials employed therein, is reducible to divers kinds; as Egyptian, European, and Chineſe paper.

There is alſo mention of the cotton paper, bark paper, and aſbeſtine or incombuſtible paper.

PAPER, or *Papyrus*, was at firſt a plant, or kind of bulruſh, that grew upon the banks of the Nile; being applied by the Europeans to ſeveral uſes, as well as to that of writing paper, which was denominated from the plant; and the Gauls had paper made of cotton.

PAPER, among Europeans, is chiefly made of linen or hempen rags, beaten to a pulp in water, and moulded into ſquare ſheets, of the thickneſs required: but it may alſo be made of nettles, hay, turnips, parſnips, colewort leaves, earth-flax, or any thing that is fibrous; nay it may be made of white woollen rags, tho' this would not ſerve for writing, becauſe of the hairineſs. The Chineſe paper is ſo fine that many of the Europeans have thought it was made of ſilk, not conſidering, ſays Du Halde, that ſilk cannot be beat into ſuch a paſte, as is neceſſary to make paper: tho' the ſame author ſpeaks afterwards of a paper, or parchment, made of the balls of ſilk worms. Beſides the chief uſe of paper, which is for writing and printing on, there is a great conſumption of it in packing up goods, and on other occaſions.

The manufacture of paper has got footing in moſt countries; tho' France, Holland, and Genoa, are the places where it ſucceeds beſt: in general, it depends much on the quality of the linen worn in the country where it is made: where that is fine, or coarſe, or brown, &c. the rags, and conſequently the paper made thereof, muſt be ſo too. Hence the whiteneſs of the Dutch and Flemiſh papers beyond the Italian and French; and much more the German papers The Engliſh manufacture has not hitherto been in ſuch great reputation; but it is every day improving, inſomuch that the Engliſh now import little of the ordinary ſorts, which were formerly all brought from abroad; yet paper-mills are of ſome ſtanding in England; for one was erected at Dartford as early as the year 1588, by Mr. Spilman a German, and jeweller to Queen Elizabeth.

In reality, the deficiency of the Engliſh paper-manufacture does not ſeem owing ſo much to the quality of the rags, as the want of ſkill and attention in the maſters: but the encouragement given it by the legiſlature, in the high duty laid on foreign paper imported, it is to be hoped, will anſwer the purpoſes for which it was intended; and how conſiderable this is, will appear from the following ſtate.

Genoa royal fine paper, pays *per* ream 7 s. 7 ½ d. Genoa royal ſecond, 6 s. 10 ½ d. Fine Holland royal 7 s. 7 ½ d. Fine Holland ſecond, 5 s. Ordinary royal, 2 s. 6 d. Genoa demy-fine 3 s. 10 ½ d. Genoa demy-ſecond 3 s. 1 ½ d. Dutch printing demy 3 s. 4 ½ d. Genoa crown fine 3 s. 1 ½ d. Genoa crown ſecond 2 s. 4 ½ d. Dutch crown fine 2 s. 4 ½ d. Dutch crown ſecond 2 s. Genoa fools-cap fine 3 s. 1 ½ d. Genoa fools-cap ſecond 2 s. 4 ½ d. Dutch printing fools-cap 2 s. Atlas fine 28 s. 10 d.

Papers are of various kinds: with regard to colours they may be divided into *white*, *brown*, *blue*, &c. with regard to quality into *fine*, *ſecond*, *baſtard*, *ſuperfine*, &c. with regard to uſe into *writing*, *printing*, *preſſing*, *cap*, *cartridge*, *copy*, *chancery*, *poſt*, &c. with regard to dimenſions, into *demy*, *medium*, *crown*, *fools-cap*, *pot*, *royal*, *ſuper-royal*, *imperial*, *elephant*, *atlas*, &c. with regard to country, into *Germany*, *Lombard*, *Rochelle*, *Genoa*, *Holland*, &c.

French papers are divided into *large*, *middle*, and *ſmall*; to the ſmall belong theſe called *petit romain*, *petit raiſin*, or *bâton royal*, *petit nom de Jeſus*, and *petit à la main*, all thus nominated from the marks impreſſed on them in making; alſo the *cartier* for the backs of playing cards; *pot* for the figure ſide; *couronne*, which has commonly the arms of the comptroller general of the finances; *tellier*, with the arms of the late Chancellor *Tellier*, and a double T; and *chamby*, or a *chaſis la ſerpente*, ſo called from its mark, the ſerpent, which being extremely fine and thin, is uſed by fan-makers. To the middling ſort belong the *grand raiſin*, *ſimple*, *carré ſimple*, *cavalier* and *lombart*, the three laſt of which are for printing; *l'ecu*, or *decompte ſimple*, *carré double*, *l'ecu double*, *grand raiſin double*, and *couronne double*, which three laſt are denominated *double* on account of their ſtrength and thickneſs. Add to theſe the *pantalon*, or paper with the Dutch arms, and grand-*cornet*, ſo denominated from the impreſſion on it. To the large belong the *grand Jeſus*, *petite* and *grande fleur de lys*, *chapelet*, *colombier*, *grand aigle*, *dauphin*, *ſoleil*, and *l'etoile*, which are thus called from the figures they bear, being all proper for printing either at the letter-preſs, or rolling preſs, alſo for merchants books and for drawing. The *grand monde* is the largeſt of all. There is alſo *printed paper* for the hanging of rooms; *ſtamped paper*, to write obligations, deeds, and contracts upon; *ruled paper* for books of accompts, &c. To which may be added *cut paper* and *gilt paper* for letters.

Blue paper is a ſort uſed by tradeſmen to wrap up goods as ſugar loaves, pieces of linen, &c.

Blotting paper is paper not ſized, and in which therefore ink readily ſinks or ſpreads. It is uſed in books of accompt, &c. in lieu of ſand, to prevent blotting and diſfiguring the oppoſite pages. The ſame is likewiſe uſed by apothecaries in filtrating juices and other matters, for which the *manica Hippocratis* is not ſo proper.

Teint, or *demi-teint paper*, for deſigning on, is either *brown*, *blue*, or *biſtered*.

Biſtered paper is white paper waſhed over with a ſponge dipped in ſoot-water. Its uſe is to ſave the labour of the crayon in places which are to be ſhadowed the ſame depth with the teint of this paper. For light places, they are made thereon with white chalk.

Marbled paper is a ſort variouſly ſtained, or painted as it were with divers colours, made by applying a ſheet of the ſurface of a liquor wherein colours diluted with oil or oxes gall are ſuſpended.

It is not material to ſay any thing here of other kinds of paper, ſuch as the Egyptian bark, Chineſe paper, &c. being rather matters of curioſity, than commerce among Europeans.

Paper is ſold by the ream every where, except in the paper works of Auvergne, where it is ſold by weight at the rate of 14 ounces to the pound; each ream, according to its kind, being to weigh a certain number of pounds, preſcribed by authority.

The Britiſh merchant, vol. II. p. 266, ſays, That before the Revolution, there was hardly any other paper made in England than brown: but the war enſuing, and duties being laid from time to time on foreign paper, it gave ſuch encouragement to the paper-makers, that moſt of them began to make white paper fit for writing and printing; which means, they brought it to ſuch great perfection both for quantity and goodneſs, that they ſoon made near two-thirds of what was conſumed in Great Britain; and deprived the French nation of 100,000 l. a year, which it received from Britain for 400,000 reams of paper, at 5 s. a ream.

The ſame author alſo obſerves, that, as the neceſſity of having writing and printing paper is well known to every body, it will not be amiſs to make it appear how profitable and beneficial that manufacture is to Great Britain; which he ſets forth as follows.

Rags are the main ingredient paper is made of, which were formerly caſt away, and thrown to the dung-hill, but are now gathered with great care by poor people

who get honeſtly their livelihood by it, and would otherwiſe beg their bread: this employs abundance of hands. When theſe rags are gathered, they are brought to the mill, and this ſtill employs more hands. After they are in the mill they let them lie a while, till they are ſufficiently mellow or rotten, and then put them into the tubs under the hammers, to be broken into a kind of jelly or white ſubſtance, looking like milk; and being thence carried into the fat, the chief workman, upon a pair of moulds for that purpoſe, takes up the ſheets or water-leaves; of which he makes 4 or 5000 a day, more or leſs, according to the ſize and weight of the paper. Theſe water-leaves, after being well preſſed between two felts, and the water well drained out, are carried up into the garrets, or drying-rooms, and there hung upon a multitude of ropes to dry; and from thence being brought down again into the ſizing-room, a liquor is there prepared for ſizing or gumming every ſheet; the paper which is for printing being but moderately ſized; but that which is for writing, nicely, that it may bear ink. This paper, after ſizing, is a ſecond time preſſed, and carried up into the garret, where it is hung upon the ropes to dry once more; and then, with a great deal of care and hard labour, preſſed a third, fourth, and fifth time, to make it ſmooth, and of a good grain; when it is put up into quires and reams; a quire containing 24 or 25 ſheets, and a ream 20 quires.

Now, conſidering how many hands every individual ream of paper goes through before it is brought to perfection, it is plainly perceived that a great number of people are employed in each mill: then thoſe who gather the rags up and down in all the counties of England, and bring them to the mills; thoſe who make the felts, which takes up a good quantity of wool, being very thick, and for every ſheet of paper a piece of felt of the ſame ſize, or a little larger; the rope-makers, mould-makers, carpenters, wheelwrights, timber-merchants, ſmiths, and ſeveral other trades, who depend upon the building and keeping the mills in repair; thoſe who ſell allum, copperas, cuttings, and pairings of gloves, parchment, and leather, all which are uſed at the ſizing or gumming of paper. All thoſe things conſidered, it cannot be denied, but a vaſt many people get their livelihood, or receive a benefit by this uſeful and ingenious manufacture. See *Stationer*.

The French have lately invented a particular way of making ſnuff-boxes of paper, of any colour, which are actually as hard and durable as any made of wood, horn, or tortoiſe ſhell: and this manufacture has alſo been introduced into England, where great quantities are made. There is likewiſe another new manufacture of paper brought into England, which repreſents ſtucco-work, for ornamenting of rooms.

By the ſtatute of the 10th of Queen Anne, which was made perpetual by the third of Geo. I. the drawback on Britiſh made paper was granted as follows.

	l.	s.	d.
Brown,—large cap, the ream	0	0	6
ſmall ordinary, the ream	0	0	4
Crown,—fine, the ream	0	1	0
ſecond the ream	0	0	9
Demy—fine, the ream	0	1	6
ſecond, the ream	0	1	0
Fools-cap fine, the ream	0	1	0
ſecond, the ream	0	0	9
Pot—fine, the ream	0	1	0
ſecond, the ream	0	0	6
Whited-brown, the bundle containing 40 quires	0	0	6
All other paper, for every 100 l. of the real value to be ſold for at the next market-town, upon the oath of the maker	12	0	0
Mill-boards, paſte-boards, and ſcale-boards, the 112 lb.	0	3	0
Paper, printed, painted, or ſtained in Great Britain for hangings, &c. beſides the aforeſaid duties, for every yard ſquare	0	0	1

PAPER-*cloths*, became a mode a few years ago in France. M. Fluchs has an expreſs diſſertation on the ſubject, wherein he tells us this faſhion ſcarce outlived half a day; and undertakes to ſhew that it is no new thing, but to have been practiſed among the ancients. But then it ſhould be conſidered, that the old Egyptian paper was a very different thing from this; as being likewiſe uſed for ſails, ropes, &c.

PAPER-*mill*. See *Mill*.

PAPER-*tree*, is a tree growing in Japan, where it is cultivated in mountainous parts for the manufacture of paper.

PAPERS, is a term for writings, eſpecially thoſe relating to a man's eſtate, property, dealings, or the like: in which ſenſe papers include books of accompts, invoices, orders; alſo deeds, bonds, charters and the like.

PAPER *Currency*, or *Paper Credit*, among bankers, and other negociants, is alſo uſed for exchequer-bills, bills of exchange, bank and promiſſory notes, bonds, mortgages, and transfers of ſtocks. See *Bill*, and *Exchange*.

In the year 1720, multitudes were ruined by changing their money and lands for paper: but it is the uſe and effect of credit to repreſent money by paper. See *Money*. Subſtituting paper for money, and giving the paper an arbitrary value, was the way of paying debts introduced in France by Mr. Law. A royal bank was eſtabliſhed, to which people were to carry their money, and receive the value of it in bills, which were to paſs current in trade as ſo much money.

It was made confiſcation of goods, and confinement to the gallies, for any man to keep above 40 livres by him of any but paper money: and when the regent was told what a rage was ſpirited up againſt him about the arrets for making paper current, and how openly the people threatned him, he anſwered coolly, the French were like watch-dogs, they would bark but not bite.

In 1725, it was computed that the money-tranſactions of Great Britain for that year amounted to 126,199,328 l. though the national ſpecie was only 15,000,000 l. which ſhews what money circulation can effect, and how ſerviceable it is in carrying on the trade of the world. But this great diſproportion between paper credit, and real ſpecie, may prove very pernicious to a ſtate; as they increaſe the price of labours, and are a check upon induſtry, by baniſhing gold and ſilver out of the common channels of trade. See *Fund*, National *Debt*, *Money*, and *Coin*.

By the ſtatute of the 24th of Geo. II. ſetting forth that the act of the 6th of Anne for aſcertaining the rate of foreign coins in her Majeſty's plantations in America, had been entirely fruſtrated in Rhode iſland, and Providence plantations, Connecticut, the Maſſachuſets bay, and New Hampſhire in America, by their creating and iſſuing great quantities of paper bills of credit, by virtue of acts or votes of aſſembly, and making legal the tender thereof in payments for debts; and which bills have for many years paſt been depreciating in their value, whereby all debts of late years have been paid with a much leſs value than was contracted for, to the great diſcouragement and prejudice to trade and commerce, by occaſioning confuſion in dealings, and leſſening of credit in thoſe parts; therefore, for preventing and remedying of the ſaid inconveniences, it was enacted, That no act or vote of aſſembly ſhould be paſſed within any of the ſaid colonies and plantations, whereby any paper bills, or bills of credit of any kind ſhould be created or iſſued; or whereby the time limited for diſcharging of ſuch as are already ſubſiſting ſhould be protracted or poſtponed; or whereby any of them ſhould be depreciated in value, or ſhould be re-iſſued, or obtain a new and further currency; but all ſuch acts were declared to be null and void.

That nothing therein ſhould extend to reſtrain rhe paſſing any act of aſſembly, in any of the ſaid colonies and plantations, for creating and iſſuing ſuch paper bills, or bills of credit, as ſhould be neceſſary upon ſudden and extraordinary emergencies of government, in caſe of war or invaſion; ſo as in every ſuch act care be taken to aſcertain the real value of all ſuch principal ſums for which the ſame ſhould be iſſued, and the intereſt to be paid thereon; and ſo as a ſufficient fund be provided for diſcharging the ſame, within as ſhort a time as may be, not exceeding five years at the fartheſt, by actual payment of the principal, with the intereſt due thereon.

That

That no paper currency, or bills of credit, which may be created or iſſued, purſuant to the proviſions before made in this act, ſhould be a legal tender in payment of any private bargains, or demands.

That if any governor, or commander in chief, in any of the ſaid colonies or plantations, ſhould give his aſſent to any act, or vote of aſſembly, for the iſſuing of any paper bills of credit, or for prolonging the time limited for calling in and ſinking ſuch as were then ſubſiſting, and paſſing in payment; or for re-iſſuing, or depreciating the ſame, contrary to the true intent and meaning of this act; the ſame ſhould be *ipſo facto* void, and ſuch governor, or his deputy, ſhould be immediately diſmiſſed, and for ever after rendered incapable of any public office or place of truſt.

PAPOUS-*Terra*, or New Guinea, a large continent, a little S. of the equator, in the Pacific ocean, ſituated in 130 deg. of E. lon. E. of the Spice iſlands; but how far it extends further to the eaſtward or ſouthward, is uncertain. It ſeems to be a barren inhoſpitable country, with few inhabitants; at leaſt, the Dutch have repreſented it as ſuch; and no nation has thought fit to make any ſettlements in it, or to ſend any colonies there.

PAR, in commerce, an equality between different moneys; or ſo much as a perſon muſt give of one kind of ſpecie, to render it juſt equivalent to a certain quantity of another. See *Money*.

The par differs from the courſe of exchange in this, that the par of exchange ſhews what other nations ſhould allow in exchange, which is certain and fixed by the intrinſic values of the ſeveral ſpecies to be exchanged: but the courſe ſhews what they will allow in exchange, which is uncertain and contingent, ſometimes more, ſometimes leſs. See *Exchange*.

Some have charged the merchants of England with a great error in ſuffering their neighbours to ſettle the par of exchanges far below what it ought to have been ſettled at; by which means the Engliſh have been imperceptibly robbed of the greateſt part of their ſilver, and no ſmall part of their gold.

For inſtance, it was reckoned for upwards of 40 years, that 37 Dutch ſchillings, and 4 ninths of their groſs Flemiſh, were exactly equal to, or on a par with the Engliſh pound ſterling, or 20 ſhillings; whereas it appears demonſtrably that the Engliſh loſt between 4 and 7 *per cent.* by every ſuch exchange: which is ſufficiently elucidated by Sir Iſaac Newton's eſſays and calculations on foreign coins, under the article of *Exchange*.

The old French coin of 60 ſols, before the late diminution, was equivalent to 4s. 6d. of England; to 100 deniers groſs of Holland; and to 101 of thoſe of Cologne; to 48 Lubec ſols of Germany and Hamburg: to 88 creuxes of Auſburg, and 90 of Frankfort, 83 of Bolſam, and 84 of Switzerland; to 8 julios and a half of Rome, and as many of Ancona; to 3 teſtoons of Florence, 58 ſoldi of Leghorn, 83 of Genoa, 94 of Milan, 60 of Nova; to 5 lires or livres of Genoa, 4 lires and 10 ſoldi of Lucca, 8 lires of Bergama, 3 lires and 15 ſoldi of Savoy; to 9 carlins of Naples, and as many of Sicily; 21 groats and three fifths of Venice, 24 of Naumbourg; to 372 maravedis of Spain, to 600 rees of Portugal; to 4 tarins and 15 grains of Malta; to 120 aſpers of Conſtantinople; to a demi-hongre of gold of Hungary; to two florins of Liege, 3 of Straſbourg, and 20 of Raconis; to 90 groats or groches of Poland, and 24 of Berlin; to 80 marks of copper of Sweden; to 50 grievnas of copper of Muſcovy; and, laſtly, to 4 oorts of Denmark.

PARA. A dry meaſure uſed by the Portugueſe in the Eaſt Indies to meaſure peaſe, beans, rice and other things, weighing about 22 pounds avoirdupoiſe.

PARAC, *Parat*, or *Paraſi*. A ſmall ſilver coin current in Turkey, for 1 $\frac{7}{20}$ d. ſterling; 3 aſpres making the parac: but it is otherwiſe called meidin. See *Meidin*.

PARAGOYA. One of the Philippine iſlands, ſituated a little north of Borneo, and near 300 miles long. See *Philippines*.

PARAGUAY, or *Paragegue*. A celebrated plant of the ſhrub kind, growing in ſome provinces of South America, eſpecially Paraguay, whence its name; though better known in England under the denominaiton of South-ſea tea.

This plant, which riſes not above a foot and a half high, has very ſlender branches, and leaves like thoſe of ſenna; it may be looked on as a kind of occidental tea, being like the oriental, taken infuſed in hot water, to which it communicates a colour and ſmell nearly like thoſe of the beſt tea ſeen in Europe.

There are two kinds of paraguay; the one called ſimply *paraguay*, the other *camini*, by the Spaniards *yerva-camini*; which laſt is moſt eſteemed, and ſold for a third more than the other.

The firſt the Spaniards call *yerva con palos*, that is herb with ſticks, becauſe full of broken branches, and is chiefly uſed by domeſticks and ſlaves: the latter is the drink of the richeſt: but both are of ſo much uſe, and eſteemed of ſuch abſolute neceſſity, that no perſons in that part of America will live without them. The works of the mines of Potoſi would ſtand ſtill, if the maſters did not take care to ſupply the poor ſlaves labouring there with paraguay, which is their conſtant remedy againſt thoſe mineral ſteams wherewith they would otherwiſe be ſuffocated: nor will a ſervant engage himſelf with any maſter without the condition of paraguay for drink.

The paraguay makes one of the moſt conſiderable articles of the South American commerce. At Peru, Chili, and Buenos-Ayres, there are above two millions worth ſold *per annum*, which paſſes almoſt altogether through the hands of the Jeſuits. The uſe of paraguay was once introduced in England, where many ſeemed to like it as well as tea: but foreigners ſay that their approbation flowed more from their intereſt than taſte; in regard they came ſo eaſily by it, on account of their commerce with the Spaniards of South America, and Buenos-Ayres, ſince the treaty of Utrecht in 1713.

The preparation of the plant, and the making it into drink, is much the ſame with that of tea, except that they infuſe both leaves and wood; that they drink it immediately out of the veſſel it is made in, without letting it have time to infuſe, by reaſon of the black tincture it gives; and that to prevent leaves and all from coming they ſuck it thro' a ſilver or glaſs pipe, which goes round the company one after another.

Beſides all the virtues which the eaſtern people aſcribe to their tea, as to be good in diſeaſes of the head, breaſt, ſtomach, againſt phlegm, and to reſtore ſleep; the Americans attribute to theirs, this further, of purifying all kinds of water, how foul and corrupt ſoever, by only infuſing it therein either hot or cold. Thus, having always ſome of it with them, if they meet with none but the worſt waters in the vaſt deſarts to be croſſed in going from Buenos-Ayres to Peru and Chili, they are not afraid to drink it, after ſteeping ſome of the plant a little while therein: it is alſo held ſovereign againſt the ſcurvy and putrid fevers.

PARAH. A dry meaſure uſed in the Eaſt Indies, 5 of which make a peck.

PARALLEL *Sailing*, in navigation, is the ſailing under a parallel of latitude. See *Sailing*.

Of this there are but three caſes; 1ſt, given, the departure, and diſtance; required the latitude. The canon for which is, as the difference of longitude is to the radius, ſo is the diſtance to the co-ſine of the latitude. 2d, Given the difference of longitude between two places under the ſame parallel; required their diſtance. The canon is, as the radius is to the difference of longitude, ſo is the co-ſine of the latitude to the diſtance. 3d, Given the diſtance between two places in the ſame latitude required their difference of longitude. The canon is, as the co-ſine of the latitude to the diſtance, ſo is the radius to the difference of longitude.

PARANGON. The largeſt kind of pearl. See *Pearl*.

PARANGON *of Venice*, is alſo a term at Smyrna for ſome of the moſt beautiful ſtuffs which the Venetian merchants import there: but there are alſo Padua parangons.

PARAPH, or *Paraphe*. A mark, or ſignature of a knot, flouriſh, &c. cuſtomarily made by people who have occaſion to ſign their names often, to prevent their names being counterfeited.

PARA

PARAT, is a Turkiſh coin uſed in Candia, worth about 3 farthings ſterling, being of ſilver, as in all other ſtates of the Grand Signior, but of a very baſe alloy.

PARBAYOLLE. A ſmall coin current at Milan, worth 1½d. ſterling.

PARBUNCLE, in a ſhip, is a rope uſed inſtead of a pair of ſlings, to hoiſt heavy goods in and out of a ſhip's hold.

PARCEL. A part, portion, or bundle of ſome great quantity, or a bundle or quantity conſidered abſolutely.

PARCEL, to divide, diſtribute, or allot goods into parts or parcels, on ſhip board, or elſe where.

Bill of PARCELS, is a bill, or writing, containing the particulars of the goods ſold by a tradeſman to his cuſtomer.

PARCHMENT. Sheep or goats ſkin prepared after a peculiar manner, which renders it proper for ſeveral uſes; particularly for writing on, covering of books, and other purpoſes.

Parchment is begun by the ſkinner, and ended by the parchment-maker. It conſtitutes a very conſiderable article in the French commerce, being made in moſt of their cities; and, beſides the conſumption at home, they ſend vaſt quantities abroad; particularly to England, Flanders, Holland, Spain, and Portugal.

That called virgin parchment, and which ſuperſtitious people believe to be made of a kind of caul wherein ſome children are incloſed in the womb, is nothing but a ſort ſomewhat thinner and finer than the reſt, proper for certain purpoſes, as fans, &c. and made of the ſkin of an abortive lamb, or kid.

What is called vellum is only parchment made of the ſkins of abortive calves, or at leaſt of ſucking calves; it is finer, whiter, and ſmoother, than the common parchment, but prepared in the ſame manner, except that it is not paſſed thro' the lime-pit.

PARDAO, or *Pardo xerafin*. A ſilver coin of baſe alloy, ſtruck by the Portugueſe in the Eaſt Indies, current at Goa, and upon the coaſt of Malabar; having for impreſſion on one ſide a St. Sebaſtian, and on the reverſe a quiver of 4 arrows, being worth 300 rees, or 1 s. 8¼ d. ſterling.

There is ſcarce a coin in the Eaſt Indies more falſified than this; which happens more thro' the diſhoneſty of the Portugueſe, than that of the pagan Indians who counterfeit it, by coining an abundance of them up the country, and afterwards tranſporting them upon the coaſts, and into the towns of the greateſt commerce.

There is hardly a poſſibility of receiving thoſe pardaos without being cheated, unleſs the exchangers called Xaraffes, who are Indian Chriſtians, ſtood not deſignedly in the ſtreets to examine them; which is done by the ſole touch, and without any other precaution, being better than the Europeans can effect by ſcale or touchſtone.

PARDOS. A kind of ſilver coin, current at Moſambique and along the coaſt of Africa, valued at 200 rees, or 1 s. 1½ d.

PAREIRA-BRAVA. The root of a plant growing in the Weſt Indies, chiefly in Mexico and Brazil; eſteemed a ſpecific for the cure of the ſtone and gravel.

The name, which in the original Portugueſe ſignifies wild wine, or baſtard-wine, bears a good deal of analogy to the plant, which has branches loaden with leaves perfectly like thoſe of the vine, and which, like them, creep along walls and trees. The Portugueſe value this root on an equal footing with the ipecacuanha: and ſome druggiſts call it by corruption, *parada brava*.

M. Geoffroy attributes the efficacy of this root, in nephritic caſes, to its diſſolving the viſcid matters whereby the particles of the ſand, &c. were cemented together: and hence he gives it with the ſame intention in jaundices, aſthmas, &c. it being adminiſtred in decoction.

The Portugueſe hold it alſo a remedy for dyſenteries, quinzies, bites of venomous beaſts, and other purpoſes.

PARENZO, or *Pirenzo*. A port-town of Iſtria in the territory of Venice, ſituated on a bay of the gulph of Venice, in 14 deg. 10 min. of E. lon. and 45 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

PARERE, in commerce, an Italian term which begins to be naturaliſed; in other countries ſignifying the advice, or counſel of a merchant or negotiant; for that ſuch a perſon, being conſulted on any point, introduces his anſwer, in Italian, with *mi pare*, that is, I think, it ſeems to me.

The method of negotiating, eſpecially that of bills of exchange, being borrowed from the Italians, moſt trading cities, particularly Lyons, retain the uſe of *pareres*, which are the advices or opinions of merchants and negotiants, ſerving as acts before notaries, when given by authority of a judge conſervator, or at a particular conſultation, for maintaining the right of the conſultor.

PARIA. A lake in Peru, in South America, in the province of Sos Charcas, ſituated in 67 deg. of W. lon. and 22 deg. of S. lat. 100 miles N. W. of La Plata.

PARIAN *Marble*. See *Marble*.

PARIS. The metropolis of France, ſituated in 2 deg. 25 min. of E. lon. and 48 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. See *France*.

PARISH-*Clerks company of London*, is a city fraternity incorporated by letters-patent of the 17th of Henry III. in 1233, by the name of the fraternity of St. Nicholas, by which they were known, till re-incorporated by charter of the 9th of James I. dated the 19th of January 1611. In the year 1625, this company, by a decree of the court of ſtar chamber, obtained a privilege for keeping a printing-preſs in their hall, for printing the bill of mortality; for which purpoſe a printer is aſſigned them by the Archbiſhop of Canterbury. Yet, notwithſtanding this advantage, it is reputed to be one of the moſt defective of any of its kind; none being mentioned therein but ſuch as are burying goods. This company is by charter ſtrictly enjoined to make report of all the weekly chriſtenings and burials in their reſpective pariſhes, by 6 o' clock on Tueſday in the afternoon; but this is by a by-law changed to 2 o' clock of the ſame day, that the King and the Lord Mayor may have an account thereof a day before its publication.

The above grants to this company were confirmed by letters-patent of the 11th of Charles I. dated the 27th of February 1636, by the title of The maſter, wardens, and fellowſhip of pariſh-clerks of the cities of London, Weſtminſter, borough of Southwark, and 15 out-pariſhes. This community conſiſts of a maſter, two wardens, 17 aſſiſtants, and the whole body of pariſh clerks, who have a convenient hall in Woodſtreet to treat of their affairs.

PARISIS. A French money of accompt, formerly a real coin ſtruck at Paris, at the ſame time time with the tournois ſtruck at Tours.

The pariſis exceeded the tournois by one-fourth; ſo that the livre or pound pariſis was 25 ſols; and the livre tournois 20: the ſols and deniers pariſis, &c. in proportion. See *Livre*.

PARK, commonly means a large field, or tract of ground incloſed, in which beaſts of chace are kept for ſport, either of a prince, nobleman, or gentleman; from whence the fiſhmongers of London are ſupplied with veniſon.

PARLIAMENT *of Great Britain*, is the legiſlative body of the kingdom, conſiſting of King, Lords, and Commons, who enact and repeal all ſuch laws as tend to the proſperity or prejudice of the kingdom. The houſe of commons is the grand inqueſt of the kingdom, being compoſed of 558 members: of which, in England, there are 80 knights for 40 counties, 50 citizens for 25 cities, 334 burgeſſes for 167 boroughs of two repreſentatives each, 5 burgeſſes for 5 boroughs of one repreſentive each, 4 repreſentatives for the 2 univerſities, and 16 barons for the 8 cinque ports: in Wales there are 12 knights for 12 counties, and 12 burgeſſes for the boroughs: and in Scotland there are 30 knights for the ſhires, and 15 burgeſſes for the boroughs.

The Britiſh ſenator is an auguſt character, as the commerce and glory of the nation depend on the reſolutions of parliamen:; therefore, every member ſhould be converſant with the principal branches of trade, the different manufactures, and all the branches of the public revenues: the cuſtoms, duties, exciſe, and all kinds of taxes; the imports and exports into and from his own country; the conſtitution, views, and intereſt of foreign nations, particularly the trading powers; the laws affecting trade, the nature of exchange, and the public funds: all which

are repreſented under their ſeveral articles in this dictionary.

PARMA. A duchy in Italy, ſubject to Don Philip. See *Italy*.

PARMESAN. A cheeſe brought, or reputed to be brought, from Parma in Italy: but moſt of the cheeſes of this name, and thoſe of Milan, are made at Lodi. See *Cheeſe*.

PAROS. One of the ſmalleſt of the Turkiſh Archipelago iſlands, ſituated in 25 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 36 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. See *Turkiſh* Iſlands.

PARPIROLLE. A ſmall coin of Savoy, ſtruck at Chamberry, being a kind of ſol, of billon or copper, mixed with ſilver, worth ¾ d. ſterling: but there are other parpirolles called the ſmall croſs, which are ſtruck at Gex, and have a leſs alloy of ſilver.

PARRELS, in a ſhip, are made of trucks, ribs, and ropes, which go about the maſt, faſtened to the yard at both ends, and together with the breaſt-ropes, hold the yard cloſe to the maſt.

PARTERRE. A kind of ſattin or damaſk, ſo called becauſe variegated with natural flowers, which by their diverſity repreſent the enamel of a parterre. They were invented in France, but wretchedly imitated at Amſterdam.

PARTNER, in trade, is a perſon that has a ſhare in a common ſtock, and muſt abide by the ſucceſs of the undertaking, whether profitable or diſadvantageous.

PASSAGE, in commerce, or *Right of paſſage*, is an impoſition which ſome princes exact by their officers and farmers, in certain narrow cloſe places of their territories, either by land or ſea, on all veſſels, vehicles, and carriages of all kinds; and even ſometimes on perſons, and paſſengers coming in or going out of ports, &c.

The paſſage of the Sound, which carries ſhips out of the German into the Baltic ſea, is the moſt celebrated paſſage in Europe: the duties of which belong to the King of Denmark, and are paid at Elſeneur or Cronenburg.

All the nations that trade in this part of the north, have always been ſubject to this duty, except the Swedes who were exempted by the treaty of peace in 1658, becauſe they poſſeſs the oppoſite ſide of the ſtreight.

But the war of the North, ſo fatal to the Swedes, made them loſe their privilege; and by the peace concluded in 1720 between Denmark and Sweden, their condition became ſcarce better than that of other nations.

The French enjoy there alſo ſome exemption; but it regards not the duties, only the viſiting of their veſſels and goods, and the time of payment, for which they are allowed three months. See *Sound*, and *Denmark*.

PASSAGE. A port-town of Spain, in the province of Biſcay, ſituated in 1 deg. 50 min. of W. lon. and 43 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

PASSAO *Cape*. A promontory of Peru, in South America, juſt under the equator, in 81 deg. of W. lon.

PASSPORT. A licence, or letter, from a prince or governor, granting liberty and ſafe conduct, to travel, enter, and go out of his territories, freely, and without moleſtation: the paſſport being properly given to friends, and the ſafe-conduct to enemies.

Paſquier takes paſſport to have been introduced for *paſſe-par-tout*. Balzac mentions a very honourable paſſport given by an emperor to a philoſopher in theſe terms: "If there be any one on land or ſea, hardy enough to moleſt Potamon, let him conſider whether he be ſtrong enough to wage war with Cæſar."

PASSPORT, is alſo uſed for a licence granted by a prince for the importing, or exporting merchandiſes, or goods, without paying the duties.

Merchants ſometimes procure ſuch paſſports for certain kinds of commodities; and they are always given to ambaſſadors and miniſters, for their baggage, equipage, and attendants.

PASSPORT, is likewiſe a licence obtained for the importing or exporting of merchandiſes deemed contraband, and publickly declared ſuch; as gold, ſilver, precious ſtones, ammunition of war, horſes, corn, wool, &c. upon paying duties.

A ſafe conduct is a ſecurity given by the King, under the great ſeal to a ſtranger, for his ſafe coming into, and paſſing out of the realm, and touching which there are ſeveral ſtatutes.

Protections are of two ſorts, a public protection, when a prince takes upon him the defence of another prince, ſtate, for his honour or profit; or a private protection perſons, or ſhips, which is in effect no more than a paſport for ſuch purpoſe. By the law of protection, he that is protected owes all reſpect and honour to his protector againſt whom he ought not to conſpire, or attempt any thing: and, on the other hand, the protector ought to defend, and ſuccour the protected, and uſe him well; or otherwiſe he may withdraw himſelf from the protection and ſeek another. And the Genoeſe having put themſelves under the protection of the French King, revolted whereupon he changed their conditions into privileges to the end it might be in his will to deprive them of them when he ſhould think fit.

In protections of ſhips and perſons, there is generally great faith kept by the granters; for at this day, if a ſhip has a protection from Barbary, the pirates of that nation if they ſeize any ſhip will reſtore it; and if there be no protection, yet if the ſhip be taken within ſight of the caſtles, the prize is not abſolute; but if reſiſtance is made and there be a caption, ſhe then becomes the captors for ever, as the price of blood.

The ſtatute of Magna Charta, 9th Hen. III. cap. 30. ordains, that all merchant ſtrangers ſhall have ſafe-conduct of coming into, going out of, and remaining in England, to buy and ſell, &c. if they are not openly prohibited; except in time of war, and they are of the enemy's country: and by 27th Edw. III. cap. 2. ſafe-conduct is to be granted to merchant ſtrangers, not alien enemies, to come and dwell in the kingdom, and return at their pleaſure; as alſo to ſell their goods and commodities, without having them taken from them againſt their wills.

By 20th Hen. VI. cap. 1. all letters of ſafe-conduct granted to the King's enemies, or any other perſons, ſhall be enrolled in the chancery of the lord the King, of record, before ſuch letters ſhall be delivered to them to whom the ſame ſhall be granted; or ſhall be void and of no effect: and if at any time hereafter, any goods or merchandiſes are taken by Engliſh ſubjects upon the ſea, or the coaſts of the ſame, loaden in any ſhip or veſſel belonging to enemies, and not having ſufficient letters of ſafe-conduct, enrolled in form aforeſaid; they who ſhall ſo take the ſame goods, ſhall enjoy them without any reſtitution thereof to be made, to whatſoever perſons the ſaid goods or merchandiſes, at the time of taking or before, were belonging.

And the King's ſubjects, taking ſuch ſhips laden with merchandiſe, not having or ſhewing letters of ſafe-conduct, and bringing them by force to a certain port within the realm, ſhall not receive damage in their perſons or goods for ſo doing, if they be ready to make full reſtitution of the ſame ſhips and merchandiſe, within a reaſonable time after they ſhall have knowledge of letters of ſafe-conduct, enrolled in the ſaid chancery of record, before the taking of them.

A late act 4th Geo. II. cap. 18 recites, that treaties are ſubſiſting between the King and the ſeveral ſubjects of Barbary; by which it is ſtipulated, that all ſhips belonging to his Majeſty or his ſubjects, may paſs the ſeas and enter into the harbours of the ſaid governments without any ſeizure or moleſtation, upon producing paſſes of a certain form, under the hand and ſeal of the commiſſioners for executing the office of Lord High Admiral called Mediterranean paſſes. It is therefore enacted and ordained, That if any perſon ſhall, within his majeſty's dominions, or without the ſame, falſly forge or counterfeit any paſs for any ſhip, commonly called a Mediterranean paſs, or ſhall alter or eraſe any paſs made out by the commiſſioners for executing the ſaid office of Lord Admiral, or ſhall publiſh as true, any forged, altered, or erazed paſs, knowing the ſame to be forged, &c. every ſuch perſon being convicted in Great Britain, Ireland, or

majeſty's plantations where ſuch offence ſhall be committed, ſhall be guilty of felony without benefit of clergy. See *Treaty*.

And the ſaid offences, which ſhall be committed in any place out of Great Britain, either within the dominions of his majeſty, or without, may be tried and adjudged in any county of England, by virtue of the King's commiſſion of Oyer and Terminer, and goal-delivery, or before any court of Juſticiary in Scotland.

By the laws of France, no veſſel ſhall go out of any port of that kingdom to put to ſea, without a paſſport from the admiral, recorded at the admiralty office of the place from whence the maſter departs: and within twenty-four hours after the maſter's arrival in any port, he ſhall preſent his paſſport, and declare the place and time of his departure, the burthen and lading of his ſhip, the courſe he has ſteer'd, the hazards he has run, the diſorders happened in his ſhip, and all the conſiderable circumſtances of his voyage, &c.

And by a treaty marine, made by King Charles II. with the King of France, in the year 1677, a form of a paſſport, or ſea brief, is appointed, to be given by the Lord High Admiral of England, or thoſe to whom the exerciſe of admiralty-juriſdiction is ordinarily committed; or by the mayor or other chief magiſtrate, or the commiſſioners, or other principal officers of the cuſtoms, in their reſpective ports and places within the dominions of the King of Great Britain, to ſhips and veſſels; which paſſport is as follows:

An Engliſh Paſſport for ſhipping.

To all to whom theſe preſents ſhall come, greeting. Thomas Earl of P. Lord High Admiral of England, &c. or we A. B. C. D. E. F. &c. Eſqrs. Lords Commiſſioners for executing the office of Lord High Admiral; or we the commiſſioners, or principal officers of the cuſtoms in the city or port of, &c. do teſtify and make known, That G. H. maſter or commander of the ſhip called the Prince Frederick, hath appeared before us, and declared by ſolemn oath, That the ſaid ſhip or veſſel, containing about two hundred tons, of which he is at preſent maſter, as aforeſaid, doth belong to the inhabitants of &c. within the dominions of the King of England: and in regard it would be moſt acceptable to us, that the ſaid maſter or commander be aſſiſted in his juſt and lawful affairs: we do hereby requeſt you, and every of you, whereſoever the ſaid maſter or commander ſhall arrive with his ſhip, and the goods laden on board and carried in her, that you will pleaſe to receive him courteouſly, and uſe him kindly; and admit him, upon paying the lawful and uſual cuſtoms, and other duties, to enter into, remain in, and paſs from your ports, rivers, and dominions, and there to enjoy all kind of right of navigation, traffic, and commerce, in all places where he ſhall think fit, without any interruption; which we ſhall moſt willingly and readily acknowledge, upon all occaſions. In teſtimony and confirmation whereof, we have, with our hand, ſigned theſe preſents, and cauſed them to be ſealed with our ſeal. Dated the day of, &c. in the year, &c.

And the like form of paſſport, *mutatis mutandis*, ſhall be uſed by the moſt chriſtian king of France.

The form of a Dutch paſſport or certificate for ſhips that go from the United Provinces.

To the moſt ſerene, moſt illuſtrious, moſt mighty, moſt honourable and prudent lords, emperors, kings, commonwealths, princes, dukes, counts, barons, lords, burgomaſters, ſheriffs, counſellors, judges, officers, juſtices and regents of all cities and places, as well eccleſiaſtical as ſecular, who ſhall ſee or read theſe preſents. We burgomaſters and governors of the city of, &c. do certify, that A. B. ſhip-maſter appearing before us, hath declared by ſolemn oath, that the ſhip called, &c. containing about, &c. laſts, of which he is the preſent maſter, belongeth to inhabitants of the ſaid United Provinces; ſo help him God: and as we would willingly ſee the ſaid ſhip-maſter aſſiſted in his juſt affairs, we do requeſt you and every of you, where the aboveſaid maſter ſhall arrive with his ſhip and goods, that you will pleaſe to receive him courteouſly, and uſe him kindly; admitting him upon paying uſual dues, tolls, and other cuſtoms, to enter into, remain in, and paſs from your ports, rivers, and territories, and there to trade, deal, and negotiate in any port or place, in ſuch ſort and manner as he ſhall deſire; which we ſhall moſt readily acknowledge in the like occaſion. In witneſs whereof, we have cauſed the ſeal of our city to be hereunto put.

A general maritime paſſport, for a Swediſh or other ſhip to paſs the Sound of Denmark.

We conſuls and ſenators of the town of &c. certify, That the ſhip, &c. commanded by, &c. belongs to our ſaid town, or ſome other town, in Sweden; and is laded only with goods belonging to Swedes, and bound for the ocean, as the maſter and the owners thereof have declared before us in our court, deſiring this certificate as a proof of the ſame; the ſhip and goods being thereby to be exempted from all taxes and vexations in the paſſage of the Sound and the Belt, according to the treaties between the two kingdoms. In teſtimony whereof, we have cauſed the ſeal of the town to be put to theſe preſents, which we have likewiſe cauſed to be ſign'd by the clerk. Given, &c.

PASTEBOARD. A thick kind of paper, formed of ſeveral ſheets paſted together, and uſed chiefly in the binding of books, letter caſes, hat-caſes, gloves, and the like.

PASTEL, or *Paſtil*, ſometimes uſed to ſignify the plant otherwiſe called woad, or glaſs-wort. See *Woad*.

A great trade of all kinds of paſtel is carried on by the Dutch, who have it from Toulouſe, and Caen, in France; Erford, and Juliers, in Germany; the Canary iſlands; Spain, and Portugal: its eſtimation, and duties of importation and exportation, being different purſuant to its quality.

PASTEL *of ſcarlet*, is the powder found in the ſcarlet grain when new. See *Scarlet*.

PASTEL among painters, &c. a ſort of paſte made of ſeveral colours, ground up with gum-water, either together or ſeparately; in order to make crayons to paint with on paper, or parchment.

PASTES. A kind of confects, almoſt dry, made of ſugar, fruits, or flowers. See *Confect*.

PASTRANEA. A name given to the ſalt beef brought from ſeveral parts of the Black ſea.

PASTRY-*Cook*, is a perſon whoſe buſineſs conſiſts in making all kinds of paſtry, jellies, preſerves, and confections, which is a very profitable buſineſs in London.

PATAC. A coin of Avignon in France, ſix of which are a halfpenny ſterling, being current and pretty common in Provence and Dauphiné.

PATACA. A term given by the Portugueſe to the Spaniſh piaſtre, or piece of eight: but there are half and quarter patacas; the pataca being worth 750 rees, or 4 s. 2 ¼ d. ſterling.

Samuel Ricard, who in his general treatiſe of commerce calls them alſo patagons, diſtinguiſhes two kinds of them, which he eſtimates not altogether upon the above footing: the one are ſtamped patacas: but according to this author, the firſt are worth 600 rees, or 3 s. 4 ½ d. ſterling; the ſecond only 500, or 2 s. 9 ¾ d. ſterling.

PATAGON, *Patach*, or *Pattacon*. A Flemiſh ſilver coin, current for 4 s. 4 ½ d. ſterling, which, upon account of its value, and cornuted figure, is confounded with rix-dollars, and rials of eight.

Beſides the Flemiſh patagons, there were ſeveral formerly ſtruck in Franche-Comté, ſome of the weight and inſcription of thoſe of Flanders, and others ſomewhat more; as thoſe which had a croſs with leaves, and a crown on one ſide, and on the arms the reverſe of Burgundy.

Some authors give alſo the name of patagon to the pataque of Portugal.

The patagon of Holland is worth 4 s. 4 ¼ d. ſterling: and the patagon of Liege is worth 4 s. 7 ½ d. ſterling.

PATAN, or *Pettan*. A town of India, ſituated in 89 deg. of E. lon. and 27 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. See *India*.

PATAQUE. A ſilver coin of Portugal, worth 3s. 4½ d. ſterling.

PATARD. A ſmall copper coin, current in Flanders, and the neighbouring provinces, 8 of which make a penny ſterling.

PATARD, is alſo a Dutch money of accompt.

PATCHUCA. A city of Mexico in North America, near which is a ſilver mine, ſituated in 103 deg. of W. lon. and 21 deg. of N. lat.

PATENTS, or *Letters patent*, in law, the King's letters ſealed with the great ſeal, ſerving to convey the title or property of ſome grant, favour, privilege of a new eſtabliſhment, or the like. See *Monopoly* and *Letters*-patent. They have their name becauſe delivered open, *ut pateant omnibus*, by way of contradiſtinction from *letters de cachet* which are ſealed.

PATENTEE, is he to whom the King grants his letters-patent.

PATLAGE, is a name given to the larger ſort of cocoa-nut. See *Cocoa*.

PATMOS. One of the leaſt of the Turkiſh Archipelago iſlands, ſituated in 27 deg. of E. lon. and 37 deg. of N. lat. See *Turkiſh* Iſlands.

PATNA. A city of the Hither India, and capital of the kingdom of Bahar, ſituated in 85 deg. of E. lon. and 26 deg. of N. lat. 400 miles up the Ganges, being one third of the way to Delli; and, although ſo little known among Europeans, I have been told by a gentleman who was chief of the Britiſh factory there, that it is 7 m. long, and half a mile deep from the banks of the river; containing many thouſands of inhabitants; where the French and Dutch have ſtill their factories; but the Engliſh company have lately withdrawn theirs. See *India*.

PATOWMAC. A great river of Virginia, in North America, which riſes in the Apalachian mountains, runs S. E. ſeparating Virginia from Maryland, and falling into the bay of Cheſepeak. This river is navigable 200 miles, generally 7 miles broad, and in ſome places 9 miles: the tide riſes about two feet perpendicular, and ebbs and flows regularly.

PATRAS. A port of European Turky in the Morea, ſituated on the Mediterranean, in 21 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 38 deg. 20 min. of N. lat.

PATRON, in navigation, is a name given in the Mediterranean to a perſon who commands the veſſel and ſeamen; ſometimes to the perſon who ſteers it: the former in other places, being called maſter, the latter pilot. See *Maſter* and *Pilot*.

PATTE. A port-town of Sicily in the province of Val-Demona, ſituated on the Mediterranean, in 14 deg. 45 min. of E. lon. and 38 deg. 36 min. of N. lat.

PATTEN *maker*. One who makes pattens and clogs with irons, to raiſe them out of the dirt, or wet, commonly worn by women, under their ſhoes, while they clean their houſes, or when they go out in wet weather.

PATTEN-*makers company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 22d of Charles II. dated the 22d of Auguſt 1670, by the name of The maſter, wardens, aſſiſtants, and fellowſhip of the company of patten-makers of the city of London.

They conſiſt of a maſter, two wardens, 24 aſſiſtants, and 46 liverymen, who, when admitted, pay a fine of 6 l. but have no hall.

PATTEN-*ring-maker*, is a claſs of ſmiths, who work only for this branch.

PATTERN-*Drawer*, is a perſon employed in drawing patterns for ſilk weavers, callico printers, embroiderers, lace-workers, quilters, and ſeveral little branches belonging to womens apparel. They draw thoſe patterns on paper, which they ſell to callico-printers, &c. who give them good prices for their ingenuity and labour.

PAU. A long meaſure, or kind of ell, uſed at Loango de Boiria, and in ſome other places of the coaſt of Angola in Africa.

There are three kinds of paus at Loango; the King's pau, and that of his favourite or firſt miniſter and captain; the pau of the fidalgues and captains; and the pau of private perſons.

The king's pau is 28 inches long, and eſtimated at three macoutes; the macoute amounting to 10.

The pau of the fidalgues is 24 inches; that of private perſons only 16 and a half; but both containing and deemed 3 macoutes, as the royal ones, the macoute being the ſame.

It is by theſe different paus that the Europeans, who trade for negroes, meaſure the ſtuffs and cloths they give in exchange for ſlaves, and other merchandiſe, as gold duſt, wax, &c. brought from the coaſt of Angola; whence it is eaſily conceived that it is more advantageous to barter gain with private perſons than the fidalgues, and more with the fidalgues than the King; the exceſs of meaſure being granted the king and his captains, for a permiſſion of dealing in the beſt mart; no private perſon daring to carry on the leaſt trade with the Europeans, till the cuſtoms have been paid, and the commerce opened by permiſſion of the king and the grandees. See *Macoute*.

PAVILLION, in a commercial ſenſe, is applied to flags, colours, enſigns, ſtandards, banners, &c. all which, authors uſually confound with one another. See *Flag*.

PAVIOUR. An artificer, whoſe proper buſineſs is to lay the high-way, or common ſtreet, with pebbles; the maſons laying the broad flat ſtones, and the bricklayers the tyles.

PAVIOURS *company of London*, is a fellowſhip by preſcription and not by charter; wherefore it may be juſtly preſumed to have been one of the ancient adulterine guilds, that were erected without a royal licence: the community conſiſting of 3 wardens, and 25 aſſiſtants, who have neither hall nor livery.

PAUL. A ſilver coin of Naples, worth 6 d. ſterling.

PAUL, *St. de Leon*. A port town of France, in the province of Bretagne, ſituated at the entrance of the Britiſh channel, in 4 deg. 7 min. of W. lon. and 49 deg. of N. lat.

PAUL, *St.* A city of Brazil in South America, ſubject to Portugal, and built for the ſecurity of the rich mines of this province, ſituated in 50 deg. of W. lon. and 23 deg. 30 min. of S. lat.

PAUTKAS. Indian cotton cloths; of which there are ſeveral kinds of different lengths and breadths, according to their quality.

White pautkas are 4 ells long and two-thirds broad.

Brown pautkas are of 5 ells and two-thirds.

Blue pautkas are between 5 and 11 ells long, and 1 and two-thirds broad.

PAWN-*Broker*. A perſon whoſe trade is to lend ſums of money upon goods depoſited with him, as a ſecurity for the payment of the principal and intereſt. See *Broker*.

PAY, in the ſea language, or when ſeamen ſay, *pay more cable*, ſignifies to let out more cable. *Pay cheap* is used in turning the anchor out of the boat, to denote, *turn it out faſter*.

PAY. The hire, wages, ſalary, &c. that any perſon has for his work, or labouring.

PAYABLE, is that which ſhould be paid, or acquitted, at a certain time, or to certain perſons; as rent, wages, ſums of money, that is or will be due at a certain time.

A bill of exchange payable upon ſight, is a bill of exchange which ſhould be acquitted as ſoon as preſented.

A bill payable at a prefixed day, is that which ſhould be paid on the day ſpecified in the bill.

A bill payable at ſo many days ſight, is that which ſhould be acquitted in a certain number of days, ſpecified in the bill, reckoning from the date of its acceptation.

A bill payable at one or ſeveral uſances, is that which ſhould be paid in as many times thirty days as there are uſances ſpecified in the body of the bill, reckoning from the day of its date, each uſance being of thirty days.

A bill payable to the bearer, is a bill that ſhould be paid to the firſt that preſents himſelf, without any occaſion of order or tranſport.

A bill payable to ſuch or his order, is that which ſhould be paid to the perſon named in the bill, who has given the value thereof, or to ſuch other in whoſe favour the order is indorſed on the bill.

A bill payable at will has no limited time, and therefore

its payment may be exacted as often, and when a perſon judges proper.

A bill payable in bills of exchange, or other paper, is that which ſhould be acquitted in good bills of exchange, or in ſuch other paper ſpecified in the bill, and in the limited time. See *Bill*, and *Exchange*.

It is ſaid that an obligation, promiſe, aſſignment, order, &c. is payable when the time or term of the payment is expired.

AYAS. White Levantine ſilks, brought particularly from Aleppo.

AYAS, are alſo ſpun cottons brought from the Levant, by the way of Aleppo: the coarſeſt are called *payas thread*, and the fineſt *gondozolette threads*.

AYE. A kind of money of accompt uſed in the kingdom of Siam.

AYE, is a ſilver coin current at Ormus in the Perſian gulph, worth 10 biſti, or 1 s. 4 d. ſterling.

AYE, is likewiſe a weight of 24 grains.

AYED, or *Paid*. A bill of exchange is not reputed paid, while its payment is not endorſed, that is, while its receipt is not on the back.

AYMENT. The diſcharge of a debt either by money really told, or by bills of exchange. See *Debt*.

ompt PAYMENT. A popular term in England and Holland, uſed when a debtor acquits what he owes before the expiration of the term granted by the creditors.

Thus, in caſes of ſales at the India-houſe, &c. a month, or a further time, is allowed the bearer to pay his money, and fetch away his goods: but if the purchaſer comes before that time, and pays his money, then he is is allowed 6½ *per cent.* diſcount for prompt payment. See *Diſcount*, and *Rebate*.

The ordinary diſcount on moſt merchandiſes at Amſterdam is 1 *per cent.* but there are ſome whoſe diſcount is higher, and others whoſe diſcount is lower.

AYMENT ſignifies alſo certain fixed terms on which merchants, negotiants, and bankers are to acquit their debts, or renew their bills.

Such are the payments of the city of Lyons, whereof there are four payments, as well as four free fairs.

The payment of Twelfthtide, commencing the firſt of March, and continuing the whole month.

The payment of Eaſter, commencing the firſt of June, and continuing the whole month.

The payment of Auguſt, commencing the firſt of September, and continuing the whole month.

The payment of All Saints, commencing the firſt of December, and continuing the whole month.

AYMENT is likewiſe a term in Holland for all the ſmall money that interferes in the daily commerce of ſmall merchandiſe.

AY-*Office*, is an office kept in Broad-ſtreet near London-wall, under the direction of a treaſurer, and pay-maſter, who pay for all the ſtores for the uſe of the royal navy, and wages of ſailors that ſerve on board the ſame.

AK. A rocky mountainous country in the weſt of Derbyſhire, in which are mines of lead and iron.

ARL. A hard, white, ſhining body, uſually roundiſh, found in a teſtaceous fiſh, reſembling an oyſter, and ranked in the number of gems or precious ſtones.

The fiſh wherein the pearls are found, is three or four times the ſize of the common oyſters, and is called by naturaliſts *pinna marina*.

Each pinna yields uſually ten or twelve pearls; tho' an author, who treats of their production, pretends to have ſeen a hundred and fifty in the ſame fiſh; but thoſe in different degrees of perfection. The moſt perfect ſtill drop firſt, the reſt remaining at the bottom of the ſhell.

In Europe pearls are ſold by the caract-weight, the caract containing 4 grains. In Aſia the weights uſed for pearls are different in different ſtates. See *Caract*.

The term pearls is only properly applied to what grows dependent of the ſhell: the ſhell itſelf being rather called *mother of pearl*. Thoſe pieces which have grown thereto, and have been ſince ſeparated by the addreſs of the workman, are called *wens of pearls*; which are in effect nothing but roundiſh excreſcencies or pieces of the ſhell, tho' frequently uſed for real ſhell.

Pearls, F. Bouhours obſerves, have this advantage over precious ſtones dug out of the rocks, &c. that the latter owe their luſtre to the induſtry of men; nature as it were only hews them out, and leaves the finiſhing of them to art: but the former are born with that beautiful water which gives them their value. They are found perfectly poliſhed in the abyſſes of the ſea, and nature has put the laſt hand to them before they are ſeparated from their mother.

Pearls of unuſal figures, neither round, nor in the pear form, are called *baroguas*, or Scotch pearls: thoſe of unuſual ſizes are called *parangons*; as that of Cleopatra valued by Pliny at *centies H. S.* or 80,000 l. ſterling; that brought in 1574 to Philip II. of Spain, of the ſize of a pidgeon's egg, valued at 6,480 l. ſterling; that of the Emperor Rodolph, mentioned by Boetius, called *la peregrina*, or the incomparable, of the ſize of a muſcade pear, and weighing 30 caracts; and that mentioned by Tavernier, in the hands of the Emperor of Perſia in 1633, bought of an Arab for 32,000 tomans, which at 3 l. 9 s. the toman, amounts to 110,400 l. ſterling.

Pearls are of ſome uſe in medicine; but it is only the ſmalleſt ſort, called *ſeed of pearls*, that is there uſed. The quality required is, that they be white, clear, tranſparent, and truly oriental. They ſerve to make cordial potions, formerly much valued, but now fallen much from their ancient reputation, and ſcarce owned by any but Charletans.

The ladies alſo uſe certain preparations of pearls, as they are made to believe, for their complexions; ſuch as the white of pearls, flowers, eſſences, ſpirits, tincture, &c. of pearl; but they are all apparently deceits.

PEARL *Aſhes*. See *Aſhes*.

PEARL *Fiſheries*. Pearls are caught in the ſeas of the Eaſt Indies, in thoſe of America, and in ſome parts of Europe.

PEARL *Fiſheries of the Eaſt*, are firſt the iſland of Baharen in the Perſian gulph. This the Portugueſe were maſters of while they held Ormus and Muſcat; but it returned to the Sophi of Perſia, when that prince, with the aſſiſtance of the Engliſh, took from them Ormus, and the Arabs Muſcat.

2d, The fiſhery of Elcatif, or Catifa, on the coaſt of Arabia Felix, over againſt Baharen.

3d, That of Manar, a ſea port in the iſle of Ceylon. The pearls fiſhed here are the fineſt in all the Eaſt for their water and roundneſs; but they ſeldom exceed 4 caracts.

Laſtly, there are pearls fiſhed on the coaſt of Japan; but being coarſe and irregular, they are little valued. The pearls of Baharen and Catifa are thoſe commonly ſold in the Eaſt Indies: they border a little upon the yellow, but the eaſtern people value them not the leſs for it; for they eſteem it a ſign of being ripe, being perſuaded that thoſe which have this yellowiſh tincture, naturally never change their colour; and that on the contrary, their white water holds not above thirty years before the pearl aſſumes a filthy yellow colour, by reaſon of the heat of the climate, and the ſweat of the perſons who wear them.

PEARL *Fiſhery, in Chineſe Tartary*, is near the city Nipchoa, ſituated on a lake of the ſame name: the pearls here are leſs beautiful than thoſe of Baharen, and the fiſhery leſs plentiful. It was this fiſhery that occaſioned the war between the Chineſe and Muſcovites, terminated towards the end of the laſt century by the Jeſuits Pereira and Gerbillion, when the lake, which is of great extent, was divided between the two nations, each of which pretended to the whole.

American PEARL *fiſheries*, are all in the great gulph of Mexico, along the coaſt of the Terra Firma. There are five of them; 1ſt, The fiſhery of Cubagua, an iſland five leagues from New Andaluſia, in 10 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. 2d, That of the iſland Marguerites, or Pearl iſland. 3d, That of Comogote near the Terra Firma. 4th, That of the river de la Hacha, called *la Rencheria*. 5th, That of St. Martha, 60 leagues from the river de la Hacha.

The pearls of theſe 3 laſt fiſheries are uſually of a good weight; but ill formed, and of a livid water. Thoſe of

Cubagua ſeldom exceed 5 caracts; but are found in abundance: however, the greateſt quantity, and the fineſt both with regard to weight and water, are thoſe of the iſland Marguerites.

There are alſo ſome pearl fiſheries in the South Sea, particularly in the bay of Panama: but they are very inconſiderable.

PEARL *Fiſheries of Europe*, are in ſome places on the coaſts of Scotland, and in a river of Bavaria: but the pearls found here are no ways comparable to thoſe of the Eaſt Indies, or of America; tho' they ſerve for necklaces.

Manner of fiſhing for PEARLS *in the Eaſt Indies.* There are two ſeaſons of pearl-fiſhing in the year; the firſt in March and April, the ſecond in Auguſt and September: the more rain falls in the year, the more plentiful are the fiſheries.

In the opening of the ſeaſon, there appears ſometimes 250 barks on the banks. In the larger barks are two divers; in the ſmaller, one. Each bark puts off from ſhore before ſun riſe, by a land breeze, which never fails; and returns again by a ſea breeze, which ſucceeds it about noon.

As ſoon as the barks are arrived, and have caſt anchor, each diver binds a ſtone ſix inches thick, and a foot long under his body; which is to ſerve him as ballaſt, and prevent his being driven away by the motion of the water. Beſide this, they tye another heavy ſtone to one foot, whereby they are ſunk to the bottom of the ſea in a moment. And as the oyſters are uſually ſtrongly faſtened to the rocks, they arm their fingers with leathern mittens, to prevent their being wounded in ſcraping them violently off; and ſome even carry an iron rake for the purpoſe.

Laſtly, each diver carries down with him a large net, in manner of a ſack, tied to his neck by a long cord, the other end of which is faſtened to the ſide of the bark. The ſack is intended for the reception of the oyſters gathered from the rock, and the cord to pull up the diver when his bag is full, or he wants air.

In this equipage he precipitates himſelf, ſometimes above 60 feet under water. As he has no time to loſe there, he is no ſooner arrived at the bottom, than he begins to run from ſide to ſide, ſometimes on a ſand, ſometimes on a clayey earth, and ſometimes among the points of rocks; tearing off the oyſters he meets with, and cramming them into his net.

At whatever depth the divers are, the light is ſo great, that they eaſily ſee whatever paſſes in the ſea, with the ſame clearneſs as on land. And, to their conſternation, they ſometimes ſee monſtrous fiſhes, from which all their addreſs in mudding the water, &c. will not ſave them; but they become their prey: and of all the perils of the fiſhery, this is one of the greateſt and moſt uſual.

The beſt divers keep under water for half an hour, the reſt ſtay not leſs than a quarter; during which time they hold their breath without the uſe of oils, or any other liquors. See *Diving*.

When they find themſelves ſtraitned, they pull the rope to which the bag is faſtened, and hold faſt by it with both hands; when the people in the bark, taking the ſignal, heave them up into air, and unload them of their fiſh, which are ſometimes 500 oyſters, and ſometimes not above 50.

Some of the divers require a moment's reſpite to recover breath; others jump in again inſtantly, continuing this violent exerciſe without intermiſſion for many hours.

On the ſhore they unload their barks, and lay their oyſters in an infinite number of little pits, dug four or five feet ſquare in the ſand; raiſing heaps of ſand over them to the height of a man, which, at a diſtance, look like an army ranged in battle. In this condition they are left till the rain, wind, and ſun, have obliged them to open, which ſoon kills them. Upon this the fleſh rots and dies, and the pearls thus diſengaged, tumble into the pit upon taking the oyſters out.

The fleſh of the fiſh is excellent; and, if what ſome naturaliſts maintain be true, "That the pearls are ſtones, formed there by the ill conſtitution of the body, as ſometimes happens in men, and in the bezoard;" this diſeaſe does not alter the humours: at leaſt the Paravas, who eat them, find no difference between thoſe that have pearls and thoſe that have none.

After clearing the pits of the groſſer filth, they ſift the ſand ſeveral times to ſeparate the pearls: but what care ſoever they take in doing this, they always loſe a great many. After cleaning and drying the pearls, they are paſſed through a kind of ſieve, according to their ſizes. The ſmalleſt are ſold for ſeed of pearls; the reſt are put up by auction and ſold to the higheſt bidder.

Manner of fiſhing for PEARLS *in America.* The ſeaſon for fiſhing is uſually from October to March. In this time there ſet out from Carthagena 10 or 12 barks, under the convoy of a man of war called Larmadilla; each bark having two or three ſlaves for divers.

Among the barks there is one called Capitana, to which all the reſt are obliged to bring at night what they have caught in the day, to prevent frauds. The divers never live long, on account of the great hardſhips they ſuſtain, continuing ſometimes under water above a quarter of an hour. The reſt is the ſame as in the Eaſt India fiſheries.

The Weſt Indians knew the value of their pearls before the diſcovery of America; and when the Spaniards arrived there, they found great quantities ſtored up, which the Americans ſet great value on. But they were almoſt all imperfect, and their water yellow and ſmoky; becauſe they uſed fire in opening the fiſhes. Monſieur Savary has a table of the value of pearls communicated to him by an able hand; and as pearls make a very curious article in commerce, it is proper to inſert the following abridgment of the ſame, reduced to ſterling-money, at the foot of 4 s. 6 d. the French crown.

Value of all kinds of pearls with regard to their different weights.

Seeds of pearls.	l.	s.	d. *per*
Seeds of pearls not perforated, fit for grinding, are worth -	00	09	
Fine ſeed of pearls perforated, for ſmall necklace or embroidery -	01	01	
Ditto, a little larger - -	01	16	
Ragged or irregular Pearls.			
Of 500 to the ounce, are worth	03	00	
300 - - -	06	00	
150 - - - -	11	02	
100 - - - -	18	00	
60 - - -	33	15	
30 - -	75	00	
Regular round pearls.			
One of half a grain is worth	00	00	2½
Of a grain - -	00	00	4½
Of a grain and half -	00	1	0
Of 2 grains - - -	00	2	0
Of 2 grains and half -	00	4	6
Of 3 grains - -	00	7	6
Of 4 grains, or one caract -	00	8	0
Of 5 grains - - -	01	10	0
Of 6 grains - -	02	5	0
Of 7 grains - -	03	1	0
Of 8 grains, or two caracts -	04	10	0
Of 9 grains -	06	00	0
Of 10 grains - -	08	5	0
Of 11 grains -	09	15	0
Of 13 grains -	13	5	0
Of 15 grains - - -	21	00	0
Of 17 grains - -	27	10	0
Of 20 grains or five caracts	37	10	0
Of 22 grains -	52	10	0
Of 24 grains, or ſix caracts	82	10	0
Of 26 grains -	99	00	0
Of 28 grains, or ſeven caracts	150	00	0
Of 32 grains, or 8 caracts	225	00	0
Of 36 grains, or nine caracts	262	10	0
Of 40 grains, or ten caracts	300	00	0

As to pearls in form of pears, tho' equally perfect, and of equal weight, with the round ones, their value is much inferior: however, when two are found that match well, their value is leſs but by one third.

Falſe PEARLS, are thoſe reſembling the true ones in water or colour; popularly called beads.

Theſe antiently were only made of glaſs, with a tincture of quickſilver within ſide; afterwards they uſed wax, covered over with a fine brilliant fiſh glue.

The Chineſe make artificial pearls, by feeding the oyſters in freſh water with a particular compoſition.

There has ſince been invented in France, another manner of making them, ſo near the natural ones in luſtre and water, that they deceive a good eye. Theſe are what the ladies now generally wear inſtead of true pearl; ſmall necklaces of which they deſpiſe, and the large ones are generally too dear.

Mother of PEARL, is properly the ſhell of the *auris marina*, a ſea-fiſh of the oyſter kind.

This ſhell within ſide is very ſmooth, and poliſhed, being of the whiteneſs and water of pearl itſelf; having the ſame luſtre without ſide, after the firſt laminæ or leaves, which make the outer coat of this rich ſhell-fiſh, have been cleared off with aqua fortis and the lapidary's drill. It is uſed in inlayed works, and in ſeveral toys, as ſnuff-boxes, &c.

Veins of PEARL, are certain excreſcences, or prominent places in form of half pearls, ſometimes found in the bottoms of the pearl ſhells.

Lapidaries ſaw off theſe protuberances, join them together, and uſe them in ſeveral works of Jewelry, as if they were really pearls. See *Precious* ſtone.

PEARL-*fort*. A fortreſs in Dutch Brabant, ſituated on the river Schelde, by which the Dutch command its navigation.

PEARL *Iſlands*, are ſituated in the bay of Panama, in America, in 81 deg. of W. lon. and between 7 and 9 deg. of N. lat.

PEASE. A ſort of pulſe or legume, of ſeveral ſorts; as white, yellow, green, black, and grey.

Peaſe are proper for the food of men; and alſo for the food of hogs: the former kind ſold for about 23 s. the quarter; and the latter about 21 s. the quarter, at the corn exchange in London. White and yellow peaſe are ſingularly ſerviceable to mariners in their voyages, being one of the beſt articles of ſea proviſions, and of which there are great quantities conſumed.

PEAT. A particular ſort of firing, dug out of mooriſh ground, in ſeveral parts of England.

PEBBLE. A roundiſh ſort of ſtone, of different ſizes, uſed in the paving of high-ways, and in moſaic work.

PECK. A meaſure, or veſſel, uſed in meaſuring grains, pulſe, and the like. See *Meaſure*.

The ſtandard or Wincheſter peck contains two gallons, each gallon weighing about eight pounds troy.

Four pecks make a buſhel, four buſhels a comb or carnock, &c.

Beſides the general or Wincheſter pecks, there are local pecks containing ſome more, ſome leſs; as the Lancaſter peck, containing ſix gallons, &c.

PECHA, or *Peſſa*. A ſmall copper coin, worth about an Engliſh farthing; current in ſeveral places of the Eaſt Indies, particularly at Surat, Baroch, Cambay, and Amadabat.

In thoſe parts of the Eaſt Indies where the coris, or the Maldivee ſhells are current, between 50 and 60 are given for the pecha; and, in thoſe where the Caramania almonds ſerve for ſmall money, the pecha is worth between 40 and 44 almonds. See *Coris* and *Almonds*.

It is pretty difficult to reduce rupees and mamodis into pechas; becauſe, according ro the difference of places, theſe ſilver coins augment or diminiſh in their value.

PEDAGE. Toll, or a local due, exacted on perſons, goods, and carriages, paſſing thro' certain places. See *Toll*.

Pedage is uſually levied for the repairing of roads, bridges, cauſeways, the paving of ſtreets, &c. Antiently thoſe who had the right of pedage, were to keep the roads ſecure, and anſwer for all robberies committed on paſſengers between ſun and ſun; which is ſtill obſerved in ſome parts in Italy; where there are guards called *ſtationary*, eſtabliſhed for the ſecurity of merchants, particularly at Terracina, on the road between Rome and Naples.

PEDLAR. A perſon who carries packs of ſmall goods, or wares, up and down the country, to ſell at peoples houſes. See *Hawker*.

Pedlars, or traveling foot traders, are much deſpiſed in England and France: but in the Spaniſh Weſt Indies they are much reſpected; becauſe they chiefly ſupply the ſouthern parts of that country from Panama to Lima with European commodities.

PEDRERO, or *Paterero*. A ſmall piece of ordnance uſed on board ſhips for the diſcharging of nails, broken iron, or partridge ſhot, on an enemy attempting to board; being generally open at the breech, and their chamber made to take out, to be loaded that way, inſtead of the muzzle.

PEEK, in the ſea language, a term uſed in various ſenſes.

An anchor is ſaid to be *a-peek* when the ſhip being about to weigh, comes over her anchor, ſo as the cable hangs perpendicularly between the hauſe and the anchor; the bringing of a ſhip into which poſition they call *heaving a peek*.

A ſhip is ſaid to *ride a-peek*, when lying with her main and fore yards hoiſed up, one end of her yards is brought down to the ſhrouds, and the other raiſed up an-end; which is chiefly done when ſhe lies at reſt in rivers, leſt other ſhips falling foul on her, ſhould break her yards.

To ride a broad PEEK, denotes much the ſame, excepting that the yards here are only raiſed to half the height.

To PEEK *the miſſen*, is to put the miſſen-yard perpendicular by the maſt.

PEEK, is alſo uſed for the room in the hold, from the bits forward to the ſtem, where men of war keep their powder, and merchant-men their victuals.

PEER, or *Pier*, in building, denotes a maſſive ſtone, &c. oppoſed by way of fortreſs, againſt the force of the ſea, or a great river, for the ſecurity of ſhips that lye at harbour in any haven. See *Port*.

Such is the pier of Dover deſcribed by Camden; as alſo the haven and pier of great Yarmouth, mentioned 22d Car. II.

PEGU. A kingdom and city ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the bay of Bengal. See *India*.

PEKIN. The metropolis of the empire of China, ſituated in 111 deg. of E. lon. and 40 deg. of N. lat. See *China*.

PELICATE. See *Palicat*.

PELING. A kind of ſilk manufactured at China, either white or coloured, ſimple, ſemi-double, or triple.

Among the number of ſilk ſtuffs manufactured in China, the greater part imported by the Dutch into Europe are pelings; becauſe they have a prompt ſale for them, and a vaſt profit: but pelins are alſo for the Japaneſe trade.

PELLAINS. Chineſe ſattins, which paſs thro' the hands of the Indians, from whom the European factors receive and purchaſe them: their length being eight ells, and breadth ſeven-ſixteenths.

PELT. The ſkin of beaſts, eſpecially after the fur is ſtripped or taken off.

PELT-*monger*. A perſon who trades in the ſkins of beaſts.

PEN. A little inſtrument uſually formed of a quill, and ſerving to write with.

Dutch PENS, are thoſe made of quills, which have been paſſed through hot aſhes, to take off the groſſer fat and moiſture thereof. See *Quill*.

PENCE. A money of accompt in England. See *Penny*.

PENCE, is alſo a copper coin of Ruſſia, worth $\frac{9}{20}$ of an Engliſh penny; or 20 Ruſſian pence make 9 d. ſterling.

PENCIL. An inſtrument uſed by painters, for the application of their colours.

There are pencils of various kinds, and made of various matters; the moſt uſual are of badgers and ſquirrels hair, thoſe of ſwans down, and thoſe of bears briſtles; which laſt are bound to a ſtick, bigger or leſs, according to the uſes they are deſtined for; and when large, are called bruſhes. The others are incloſed in the barrel of a quill.

There are alſo pencils made either of red chalk or black lead, cut in thin ſlips, and incloſed in cedar, or other wood, to write memorandums with, or to be uſed in drawing figures, particularly by pattern drawers.

PENDANT *Ear-ring*. An ornament of ſome precious matter wore by ladies, hung by a hole made for that purpoſe through the ear, and frequently enriched with diamonds, pearls, and other precious ſtones.

The pendants of the European ladies are nothing in compariſon with thoſe wore by the Eaſt Indians, both men and women; among whom it is the faſhion to lengthen out the ears, and to enlarge the hole, by putting in pendants of the ſize of ſaucers, ſet with ſtones.

PENDANTS *of a ſhip*, are thoſe long colours, or ſtreamers, cut pointing out towards the end, and there divided into two parts, hung out at the heads of maſts, or at the yard-arm ends; being chiefly uſed for ſhew, though ſometimes for diſtinction of ſquadrons. See *Flag*.

PENDANT, or *Pennant*, is alſo uſed for a ſhort rope, which at one end is faſtened to the head of the maſt or to the yard, or the clew of the ſail; and at the other end hath a block and ſhiver, to reeve ſome running rope into.

The pendant of the tackle is made faſt to the head of the maſt, and the pendants of the back-ſtays are faſtened to, and hang down on the inſide of the ſhrouds. All the yard-arms, except the miſſen, have theſe pendants, into which the braces are reeved.

PENDENNIS. A caſtle in Cornwal, ſituated on Falmouth bay, 50 miles S. W. of Launceſton, in 5 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 50 deg. 10 min. of N. lat.

PENE. A river of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony; which runs from W. to E. through Weſt Pomerania, dividing the Swediſh territories in Pomerania from thoſe of Brandenburg.

PENGUIN *Iſland* and *Bay*, is ſituated on the coaſt of Patagonia, in South America, in 70 deg. of W. lon. and 47 deg. of S. lat.

PENICHE. A port-town of Portugal, in the province of Eſtramadura, ſituated on the ocean, in 9 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 39 deg. 20 min. of N. lat.

PENIDIUM. A preparation of ſugar, made by boiling it up with a decoction of barley; being good againſt colds, to moderate the acrimonies of the breaſt, and promote expectoration.

PENINSULA. A portion or extent of land, joining to the continent by a narrow neck or iſthmus, the reſt encompaſſed with water. See *Iſthmus*.

Such is the Peloponneſus, or the Morea; ſuch alſo are Africa, Jutland, &c. peninſula being the ſame with what is otherwiſe called *cherſoneſus*.

PENISCOLA. A port-town of Spain, in the province of Valencia, ſituated on the Mediterranean, in 40 deg. 29 min. of N. lat. and under the meridian of London.

PENNAL, or *Penal*. A kind of dry meaſure, different according to the places where it is uſed. In Franche-Compté the penal contains about a buſhel. At Gray, 8 penals make 15 buſhels. At Bourbonne, the penal of wheat weighs 72 lb. avoirdupois weight, and of maſlin-corn 70.

PENNING, or *Pening*. The Dutch penny, worth $\frac{21}{320}$ of an Engliſh penny; or 96 pennings make $6\frac{3}{10}$ d. ſterling. The penning is alſo uſed as a money of accompt, in keeping books by pounds, florins, and patards; 12 pennings make the patard, and 20 patards the florin, or 1 s. 9 d. ſterling.

PENNISTON, or *Paniſton*. A woollen ſtuff manufactured in England, being a kind of flannel.

PENNY. An antient Engliſh coin, which had formerly conſiderable courſe, but is now generally dwindled into an imaginary money, or money of accompt.

The antient Engliſh *penny*, *penig*, or *pening*, was the firſt ſilver coin ſtruck in England; and the only one current among our Saxon anceſtors, as is agreed by Camden, Spelman, Dr. Hicks, and others.

The penny was equal in weight to the modern threepence; 5 of them made 1 ſhilling, or ſcilling Saxon; and 30 a mark, or mancuſe, equal to 7 s. See *Mark*.

Till the time of Edward I. the penny was ſtruck with a croſs ſo deeply indented in it, that it might be eaſily broke, and parted, on occaſion, into two parts, thence called *halfpennys*; or into four, thence called *fourthings*, or *farthings*. But that prince coined it without indenture; in lieu of which he firſt ſtruck round halfpence and farthings. He alſo reduced the weight of the penny to a ſtandard, ordering that it ſhould weigh 32 grains of wheat, taken out of the middle of the ear. This penny was called the *penny ſterling*; 20 of theſe pence were to weigh an ounce; whence the penny became a weight, as well as a coin.

The penny ſterling is now diſuſed as a coin, and ſcarce ſubſiſts but as a money of accompt, containing the 12th part of a ſhilling, or the 240th part of a pound.

The courſe of exchange between England and France is ſettled on the foot of ſo many pence ſterling for a French crown of three livres.

The French penny, or denier, is of two kinds; the Paris penny, called *denier Pariſis*; and the penny of Tours, *denier Tournois*. See *Denier*.

PENNY-*poſt*. See *Poſt*.

PENNYWEIGHT. A Troy weight, particularly uſed in England; containing 24 grains, each grain weighing a grain of wheat gathered out of the middle of the ear, well dried. See *Weight*, and *Grain*.

Twenty of theſe pennyweights make an ounce Troy; a pennyweight of gold bullion ſtandard being worth 4 s. and of ſilver bullion 3 d.

PENNYWORTH, ſometimes implies a bargain, or profitable purchaſe, by which the buyer may be a great gainer.

PENON *de Vele*. A port-town of Barbary, ſituated on the Mediterranean, in 5 deg. of W. lon. and 35 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. 80 miles S. E. of the ſtraights of Gibraltar, ſubject to Spain.

PENRISE. A port-town of Wales, in the county of Glamorgan, ſituated on the Britiſh channel, in 4 deg. 15 min. of W. lon. and 51 deg. 36 min. of N. lat. 50 miles S. W. of Launceſton.

PENSILVANIA. A province of Britiſh America. See *Britiſh* America.

PENSIONARY, or *Penſioner*. A perſon who has a penſion, appointment, or yearly ſum, payable during life, by way of acknowledgments, charged on the eſtate of a prince, company, particular perſon, or the like.

PENSIONARY, is alſo the appellation of the firſt miniſter of the ſtates of Holland, who is chairmain in aſſemblies of the ſtates of that province. He propoſes the matters to be conſulted on, collects the votes, forms and pronounces the reſolutions of the ſtates, opens letters, confers with foreign miniſters, *&c.* He is charged with inſpecting the finances, preſerving the rights of the province, maintaining the authority of the ſtates, and ſeeing to the obſervation of the laws, *&c.* for the good of the ſtate. He aſſiſts in the college of deputy-counſellors of the provinces. His commiſſion is only given for five years, after which it is deliberated whether or not it ſhall be renewed. Indeed there is no inſtance of its having been revoked, death only putting a period to the functions of this important miniſter. Formerly he was called the advocate of the province, the title penſionary being only given at the time Barnevelt had the office.

They are called *penſionaries*, becauſe they receive an appointment or penſion.

PEOPLE. The whole collection of inhabitants in a kingdom or ſtate. The people being the firſt matter of power and wealth, by whoſe labour and induſtry a nation muſt be gainers in the balance of trade, their increaſe or decreaſe muſt be carefully obſerved by any government that deſigns to thrive. Dr. Davenant imagines that the people of England were double the number at his time that they were 435 years before. For it is not extent of territory that makes a country powerful, but numbers of men well employed, convenient ports, a good navy, and ſoil producing all ſorts of commodities.

Mr. King thinks that there are 5,500,000 people in England; of which 2,675,520 are the nobility and gentry, with their families and retinues, the perſons in offices, merchants, perſons in the law, the clergy, freeholders, farmers, perſons in ſciences and liberal arts, ſhopkeepers and tradeſmen, handicraftſmen, naval officers, with the families and dependents upon all theſe; and the remaining 2,825,000 are common ſoldiers, labouring people and out-ſervants, cottagers, paupers, and their families, with the vagrants.

But the people of England and Wales may be ſaid

amount to between 8 and 10 millions, thoſe of Scotland 2 millions, thoſe of Ireland 2 millions, and thoſe in the Britiſh colonies 1 million. The Britiſh merchant makes the inhabitants of England 7 millions; and that, great and ſmall, rich and poor, one with another, they are not lodged, fed, and cloathed, for leſs than 7 l. *per* head: ſo that the annual expence, or conſumption of the whole people, is about 50 millions ſterling; of which 4 millions are paid for foreign conſumption, though 7 millions of home manufactures are ſent abroad.

There are in all probability ten times as many poor as rich people in the kingdom, who ought to be employed in ſome manual occupation; for otherwiſe they will weaken, inſtead of ſtrengthening a nation. See Great *Britain*, *Labour*, and *Political* arithmetic.

EPITAS, is a term given by the Spaniards to the piece of pure gold, found in ſome mines of Chili and Peru, particularly in the lavaderos of the latter; where it is uſual to ſee pepitas of 2, 3, 4, and 5 lb. In the reign of Philip V. two were found near Lima, one of 32, and the other of 42½ lb. the latter of which, as a conſiderable piece of ſingularity, was compoſed of a metal of 3 different alloys, as of 11, 18, and 21 carats.

EPPER. An aromatic fruit, or berry, of a hot, dry quality, chiefly uſed in the ſeaſoning of meats; being the product of a ſhrub growing in ſeveral parts of the Eaſt Indies, chiefly Java, Sumatra, Malacca, and the coaſt of Malabar.

The plant is very weak, and of the reptile kind; for which reaſon it is uſually planted at the foot of the larger trees, as the areca, coco, and others. Pepper grows in bunches or cluſters, at firſt green. As the grains ripen, they grow red; and at laſt, after being expoſed a while to the ſun, become black, in the condition they are brought to the Europeans. The fruit is gathered in November; which muſt be choſen large, full, not wrinkled, without duſt, with a good many white grains in it; and care ſhould be taken the largeſt berries have not been picked out to make white pepper.

hite PEPPER, is the fruit of the ſame plant with the black; being prepared from it, by moiſtening it with the ſea-water, then expoſing it to the ſun, and caſting away the outer bark, which, abandoning the grains, leaves it white. White pepper muſt be choſen after the ſame manner as the black; with this further care, that it has not been dyed white. Pepper that is ſold ground, is very apt to be ſophiſticated; the black with burnt cruſts of bread, &c. the white with beaten rice.

g PEPPER, *Piper longum*, is denominated from its form, which in length and thickneſs equals a child's finger. It conſiſts of an aſſemblage of grains or berries, joined cloſe to one another, of a browniſh colour, bordering without on red, and within on black; and grows by a long pedicle to a plant, like that of the black pepper, but lower, and its leaves ſmaller and greener; its taſte reſembling that of the former, but leſs ſharp. There are three ſorts of this pepper; that of the Eaſt Indies; that of America; and that of Ethiopia, called alſo grain of Zelim; though the firſt alone is the proper long pepper, the reſt reſembling it but little. It muſt be choſen new, large, heavy, well filled, hard to break, without duſt or mixture; its chief uſe being in medicine, where it enters ſeveral epidemical compoſitions, particularly Venice treacle.

ica PEPPER, is a reddiſh pepper of a coral colour, much eſteemed by the Americans, from among whom it is brought, and by them called chile, by the Spaniards pimentos, and by the French garden coral. It is now cultivated pretty commonly in France, eſpecially in Languedoc, uſed in making vinegar, and likewiſe comfited with ſugar. It muſt be choſen new, in large pods, dry, entire, and red. There are four kinds; the firſt called by the Americans chilchotes; the ſecond, very ſmall, chilterpin, both of a very pungent taſte; the third tonachiles, moderately hot, and eaten by the natives like other fruit with bread; the fourth chilpelagua, moderately pungent, much uſed by the Spaniards in the preparation of chocolate. There is alſo a fifth kind called agy, growing in Peru.

Jamaica PEPPER, called by the Dutch *amonic*, and by the Spaniards *pimienta de Jamaica*, is the fruit of the tree that yields the Indian wood, growing plentifully in Jamaica, and other American iſlands. It is a real aromatic, and may ſupply the defect both of cloves, nutmeg, and cinnamon; whence it is called alſo by the Engliſh allſpice; but the French call it the round clove, from its taſte reſembling that ſpice.

The Eaſt India company in 1753 imported into England 2,000,000 lb. of pepper; which, at 1 s. *per* pound, the groſs price at the ſales, was 100,000 l. and as the duty is 4 *per cent.* of the value, the revenue received 4000 l. for that commodity.

By the ſtatutes of the 8th and 10th of Queen Anne, pepper may be imported into the port of London only; and upon entry thereof, and payment of half the ſubſidy, muſt be forthwith put into warehouſes, provided at the charge of the importer, and approved of by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, upon forfeiture, and 100 l. When in ſuch warehouſes, may be garbled or ſifted from ſtones, dirt, or other traſh, which the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms may cauſe to be deſtroyed. The proprietor of the pepper may affix one lock to each warehouſe, and keep the key; and may, in the preſence of the warehouſe-keeper, who muſt attend at all ſeaſonable times, view, ſort, and deliver the ſame. Upon delivery out of ſuch warehouſes, if for home conſumption, the buyer muſt pay the duties; but if for exportation, ſecurity muſt be firſt given, that it ſhall be really exported, and not relanded in Great Britain.

And by an act of the 8th of George I. ſuch ſecurity may be diſcharged, upon certificate, under the common ſeal of the chief magiſtrate, or under the hands and ſeals of two known Britiſh merchants, teſtifying the landing, or upon proof that it was taken by enemies, or periſhed at ſea.

Pepper warehouſe keepers, by an act of the 8th of Queen Anne, are to enter all pepper brought in and carried out, diſtinguiſhing that for conſumption from that for exportation; and at the end of every ſix months muſt tranſmit an exact account thereof, and of what is remaining in their cuſtody, upon oath, to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms; who are within one month to cauſe the books and warehouſes to be inſpected, and the accompts examined.

If upon ſuch examination it ſhall appear, that any pepper has been delivered out without payment of duty, or ſecurity for exportation, the warehouſe-keeper is to forfeit the value thereof, and 100 l. and to be rendered incapable of any public employment.

PERCALLES-MAURIS. White Eaſt Indian cotton cloths, of 7¼ ells in length, and 1⅛ ells in breadth.

PERCH, *Pole*, or *Rod*. A long meaſure, much uſed in ſurveying and meaſuring of land. Among the old Romans, and ſtill among geometricians, the pertica, perch is ten feet; and they otherwiſe call it the catena, funis, and decempeda. In England, the ſtatute perch contains ſixteen feet and a half, and for coppice woods, &c. eighteen feet. Forty ſquare perches make a rood, and one hundred and ſixty an acre. The cuſtomary perch is various in different counties. In Staffordſhire it is twenty-four feet; in the foreſt of Sherwood twenty-one, the foot there being eighteen inches, the meaſure of which is marked in the Chancel-wall of Edwynſtow, and in the church of St. Mary in Nottingham. In Herefordſhire a perch of walling is ſixteen feet and a half, and a perch of ditching twenty-one feet. In France the perch is from eighteen to twenty-three, and even twenty-ſeven of their feet.

PERCH, is alſo the name of a fiſh, common in the rivers and ponds of England.

PERFUME. An agreeable artificial odour, ſtriking the ſenſe or organ of ſmelling. The generality of perfumes are made, or compoſed of muſk, ambergreaſe, civet, roſe and cedar woods, orange-flowers, jeſſamine, jonquills, tuberoſes, and other odoriferous flowers, with ſtorax, frankincenſe, benzoin, cloves, mace, and other like drugs, commonly called aromatics. Some perfumes are alſo compoſed with aromatic herbs or leaves, as lavender, marjoram, ſage, thyme, hyſſop, and others. Perfumes were antiently much in uſe, particularly thoſe

wherein muſk, ambergreaſe, and civet enter: but they are now much diſuſed, ſince people have become ſenſible of the harm they do in the head; though in Spain and Italy they are ſtill in faſhion.

PERFUMER, is a perſon who ſells all ſorts of waſhes, pomatums, ſoap, powder, eſſences, and all kinds of perfumes; as alſo ſometimes ſnuff and tobacco.

PERGA. A port-town of European Turky, in the principality of Albania, ſituated in 21 deg. of E. lon. and 39 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. oppoſite to the iſland of Corfu.

PERIOECI, in geography, ſuch inhabitants of the globe as have the ſame latitude, but oppoſite longitudes, or live under the ſame parallel, and the ſame meridian, but in different ſemicircles of that meridian, or oppoſite points of the parallel.

PERIPLUS. A voyage or navigation round a certain ſea, or ſea-coaſt. Arrian has deſcribed all the coaſts of the Black ſea, after having inſpected them in quality of a general of the Emperor Adrian, to whom he dedicates the deſcription, under the title of Periplus on the Euxine ſea.

PERISCII. Thoſe inhabitants of the earth, whoſe ſhadows, in one and the ſame day, ſucceſſively turn to all the points of the horizon. Such are the inhabitants of the frozen zones, or thoſe who live within the compaſs of the arctic and antarctic circles; for as the ſun never goes down with them after he is once up, but always round about, ſo do their ſhadows; inſomuch, that in the ſame day they have their ſhadows on all ſides.

PERMISSION, is a term in Flanders, Brabant, and Zealand, where they call permiſſion money what is uſually called in commerce exchange-money; that is, the eſtimation according to which the remittances, and exchange of theſe provinces, are conducted in other countries.

PERMIT. The name of a note, or certificate, given by the officers of exciſe to the dealers in foreign brandy, and other exciſeable commodities, to ſell or remove them from place to place.

The uſe of certificates and permits, inſtead of preventing, is a great encouragement to the practice of ſmuggling; it being notorious, that in the tea, rum, and brandy trades, certificates or permits are a commodity publickly bought; the increaſe of the revenue on tea and pepper being the effect not of the exciſe-laws, but of the duties on thoſe goods, which has made it worth leſs while to ſmuggle them. And it is demonſtrable, that the ſame policy in reſpect to the tobacco trade would be attended with the ſame happy conſequences, both to the crown and trader. The neceſſity of ſuch certificates or permits ſubject the fair trader to expence, as well as to many great hardſhips and inconveniencies; for it diſcovers the names of his cuſtomers, and the extent and circumſtances of his trade to the officer, who, by communicating the ſame to others, might greatly detriment him in his buſineſs, and perhaps in the very credit by which he ſubſiſts. Beſides, it muſt occaſion great inconveniencies, delays, and diſappointments; orders being commonly brought by carriers, watermen, hoymen, and bargemen, who come to town after, and return before the uſual office-hours; and ſometimes on holidays, when permits or certificates are not to be had, unleſs the officer is paid for his extraordinary attendance; in which caſes it might not be poſſible to comply with the order till the next return, which frequently does not happen in 7, ſometimes in 14 days. It may alſo make the trader liable to unjuſt ſeizures, through the negligence, miſtake, or malice of officers, carriers, ſhipmaſters, wharfingers, book-keepers, and ſervants, even when certificates were properly obtained; and the trouble of obtaining redreſs from the commiſſioners muſt fall upon the town-trader, not without ſome expence, beſides loſs of time and vexation. Therefore, when the certificate clauſe was inſerted in the laſt tobacco-act, it was humbly hoped the fair traders in London, who contribute ſo largely to the revenue, would not be fettered with ſuch unreaſonable and ſevere reſtrictions, and ſo in fact be puniſhed for the faults of others; becauſe the expedient for leſſening the duty was thought the more proper remedy, and fully ſufficient to anſwer every good intention. But the preſent method of certificates can never be productive of any one beneficial thing to the government; whil it is daily teeming with the moſt pernicious evils to ever honeſt man concerned in the trade; for certificates ar difficult to be obtained. A man of any buſineſs may fi ſufficient employment for three or four perſons, only t dance backwards and forwards, to and from the cuſtom houſe, from morning till night, for theſe certificates, an perhaps after all he may be diſappointed, or may get th certificates too late for the carrier, which are then of n manner of ſervice, becauſe the carrier's name muſt b ſpecified in ſuch certificate, which for that reaſon mu be taken out anew for another carrier; ſo that a trade man, when his goods are ready according to his order is frequently obliged to diſappoint his cuſtomer, and pe haps incur his reſentment ſo far as to loſe his buſineſs. Se *Exciſe*.

PERMUTATION. The truck or exchange of o thing for another; the commerce of the antients bei performed wholly by way of permutation; which, in t common law, is a real and actual exchange of two b nefices. See *Exchange*.

PERNAMBUCO. See *Portugueſe* America.

PERNOW, or *Parnau*. A city and port-town of Livoni ſituated on a bay of Livonia in the Baltic, in 24 deg. E. lon. and 58 deg. of N. lat. ſubject to Ruſſia.

PERPETUANA. A ſort of woollen ſtuff uſually man factured in England. See *Sempiternal*.

The beſt perpetuanas, or perpets, are manufactured Crediton and Sandford, in Devonſhire; the former b ing worth 26 s. the piece, containing 15 lb. weight; a the latter 29 s. the piece, containing 16 lb. and a h They are chiefly ſent to Turky and India, where there a great conſumption of them; though the French a great rivals in that trade.

PERRUKE, *Peruke*, or *Periwig*, is now uſed for a ſett falſe or borrowed hair, curled, buckled, and ſewed t gether on a frame or cawl, anciently called capillam tum, or falſe peruke. In effect, the uſe of perukes, leaſt on their preſent footing, is not very old. The ye 1629 is reckoned the epocha of long perukes, at wh time they began to appear in Paris; whence they ſpre by degrees throughout the reſt of Europe. At firſt it w reputed a ſcandal for young people to wear them, by re ſon the loſs of their hair at that age was attributed to a d eaſe, the very name whereof is a reproach: but at leng the mode prevailed over the ſcruple; and now people all ages and conditions wear them; foregoing, with any neceſſity, the conveniencies of their natural hair. was ſome time though before eccleſiaſtics came into t faſhion. The firſt who aſſumed the peruke were ſo of the French clergy, in the year 1660; nor is the pr tice yet well authoriſed. The Cardinal Grimaldi 1684, and the Biſhop of Lavaur in 1688, prohibited uſe of the peruke to all prieſts, without a diſpenſation neceſſity. See *Hair*.

PERRY. A drink made of pears, after the like man as cyder from apples. The beſt fruit for this uſe, ſuch as are leaſt fit for eating, as the borbery-pear, horſe-pear, boreland-pear, and choak-pear; and ſtill redder they are, the better. The method of prepar perry is perfectly the ſame with that of cyder, only fruit muſt be perfectly ripe; though ſome mix crabs w them to mend the liquor. See *Beer*.

PERSIA. The boundaries of the kingdom of Perſia, generally ſaid to be India towards the eaſt; the Ind ocean, and Perſian gulph, towards the ſouth; the Turk empire, towards the weſt; aud Circaſſia, the Caſpian and the river Oxus, towards the north. It muſt alſo remembered, that part of the coaſt of Arabia, on ſouth of the gulph of Boſſora, is under the dominion the King of Perſia.

As to the extent of Perſia, the moſt ſouthern part ly in 25 deg. of N. lat. and the northernmoſt part in 45 it is about 1200 miles long from north to ſouth; the weſt part of it lying in 45 deg. of E. lon. and moſt eaſtern part in 67; the length and breadth is pr near equal: and if it was not for the Caſpian ſea, w divides the N. E. parts of Perſia from the N. W. the f of the country would be almoſt ſquare.

It contains 12 provinces, namely, Choraſſan, Sabluſtan, Sigiſtan, Makeran, Kerman, Farſiſtan, Chuſiſtan, Curdeſtan, Irack-Agem, Ghilan, Aderbeitzan, and Chirvan.

The air of this country is very different, according to the ſituation of the ſeveral diviſions. On the mountains of Caucaſus and Dagiſtan, which are frequently covered with ſnow, it is cold. On the tops of their other mountains it is always cool, but their vallies are exceſſive hot; and the coaſts of the Caſpian and Perſian ſeas are very unhealthful. The middle of Perſia, however, is much admired for the pureneſs and ſerenity of the air; though for two months in the year, about April and May, they are troubled with their ſamiel, or hot wind, which blows for three or four hours in the day with ſuch ſcorching heat, that many perſons have periſhed in them.

Perſia, in general, is a very barren ſoil; but where they can turn the water into their plains and vallies, it is not unfruitful. It produces wine and oil plentifully, with ſenna, rhubarb, and other drugs, abundance of dates, oranges, piſtachio-nuts, and other delicious fruits; as alſo melons, cucumbers, and other garden-ſtuff, in great perfection. There are alſo great quantities of ſilk produced, eſpecially near the coaſt of the Caſpian ſea; and they have a fine pearl-fiſhery in the Perſian gulph. Their moſt uſeful animals are camels; and a ſprightly breed of horſes, equal to the Arabian. They have likewiſe deer, and all manner of game, oxen, and buffaloes; their ſheep are remarkable for having 6 or 7 horns apiece, with tails that weigh 7 or 8 lb. each. They have alſo lions, tygers, and other wild beaſts.

They have good mines of iron, copper, and lead: but the moſt valuable mines are where the turquoiſe ſtones are found; there being one of them at Niſapour, in the province of Choraſſan, and another in a mountain between the province of Irac and Hircania: beſides, ſulphur and ſaltpetre are dug up in the mountain Damaverd.

Their rivers are the Oxus on the north-eaſt, which divides Perſia from Uſbec Tartary; the Kur, antiently Cyrus; and the Arras, antiently Araxes; which riſing in the mountains of Armenia and Caucaſus, join their ſtreams, and run from weſt to eaſt into the Caſpian ſea. The Indus alſo uſed to be reckoned among the Perſian rivers, as it anciently divided Perſia from India; but now Perſia is poſſeſſed of ſome provinces weſt of the Indus.

Their manufactures are chiefly thoſe of ſilk, woollen, mohair, camblets, carpets, and leather: but the Perſians have ſcarce any ſhips of their own to carry on the trade of the Perſian gulph; and the Ruſſians have the ſole navigation of the Caſpian ſea.

The government is an abſolute monarchy; the lives and eſtates of the people being entirely at the diſpoſal of their prince, who is conſidered as the chief merchant, and uſually employs his Armenian ſubjects to traffic for him in every part of the world; and the King's agents muſt have the refuſal of all merchandiſe, before his ſubjects are permitted to trade.

The eſtabliſhed religion is that of Mahomet.

The annual revenues of all the provinces amount to about 22,950,000 mildenaers; and as the mildenaer is equal to an Engliſh crown, the whole is 5,737,500 l. ſterling, ariſing out of the third part of the cattle, corn, fruits, ſilk, and cotton; as alſo by a water-tax, for letting water into fields and gardens; and by a poll-tax of a ducat a-head, for thoſe who are not of the eſtabliſhed religion.

For their coins, money of accompt, weights, and meaſures, ſee *Coin*, *Money*, *Weights*, and *Meaſures*.

The interior commerce of Perſia, and the ſtates depending thereon.

Commerce is a very honourable profeſſion in Perſia; the name of a merchant is even a diſtinguiſhing title, and has ſomething reſpectable in it. Both the King and the greateſt lords diſdain not the exerciſing of trade, having warehouſes and factors, with which they ſend their merchandiſe not only into neighbouring countries, but alſo into the moſt diſtant parts of Aſia and Europe.

It will not however be amiſs to obſerve, that by the word *ſandaguer*, ſignifying merchant, or maker of profits, the Perſians never underſtand thoſe who keep a ſhop, and deal in the retail way; but only ſuch as have an exterior commerce, with clerks and factors in foreign countries.

What makes commerce ſo much eſteemed in Perſia, is on two accounts; the one, becauſe it is the moſt ſtable and lucrative profeſſion of the kingdom; and the other, becauſe dignity being of no permanency in a ſtate where the ſovereign is deſpotic, merchants are there looked upon as ſacred perſons, whom war even reſpects, they and their merchandiſes paſſing without any danger through the armies of friends and enemies.

To this may be added, that the court of Perſia chuſes from among merchants ſuch ambaſſadors as it ſends to foreign courts; as alſo, that the King of Perſia honours with the title of his *hoſts*, thoſe merchants who trade to Iſpahan; which is treating them in ſome reſpects on the footing of ambaſſadors, and envoys from princes.

The Perſians ſeldom or never trade by ſea themſelves; being ſatisfied at ſeeing ſhips from Europe and the Eaſt Indies arrive in their ports; and entruſting ſuch ſhips as they ſend abroad to the care of Chriſtians, particularly the Armenians, who are their factors in almoſt all foreign countries, eſpecially in France, Italy, and Holland.

They alſo employ Jewiſh factors for the Eaſt Indies, as alſo for the interior commerce of the kingdom. The Perſian merchants call their factors and clerks *vikils*, that is, my children; and they keep ſome of theſe factors even in China.

The kingdom of Perſia is of ſo great an extent, and its provinces for the greater part are ſo plentiful and opulent, that it is not aſtoniſhing that its trade is one of the moſt conſiderable of Aſia.

Iſpahan, or Isfahan, was the center of this commerce, and the capital of the kingdom; being ſituated in 50 deg. of E. lon. and 32 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 200 miles N. of the Perſian gulph, 300 miles S. of the Caſpian ſea, 1400 miles S. E. of Conſtantinople, and 1600 miles N. W. of Delly; being of an oval form, and 12 miles in circumference. It was from thence that the caravans departed, which went to Bander-Abaſſi with the merchandiſe which the factors of foreign nations purchaſed at Iſpahan; and it was there that ſeveral others arrived yearly, either from places within or without the kingdom, as thoſe of Schiras, Lahor, Aleppo, Bagdat, Herat, Boſſora, and all thoſe of the Levant.

Iſpahan was the reſidence of the principal European factors; the Engliſh and Dutch having houſes, or rather palaces, there; which the former held by the favour of Shah Abas the great, for aſſiſting him in taking Ormus; and the latter purchaſed, to ſerve them both for lodgings and warehouſes.

There is ſcarce a town where trade aſſembled more ſtrangers, than this capital of Perſia. The moſt conſiderable were the Armenians of Julpha, a colony which the Shah Abas eſtabliſhed in one of the ſuburbs; and the Indians, who were 2000 in number, and keep their ſhops in the great meidan, or market, near thoſe of the Perſians.

The Armenians are polite, and perſons of good ſenſe and probity, much devoted to trade, which may be ſaid to be their only occupation. They are not only maſters of the Levant trade, but alſo have a great ſhare in that of the greateſt cities of Europe; it being uſual to meet with them at Leghorn, Venice, Marſeilles, in England, Holland, the Mogul's territories, and in all parts of the Eaſt, except China.

As Shah Abas had no other view than the enriching of his ſtates, and as he was convinced that he could not effectuate it by any other means than by commerce, he caſt his eyes on ſilk, as the moſt precious merchandiſe; and on the Armenians, as the moſt proper perſons for ſelling it: ſo that, about the year 1620, from labourers, or ploughmen, he made them merchants, and theſe merchants became the moſt experienced traders throughout the earth.

For commencing this commerce, this ingenious prince entruſted to the moſt intelligent inhabitants of Julpha a certain quantity of bales of ſilk, to be ſent by caravans into foreign countries, and eſpecially into Europe, upon condition

dition of their accompanying them themſelves, and at their return paying for the bales at the price fixed by judicious perſons before their departure; all the profits to be made, over and above the fixed price, being deſtined for the merchants.

The ſucceſs anſwered the expectations both of the prince and merchants. Shah Abas gave in ſome reſpects a new face to the commerce of the earth; and the Armenians, by the richneſs of their return, having brought into the Weſt the beſt merchandiſes of the Eaſt, ſhewed afterwards to the Eaſt all that the Weſt had moſt precious and curious.

The commerce of the Armenians being ſufficiently eſtabliſhed, the Kings of Perſia ceaſed interfering in the trade; and the inhabitants of Julpha were the only perſons who continued to ſupport it, who by their agents diſtributed throughout the reſt of the world all the riches of Aſia.

Nothing is more extraordinary, and at the ſame time more diverting, than the manner whereby purchaſes are made among the Armenians.

They begin by throwing money upon the table; after which they diſpute as much as poſſible about the price; when the purchaſer and vender throw backwards and forwards pieces of money, either for adding to or diminiſhing the price; which is always done with ſuch clamours, and ſuch ill humour, that other people would think they were going to devour each other. All this, however, is but pure grimace and affectation; and when a broker, who is preſent at this farce, thinks things much near their value, he ſqueezes with ſuch violence the hand of the ſeller, as to make him bawl out, not quitting it till he has conſented to the offer of the purchaſer. The whole concludes with merriment, each laughing on his ſide, full of the opinion of having deceived his companion.

There are no exchanges, nor public banks, eſtabliſhed in Perſia, after the manner of Europe; though there are ſome bankers who remit money to all the places where there is an occaſion for it.

The merchants have warehouſes, which are almoſt all in the caravanſeras; and thoſe who ſell by retail have ſhops, but ſeparate from their abode, and the places where they work at their manufactures, or other trades.

Of theſe ſhops are uſually compoſed what go under the denomination of bazars, where the moſt precious merchandiſe are expoſed to ſale, ſuch as goldſmiths work, precious ſtones, rich ſtuffs, drugs, and ſpice; each ſort of trade having a ſeparate quarter.

Though the bazars of Iſpahan are magnificent, that of Tauris, which contains upwards of 15,000 ſhops, paſſes for the moſt ſuperb of Perſia. And, next to the trade of this capital, there is not a town in Perſia where there is a greater trade than at Tauris; its commerce extending not only throughout all Perſia; but alſo to Turky, Muſcovy, Tartary, the Eaſt Indies, and the Black ſea.

There was no ſort of merchandiſe but might be found at Iſpahan; the greateſt trade being that of ſilk, of which there is yearly gathered in Perſia a prodigious quantity. However, the late civil wars have ruined the trade of Iſpahan; the court, and conſequently the trade, being removed to Meſched, in the province of Choraſſan, near the Caſpian ſea.

The provinces that produce moſt ſilk, are Ghilan, Maſanderan, Media, Bactria, Caramania, and Georgia; which in all may annually furniſh to the amount of 22000 bales, each bale weighing 276 lb. whoſe culture continually encreaſes, upon account of the great ſale, and the profits made of it by ſtrangers.

There are four kinds of ſilk among the Perſians. The Chirvan, ſo called from Chirvan in Media near the Caſpian ſea, and called in Europe Ardaſs ſilk.

The Karvary, or Legis ſilk, gathered at Legiam, a ſmall town of Ghilan.

The Ked-coda-penſend, or Kelkodapeſend, or the citizen ſilk.

And the Charbaſs, or Sherbaffe, called brocade ſilk.

It is thought, that of this great quantity of ſilk, ſcarce more than a thouſand bales are employed yearly in the Perſian manufactures; and that the reſt is ſold in Turky, the Indies, Italy, and almoſt in all parts of Europe and Aſia.

The Engliſh and Dutch are thoſe who export moſt from Bander-Abaſſi; and the latter yearly export to the value of 60,000 l. ſterling. The Armenians alſo export great quantities to Smyrna, and no ſmall quantity paſſes alſo into Muſcovy.

The ſtuff-manufactures in Perſia are much upon the footing of thoſe of Europe; but there is no eſtabliſhed manufacture of woollen cloth; the Perſians making only a kind of very fine woollen felts, which they know how to mill perfectly after the manner of European hats.

Theſe felts ſerve for cloaks againſt the rain, or for common carpets placed over a richer ſort; with which the Perſians, as moſt of the eaſtern nations, cover their ſofas.

There is a great trade in Perſia of European woollen cloths, imported by the Engliſh and Dutch to Gombroon; which are ſo much eſteemed there, that an ell of cloth, of indifferent quality, is ſold ſometimes for 20 or 24 crowns.

The French alſo ſell there ſome of their cloths, particularly thoſe called draps de Berry, and draps Duſſeau.

The ſtuffs of the Perſian manufactures are made moſt commonly of wool, cotton, goat, and camels hair, but eſpecially ſilk, with which they uſually mix the three latter materials.

Their manufactures of pure ſilk are taffeties, tabbies, ſatins, grograms, turbans, girdles, and handkerchiefs.

Their brocades are called *zerbaſe*, and are of three ſorts; the ſimple, as in Europe of divers faſhions, deſigns, and kinds; the double, which they call orray, that is, a ſtuff with two faces, becauſe it has no wrong ſide; and the machruely, or gold velvet.

Of this laſt ſort ſome pieces are manufactured, which coſt to the amount of 50 tomans the geuſe, or Perſian ell, being about 50 l. ſterling; and thus this ſtuff may certainly be reputed the deareſt in the world.

Commonly the pieces of ſilk exceed not 5 or 6 ells in length, becauſe no more is required for the making of a veſt after the Perſian mode; and moſt of them are conſumed in the country, except a few ſeen in Europe. Formerly they were pretty plentiful in the Eaſt Indies, particularly in the Mogul's territories: but this prince, to hinder the ſale of them, forbid his ſubjects their uſe; which is obſerved with an exactneſs and ſeverity, that would be very neceſſary in ſome parts of Europe, where certain Aſiatic ſtuffs are not permitted.

Among Perſian ſilks, ſeveral are painted with divers colours; and even emboſſed with gold and ſilver, placed on with moulds of gold and ſilver, and gum-water, which they know how to uſe ſo well, that they may be taken for real brocades. The painters of ſtuffs, who are in moſt repute, are thoſe of Jeſchi and Cachan.

The manufactures of woollen ſtuffs and camels hair are for the moſt part eſtabliſhed at Yeſde, Kirman, and Mongay.

Thoſe of wool are only a kind of coarſe ſerge for the cloathing of the common people; but pretty good ſtamines, druggets, and camblets, are made of camels hair; beſides, there are ſtuffs of goats hair manufactured in Hircania, which reſemble baracans.

The colours the Perſian dyers give to their ſilks, and the other materials which they employ in ſtuffs, are more lively and beautiful than thoſe of European dyers; which is either owing to the ingenuity of the artiſans, or the pureneſs of the air.

The drugs they uſe for dying ſtuffs are red hole and opoponax, both of which are very abundant in Perſia; Sapan wood, indigo, ſome particular herbs, gums, and the fruits of the country; among others, walnuts, pomegranates, citron juice, with ultramarine, or lapis lazuli.

The other merchandiſe which the Perſians ſend to foreigners, beſides their ſilks and ſtuffs, are porcelains, feathers, Morocco leather, ſpun and unſpun cotton, ſhagreen, tobacco, nut-galls, very fine mats, baſkets of ruſh and oſiers, and cabinet-works in box-wood; iron and ſteel of Caſbin and Choraſſan, which are reputed contraband, but

but brought to Bagdat; furs; ſkins of Chirvan ſheep, eſteemed much by the Muſcovites; ultramarine; perfumes, eſpecially ambergreaſe and muſk, the one brought to Perſia from the Eaſt Indies and the Red ſea, and the other from Thibet; pearls of the Perſian gulph, and turquoiſe ſtone.

From Perſia are alſo brought all' ſorts of ſpice, which the Dutch bring to Bander-Abaſſi; ſaffron, the beſt in the wold, particularly that of the coaſts of the Caſpian ſea and Amadan; alum, ſulphur, ſeveral ſorts of diſtilled waters, glaſs, cryſtal, ſkins of divers animals prepared at Schiras; coffee brought to them from Arabia, and ſent to Europe by the way of Aleppo; laſtly, ſeveral drugs and medicinal gums, which grow in Perſia, or are brought thither from other places, among others quinquina and rhubarb, dragons blood, and gum arabic.

Among the Perſian merchandiſe may be alſo included the excellent wines of Schiras and Yeſde; of which a great quantity is conſumed in the country, becauſe the principal inhabitants are extremely addicted to drunkenneſs, notwithſtanding the prohibition of the Alcoran; and there are alſo conſiderable exports for the Mogul's territories, and even for China.

Theſe wines are not preſerved in caſks, as in Europe; but in great earthen veſſels, varniſhed on the inſide, or only rubbed over with the ſuet of a loin of mutton.

Piſtachoes and almonds are alſo fruits of the growth of the country; laſtly, great numbers of camels, horſes, mules, and lambs, are yearly ſent into the Grand Signior's territories, thoſe of the Mogul, and into other parts of Aſia.

All payments are made there in ſilver; for gold has no currency in the commerce of Perſia; ſuch pieces as are ſtruck of this metal, on the acceſſion of each King to the crown, being rather a medal than a coin, and called teler, or the cherafis of the nobles.

The foreign gold ſpecie imported there are received in payments, but at ſo low a price that Europeans trade very little with it; and the King's gain is alſo but ſmall, the greater part of theſe coins paſſing to Baſſora and the Eaſt Indies, by the connivance of the governor of Gombroon, and the other ports of the Perſian gulph; though this trade is very ſeverely prohibited.

The current coins are ſilver or copper, ſtruck at Iſpahan, Erivan, Dadian, Tauris, Ardaville, Hamadan, and Aviſa.

Thoſe of ſilver are of a very good alloy, and at a very high ſtandard; but as ſoon as they are out of the mint, the Indians ſend them out of the kingdom; or falſe coiners, whoſe puniſhment is very ſlight in Perſia, adulterate them; which makes this ſpecie ſcarce, or places very bad ones in their room: ſo that all payments are chiefly made in copper, which hurts the commerce of Perſia, and would ſome time or other totally deſtroy it, if Europeans could do without the ſilks, and the other commodities of the country.

As to the foreign ſilver ſpecie, eſpecially rials and rixdollars, which the caravans by land, and the Europeans by ſea, bring there; they are all converted into money of the country, in which the King gains conſiderably, and would gain much more if they were not fraudulently, as well as the gold ſpecie, ſent away to Baſſora and the Eaſt Indies.

The other principal places are *Baku*, a city of the province of Chirvan on the Caſpian ſea, remarkable for its trade of walnut-oil, which paſſes for the beſt in the world, and of which there are two ſorts, the brown, and the white; the latter is ſent into all the provinces belonging to the King of Perſia; and the former is proper only for Ghilan, and ſome neighbouring provinces.

Bochara, *Boghar*, or *Bocara*. A city of Bactria, ſituated between the Mogul's territories and the kingdom of Perſia, and formerly belonging to the latter, but now has its peculiar prince.

The commerce of Bochara is conſiderable; there being yearly brought there ſeveral merchandiſes from the Eaſt Indies and Ruſſia.

The Indians bring white cotton cloths, of which the Tartars make turbans, and the better part of their wearing apparel; but they bring there neither gold, ſilver, precious ſtones, nor ſpice: and their returns are in wrought ſilk, Ruſſian cow-hides, horſes, and ſlaves.

The Perſians ſend there woollen cloths, linens, and ſilk ſtuffs; as alſo in time of peace, when a trade is open with China, muſk, rhubarb, ſatins, and damaſks.

Cachan, is a town abounding with rich merchants, and ſkilful workmen in all ſorts of manufactures.

The principal bazar, or market place of Cachan, croſſes it from one end to the other, being filled with a great number of ſhops. It is in this bazar that goldſmiths, druggiſts, confectioners, furriers, and braziers, expoſe their merchandiſe to ſale. There are alſo paſtry-cooks, bakers, cooks, and fruiterers, with all the neceſſaries of life; and in the midſt is the royal mint.

Beſides this great bazar, there are ſeveral others deſtined for ſome particular ſorts of merchandiſes; as thoſe of woollen cloths, and ſilk ſtuffs, which are covered and ſhut up in the night time.

It is at Cachan that the moſt beautiful gold and ſilver Perſian ſilk ſtuffs are manufactured; and the commerce of this place is ſo conſiderable, that 7 bales of ſilk, weighing 1512 lb. are daily uſed by the manufacturers.

Aron, is a village in the neighbourhood of Cachan, which is alſo very famous for the beauty of ſilk ſtuffs. It conſiſts of 2000 houſes, and there are at leaſt 1000 occupied by ſilk manufacturers, in ſatins, velvets, taffeties, tabbies, plain brocades, others with ſilk flowers, and others mixed with gold and ſilver.

Samachi, is capital of the province of Chirvan, and three days journey for a horſe from the Caſpian ſea.

The merchandiſes which come from Aſtracan, and deſtined for Samachi, are unloaded upon the coaſts of Niſawacy, where the cuſtom-houſe duties are paid upon the footing of about 1 s. 8 d. ſterling *per* bale, each bale weighing 400 lb. which is a horſe-load. Thoſe who tranſport the merchandiſe, after their arriving at theſe coaſts, are Arabs, who dwell under tents in ſummer, and in winter in villages at ſome diſtance from the ſea. The carriages are made with horſes, or camels; but more uſually with the latter.

On the arrival of theſe merchandiſes at Samachi, they are depoſited in a caravanſera, where the cuſtom-houſe officers carefully inſpect them, at leaſt thoſe ſent to Perſia. The duties are about 2 s. 6 d. ſterling for each camel's load, which is 8 or 900 lb. though formerly only half that duty was paid.

As the tranſport of merchandiſes deſtined for Perſia is uſually on horſes, and as the bales are 400 lb. they muſt be divided into two equal parts.

There are ſeveral bazars, and 20 caravanſeras, at Samachi. Thoſe belonging to the Indians are the largeſt and moſt commodious, being all built of ſtone two ſtories high: the principal merchandiſes are ſold, and the richeſt merchants lodge in the caravanſeras; where it is chiefly that the cloth trade is carried on, which is very conſiderable in this town.

The province of Chirvan produces a great quantity of ſilk, cotton, ſaffron, and excellent red and white wines, which are alſo a conſiderable object of the trade of Samachi.

Samgael, is a town upon the road between Ardevil and Cora; having a pretty good trade in woollen cloth, and cotton; the duties of the cuſtomhouſe are paid upon the footing of 15 d. ſterling the load of 400 lb. for ſilks and cloths: and 8 d. ſterling only for merchandiſe of leſs value.

The commerce of Georgia, and Mingrelia.

Theſe provinces are now ſubject to Perſia; and there is ſcarce a country of all Aſia more abundant in cattle, fowls, fruits, wines, and all neceſſaries of life than Georgia. Its wines, particularly thoſe of Teflis its capital, are ſent into Armenia, Media, and even to Iſpahan, where they are much eſteemed, and ſet apart for the King's table.

Silk is gathered there abundantly; but the Georgians, who know not well how to dreſs it, and who have but few manufactures, bring it to their neighbours, and trade greatly in it to ſeveral parts of Turky, eſpecially to Erzerum, and its neighbourhood.

The great men of the country, and the fathers of families,

milies, being maſters in Georgia of liberty and life theſe of their children, and thoſe of their vaſſals; the ſlave trade is very conſiderable there; and ſeveral thouſands of both ſexes are yearly ſent out of the country, almoſt all under 20 years of age, and divided among the Turks and Perſians, who fill their ſeraglios with them.

It is particularly among the young maids of this country, who are very beautiful, that the kings and great lords of Perſia chuſe their women for their ſeraglios; there being a ſtrict prohibition againſt carrying them any where elſe than to Perſia.

The Armenians have the greater part of the Georgia trade in their hands, where they are held with the ſame contempt as the Jews are in Europe; tho' they are almoſt as numerous as the natives.

Jews, Turks, Perſians, Indians, Tartars, Greeks, Ruſſians, and other Europeans, are alſo ſeen there upon the account of trade.

As to that of the Georgians, it is little elſe than uſury; there being among them merchants who take to the amount of 2 *per cent. per* month intereſt.

Mingrelia carries on a ſlave trade equal with that of Georgia; and one year with another there are ſent out out of the country upwards of 12000 ſlaves; 3000 of which are ſent to Conſtantinople.

The other commodities brought from thence, are ſilk, thread, linen, and linſeed, leather, furs of martins and beaver, box-wood, bees-wax, and honey of two ſorts, the one red, and the other white, but both excellent.

The Turks of Conſtantinople, and the merchants at Caffa, and Trebiſond, carry on this trade; by frequenting the ports on the Black ſea, where they uſually every year ſend 12 ſail of ſhips from Conſtantinople, and upwards of 60 feluccas from other places, which import ſeveral commodities, exchanged for thoſe of the country; little or no gold and ſilver ſpecie being uſed in the Mingrelian traffic.

Almoſt all the trade for the neceſſaries of life is carried on in Georgia, and in Mingrelia, by way of barter, or truck; it being in this manner that all ſorts of proviſions are bought; as bread, wine, fowls, hogs, lambs, and ſheep, eſpecially if the Franks have an occaſion for theſe things.

The merchandiſes proper for this barter, are bracelets, rings, glaſs, or rather enamel collars, ſmall knives, pins, needles, and ſuch other ſmall ware, which often produce the hundredfold of what they coſt; but travellers ſhould take care to not bring too many of them, as none but things daily wanted are exchanged for ſuch goods; all other larger commodities being bought and ſold as in other places.

Merchants may enter, and may go out of the territories of Georgia without a permit, as is practiſed in all the other ſtates of the King of Perſia; though in Turky there is no entering nor going out of the dominions without paying a kind of capitation: as for merchandiſe, the duties of entry are very moderate.

Sulphur and nitre are found pretty near Teflis, which each perſon uſes at diſcretion for the making of gunpowder. Foſſile ſalt is very common there, which is taken out of ſome mines upon the road to Erivan. Oil of olives is very dear; and no ſort of oil is either eat or burnt but linſeed oil, which is the only uſe the Georgians make of flax; throwing away the ſtalk, of which they might make excellent linen; but in all probability they prefer cotton cloth to linen, as they trade greatly in the former.

Their moſt conſiderable trade is in furs ſent into Perſia; as alſo to Erzerum for Conſtantinople. The ſilk of the country, as well as that of Samachi, does not paſs thro' Teflis, upon account of the exceſſive duties paid there; but the Armenians purchaſe it on the ſpot, and ſend it to Smyrna, or the other port-towns of the Mediterranean.

There are annually ſent to Erzerum upwards of 2000 camel loads of madder; from whence it paſſes to Diarbeck, where it is uſed for dying the cloths manufactured there, for the conſumption of Poland: and about the ſame quantity of this root is ſent into the Mogul's territories, where it ſerves for the dying of their moſt beautiful cloths.

Avogaſia is a part of Mingrelia, abounding in flax, hemp, peaſe, wax and honey; but the honey is uſua ly bitter upon account of the box and yew trees, which gro there in abundance, and upon which the bees gather it Vermillion is alſo found there among the rocks; and ſeveral parts of this province the real rhaponticum is foun which ſeveral take for rhubarb, and which druggiſts u ally ſubſtitute in its place.

The commerce of the Perſian gulph.

The Perſian gulph is alſo called the gulph of Ormus, fro an iſland which is not far from its entrance; as likew the gulph of Boſſora, from the name of a town of Ara Deſerta, which is at the other extremity; and the gul of Elcatif, from a kingdom of Arabia Felix, extend along the coaſt oppoſite to that of Perſia. The gulph equally famous for the pearl-fiſhery near the iſland B haren, and for the great commerce of all the Eaſtern a European nations, who ſend their ſhipping either Gombron or Boſſora. Gombron has ſupplanted the tra of Ormus, ſince the Shah Abas took this iſland from t Portugueſe, who made it a ſtaple for all the merch diſes of Iſpahan, and the reſt of Perſia. And Baſſo whoſe poſſeſſion was ſo long diſputed by the Perſia Turks, and Arabs, is now enjoyed by the Turks.

The town of Ormus, and its iſland, tho' entirely fall from their firſt ſplendor, and deſtroyed by the orders Shah Abas, after he had taken them from the Portugue merit ſome mention, upon account of the rank they h a conſiderable time kept among the iſlands, and tow of the greateſt commerce of Aſia.

This iſland is ſituated at the entrance of the gulph, 56 deg. of E. lon. and 27 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. o poſite to Gombron on the continent, 240 miles S. E. Schiras, and 370 S. E. of Iſpahan; it being about miles in circumference; yet it had for a long time t title of a kingdom, governed by its own kings, who we tributary to the kings of Perſia.

The Portugueſe, who thought this poſt neceſſary to the commerce, took it in 1507, and thereby excluded other nations the entrance of Perſia; where none we allowed to trade but by their paſſports, or under their fl The Portugueſe made it the richeſt magazine in t world, by rendering it the centre of trade between E rope and Aſia; where the fine ſpices of the Eaſt we laid up, and afterwards diſtributed to the reſt of t world.

As long as the Portugueſe remained ſole maſters of t trade and navigation of the Indies, the Perſians foun themſelves unable to ſhake off this kind of yoke: but t Dutch having paſſed into the Eaſt towards the end of t 16th century, and the Engliſh in the beginning of t 17th, Shah Abas made uſe of the latter to aſſiſt him expelling the Portugueſe, who were at laſt obliged to ſu render it in 1622, having loſt, by the taking of the iſlan upwards of 50,000 l. ſterling, in merchandiſe, and oth effects.

The Perſian monarch, in return for the aſſiſtance he r ceived from the Engliſh Eaſt India company, grant them great advantages in the Perſian trade; he even ſu fered them to ſhare the revenues of the cuſtoms, on th ſide, with Perſians; and till the late civil war, the compa received between 3 and 4000 l. a year, in lieu of t cuſtoms. Upon the demoliſhing of Ormus, Shah Ab removed the trade to Gombron, on the oppoſite ſhor and gave it the name of Bander-Abaſſi, or the port-tow of Abas.

As to the iſland of Ormus itſelf, it never produced a thing but ſalt, which grows in a ſolid cruſt, 2 inches dee upon the ſurface of the earth; and the hills appear at diſtance as if they were covered with ſnow: nor is the a drop of freſh water on the iſland, but what is preſerv in ciſterns, in the time of the rains.

Gombron, *Gombroon*, or *Bander-Abaſſi*, called alſo *Gamro Gomoron*, or *Gamron*, is the principal port of all Perſia, a perhaps of all Aſia, and which only began to be in repu ſince the Portugueſe had been expelled Ormus. It ſituated in 55 deg. of E. lon. and 27 deg. of N. lat. the province of Farſiſtan.

Before the deſtruction of Ormus, it was only a ſm village of about 50 pitiful cabins, where the Portugue ke

kept 25 or 30 armed barks for ſupporting their commerce, and ſuppreſſing that of other nations.

Shah Abas fortified the port, and built the town; drawing there a great trade by privileges and franchiſes.

This port is open to all ſorts of nations, except the Spaniards and Portugueſe; and in the midſt of the city is a great ſquare called *paſſer*, being the ſame as the *bazar*, roofed all over, with ſhops on both ſides, and an alley in the middle. In this paſſer, the merchants expoſe to ſale their moſt precious merchandiſe, particularly the Banians, who are intelligent people in trade, but generally fraudulent dealers; being eſteemed in the Eaſt in the ſame manner as the Jews are in the Weſt.

The time of trade is from the month of October, when the great heats end; till the month of May, when they begin again. At which time ſhips are ſeen to arrive there, from the Europeans eſtabliſhed in the Eaſt Indies, and ſeveral others belonging to Moors and Indians; as alſo ſeveral caravans by land, among others thoſe of Iſpahan, Schiras, Lahor, Aleppo, Bagdat, Herat and Boſſora.

The Dutch bring there ready money; as alſo European, and Indian merchandiſe, eſpecially ſpice, with which they furniſh all Perſia. The money they employ in their commerce are rials, or Spaniſh piaſtres, and rixdollars; the merchants not taking any other, upon account of the profit they make of them, by converting them into the money of the country.

The Engliſh have leſs money than the Dutch in their cargo; but have great quantities of cloth, tin, ſteel, indigo, ſilk ſtuffs, with the fineſt and moſt beautiful India cottons.

The ſhips belonging to the Indians, Arabians, and Moors, are only laden with the productions and manufactures of their own country.

The merchandiſes brought by the caravans, conſiſt in ſeveral ſtuffs of gold, and ſilver, velvets, taffeties, porcelains, plumes, morocco leather, wool, brocades, rich carpets, Turkiſh camblets, and other more plain ones of Arabia; medicinal drugs, dragons blood, manna, myrrh, frankincenſe, dry raiſins, dates, and horſes; as alſo raw ſilks, the principal object of the Perſian commerce.

At Gombron are alſo found the turquoiſe ſtones, but more of the old than the new rock; and a good number of pearls, which are fiſhed for in the Perſian gulph.

All the nations trading to Gombron have magazines and houſes there; thoſe of the Engliſh, Dutch, and French, being more like palaces than factories, erected along the ſea ſide, which is very commodious to them for loading and unloading the ſhips when they arrive.

The Engliſh began to trade with the Perſians in 1613, and were ſo much the better received, as they aſſiſted the great Shah Abas in expelling the Portugueſe from Ormus.

The Dutch appeared in the ports of the Perſian gulph ten years after the Engliſh; but ſoon had the ſuperiority over them both in immunities and commerce; tho' afterwards, as well as the Engliſh, they thought they had reaſon to complain of ſeveral extortions that troubled their trade, and which they ſtrove to remedy by a treaty concluded in 1652.

But if on one ſide this treaty appeared advantageous to the Dutch, becauſe an immunity from all duties was granted them for a quantity of merchandiſe, to the amount of 50,000 l. ſterling, which they obliged themſelves to bring to Gombron, over and above that which they were ſubject to pay duties for at the cuſtomhouſe as other nations; on the other ſide, it became burdenſome to them, by an engagement to export more ſilks of Perſia than ſuited them, that is, 600 bales a year, each bale weighing 216 lb. and ſome of the ſilk was ſo coarſe, as to be uſed for cordage at Batavia.

The number of Dutch ſhips for Gombron is not certain; tho' it is not extraordinary to ſee there every year 10 of the company's ſhips, whoſe cargo amounts to about 200,000 l. ſterling.

The governor or ſultan of Gombron often receives preſents from the Dutch, for engaging him to favour their commerce; but beſides theſe voluntary preſents, they give him a kind of annual penſion, which conſiſts in 10 lb. of cloves, 30 lb. of nutmegs, 50 lb. of pepper, as much of ſugar candy, 120 pounds of powder ſugar, and 5 pieces of cloth of different colours, of two ells each, each ell making $\frac{5}{4}$ of the Dutch ell.

The French were the laſt of the Europeans who appeared at Gombron; at leaſt under the name, and upon the account of a company; whoſe firſt deputies arrived at Iſpahan in 1664, and made their treaty in 1665; by which the company was granted an exemption from the cuſtomhouſe duties of Gombron during three years, with a proviſo of a preſent, which might equal this exemption.

Other deputies, ſent in 1674, obtained not only the confirmation of theſe privileges, but alſo an exemption from duties without a limited time; which coſt them a preſent of about 5000 l. ſterling, and was an uſeleſs expence, becauſe the company ſent but few ſhips there.

The town is alſo inhabited by Arabs, Jews, Armenians, Indians, Banians, and ſeveral other nations, as well as Perſians and Europeans: but it is unhealthy, which occaſions the inhabitants to remove into the country during the hot ſeaſons; the winter being the time for traffic.

The gains that are made by the Engliſh Eaſt India company, in carrying the merchandiſe of the Armenians, Moors, Banians, &c. from Gombron to Surat, is one great branch of the company's profit: for they ſeldom ſend a ſhip from Gombron to Surat, but ſhe is as deep loaden as ſhe can ſwim with their effects, beſides paſſengers, and a vaſt quantity of treaſure on board, ſometimes of the value of 2 or 300,000 l. ſterling.

Bander-Congo, or *Bander-Eric*, is a port-town on the eaſt-ſide of the Perſian gulph, 100 miles W. of Gombron, having ſome reputation for trade; but chiefly upon account of the pearls of the iſland of Baharen.

The Portugueſe, as long as they were maſters of Ormus, and conſequently of the navigation of the gulph, had the half of the duties of this port: they were afterwards reduced to about 3000 l. a year; and towards the end of the 17th century they entirely loſt this duty.

About 10 miles from Bander-Congo, there is a rugged mountain, called by the natives Chiampa, from whence the Perſian dyers, and painters, have the greater part of their red and green colours.

It is alſo this mountain which furniſhes a kind of medicinal bole, much reſembling what is called *Armenian bole* by druggiſts; but it is properly white and red marble calcined by the ſun.

Baharen, is an iſland in the Perſian gulph, oppoſite to the coaſt of Arabia, and ſubject to the King of Perſia. It is ſomewhat fertile, and produces ſeveral fruits, particularly dates; but the water is of ſuch an ill taſte that ſtrangers cannot well make uſe of it, and are therefore obliged to employ divers, who get very ſweet and agreeable freſh water near the bottom of the ſea.

This iſland is remarkable for its pearl fiſhery; and the manner of the ſale of pearls is very extraordinary. When they are ſorted, and divided each according to their qualities, the merchants aſſemble; and being ſeated round the pearls, placed in the middle, which they have examined at leiſure, the ſeller covers his hand with a handkerchief, and touches that of all the purchaſers one after another, ſpecifying his price by certain ſigns; the others, by different ſigns, intimate what they can give; and when the ſeller ſeems ſatisfied, he delivers to every one their quantity of pearls.

When a broker intervenes, if he concludes the bargain, he takes the hands of the purchaſer and ſeller, and joining them together, gives them a ſtroke with his own.

As to the ſignification of touching, if the whole hand is ſqueezed, it is 1000; if the palm of the hand is touched 500; if a finger 100; and if but a joint 10.

The cuſtom-houſe for the duties of exportation on pearls is ſo well managed at Bander-Congo, that even ſhoes, and the moſt ſecret parts of wearing apparel, are ſearched; yet there is ſcarce a year without the fraudulently conveying of pearls away to the value of 5, 10, or 15000 l. ſterling. See *Pearl* Fiſhery.

There are alſo ſeveral other populous places in Perſia; particularly Meſchid or Thus, Aſtrabad, Herat, Gazna, Candahor, Sigiſtan, Makeran, Lar, Schiras, Schouſter, Caſbin,

Caſbin, Hamadam, Arnova, Courmebad, Ardevil, Naxivan, Gangea, Turki, Ferrabat, Reſhd, and Derbent: but, ſince the death of Nadir Shah in 1747, the whole country has been one ſcene of civil war, which has put a ſtop to the greateſt part of its trade:

The commerce of Perſia over the Caſpian ſea.

The trade to Perſia over the Caſpian ſea, according to Mr. Hanway, was a new path of commerce to Great Britain, propoſed to introduce the uſeful commodity of raw ſilk, the baſis of our moſt conſiderable manufactures, on the cheapeſt terms; and, what is ſtill more, in exchange for Britiſh manufactured wool. It is certain, that in the many years experience of the Turky company, they never eſtabliſhed any factors in the northern provinces of Ruſſia: they thought it more judicious to leave that riſque, as well as the profits ariſing from ſuch eſtabliſhment, to the Armenians, who uſed to bring the Perſian ſilk to them in Smyrna and Aleppo, as the Ruſſians and Armenians now bring great part of it to St. Peterſburgh. But the Turky company never had the ſame temptation as the Ruſſia merchants: they had no treaty with the Turks, to provide for a ſafe paſſage to Perſia; nor any invitations from the mouths of princes to enter upon the trade: beſides, their by-laws reſtrained their factors from ſending goods into Perſia on their own account.

Never any new trade was entered upon with more ſanguine hopes, or proſecuted with more laborious attention, by ſeveral of the moſt eminent merchants of London; to which may be added, ſcarce any commercial ſcheme has had a more powerful protection from great princes. It muſt be confeſſed, that taking all thoſe advantages together, it had once ſo fair an appearance, that it dazzled the eyes of many, and engaged very clear heads, as well as honeſt hearts, in its cauſe. Various were the objections made againſt this commerce, with regard to the intereſt of other mercantile companies: ſome of the members of thoſe companies told its fate in general terms; but, as an inſtance of the fallacy of human wiſdom, the deſign was at length fruſtrated by means, the leaſt, if at all expected; for could it be imagined, that one, who engaged himſelf as a Britiſh factor in Perſia, would engage alſo as a ſhipwright to Nadir Shah? This he tells us was done by captain Elton, whereby the trade was ruined. Though Mr: Hanway ſays, that when he left England in 1743, Mr. Richard Lockwood, a Turky merchant, diſcourſed with him to this effect: "Either you will teach the Ruſſians how to trade, and then become an object of their jealouſy, if you have ſucceſs in this enterprize; or you will be plundered in Perſia; and in either caſe your trade cannot laſt long." Upon which Mr. Hanway ſays, experience has taught us, that his obſervation was juſt, and in ſome meaſure prophetical: the Britiſh factors in Perſia were pillaged, and an end put to the trade in 1747.

The ordinary route for a caravan from Reſhd to Smyrna is to Ardevil 5 days, to Tauris 10 days, to Erzerum 12, from thence to Smyrna 43, in all 70. The route to Aleppo is from Reſhd to Caſbin, Hamadan, Shouſter, Bagdat, and Aleppo; being upon the whole about 10 days leſs than to Smyrna. There is yet a ſhorter road to Aleppo, but it is ill ſupplied with water. Aleppo from Smyrna is reckoned 40 days, and a day's journey being computed at 25 Engliſh miles, the tract of 70 days is 1750 miles. But from Ghilan to Aſtrachan, allowing for quarentine and other contingencies, may be reckoned 30 days, from thence to Zaritzen 10, to Moſcow 35, and to St. Peterſburgh 20; in all 95, which is 25 days more than from Reſhd to Smyrna.

Mr. Hanway alſo obſerves, that Ghilan produces the beſt and greateſt quantities of ſilk; next to this come Chirvan and Erivan; then Mazanderan, and laſtly Aſtrabad; but the latter is vaſtly inferior, ſerving only for a manufacture mixed with cotton, of which they make their ſhirts and drawers. Ghilan ſilk is ſent into Ruſſia and Turky, and part of it is kept for the Perſian manufactures; but that of Mazanderan and Aſtrabad is ſeldom or ever exported. From Chirvan they formerly ſent all their ſilk to Turky and Ruſſia.

The annual produce of Ghilan, in good times, is about 30,000 batmans, the batman of 12 lb. Engliſh avoirdupois, of raw ſilk, of which about 6000 are conſumed in Perſia, 4000 ſent to Babylon, and the remainder over the Caſpian ſea. Chirvan formerly produced a large quantity, but that province is now in a much worſe condition than Ghilan: this commodity is brought to market all the year round, in greater or ſmaller quantities, but chiefly in Auguſt and September.

The chief demand of European goods in Perſia, next to Dutch cloths, is for Britiſh woollens, ſuch as hair-liſt drabs of 12 to 19 l. *per* piece of 37 yards in white, which the Perſians call begreſt; and of theſe they uſually conſume 9 bales in 30. Glouceſter cloths of about 9 l. to 11 l. 10 s. *per* piece, of 42 yards in white; which the Perſians call maghoot, and conſume thereof 10 bales in 30. Ordinary Yorkſhire cloths of about 3 s. 6 d. *per* yard dyed; which the Perſians call londora, and conſume thereof 11 bales in 30. Five bales of ſhalloon of a middling quality, are ordinarily required in 100 bales of cloth. From Holland they reckon one bale of maghoot, one of ſhaloons, and one of long ells, to ten bales of begreſt. Engliſh emboſſed cloth is alſo demanded; likewiſe indigo, cochineal, and in good times, ſome rich ſilk, gold and ſilver lace, velvet, and other rich manufactures.

The Perſians had been long accuſtomed to Dutch cloths, which were thicker, and for the moſt part better ſhorn, and of a ſofter and finer wool, the crimſon and ſcarlets of a finer dye; but they were dearer than Engliſh cloths: however, after two or three years, the Engliſh improved ſome of their drabs, ſo as to be almoſt equal to the Dutch cloths in ſubſtance, and ſuperior in ſoftneſs and beauty.

In Perſia the duty on European goods is 5 *per cent.* on the value.

The whole amount of the Caſpian trade, from its firſt eſtabliſhment by the Engliſh to its end, is as follows:

The whole export of cloth and European goods from Ruſſia, for account of the Britiſh Caſpian traders, coſt as follows:

			Crowns.
In 1742	486 parcels		170,000
1743	414		144,900
1744	299		102,650
1745	value		252,945
1746	value		20,000
		£.	172,398=689,592

The whole import of raw ſilk from Perſia into Ruſſia according to the value in Perſia:

	Crowns.
In 1743	120,000
1744	50,000
1745	62,000
1746	50,500
1747	13,000
1748	12,000
1749	33,000
In money	33,000
£. 93,375=	373,500

Whereby the national balance, excluſive of mercantile profits, and that of the manufacturers and tradeſmen, was 81,023 l. in favour of Great Britain. See *Ruſſia* and *Silk*.

PERSIAN *Gulph*, or gulph of Boſſora, is that which divides Perſia from Arabia; extending from Cape Muſſeldom to Elmalis.

PERSONAL *Goods*, or *Eſtate*, is that conſiſting of money, moveables, &c. which every perſon has in his own diſpoſal; in oppoſition to lands and tenements, which are called *real eſtates*.

PERTHAMBOY. A port-town of New Jerſey, in North America, ſituated in 74 deg. of W. lon. and 40 deg. 4 min. of N. lat. on a bay of the American ocean, at the mouth of the river Raritan, 25 miles S. W. of New York, ſubject to Great Britain.

SCARA. A port-town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, and principality of Abruzzo, ſituated in 15 deg. 25 min. of E. lon. and 42 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the gulph of Venice, 90 miles N. of Naples.

SO. The Spaniſh dollar, piaſtre, or piece of eight. See *Piaſtre*.

SSA. A ſmall Indian copper coin. See *Pecha*.

SSO. A ſilver coin of Genoa, worth 4 s. 4 d. ſterling.

TARD, in war, a kind of engine of metal, ſomewhat in ſhape of a high crowned hat, ſerving to break down gates, barricades, draw-bridges, or the like works that are intended to be ſurprized. The petard may be conſidered as a piece of ordnance, very ſhort, narrow at the breech, and wide at the muzzle, made of copper mixed with a little braſs, or of lead with tin; uſually about ſeven inches long, and five broad at the mouth; weighing from 40 to 50 pounds. Its charge is from 5 to 6 pounds of powder, which reaches to within three fingers of the mouth: the vacancy is filled with tow, and ſtopped with a wooden tampion, the mouth being ſtrongly bound up with a cloth tied very tight with ropes. It is covered up with a madrier, or wooden plank, that has a cavity cut in it to receive the mouth of the petard, and faſtened down with ropes. Its uſe is in a clandeſtine attack, to break down gates, bridges, barriers, &c. whereto it is hung, which it does by means of the wooden plank. It is alſo uſed in countermines, to break through the enemies galleries, and give vent to their mines. The invention of petards is aſcribed to the French huguenots in the year 1579, whoſe moſt ſignal exploit was the taking the city of Cahors by means thereof.

TERSBURG. The capital city of Ruſſia, ſituated in 31 deg. of E. lon. and 60 deg. of N. lat. on both ſides of the river Nieva, in the provinces of Carelia and Ingria, between the gulph of Finland and the lake Ladoga. See *Ruſſia*.

TIPOLI. A port-town on the coaſt of Coromandel in the Hither India, ſituated in 80 deg. of E. lon. and 16 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. where the Dutch have a factory.

TITGUAVES. A port-town of Hiſpaniola, in the Atlantic, or American ocean, ſituated in 76 deg. of W. lon. and 18 deg. 5 min. of N. lat. on a bay at the weſt-end of the iſland, 200 miles W. of St. Domingo, and upwards of 200 miles E. of Port Royal in Jamaica, ſubject to France. See *French* America.

TRE. See *Salt*-petre.

TROL, *Petræ oleum*, *Oil of petre*, or *Rock oil*, an oleaginous juice, ſuppoſed to iſſue out of the clefts of rocks, and found floating on the waters of certain ſprings. Beſides artificial and vegetable oils, or thoſe drawn from plants, &c. by expreſſion, there are alſo natural and mineral oils iſſuing of themſelves from the entrails of the earth, called by a common name *petrols*, or *petrolea*. Theſe, according to all appearance, muſt be the work of ſubterraneous fires, which raiſe or ſublime the more ſubtile parts of certain bituminous matters that lye in their way. Theſe parts being condenſed into a liquor, by the cold of the vaults of rocks, are there collected, and ooze thence thro' clefts and apertures, which the diſpoſition of the ground furniſhes them with. Petrol then is a black liquid bitumen, only differing by its liquidity from other bitumens, as aſphaltum, jet, &c. The naphtha, which is either a liquid, or at leaſt a very ſoft bitumen, is much the ſame with petrol. Hitherto there has been but little petrol found, except in hot countries. Olearius ſays he ſaw above thirty ſprings of it near Schamachia in Perſia: there are alſo petrols in the ſouthern provinces of France; but the beſt are thoſe in the duchy of Modena, firſt diſcovered by Arioſto a phyſician, in 1640, in a very barren valley, twelve leagues from the city of Modena. There are three canals dug with great expence in the rock, by which three different kinds of petrol are diſcharged into little baſons or reſervoirs: the firſt as white, clear, and fluid as water, of a penetrating ſmell, and not diſagreeable; the ſecond of a bright yellow, leſs fluid, and leſs briſk ſmell than the white; the third a dark red, of a thicker conſiſtence, and ſmell more approaching that of bitumen. Mr. Bouldam obſerves, that he could not raiſe from it any phlegm, or ſaline ſpirit by diſtillation, either in *balneo mariæ*, or in a ſand heat: all that would riſe was oil; and at the bottom of the pellican remained an exceeding ſmall maſs of a thickiſh, browniſh matter. Hence to uſe petroleum in medicine, it muſt be preſcribed juſt as it is; benig a remedy nature has prepared to our hands: it is found very warm and penetrating; and commended in many outward complaints, rheumatick and arthritick pains, and paralytic limbs.

PETROSELINUM *Macedonicum*. A plant whoſe ſeed enters the compoſition of the theriaca; which for this purpoſe muſt be choſen new, clean, plump, longiſh, of a green bordering upon brown, and of an aromatic ſmell.

PETTY *Bag*. An office in chancery, the three clerks of which record the return of all inquiſitions out of every ſhire, make all patents of cuſtomers, gaugers, comptrollers, &c.

PETTY *Chapman*. See *Hawker*.

PETTY *Cuſtom*. See *Cuſtoms*.

PETTY *Tally*, in the ſea language, a competent allowance of victuals, according to the number of the ſhip's company.

PETUM, *Nicotiana*. See *Tobacco*.

PEWTER. A factitious metal, uſed in domeſtic utenſils, whoſe baſis is tin, which is converted into pewter, by the mixture of ſix pounds of braſs, and fifteen pounds of lead, to an hundred weight of tin. Beſides this compoſition, which makes the common pewter, there are others for other occaſions, compounded of tin mixed with regulus of antimony, tin, glaſs, and copper, in ſeveral proportions. See *Tin*, *Braſs*, and *Lead*.

Pewter has occaſionally ſerved for money. In the Philoſophical Tranſactions, Mr. Putland informs us, that King James II. turned all the pewter veſſels, &c. of the proteſtants in Ireland he could ſeize into money; half crowns being ſomewhat bigger than halfpence, and other pieces in proportion. He ordered it to be current in all payments, whence our author obſerves, people abſconded for fear of being paid their debts; and he alſo mentions crown-pieces of this metal.

PEWTERER. A perſon who trades or works in pewter, by making ſuch works, commodities, or veſſels, as are required of this metal.

PEWTERERS *Company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 13th of Edw. IV. dated the 20th of January 1474, by the title of The maſter, wardens, and commonalty of the art or myſtery of pewterers of the city of London.

In the 25th of Henry VIII. 1534, the wardens of this company, or their deputies, were by act of parliament empowered to have the inſpection or ſearch of pewter in all parts of the kingdom, not only for preventing the ſale of adulterated goods, but likewiſe the importation of foreign pewter wares. And, as a farther encouragement to this company, all Engliſhmen are by the ſaid act ſtrictly enjoined, not to repair into any foreign country, to teach the art or myſtery of pewterers, on pain of diſfranchiſement. And for the more effectual preventing the art from being carried abroad, no pewterer ſhould take as an apprentice the ſon of an alien.

This corporation has a maſter, 2 wardens, 28 aſſiſtants, and 78 liverymen, who, when admitted pay a fine of 20 l. each. They have a convenient hall in Lime-ſtreet, in which the buſineſs of the company is tranſacted.

PEYPUS, or *Pepus Lake*, in Livonia, is ſituated between the gulph of Finland and the lake Worſero, with both which it has a communication by rivers, being 40 miles long, and 20 broad.

PEYSES. A ſmall copper coin current in the Eaſt Indies, particularly at Amadabat, 54 of which make the rupee, or 2 s. 6 d. ſterling.

PHARMACY. The art of preparing or compounding medicines, fit for uſe, vulgarly called the apothecary's art or buſineſs; being divided into galenical and chemical.

PHAROS, *Phare*. A light-houſe; a pile raiſed near a port, where a fire is kept burning in the night, to guide and direct veſſels near at hand. See *Light*-houſe.

PHAROS. A ſmall iſland in the Mediterranean, oppoſite to the city of Alexandria, in Egypt, ſituated in 31 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 30 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. which, with the continent, forms a ſpacious harbour; being about a mile and half diſtant from the city, with which it has a communication by a ſtone cauſeway. On this iſland was erected a moſt magnificent tower, eſteemed one of the wonders of the world; on the top were numerous lights for the direction of mariners; which tower, from the iſland it ſtood upon, obtained the name of the Pharos; and a great many other towers erected for the like purpoſe, have obtained the name of Pharos, particularly thoſe of Rhodes, and Meſſina in Sicily.

PHEASANTS *Iſle*. A little iſland in the river Bidaſſoa, which divides France and Spain, ſituated near St. John Pied de Port, in 1 deg. 20 min. of W. lon. and 43 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. ſixteen miles S. of Bayonne. Here the treaty between France and Spain was made in 1659, which from the neighbourhood of the Pyrenean mountains, was called the Pyrenean treaty; and here ſeveral other treaties between thoſe two crowns have been made: this iſland being choſen on theſe occaſions as a neutral place, to which neither king can claim a right.

PHENING. A ſmall copper coin current in Germany. The phening of Hamburgh is worth $\frac{3}{32}$ of a penny ſterling; 12 of them being 1 $\frac{1}{8}$ d. ſterling. The phening of Saxony and Frankfort is worth $\frac{7}{48}$ of an Engliſh penny; 12 of them being 1 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. ſterling. The phening of Vienna is worth the $\frac{7}{60}$ of an Engliſh penny; or 14 of them make 1 $\frac{10}{30}$ d. ſterling. The phening of St. Gall is worth $\frac{9}{80}$ of an Engliſh penny; or 20 of them make 2 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. ſterling. The phening of Zurich is worth $\frac{1}{8}$ of an Engliſh penny; or 4 of them make $\frac{1}{2}$ d. ſterling.

PHILADELPHIA. The capital of the province of Penſilvania, in North America, ſituated in 74 deg. of W. lon. and 40 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. See *Britiſh* America.

PHILIP *Fort*. A fortreſs in Dutch Brabant, ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the Scheld, oppoſite to Pearl fort, five miles north-weſt of Antwerp, whereby the Dutch command the navigation of the river Scheld.

PHILIP. A ſilver coin of Milan, worth about 5 s. 2 d. ſterling.

PHILIPPINE, or *Manila Iſlands*, called alſo the *Luconia Iſlands*, are ſituated in the Chineſian ſea, part of the Pacific ocean, between 114 and 131 deg. of E. lon. and between 5 and 19 deg. of N. lat. 300 miles S. E. of China, and 1200 W. of the Ladrones or Marian iſlands, comprehending 1100 iſlands, according to ſome accounts; or 11,000 according to others; the principal of which are Luconia or Manila; Philippina, or Pandaga or Samar; Maſbate, Mindoro, Luban, Paragoa, Panay, Leyte, Bohol, Sibu, Sogbu, Negros, St. John, Xollo, and Mindanao: the inhabitants conſiſting of Chineſe, Ethiopians, Malays, Spaniards, Portugueſe, Pintados, or painted people, and Meſteos a mixture of all three.

Theſe iſlands were diſcovered by Ferdinand Magellan, a Portugueſe gentleman, who had ſerved his native country both in the wars of Aſia and in the Eaſt Indies; particularly under Albuquerque, the famous Portugueſe general, who reduced Goa and Malacca to the obedience of that crown: but Magellan being neglected by the court of Portugal, offered his ſervice to Charles V. then Emperor of Germany, and King of Spain, to whom he ſhewed there was a probability of diſcovering a way to the ſpice iſlands in the Eaſt Indies, by the Weſt. Upon this he had the command of five ſmall ſhips, with which he ſet ſail from Seville on the 10th of Auguſt 1599, and ſtanding over to the coaſt of South America, continued his voyage to the ſouthward to 52 deg. where he fortunately diſcovered a ſtreight, ſince called the ſtreight of Magellan, which carried him into the Pacific ocean, or South Sea; and then ſteering northward, repaſſed the equator; after which, he ſailed over that vaſt ocean, till he arrived at Guam, one of the Marian iſlands, on the 6th of March 1521, and ſoon after came to the Manila iſlands, which he took poſſeſſion of in the name of the King of Spain; but happened to be killed in a ſkirmiſh in one of theſe iſlands. However, his people afterwards arrived at the Moluccas, or Clove iſlands, where they left a colony, and returned to Spain by the way of the Cape of Good Hope; being the firſt men that ever ſailed round the globe. But there was no further attempt made by the Spaniards to ſubdue or plant the Manila iſlands, until the year 1564, in the reign of Philip II. King of Spain, when Don Lewis de Valaſco, Viceroy of Mexico, ſent Michael Lopez Delagaſpes there, with a fleet from Mexico, and a ſufficient force to make a conqueſt of the iſlands, which he named the Philippines, in honour of Philip II. ſon of Charles V. who was then upon the throne of Spain; and they have ever ſince been ſubject to that crown, except the iſland of Mindanao.

The iſland of Manila, or Luconia, is the chief of the Philippine iſlands, ſituated between 117 and 123 deg. E. lon and between 12 and 19 deg. of N. lat. 300 miles S. E. of China, and 160 S. of Formoſa; being upwards of 400 miles long, but of an unequal breadth, in ſome places 200 miles, and in others not 100 broad. The principal town is alſo called Manila, which lies on a point of land made by a river iſſuing from the lake of Bahi and falling into the ſea a little lower at the town of Cavite, where there is a ſpacious harbour, but of difficult entrance, becauſe of rocks and ſhoals at the mouth of the bay. The Spaniſh viceroy reſides in the town of Manila, and his government is one of the moſt profitable poſts belonging to the Spaniſh monarchy.

Mindanao is the next iſland in magnitude to Manila, being ſituated between 120 and 126 deg. of E. lon. and between 5 and 10 deg. of N. lat. having the reſt of the Philippine iſlands on the north; with the Celebes and Moluccas on the ſouth. This iſland is not ſubject to the Spaniards, as the reſt of the Philippines are; but moſt of the people are Mahometans, and ſubject to a Mahometan prince, called the Sultan of Mindanao. Thoſe who inhabit the middle of the country are pagans, and under another government, being called Hilanons. And there are a third nation on the N. W. part of the iſland, called Sokiques. There are good harbours in the iſland, and ſeveral places of trade; particularly the city of Mindanao, which ſtands on the ſouth-ſide of the iſland, on a ſmall river two miles from the ſea.

The iſland of Philippina is divided from Manila on the N. W. by the ſtreights of that name.

The iſland of Mindora is ſeparated from Manila by a narrow channel. The iſland of Paragoa, or Paragoya, is ſituated a little N. of Borneo, and is ſubject to one of the princes of that iſland; being about 300 miles long.

The iſland of Panay is ſubject to Spain, being ſituated between the iſlands of Paragoa and Negros; about 200 miles in circumference, and ſubject to Spain. The iſland of Leyte is ſeparated from the iſland of Philippina by a narrow channel on the N. E. as it is from the iſlands of Bohol and Sibu by another channel on the S. W.

The iſland of Bohol is ſituated N. of the iſland of Mindanao and S. W. of Leyte. The iſland of Sibu or Cebu is one of the moſt ſoutherly of the Philippines, ſituated between the iſland of Leyte on the W. and Negros on the E. The iſland of Negros is ſituated between the iſlands of Panay and Sibu; having its name on account of its inhabitants, who are blacks, but ſubject to Spain. The iſland of St. John lies E. of Mindanao, from which it is ſeparated by a narrow ſtreight. And the iſland of Xolo lies to the S. W. of them all. But the other iſlands are not remarkable.

Manila lying between the eaſtern and weſtern continents was once eſteemed the beſt ſituation in the world for trade; where ſilver was brought from Mexico and Peru as well as the produce of Europe: diamonds and precious ſtones from Golconda; cinnamon from Ceylon; pepper from Sumatra and Java; cloves and nutmegs from the Moluccas; camphire from Borneo; benjamin and ſilks from Cambaia; ſilks, tea, and China-ware, from China; and formerly there came every year from Japan two or three ſhips freighted with amber, ſilks, cabinets, and other varniſhed ware, in exchange for the produce of the Philippines: beſides, two veſſels ſailed every year from Acapulco, in Mexico, loaded with the riches of the Indies, and returned, as they do now, freighted with ſilver, making 400 *per cent* profit. No ſoil in the world

duces greater plenty of all things neceſſary for life; nor can any country appear more beautiful; there being a perpetual verdure; for buds, bloſſoms, and fruits are found upon the trees all the year round, as well on the mountains as in cultivated places.

The merchandiſes exported from theſe iſlands are gold, which is gathered in the mountains and rivers; bees-wax, rice, ſago, ſtuffs made of the bark of trees, cocoa-nuts, ſeſame and linſeed oil, iron, ſteel, ſaffron, timber, of which the Spaniards build their largeſt galleons, and ſeveral thouſands of animals ſkins, particularly thoſe of ſtags, and buffaloes, which are proper for the Japan trade.

Theſe iſlands alſo produce ſome nutmegs, cloves, betel, cocoa, and pepper: but the iſlanders only cultivate as much as is neceſſary for their uſe of the two former; for fear, if they planted more, the Dutch might pay them a viſit, and ſtrive to make themſelves maſters of this trade, as they have done of the Moluccas, and Banda iſlands.

A great number of jonks, and other Chineſe and Japoneſe ſhips arrive continually at Manila, laden with all the riches of their empires; to exchange them for thoſe of America, for which this town is the ſtaple.

Theſe nations trade there uſually from December to April, when thirty or forty of their largeſt ſhipping are ſeen in the road; and during the reſt of the year there are ſcarce leſs of all burdens than four or five hundred, belonging to the Spaniſh and Chineſe inhabitants of the iſlands, with which they trade in all parts of this Archipelago.

The Portugueſe have alſo a pretty good trade there; it being almoſt the only one they gain conſiderably by, ſince they loſt that of Japan.

Laſtly, of all nations, whether European or Indian, none are excluded the Philippines, but the Engliſh and Dutch; tho' the former have a kind of precarious trade there in the name of and under the Iriſh flag. The Engliſh alſo ſend ſhips from Fort St. George to the Manilles; but manned with Portugueſe pilots and ſailors.

The excluſion of the Dutch ſeems pretty well founded; this nation having ſeveral times attempted the poſſeſſion of theſe iſlands, particularly by the enterprize of 1649, which proved unſucceſsful.

The Chineſe are thoſe who trade moſt to the Philippines, and about 20,000 of them dwell in theſe iſlands, who are chiefly tradeſmen; the Spaniards, thro' their natural pride, diſdaining ſuch occupations.

The merchandiſes imported by the Chineſe, and other nations, are ſilk and cotton ſtuffs of all colours, raw and ſpun ſilk, wool, and ſpun cotton; gun-powder, ſulphur, iron, ſteel, tin, quick-ſilver, copper, wheat, flour, walnuts, cheſnuts, biſcuit, dates, porcelain, cabinet work, writing implements, lacquered ware, rice, all ſorts of drugs, ſaltpetre, cotton cloths, linens white and painted, head-dreſſes, and veils for women; ſeveral houſhold utenſils, ſilk fringes, and thread of all colours; laſtly, moſt kinds of European and Chineſe hard and haberdaſhery ware.

There are excellent loadſtones in theſe iſlands; and trees which produce a variety of gums, particularly one kind called *brea* by the Spaniards, who uſe it inſtead of pitch. They have alſo the ſalignan bird, which builds her neſt on the ſides of rocks, as the ſwallows do againſt a wall, which are the birds-neſts ſo much eſteemed, being a kind of jelly that diſſolves in warm water. Oranges and lemons are very plentiful; and there is alſo a tree called the amet, from whence the natives draw water; and likewiſe a kind of cane, called vexaco by the Spaniards, which if cut yields fair water enough for a draught: beſides, tobacco grows in great quantities in the iſland of Mindanao; as alſo ſugar, palm-wine, and ſaffron in the other iſlands, where proviſions are ſo cheap, that 12 buſhels of rice may be bought for 5 s. ſterling; a fowl for a penny, an ox for a crown, 100 lb. of ſugar for 3 s. 6 d. two large baſkets of ſaffron for 7 d. and a quintal of iron or ſteel for 5 s. 6 d.

PHILIPPUS. A gold Flemiſh coin, of indifferent alloy, and called in Germany *ride*. See *Ride*.

PHILONIUM, in pharmacy, an opiate, or electuary, whereof there are two kinds, the Roman and the Perſian. The Roman, called alſo the great philonium, took its name from the phyſician Philo, who invented it. It conſiſts of the ſeeds of henbane, pepper, opium, and other ingredients. It is uſed to promote ſleep, againſt colds, colics, &c. The Perſian philonium conſiſts of ſeveral ingredients, among which are opium, terra ſigillata, lapis hæmatites, caſtor, and ſaffron; being uſed to ſtop hæmorrhages, dyſenteries, &c.

PHILOSOPHY, is the ſtudy, or knowledge, of natural productions, and alſo of moral obligations; being commonly called moral and natural philoſophy. The natural philoſopher has always been looked upon as a great promoter of trade, by adapting his ſtudies to the diſcovery or improvement of ſuch arts as are eſſential to commerce, and of benefit to mankind.

PIANOSA. An iſland of Italy, in the Tuſcan ſea, ſituated in 11 deg. of E. lon. and 42 deg. 35 min. of N. lat. a little S. W. of the iſle of Elba, ſubject to Tuſcany.

PIASTRE, or *Piaſter*. A ſilver coin firſt ſtruck in Spain, afterwards in ſeveral other European ſtates, and current in moſt parts of the world; which is alſo called piece of eight, becauſe worth 8 rials of ſilver, or 3 s. 7 d. ſterling.

There are two ſorts of piaſters; the one coined at Potoſi, and called Peruvian; the other at Mexico, and called Mexican, which weigh ſomewhat more than the others, but are not of ſo pure a ſilver.

The piaſter has its diminutions, which are the half piaſter, or rial of 4; the quarter piaſter, or rial of 2; the 8th part of the piaſter, or rial; and the 16th, or half rial.

The old piaſtre is valued at 8 rials, and the new one at 10 rials of Plate; for 2 rials of Velon make but 1 rial of Plate; and there muſt be 16 rials of Velon to make but 1 piaſter of 8 rials, and 20 to make 1 piaſter of 10 rials.

Of the Spaniſh piaſters, peſo's, pieces of eight, or dollars, there are ſeveral ſorts; as the Mexico piece of eight, worth 4 s. $9\frac{1}{2}$ d. ſterling; the old Seville piaſter, worth 4 s. 6 d. ſterling; the new Seville piaſter, worth 3 s. 7 d. ſterling; and the Pillar dollar, worth 3 s. $7\frac{3}{4}$ d. ſterling.

There are alſo piaſters of other countries; as the piaſter-ecu, or crown of Milan, worth 4 s. 7 d. ſterling; the piaſter-ecu of Ferdinand II. Duke of Tuſcany, worth 4 s. 6 d. ſterling; the piaſter-ecu of Coſmus III. Duke of Tuſcany, worth 4 s. $3\frac{1}{2}$ d. ſterling; and the piaſter of Bologna, worth 4 s. 3 d. ſterling.

PIAVA. A river of Italy, which riſes in the Tyrol, and runs from north to ſouth through the territory of Venice, falling into the gulph by two mouths, a little to the northward of the city of Venice.

PIC. A large weight uſed in China, particularly at Canton, for the weighing of merchandiſes, and divided into 100 catis, ſome ſay 125; the catis into 16 taels, each tael making one ounce two drams; ſo that the pic makes 25 lb. avoirdupois.

PIC, is alſo a large Siameſe weight, making 125 lb. avoirdupois.

PICE, is a money of accompt in India. At Bengal it is 5-32ds of a penny ſterling, or 192 pices make the rupee of 2 s. 6 d. ſterling: at Bombay, 72 pices make the rupee; at Surat, 16 pices make the ana, and 4 anas the rupee; and at Carwar 288 pices make the Pagoda, or 9 s. ſterling.

PICE, is alſo a weight of India: at Bengal it is 8 drams; at Bombay it is 12 drams; and at Carwar, $6\frac{2}{3}$ drams.

PICHILI, or *Picoli*. A coin, and a money of accompt, uſed in Sicily, particularly at Meſſina and Palermo; 8 pichilis being worth 1 portti, and 720 the florin, or 1 s. $6\frac{1}{2}$ d. ſterling. The pichili of Venice is $\frac{5}{181}$ of an Engliſh penny, or 1488 make the current ducat of 3 s. 4 d. ſterling.

PICKLED *herrings*. See Herring *Fiſhery*.

PICOL. A weight uſed in China, for ſilk, containing 100 catis, or 133 lb. avoirdupos.

PICOL, is alſo a weight uſed in ſeveral parts of the continent, and

and iſlands of the Weſt Indies, where it is equal to 20 lb. avoirdupois.

PICOTIN. A ſort of ſmall meaſure, for oats, uſed in France; containing 4 litrons, or the fourth part of a buſhel.

PICQ, or *Pico*. A long meaſure uſed in Turky, containing 2 feet, 2 inches, and 2 lines; 100 picqs making 43⅓ Engliſh ells.

PICQ-*carpets*, is a term at Smyrna for the ſecond ſort of Turkiſh or Perſian carpets, purchaſed there by the nations that trade to the Levant; being ſo called, becauſe they are not ſold by the piece, but by the ſquare picq.

PICTURE. A piece of painting, or a ſubject repreſented in colours on canvas, wood, or the like, and incloſed in a frame. See *Painting*.

PIECE, in commerce, ſignifies ſometimes a whole, and ſometimes only a part of the whole. In the firſt ſenſe it is ſaid, a piece of cloth, velvet, &c. meaning a certain quantity of yards, regulated by cuſtom, being yet entire, and not cut. In the other ſignification, it is ſaid, a piece of tapeſtry, meaning a diſtinct member wrought apart, which, with ſeveral others, make but one hanging.

PIECE, in matters of money, ſignifies ſometimes the ſame with ſpecies; as when it is ſaid, this piece is too light, &c. ſometimes by adding the value of the pieces, it is uſed to expreſs ſuch as have no other particular name; as a piece of 8 rials, a piece of 25 ſols, &c.

In England, the piece abſolutely is ſometimes uſed for 20 s. ſterling, and ſometimes for a guinea.

By the 6th George II. chap. 25. broad pieces of 25 or 23 s. value, or halves or quarters thereof, are called in, and all perſons are forbid to receive or utter them by tale.

PIECE *of eight*, or *piaſtre*, is a ſilver money, firſt ſtruck in Spain. See *Piaſtre*.

PIECE, is alſo a kind of money of accompt, or rather a manner of accompting, uſed among the negroes on the coaſt of Angola in Africa. The price of ſlaves, and other commodities negotiated here, as alſo the duties paid the petty kings, are eſtimated on both ſides in pieces. Thus thoſe people requiring 10 pieces for a ſlave, the Europeans in like manner value the money on merchandiſe, to be given in exchange, in pieces; as 10 anabaſtes are one piece, a barrel of powder of 10 pounds one piece, a piece of blue ſalempouris four pieces, and 10 braſs baſons one piece.

PIECE-*broker*, is a ſhopkeeper in London, who buys the ſhreds and remnants of all materials that go through the hands of the taylor, and ſells them again to ſuch perſons as want them for mending cloaths; being generally decayed taylors, or ſome cunning men who have crept into the ſecrets of the trade.

PIE POUDER *court*. An antient court mentioned in many Engliſh ſtatutes, to be held in fairs, for the rendering of juſtice to buyers and ſellers, and the redreſs of grievances ariſing therein. It had its name becauſe moſt ordinarily held in ſummer, and that the ſuitors hereat were chiefly country clowns, with duſty feet, called by the French *pieds poudreux*; or from the expedition intended in the hearing of cauſes proper thereto, before the duſt went off the plaintiffs and defendants feet. The Saxons called it ceapunȝ ȝemoт, that is, a court of merchandiſe, or for the deciſion of diſputes relating to buying and ſelling: but it is only held during the continuance of the fairs. See *Fair*.

PIETOT. A ſmall copper coin, ſtruck and current in the iſland of Malta, being worth 32-320ths of a penny ſterling.

It has on one ſide the arms of the grand maſter, with this inſcription, *F* 10 *Paulus Laſcaris Caſtellarum M.M.M.* about a ſpread eagle; and on the reverſe a 3, denoting its value.

PIG *of lead*. The eighth part of a fodder; amounting to 250 lb. weight.

PIGNATELLA. A ſmall liquid meaſure uſed at Apulia, and ſome parts of Calabria in Italy, about a Wincheſter pint.

PIGNATELLI. A ſmall billon coin, ſtruck at Rome, and current for about a halfpenny ſterling.

PIKE, in commerce. To treat at the pike, or pike's end, *a la pique*, denotes a kind of commerce which the Europeans hold with certain unciviliſed nations, wherein they are to keep on their guard, and as it were ſword in hand. Thus it is they treat with the Indians of Canada, &c. and ſome negro nations on the coaſt of Africa. Treating at the pike, is alſo a kind of prohibited traffic, which the Engliſh, French, and Dutch maintain in ſeveral parts of the Spaniſh Weſt Indies, near the colonies which thoſe nations have in the Caribbee iſlands: but perhaps it ſhould be called treating at pike, that is, with the veſſel at anchor; in regard this commerce, which is prohibited on pain of death, is only practiſed in roads where veſſels lie at anchor, waiting for the Spaniſh merchants, who ſometimes by ſtealth, more frequently with the connivance of the governors, &c. come to exchange their gold, pieces of eight, cochineal, &c. for the European merchandiſes. Others will have it treating at the pike, at a pike's length or diſtance, by reaſon of the diſtance ſtrangers are obliged to keep at.

PILAW. A port-town of Poland, in the territory of ducal Pruſſia, ſituated in 20 deg. of E. lon. and 54 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. on the Baltic ſea, 10 miles W. of Koningſburg, ſubject to the King of Pruſſia.

PILCHARD, and *Pilchard fiſhery*. See Pilchard *Fiſhery*.

PILE, is uſed in building for a great ſtake rammed into the earth, for a foundation to build upon in marſhy grounds: thus Amſterdam and other cities are wholly built upon piles.

PILE, is alſo uſed among architects for a maſs or body of building.

PILE, or *Pila*, in coinage, denotes a kind of puncheon, which in the old way of coining with the hammer, contained the arms, croſs, or other figure and inſcription, to be ſtruck for the reverſe of the ſpecies: accordingly, the arms-ſide of a piece of money is ſtill called the pile, and the head the croſs; becauſe in the antient Engliſh monies a croſs uſually took the place of the head.

PILLOW, in a ſhip. That timber whereon the boltſprit lies, bears, or reſts, at the coming out of the hull of the ſhip aloft by the ſtern, is called the pillow of the boltſprit.

PILOT. A perſon retained on board a ſhip, to conduct it into a road or harbour, or over bars, ſands, or through ſerpentine or intricate channels, or the like. Pilots are not conſtant and ſtanding officers on board veſſels, but are moſtly called in occaſionally on coaſts and ſhores unknown to the maſter; and having done their parts in piloting the veſſel, return to ſhore where they reſide. Among the French, pilot is alſo uſed for ſteerſman, or an officer on board a ſhip, who watches her courſe, and rects it.

There are two kinds of pilots; the one a coaſting pilot well acquainted with the coaſts, ports, roads, bars, ſands, &c. and who commands in ſight thereof; the other an officer who makes obſervations, and takes altitudes of at ſea, uſes the quadrant, foreſtaff, watches the compaſs, &c.

The pilot is always the ſecond perſon in the ſhip, whether it be a man of war, or a merchant-man. In the former the captain is the firſt, the pilot after him. The pilot is alſo the ſteerſman, who ſtands at the helm, and manages the rudder.

In the treatiſe of naval trade, under the articles of *pilots* and *lodeſmen*, the following laws are collected.

By the ſea-laws of Wiſbuy, every pilot, mate, or mariner, that does not underſtand his buſineſs, ſhall be obliged to repay to the maſter whatever wages he advanced him, and beſides be bound to pay half as much more as he had promiſed him. The laws of Denmark puniſh an ignorant pilot, by ſentencing him to paſs thrice under the ſhip's keel. And by the laws of Oleron, if a pilot undertakes the conduct of a veſſel, to bring her to a port, and fail of his duty therein, ſo as the ſhip miſcarry by reaſon of his ignorance in what he undertook, and the merchant receives damage thereby, he ſhall be obliged to make ſatisfaction for the ſame, if he have wherewithal; and if he hath not, or where the fault of

pilot is apparently groſs, that the ſhip's crew ſee an apparent wreck, they may lead him to the hatches, and ſtrike off his head.

The laws of France ordain, that no perſon ſhall be received as pilot, nor perform that function, till he has made ſeveral voyages, and paſſed a ſtrict examination as to his knowledge and experience in navigation; and he ſhall be obliged for proving his voyages, to produce the journals thereof. The pilot ſhall provide himſelf with all maps, books, and inſtruments, neceſſary for his art: and in long voyages he ſhall have two journals; in one of which he is to write the changes of the courſes and winds, the days and hours of the changes, the leagues which he believes the ſhip has ſailed in each; alſo the reductions in latitude and longitude, the variations of the compaſs, together with the ſounds and ſhores he has diſcovered; and in the other, he ſhall write out once in 24 hours, courſes, longitude and latitude reduced, and the latitudes obſerved, with all other remarkable things diſcovered during the voyage; and at the return of ſuch long voyages, ſhall lodge a copy of his journal in the admiralty, on pain of 50 livres, or 40 s. 6 d. ſterling.

And by the ſame laws, if a pilot by ignorance or negligence occaſion the loſs of a ſhip, he ſhall pay 100 livres fine, or 4 l. 1 s. ſterling, and be for ever deprived of the exerciſe of pilotage; and if he does it deſignedly, he ſhall be puniſhed with death. But no maſters of ſhips ſhall force pilots to paſs through dangerous places, or to ſteer courſes againſt their will; and in caſe there be difference in opinion, they ſhall be governed by the advice of the moſt expert mariners. When a ſhip comes to a harbour or river, and the maſter does not know the coaſt nor the river, he ought to take a pilot of that country to carry her up the river or harbour; which pilot ſhall be maintained by the maſter, and paid by the merchant. Alſo, if it is thought convenient in any river, or off any dangerous coaſt, to take aboard a pilot of the country; though the merchant oppoſes it, if the maſter, the ſhip's pilot, and the major part of the ſeamen are for it, he may be hired; and ſhall be paid by the ſhip and cargo, as averages are calculated for goods thrown overboard.

The maſter of the ſhip generally in charter-parties covenants to find a pilot, and the merchant agrees to pay him his pilotage. Though if a ſhip ſhould be loſt coming up the river under the charge of the pilot, it has been a queſtion, whether the maſter ſhould anſwer for the inſufficiency of the pilot, or whether the merchant may have his remedy againſt both? But it has been conceived, that the merchant has his election to charge either; and if he charges the maſter, then the maſter muſt have his remedy againſt the pilot. After the ſhip is brought into ſure harbour, the pilot is no further liable; for then the maſter is to ſee to her bed and lying, and has all the charge upon himſelf; ſo that he muſt anſwer all danger and hazard, except that of the act of God: but before ſhe arrives at her place or bed, and while ſhe is under the pilot's care, if ſhe or her goods periſh or be ſpoiled, the pilot ſhall make good the damage.

By ſtatute 3d George I. it was enacted, That if any perſon ſhall take upon him to conduct and pilot any ſhip or veſſel, by or from Dover, Deal, or the iſle of Thanet, to any place on the river Thames or Medway, before he has been examined by the maſter and wardens of the ſociety of Trinity-houſe; and ſhall be approved and admitted into the ſaid ſociety at a court of load-manage by the lord warden of the cinque ports, or his deputy, and the ſaid maſter and wardens; every ſuch perſon for the firſt offence ſhall forfeit 10 l. for the ſecond 20 l. and for every other offence 40 l.

That the maſter, and ſuch two wardens of the ſaid ſociety as ſhall be appointed to examine into the ſkill and ability of any perſon on his being admitted as a pilot, ſhall take the following oath, to be given them by the regiſter of the ſaid court of load manage, or his deputy, *viz.*

"I *A. B.* do ſwear, That I will impartially examine and "inquire into the capacity and ſkill of *T. D.* of, &c. in "the art of pilotage over the Flats, and round the Long-"ſand-head, and the coaſts of Flanders and Holland, and "will make true and ſpeedy return thereof to the lord "warden of the cinque ports for the time being, or his "deputy, without favour, affection, fee, or reward. So "help me God."

That the number of ſuch pilots ſhall not be leſs than 120, whoſe names, ages, and places of abode, ſhall yearly be affixed in ſome public place at the cuſtomhouſes at London and Dover, to which all perſons may have recourſe; and not returning liſts, the maſter and wardens of the ſaid ſociety ſhall forfeit 10 l.

That this act ſhall not prevent the maſter or mate of any ſhip or veſſel, or any part-owner, reſiding at Dover or Deal, or the iſle of Thanet, from piloting his own ſhip from any of the ſaid places up the ſaid rivers; nor ſubject any perſons, though not of that ſociety, to the penalties before mentioned, who ſhall be employed by any maſter to pilot his veſſel from the places aforeſaid, when none of the ſaid ſociety ſhall, within one hour after the arrival of ſuch ſhip or veſſel at any of the ſaid places, be ready to pilot the ſame. And maſters of merchant-ſhips may make choice of ſuch pilot of the ſaid ſociety as they ſhall think fit: alſo no perſon ſhall continue in this ſociety, who ſhall not pilot a ſhip at leaſt twice in one year, unleſs prevented by ſickneſs, to and from the places above mentioned.

That for preventing any exorbitant demands from theſe pilots, for conducting any ſhip or veſſel from Dover, Deal, or the iſle of Thanet, to any places on the river Thames and Medway, the following, and no greater, prices ſhall be taken or demanded, than are here mentioned. For every ſhip or veſſel drawing ſeven feet water 3 l. 10 s. for eight feet water 4 l. nine feet water 4 l. 10 s. ten feet water 5 l. eleven feet water 5 l. 10 s. twelve feet water 6 l. thirteen feet water 6 l. 10 s. fourteen feet water 7 l. fifteen feet water 7 l. 10 s. ſixteen feet water 8 l. ſeventeen feet water 8 l. 10 s. and no allowance to be made for odd inches.

In this act there is likewiſe a clauſe, empowering the lord warden of the cinque ports, to nominate three perſons there to adjuſt differences between the maſter of any ſhip and others, where ſhips by bad weather are forced from their anchors and cables, for ſaving and bringing them aſhore: and this act is not to hinder any perſon from aſſiſting a ſhip in diſtreſs there.

By the 7th George I. c. 21. the lord warden of the cinque ports, with the aſſent of the commiſſioners of load-manage, and of the maſters and wardens of the ſociety of pilots of the Trinity-houſe of the cinque ports, at a court of load-manage held by the ſaid lord warden, or his deputy, may make ſuch rules and ordinances for the better government of the pilots reſiding at Dover, Deal, and the iſle of Thanet, as ſhall be thought convenient; and may order a ſufficient number of the pilots living at Dover, &c. not leſs than eighteen, to ply conſtantly at ſea, to be ready to conduct ſuch ſhips up the rivers of Thames and Medway, as ſhall have occaſion for them: and the ſaid lord warden, &c. at a court of load-manage, may ſuſpend or deprive any of the ſaid pilots, for breaking the rules or orders; and if any pilot ſo ſuſpended or deprived, ſhall undertake to conduct any ſhip by or from Dover, Deal, &c. to any place in or upon the ſaid river of Thames, &c. he ſhall be liable to all ſuch pains and penalties as are ordained by the before mentioned act of 3d Geo. I. againſt ſuch perſons as ſhall conduct ſhips from and to the places aforeſaid, without being firſt examined and approved of by the maſter and wardens of the ſaid ſociety at the ſaid court, and admitted into the ſame.

By the ſtatute 5th George II. it was enacted, That no perſon ſhall undertake the charge of any ſhip or veſſel as pilot thereof down the river Thames, or through the north channel to or by Orfordneſs, or round the Long-ſand-head into the Downs, or down the ſouth channel into the Downs, or from or by Orfordneſs up the north channel, or the river Thames, or river Medway, but ſuch as ſhall be licenſed to act as a pilot by the maſter, wardens, and aſſiſtants of the Trinity-houſe of Deptford-Strond, under the common ſeal of the corporation, on pain of forfeiting 20 l. being convicted before two juſti-

ces of peace for the city of London, or the counties of Middleſex, Eſſex, Kent, or Surrey, within their reſpective juriſdictions: but maſters of ſhips in the coal-trade, or other coaſting trade, are not obliged to employ a pilot.

That the pilots to be ſo admitted and licenſed, ſhall be ſubject to the government of the ſaid corporation, provided their regulations do not relate to the pilots keeping of turns, or to ſettling the rates of pilotage; and ſhall pay the antient dues, ſo as the ſame do not exceed 1 s. in the pound, out of ſuch pilot's hire or wages, for the uſe of the poor of the ſaid corporation, within ten days after the ſervice of any pilots ſhall be ended. And in caſe ſuch pilots ſhall refuſe to take the charge of any of his Majeſty's ſhips, when appointed thereto by the corporation; or ſhall miſbehave themſelves in the conduct of any ſhips, or other part of their duty; or if pilots ſhall refuſe to obey any ſummons of the ſaid corporation, or ſuch orders as they ſhall make, then the general court of the corporation, upon examination thereof, are required to recal the warrants granted to ſuch pilots; and if, after notice of it given to them in perſon, or left at their place of abode, they ſhall act as pilots within the limits aforementioned, they ſhall be ſubject to the penalties inflicted on unlicenſed pilots.

That this ſtatute ſhall not extend to the impeaching of any of the franchiſes, nor to take away the ſole right of piloting merchant-ſhips from or by Dover, Deal, and the iſle of Thanet, up the rivers Thames and Medway, granted and allowed to the ſociety and fellowſhip of the maſter, wardens, and pilots of the Trinity-houſe of Dover, Deal, and the iſle of Thanet, by the ſtatute 3d George I. c. 13.

And that nothing herein ſhall impeach any privileges heretofore granted to, or which by antient uſage have been enjoyed by the pilots of the Trinity-houſe of Kingſton upon Hull, or the Trinity-houſe of Newcaſtle upon Tyne.

Nor to prejudice any juriſdiction of the mayor, or of the mayor, commonalty, and citizens of London upon the river Thames; nor any juriſdiction belonging to the office of lord high admiral.

By the ſtatute of the 23d of George II. the above acts were continued until the 25th of March 1764, and from thence to the end of the next enſuing parliament.

PILOTAGE, is ſometimes applied to the pay or wages given to a pilot; and ſometimes it means the duty, office, or buſineſs, of ſuch a perſon.

PIMENTO, *Piementa*, *All-ſpice*. A kind of aromatic berry. See *Pepper*.

PIN, in commerce. A little neceſſary implement, chiefly uſed by the women in the adjuſting of their dreſs. The form and application of this little moveable require no deſcription; but its conſumption, and the number of hands it employs, are too conſiderable to be paſſed by unnoted. Pins are now altogether made of braſs-wire blanched. Formerly they likewiſe made them of iron wire; which being blanched like the others, paſſed for braſs; but the ill effects of thoſe pins has quite diſcarded their uſe. The French, however, could not be driven off from them without ſeveral arrets of parliament: for by a ſentence of the lieutenant de police, July 1695, the ſeizure of ſome millions of thoſe pins was confirmed, and the pins condemned to be burnt by the common executioner.

The pins moſt eſteemed in commerce are thoſe of England; thoſe of Bourdeaux are next; then thoſe made at Rugle, Naigle, and ſome places in Normandy.

The perfection of pins conſiſts in the ſtiffneſs of the wire, and its blanching, in the heads being well turned, and the points filed. The London pointing and blanching are moſt in repute; becauſe here, after forming the points on the ſtone, the pinmakers ſmooth them again on the poliſher; and in blanching uſe fine tin, well calcined, and ſometimes ſilver leaves prepared by the gold-beaters: whereas in other parts they uſe a mixture of tin, lead, and quickſilver; which not only blanches worſe than the former, but is alſo dangerous, by reaſon of the ill quality of that mineral, which renders a puncture with a pin thus blanched very difficult to cure.

The conſumption of pins, and the number of artificers employed in the manufacture thereof, are incredible. In Paris alone there were antiently above a thouſand people employed in it. At preſent there are none; yet there is every year ſold to the value of about 12,000 l. ſterling of the pin-wire to the pinmakers of the neighbouring places, all brought thither from Stockholm. In the little town of Rugle in Normandy, there are computed at leaſt 500 workmen employed in the pin manufacture, the whole town being peopled therewith. Notwithſtanding there is ſcarce any commodity cheaper than pins, there is none that paſſes through more hands before they come to be ſold; for they reckon 25 workmen ſucceſſively employed in each pin, between the drawing of the braſs-wire, and the ſticking of the pin in the paper.

Pins are diſtinguiſhed by numero's; the ſmaller called from No. 3. 4. 5. thence to the 14th; whence they are only accounted by two and two, as No. 16. 18. and 20. which is the largeſt ſize. Beſides the white pins, there are alſo black ones, made for mourning, from No. 4. to No. 10. which are uſually made of iron-wire. Laſtly, there are pins with double heads, of ſeveral numero's, uſed by the ladies to fix the buckles of their hair for the night, without danger of being diſturbed by their pricking, &c. One of the articles of the antient pinmakers of Paris was, that no maſter ſhould open more than one ſhop for the ſale of his wares, except on new-year's-day, and the eve thereof. This is mentioned in an age of luxury and profuſion, to recollect the agreeable ſimplicity of former times, when people contented themſelves with giving pins for new years-gifts. Hence the cuſtom of ſtill giving the name pins, or pin-money, to certain preſents, which accompany the moſt conſiderable bargains; wherein it is uſual to give ſomething towards the pins of the wife, or children, of the perſon with whom the bargain is ſtruck.

PINMAKER. A perſon who follows the trade of making pins of braſs-wire for womens uſe, firſt introduced into England under the glorious reign of Queen Elizabeth.

PINMAKERS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent in the 11th of Charles I. dated the 20th of Auguſt 1636, by the name of The maſter, wardens, aſſiſtants, and commonalty of the art or myſtery of pinmakers of the city of London; who conſiſt of a maſter, 2 wardens, and 18 aſſiſtants; but without either hall or livery.

PINASSES. An Eaſt India ſtuff, made of the bark of trees.

PINE. A tall ſtraight tree, which bears a fruit divided into many parts like an artichoke; and affords a ſort of reſin or pitch, which oozes from inciſions made in its trunk and largeſt branches. See *Pitch*.

PINE-*apple*. See *Ananas*.

PINES *iſland*. A ſmall iſland on the north-coaſt of Darien or Terra firma, in America, ſituated in 80 deg. of W. lon. and 9 deg. of N. lat.; being 120 miles eaſt of Porto-Bello; which, with two other ſmall iſlands and the main, form a good harbour.

PINK. A veſſel uſed at ſea, maſted and rigged like other ſhips; only that ſhe is built with a round ſtern, the bends and ribs compaſſing ſo as that her ſides bulge out very much. This diſpoſition renders the pinks very difficult to be boarded, and alſo enables them to carry greater burdens than others; whence they are often uſed for ſtore-ſhips and hoſpital ſhips in the fleet.

PINNACE. A ſmall veſſel, with a ſquare ſtern, having ſails and oars, and carrying three maſts; chiefly uſed as a ſcout for intelligence, and for landing of men. One of the boats belonging to a great man of war, ſerving to carry the officers to and from the ſhore, is alſo called the pinnace.

PINT. A veſſel, or meaſure, uſed in eſtimating the quantity of liquids, and even ſometimes of dry things. The Engliſh pint is twofold; the one for wine meaſure, the other for beer and ale meaſure. The wine-pint contains a full pound avoirdupois of common running water; two pints make a quart, two quarts a pottle, and two pottles a gallon.

The Paris pint is eſtimated at 1-6th of the antient congius, and contains two pounds of common water. It

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divided into chopins, which ſome call ſeptiers; the ſeptier into two demi-ſeptiers, and the demi-ſeptiers into two poiſſons, each poiſſon containing 6 cubic inches. Two pints make a quart, or quarteau, which ſome call a pot; but the pint of St. Denis is almoſt double to that of Paris.

PINTLES, in a ſhip, are hooks, by which the rudder hangs to the ſtern-poſt.

PIOMBIONO. A city and port-town of Italy, in the duchy of Tuſcany, ſituated in 11 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 43 deg. of N. lat. 30 miles ſouth of Leghorn.

PIPE, is a popular machine, uſed in the ſmoaking of tobacco; conſiſting of a long ſlender tube, made of earth or clay. Pipes are made of various faſhions, long, ſhort, plain, worked, white, varniſhed, unvarniſhed, of various colours, &c. The Dutch tobacco pipes are moſt in eſteem; but the Engliſh pipemakers at Cheſter and Broſeley equal the Dutch. The Turks uſe pipes three or four feet long, made of ruſhes, or of wood bored; at the end of which they fix a kind of nut, of baked earth; which ſerves as a bowl, and which they take off after ſmoaking.

PIPE, alſo denotes a veſſel, or meaſure, for wine, and things meaſured by wine-meaſure. See *Meaſure*.

The pipe or butt contains two hogſheads, 2 barrels, or 126 gallons, and is computed to weigh about 900, 2 qrs, and 17 lb. See *Hogſhead*, &c.

The pipe is little uſed in France, except in Anjou and Poictou, where it conſiſts of two boiſſeaux, equal to a muid and a half of Paris; the muid containing three fuillets, or 300 pints.

PIPEMAKER, is a perſon who makes tobacco-pipes, and ſells them by the groce to grocers, chiefly in the country, and in London to the publicans.

PIPELY. A port-town of India, in Aſia, ſituated in 86 deg. of E. lon. and 21 deg. of N. lat. on the weſt-ſide of the bay of Bengal, a little eaſt of the bay of Baliſore, where the French and Dutch have factories.

PIRANO. A port of Iſtria, in the territory of Venice, ſituated in 14 deg. of E. lon. and 45 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. on a bay of the gulph of Venice, 10 miles ſouth of Cabo de Iſtria.

PIRATE, or *Pyrate*, *Pirata*, *Rover*, or *Corſair*. A perſon, or veſſel, that robs on the high ſeas, or makes deſcents on the coaſts, &c. without the permiſſion or authority of any prince or ſtate.

Pirates are enemies to all; for which reaſon neither faith nor oath is to be kept with them. They are denied ſuccour by the laws of nations; and the law of arms is not communicated to ſuch, for they are not capable of enjoying that privilege which lawful enemies are entitled to in the caption of another.

And it is obſerved, that pirates, though ſo called, are not properly termed enemies. A company of pirates or freebooters make not a commonwealth, notwithſtanding they may keep a kind of equality among themſelves, without which no company is able to ſubſiſt; and though it is ſeldom they are free from fault, yet hold ſociety to maintain right; and they do it to others, at leaſt on agreements made between them, or according to cuſtom: but when a company of them forming themſelves into a ſociety, ſubmit to laws, and are acknowledged as a ſtate, they cannot afterwards be treated as pirates, but as enemies.

In the Mediterranean ſea, Algiers, Tripoli, and Tunis, with ſome other towns on the coaſt of Barbary, are only inhabited by pirates that live by no other means. It is true, at the firſt eſtabliſhment of their predeceſſors, who were a ſett of diſcontented mariners, and other debauchees and renegadoes of all nations, it was not thought fit to allow them the privileges granted to other ſtates, or civil ſocieties of men; yet they having afterwards modelled themſelves into a formal method of government, and acknowledged the grand ſignior as their ſovereign, the kings of England, as well as other princes, have concluded ſolemn treaties with them.

Though it is unqueſtionably for the intereſt as well as honour of all princes to ſuppreſs pirates, and not ſuffer them to have any refuge or retreat within the extent of their dominions; and princes and ſtates ought to be reſponſible for their neglect, if they do not provide ſhips of war, and other remedies for reſtraining theſe ſort of robbers; and although it be a queſtion, how far they are bound by the civil or common law of England; the Engliſh monarchs have been at a conſiderable charge for the reduction of theſe wretches, who are the common diſturbers of the peace of the univerſe, and the greateſt plague to trade and commerce.

If piracy be attempted on the ocean, and the pirates are vanquiſhed, the captors may in ſuch caſe immediately inflict a puniſhment, by hanging them up at the main-yard end, and they are not obliged to bring them to any port; but this is underſtood only in places where no legal judgment can be obtained. And therefore if a ſhip ſhall be on a voyage to America, &c. on a diſcovery of unknown parts of the world, and in her way ſhe is attacked by a pirate, but in the attempt the pirate is overcome; by the law-marine the veſſel immediately becomes the captors, and the pirates may be forthwith executed, without any ſolemnity of condemnation. In other caſes, if the captors bring them to the next port, and the judge neglects their trial; or the captors cannot wait for the judgment without certain peril and loſs, juſtice may be done upon them by the captors.

By the law-maritime, if goods are taken by a pirate, and afterwards the pirate making an attack upon another ſhip, is conquered in ſuch attempt, the prize ſhall be abſolutely the captors; and it is accounted in law a juſt caption of whatſoever may be got, or taken from them, be the ſame in their own or their ſucceſſors poſſeſſion: but then an account muſt be rendered to the admiral, who may make reſtitution thereof to the owners, if they are fellow-ſubjects of the captors, or belong to any ſtate in amity with his ſovereign, on paying the coſts and charges, and making the captor ſuch equitable conſideration as ſhall be decreed for his ſervice.

If an Engliſhman commits piracy on the ſubjects of any prince or ſtate in amity with the crown of England, he is within the ſtatute of 28th Henry VIII. and may be convicted of felony: and ſo it is, if the ſubjects of any other nation or kingdom, being in amity with the King of England, ſhall commit piracy on the ſhips or goods of the Engliſh, the ſame is felony, and puniſhable by virtue of that act; as it was adjudged where the captain of a French man of war, and divers others, attacked four merchant-ſhips going from the port of Briſtol to Carmaerthen, and robbed them of about 1000 l. for which he and the reſt were arraigned, and found guilty of the piracy.

Before the 25th Edward III. if the ſubjects of a foreign nation, and ſome Engliſh, had joined together, and committed piracy, it would have been treaſon in the Engliſh, and felony in the foreigners; and there is an inſtance in our books of one that was a Norman being found guilty of felony in ſuch a caſe, and ſome Engliſhmen of treaſon, who were drawn and hanged: but at this day they ſhall both receive judgment as felons, by our laws and ſtatutes. In caſe any ſubjects in enmity with England ſhall be ſailors aboard an Engliſh pirate with others that are Engliſh, and then a robbery is done by them, it is felony without queſtion in the Engliſh; but not in the ſtrangers, for it was no piracy in them, but the depredation of an enemy, for which they ſhall be tried by martial law, and have judgment accordingly.

Piracies committed in the Britiſh ſeas by ſubjects of any nation in amity with England, are properly puniſhable by that crown only. And if a Spaniard robs a Frenchman on the high ſea, both their princes being then in amity, and they alſo with the crown of England, and the ſhip is brought into a port of the King of England, the Frenchman may there proceed criminally againſt the Spaniard to puniſh him, and civilly to have a reſtitution of the veſſel. If a merchant loſe his goods and merchandiſe at ſea by piracy, &c. not being wrecked, and they afterwards come to land, on making proof of the property, they ſhall be reſtored: and where a pirate takes goods upon the ſea, and ſells them, the property is not hereby changed, no more than if a thief on the land had ſtolen and ſold them. Yet by the common law of England, if a man commits

a piracy upon any other prince's ſubjects, and ſhall then bring the goods into the kingdom, and ſell them in a market overt, the ſame ſhall be binding, and all perſons concluded.

It is ſaid, where a ſhip or goods taken by pirates, are carried into a port, and there ſold, that the taking being originally within the admiral's juriſdiction, it continues ſo as incident thereto. It is otherwiſe when a ſhip is taken by enemies, for in that caſe the property is altered. The owners having ſent a ſhip to the Indies to merchandiſe, in the voyage the mariners committed piracy on the ſea; and when the ſhip returned into the Thames, ſhe and all the goods were ſeized and claimed by the admiral as *bona piratorum*, by virtue of the king's grant. But by Coke, though the admiral had ſuch grant of pirates goods, that muſt be intended of their proper goods, and not thoſe which they got by piracy.

A ſhip is riding at anchor, and the mariners part in their ſhip-boat, and the reſt on ſhore, ſo that none are left in the ſhip; if a pirate ſhall attack her, and commit any robbery, the ſame is piracy. But in caſe a pirate enters a port or haven, and aſſaults and robs a merchant-ſhip at anchor there, this is not piracy, becauſe it is not done upon the high ſeas; for it is a downright robbery at the common law, the act being *infra corpus comitatus*. If the crime be committed either *ſuper altum mare*, or in great rivers within the realm, which are looked upon as common highways, there it is piracy. Though a ſhip being at ſea, and in great neceſſity, may attack another ſhip, and take out ſome victuals, cables, ropes, anchors, or ſails, if that other ſhip can poſſibly ſpare them, without being guilty of piracy, on paying ready money for ſuch things, or giving ſecurity for payment of the value.

If a bale of merchandiſe be delivered to a maſter of a ſhip to carry over ſea to ſuch a port, and he goes away with it to another port, and there diſpoſes of the ſame, it is no felony or piracy: but if he opens the bale, and takes any thing out, with a felonious intent, he may be indicted for it in the admiralty, though it amounts not to a piracy.

And if ſuch maſter of a ſhip ſhall carry the lading to the port appointed, and after retake the whole bale of goods back again, this may amount to piracy; for he being in the nature of a common carrier, the delivery had taken its effect, and the privity of it is determined.

In caſe a ſhip ſhall be attacked by a pirate, who only takes away ſome of the men, in order to the ſelling them for ſlaves, this is piracy: and if a pirate attacks a ſhip, and the maſter for redemption gives his oath for a certain ſum of money, though there be no taking, yet is the ſame piracy by the law-marine: but by the common law of England there muſt be an actual taking, if it be but for a penny, as in caſe of robbery on the highway.

A maſter of a ſhip is aſſaulted by pirates: if he does his utmoſt to defend himſelf, but is taken by force; here, if for redeeming the veſſel, he becomes a ſlave to the captors, by the law-maritime the ſhip and cargo are tacitly obliged to contribute to his redemption. But where the maſter of a ſhip, by his own folly and negligence, is ſurpriſed by a pirate, who takes him priſoner; as if the pirate ſhall feign himſelf ſtranded, and to decoy the merchant-man for his relief, ſhall fire his guns, or give other ſignal, and ſuch ſhip accordingly varies its courſe for his aſſiſtance, whereupon the pirate enters him, and to redeem which he is made a ſlave; in this caſe there ſhall not be any contribution. And if the ſhip loſes any of her lading, the maſter ſhall anſwer the ſame.

If any pirate at ſea aſſault a ſhip, and in the engagement kills a perſon in the other ſhip, though he does not enter her; by the common law, all the perſons on board the pirate-ſhips are principals in the murder; but by the law-marine, they who gave the wound only ſhall be principals, and the reſt acceſſaries, if the parties can be known. And when a man is in cuſtody for piracy, and any one aſſiſts him to make his eſcape, although the offences be committed at land, as the court of admiralty has power to puniſh the principal, ſo it may the other offender as an acceſſary to the piracy.

It has been holden, that there cannot be an acceſſary of piracy, by the antient law of England; but if it happens

that there is an acceſſary upon the ſea, ſuch acceſſary may be puniſhed by the civil law, before the lord admiral: and it was made a doubt, whether one who was acceſſary at land to a felony at ſea, was triable by the admiral, within the purview of 28th Henry VIII. Though this is ſettled by 11th and 12th William III. which provides that acceſſaries to piracy, before or after, ſhall be enquired of, tried, and adjudged according to the ſaid ſtatute.

Antiently when any merchants were robbed at ſea, or there ſpoiled of their goods, the king iſſued out commiſſions under the great ſeal of England, to enquire of ſuch depredations and robberies; and to puniſh the parties offending, and alſo award damages to the perſons injured, according to the laws and cuſtoms of England, the law of merchants, and of the marine, *ſecundum legem & conſuetudinem Angliæ*, *ſecundum legem mercatorium*, & *legem maritimam*, all three laws being included in the commiſſions; and it has been uſual to try pirates by ſuch ſpecial commiſſions.

By the ſtatute 28th Henry VIII. c. 15. the preamble of which recites, that matters criminal in pirates were not puniſhable by the common law, but the ſame was determined and adjudged by the admiral, after the courſe of the civil law; it is enacted, That all robberies and felonies committed by pirates at ſea, &c. ſhall be enquired into, tried and determined in any county of England, by the king's commiſſion limiting the ſame, in like manner as if ſuch offences were done at land; and the commiſſion, being under the great ſeal, ſhall be directed to the lord high admiral, &c. and three or four other perſons as ſhall be named by the lord chancellor; which ſaid commiſſioners, or three of them, have power to enquire into, hear and determine ſuch offences by twelve lawful men of the county, ſo limited in their commiſſion, as if the offences had been done at land within the ſame county, and according to the courſe of the common law of the kingdom.

And every indictment ſo found and preferred, ſhall be good in law; and ſuch order, proceſs, judgment, and execution, be had, made and awarded thereupon, againſt offenders for any felony done upon the land and perſons convicted of offences, ſhall ſuffer death without benefit of clergy, and forfeit lands and goods, as if attainted of felony, &c. on land.

This ſtatute does not alter the offence of piracy, but leaves it as it was before, that is, felony only by the civil law; but gives a trial according to the common law, and inflicts pains of death, &c. as if the offenders had been convicted of any felony done upon the land; and no attainder for this offence corrupts the blood, the ſtatute mentioning only that the offender ſhall ſuffer death, loſs of lands, &c. but ſays not that the blood ſhall be corrupted. Likewiſe the offender is to be indicted and tried on the ſtatute, to forfeit his lands, which are not forfeited by the civil law.

An indictment for piracy muſt alledge the fact to be done upon the ſea; and have both the words of *feloniouſly* and *piratically* taken, &c. A pardon of all felonies does not extend to this offence; for the ſame ought to be eſpecially named, it being a ſpecial offence, and no felony in the eye of the law of the land, but by the civil law: and for this reaſon piracy ſhall not be included in a ſtatute ſpeaking generally of felonies, as to benefit of clergy, &c. which ſhall be conſtrued only of thoſe felonies which are ſuch by our law.

The ſtatute of the 11th and 12th of William III. c. 7. ordains, That all piracies, felonies, and robberies, done in or upon the ſea, or in any river, &c. where the admiral hath juriſdiction, may be tried at ſea or upon land in any of his Majeſty's iſlands, plantations, &c. appointed for that purpoſe, by commiſſion under the great ſeal of England, or ſeal of the admiralty, directed to ſuch commiſſioners as his Majeſty ſhall think fit; who may commit the offenders, and call a court of admiralty, conſiſting of ſeven perſons at leaſt: and for want of ſeven, then any three of the ſaid commiſſioners, whereof the preſident of ſome Engliſh factory, or governor or member of the councils in any of the plantations, or commander of one of the King's ſhips, to be one, may call any other perſons

erſons, ſuch as are merchants, factors, planters, ſea-aptains, lieutenants, &c. to make up the number.
And the perſons ſo aſſembled may proceed according to he courſe of the admiralty, in hearing and determining ny caſe of piracy, robbery, and felony, and paſs ſen-ence of death on the offenders, who ſhall ſuffer ſuch loſs f lands, goods, &c. as if they had been convicted and ttainted of any piracies, according to the act 28th Hen-y VIII. and when any ſuch court of admiralty is called n ſhipboard, or on land, the king's commiſſion being irſt read, the preſident, and the reſt of the court, ſhall ake an oath impartially to try the priſoner; who plead-ng not guilty, witneſſes ſhall be produced by the re-giſter, which may be croſs-examined for the priſoner, and other witneſſes brought in his defence; and after a fair hearing, and all perſons withdrawn but the regiſter, the court ſhall conſider of the evidence, and give judgment by plurality of voices; and execution thereupon may be awarded by a warrant to a provoſt-marſhal.

The regiſter is to be a public notary; or for want of ſuch, the preſident ſhall appoint and ſwear a regiſter; who is to prepare all the proceedings in a ſummary way, and tranſmit copies thereof to the admiralry-court in England. And the commiſſioners aforeſaid ſhall have the ſole power of trying the ſaid crimes and offences within the colonies and plantations in America, governed by proprietors, or under grants or charters from the crown, and may iſſue their warrants for apprehending ſuch pi-rates, &c. and their acceſſaries, in order to their being tried there, or ſent into England: and all governors, &c. in the ſaid plantations, under proprietors or charters, ſhall aſſiſt the commiſſioners therein, on penalty of for-feiting their charters. Commiſſions for trial of the ſaid offences, ſent to any place within the juriſdiction of the cinque ports here, ſhall be directed to the lord warden of the ſaid ports, or his lieutenant, and ſuch perſons as the lord chancellor ſhall appoint; and the inquiſition and trial to be by the inhabitants of the ſame ports.

If any natural born ſubjects, or denizens of England, commit piracy, or any act of hoſtility, againſt his Ma-jeſty's ſubjects at ſea, under colour of a commiſſion or authority from any foreign prince or ſtate, or perſon whatſoever, ſuch offenders ſhall be adjudged pirates. And if any commander or maſter of a ſhip, or ſeaman, ſhall turn pirate, or give up his ſhip, &c. to pirates, or com-bine to yield up, or run away with any ſhip; or any ma-riner lay violent hands on his commander, or endeavour to make a revolt in the ſhip, they are declared to be pi-rates, and to ſuffer accordingly: and all perſons who ſhall ſet forth any pirate, or be aiding and aſſiſting to any one committing piracy, or ſhall conceal ſuch pirate, or receive any veſſels or goods piratically taken, they ſhall be adjudged acceſſary to ſuch piracy, and ſuffer as principals.

And by this act, where any Engliſh ſhip ſhall have been defended by fight againſt pirates, and any of the officers or ſeamen are killed or wounded, the judge of the ad-miralty, &c. in London, or the mayor or chief officer in the outports, aſſiſted by four ſubſtantial merchants, may, by proceſs out of the ſaid court, levy upon the owners of ſuch ſhip, &c. a ſum not above 2 *per cent.* of the value of the freight, ſhip, and goods, ſo defended, to be diſtributed among the officers and ſeamen of the ſaid ſhip, or widows and children of the perſons ſlain.

Alſo a reward of 10 l. for every veſſel of 100 tons, or under, and 15 l. for every ſhip of greater burthen, ſhall be paid by the captain, commander, or maſter, of the ſhip, to the firſt diſcoverer of any combination for running away with or deſtroying any ſuch ſhip, at the port where the wages are to be paid.

By the 4th George I. c. 11. all perſons who have com-mitted, or ſhall commit any offences, for which they ought to be adjudged pirates by the act 11th and 12th William III. may be tried for every ſuch offence, in ſuch manner as by the 28th Henry VIII. c. 15. is directed for the trial of pirates, and ſhall be utterly debarred from the benefit of clergy for the ſaid offences. But this ſhall not extend to perſons convicted in Scotland, or to his Majeſty's dominions in America.

The 6th George I. c. 19. makes the ſtatute 11th and 12th William III. c. 7. for more effectual ſuppreſſion of piracy, perpetual. And by 8th George I. c. 24. if any maſter of any ſhip or veſſel, or other perſon, ſhall any ways trade with pirates by truck, barter, exchange, or in any other manner; or ſhall furniſh any pirate, fe-lon, or robber on the ſeas, with any ammunition, pro-viſion, or ſtores; or fit out any ſhip or veſſel knowingly, and with deſign to trade with, or ſupply, or correſpond with any pirate, &c. or if any perſon ſhall conſult, com-bine, or confederate with ſuch pirate, knowing him to be guilty of any piracy, felony, or robbery; ſuch of-fender ſhall in every of the ſaid caſes be adjudged guilty of piracy, felony, and robbery, which ſhall be enquired of, tried and determined, according to the ſtatutes 28th Henry VIII. and 11th and 12th William III. And ſhips fitted out with deſign to trade with pirates, and all the goods and merchandiſe put on board the ſame, ſhall be forfeited; one moiety to the King, the other to the diſ-coverer of ſuch deſign, who may ſue for and recover the ſaid ſhips, &c. in the high court of admiralty.

If any perſon belonging to any ſhip or veſſel, upon meet-ing any merchant-ſhip on the high ſeas, or in any haven or creek, ſhall forcibly board and enter into ſuch ſhip; and though they do not ſeize and carry her off, ſhall throw overboard, or deſtroy any part of the goods or merchandiſes belonging to the ſaid ſhip, the perſons guilty thereof ſhall be puniſhed as pirates. And all per-ſons, who by the act 11th and 12th William III. are de-clared acceſſaries to any piracy therein mentioned, are hereby declared, and ſhall be deemed to be principal pi-rates; and their offences ſhall be enquired of, heard and adjudged in the ſame manner as perſons guilty of piracy, &c. and being thereupon attainted and convicted, ſhall ſuffer ſuch pains of death, loſs of lands, goods, and chattles, as pirates and robbers.

In caſe any maſter, or other officer, or ſeaman of a mer-chant-ſhip, which carries guns and arms, when they are attacked by any pirate, or ſhip on which ſuch pirate is on board, ſhall not fight, and endeavour to defend them-ſelves and their ſhips from being taken; or ſhall utter any words diſcouraging to other mariners, and by reaſon thereof the ſhip fall into the hands of the pirate; every ſuch maſter, &c. ſhall forfeit all the wages due to him to the owners of the ſhip; and as a farther puniſhment, ſuffer ſix months impriſonment. But ſeamen wounded in the defence of ſhips, and fighting againſt pirates, ſhall be admitted into Greenwich hoſpital, and there provided for, &c.

There is a clauſe in this ſtatute, that if any commander or officer of any his Majeſty's ſhips of war, ſhall receive or permit to be received on board ſuch ſhip, any goods or merchandiſes, in order to trade with the ſame, either on his own or any other perſon's account; except gold, ſilver, or jewels, and goods belonging to any merchant-ſhip wrecked, or in danger of being ſo, in order to pre-ſerve them for their proper owners; and except ſuch goods as they ſhall be ordered to receive on board by the admiralty; the captain, &c. ſo offending ſhall, upon his being convicted thereof by a court-martial, forfeit the command and office he ſhall then have in the ſaid ſhip, and be for ever after rendered incapable to ſerve in the ſame, or in any other place or office in the naval ſervice of the crown; and alſo forfeit the wages to him due for his ſervice in the ſhip of war whereto he ſhall belong.

And the ſaid captain, &c. and the proprietors of the goods ſo put on board ſuch ſhip of war, ſhall incur a forfeiture of the value of the ſaid goods; one half to go to the firſt diſcoverer, and the other to the uſe of Greenwich hoſ-pital.

This act ſhall extend to all his Majeſty's dominions in Aſia, Africa, and America, &c. and is made perpetual by 2d George II. c. 28.

The Barbary corſairs are conſidered as pirates by thoſe nations with whom they have no treaties of peace. There are alſo pirates on the coaſt of Morocco; and a great part of the coaſt of Guzurat in India is inhabited by pirates, commonly called Angria's men, who have a numerous

fleet of grabs, or ſmall veſſels, with which they commit great depredations on the Indian merchants.

PIRETHRA. A medicinal root, brought from Tunis in Barbary, uſed for the tooth-ach, and in the compoſition of vinegar.

The pirethra is a root of middling length, of the thickneſs of the little finger, greyiſh without, whitiſh within, garniſhed with ſome fibres, and of a poignant and hot taſte; its good choice conſiſting in its being new, plump, dry, and not eaſily broken.

PISCA. A port-town of Peru, in South America, ſituated in 76 deg. of W. lon. and 14 deg. of N. lat. in the province of Lima, 140 miles ſouth of that city; where is made the greateſt quantity of wine in Peru, which is exported to the reſt of the Spaniſh colonies.

PISCATAWAY. A harbour of New Hampſhire in America, one of the Britiſh colonies, ſituated in 70 deg. of W. lon. and 43 deg. 35 min. of N. lat. 70 miles north of Boſton: and in ſome maps the province of New Hampſhire is called Piſcataway.

PISSASPHALTUM, or *Piſſaſphaltus*, in natural hiſtory, denotes a native, ſolid bitumen, found in ſome of the eaſtern countries, of an intermediate nature between pitch and aſphaltum. See *Bitumen*.

PISSASPHALTUM, is alſo a name given to a factitious ſubſtance, compounded of pitch and aſphaltus or bitumen judaicum; but the coarſeneſs of the black colour, and the fœtidneſs of the ſmell, diſtinguiſhes it from the true aſphaltum. See *Aſphaltum*.

PISSASPHALTUM, is alſo uſed by ſome writers to denote the Jewiſh pitch, or ſimple aſphaltum. See *Aſphaltum*.

PISSELÆUM, or *Oil of pitch*. A medicament compounded of oil and pitch.

PISSELÆUM *indicum*, among modern writers, denotes a bituminous ſubſtance brought from the Weſt Indies, popularly called Barbadoes tar; which has a ſtrong ſmell, not unlike the common tar, and is not very pleaſant to ſight or taſte. It is accounted a good balſamic; and, where the ſtomach can diſpenſe with it, will do great ſervice in many diſorders of the breaſt, which has alſo been experienced of common tar. See *Tar*.

PISTACHIA, or *Piſtach nut*. A fruit brought from ſeveral parts of Aſia, chiefly Aleppo and Perſia. When wrapt in all its coats, it is of the ſize of a green almond; but when ſtript of all to its ſhell, it reſembles a ſmall nut; the kernel being red without, and green within; its taſte very agreeable. The tree that produces it is a kind of turpentine-tree: the nuts are to be choſen new, heavy, and full; as to thoſe that are broken, ſuch as have kept their colours beſt, are to be preferred; for as to the ſize, it is a fancy. Piſtachias are aperitive, proper to give vigour, and are uſed in emulſions, &c. in phtiſical and nephritical caſes. They alſo enter ſeveral ragouts, are confected, made into conſerves, &c.

There is likewiſe a kind of falſe piſtachia brought from the Caribbee iſlands, which ſome confound with the real ones; though very different, both with regard to the plants that produce them, and their quality. The ſpurious piſtachia plant does not riſe a foot high; nor does the fruit grow on the branches, but is found in pods adhering to the root. The pod ſometimes only contains a ſingle nut, which reſembles an olive, but uſually ſeveral; and in that caſe they are irregular. The ſubſtance is white, compact, and heavy. This fruit is rarely eat raw, becauſe of the ill effects it produces. It is uſually roaſted or confected, being uſed in ragouts, and to make ratafias.

PISTARINE. A Spaniſh ſilver coin, worth $10\frac{3}{4}$ d. ſterling.

PISTOL. A ſmall fire-arm, uſed chiefly by the cavalry in an army; as alſo by gentlemen who travel.

PISTOLE. A gold coin of ſeveral ſorts, and ſtruck in ſeveral places, being both double and ſingle.

The old and new Spaniſh double piſtole are worth 1 l. 13 s. 6 d. ſterling; the double piſtoles of Genoa 1621, of Milan, of Pope Urban 1634, and of Placentia, being alſo the ſame value with the Spaniſh double piſtole.

The old Spaniſh ſingle piſtole is worth 16 s. 9 d. ſterling, and the new Seville piſtole is worth about 16 s. 6 d. ſterling; the old Italian piſtole is worth 16 s. 7 d. ſterling; the piſtoles of Beſancon, Florence, Genoa, Milan, Orange, Savoy, and Trevoux, are worth 16 s. 6 d. ſterling.

The double and ſingle louis d'or of France are alſo called double and ſingle piſtoles; the former being worth 1 l. 19 s. and the latter 19 s. 6 d. ſterling.

PITCH. A tenacious kind of juice, or gum, drawn from fatty woods, chiefly pines and firs; uſed in ſhipping, medicine, and various arts. Pitch is properly a juice in the bark of the picea, or pitch-tree; and is conceived to be no other than the oil thereof inſpiſſated, and turned black, further than in balſam. The method of drawing or procuring it, is by cleaving the tree into little billets which they lay in a furnace having two apertures, through one of which the fire is put, and through the other the pitch is gathered; which oozing from the wood, runs along the bottom of the furnace into baſons or receptacles placed for that purpoſe. The ſmoke, which is here very thick, gives it the black colour; though ſome will have our common pitch to be only the laſt running, and that to be the firſt. See *Tar*.

Wheeler gives us another manner of drawing pitch, in the Levant. A pit is dug in the ground two ells diameter a-top, but contracting as it goes deeper; which they fill with branches of pine cloven into ſhivers. The top of the pit is then covered over with fire; which burning down to the bottom, the pitch diſtills, and runs out at a hole made therein.

Pitch acquires different names, according to its different preparations, colours, and qualities. As it diſtills from the wood it is called barras, but afterwards aſſumes a double name; the fineſt and cleareſt being called galipot, and the coarſer marbled barras. Of the galipot is made what they call white pitch, or Burgundy pitch; which is nothing but the galipot melted with oil of turpentine: though ſome will have it a native pitch, diſtilling from a reſinous tree growing in the mountains of Franche Comte. Of the ſame galipot is likewiſe prepared what is called roſin, by boiling the cakes to a certain conſiſtence, and making it up in cakes. See *Roſin*.

The black pitch, which is what is properly called pitch, ſome ſay is the liquid galipot, burnt and reduced into the form and conſiſtence we ſee it in, by mixing tar with it while hot. The beſt is that brought from Sweden and Norway; its goodneſs conſiſting in its being of a gloſſy black colour, dry, and brittle.

Naval pitch, is that drawn from old pines, ranged, and burnt like charcoal. This, with a mixture of tow, is for beaten cables, ſerves for the pitching of veſſels. Naval pitch is alſo a denomination given to that ſcraped from off the ſides of old veſſels, and which is ſuppoſed to have acquired an aſtringent virtue by means of the ſalt water. It ſerves to make plaiſters; though it is certain the apothecaries uſually ſubſtitute the common black pitch in its ſtead.

Greek pitch, or Spaniſh pitch, is that boiled in water till it has loſt its natural ſmell; upon which it becomes ductile and pliable.

The antients called it colophony, from Colophon a city of Greece, whence great quantities were brought.

Oil of PITCH, is an oil procured from pitch, by ſeparating the aqueous matter that ſwims a-top of the melted pitch, which, for the great virtues attributed to it, is alſo called balſam of pitch. See Naval *Stores*.

All ſorts of pitch are ſold at Amſterdam for ſo many livres de gros the laſt of 12 barrels, and afford a deduction of 1 *per cent.* for prompt payment.

Stockholm pitch is the moſt eſteemed there, and is the deareſt; that of Weſterwyck is ſold for 15 or 16 livres de gros the laſt; that of Calmar is of the ſame price; and that of Carolina coſt but 12, or but 12½ livres de gros the laſt.

Yellow reſin-pitch refined is 5 florins the 100 lb. and the brown refined is $4\frac{3}{4}$ florins. Both yield 2 *per cent.* deduction for good weight, and 1 *per cent.* for prompt payment.

Pitch is generally brought from Denmark, Norway, Finland, and Sweden: but as the merchants of thoſe coun-

tries put exorbitant prices on this commodity, it occaſioned the Britiſh government to give particular encouragement to their planters in North America to make pitch; in which they have ſo well ſucceeded, that great quantities are now ſent from New England, Virginia, and Carolina. It is abſolutely eſſential to a trading nation, for pitching their veſſels and cables: therefore the making of it ſhould be carefully attended to in the Britiſh plantations; for if they can be brought to ſupply the mother-country with naval ſtores, it will take the balance of trade out of the hands of the northern nations, and be a great ſaving to Great Britain.

PITCH, a ſea-term; when a ſhip falls with her head too much into the ſea, or beats againſt it, ſo as to endanger her top-maſts, they ſay ſhe will pitch her maſts by the board.

PITCHING *pence*. A duty, commonly one penny, paid for pitching, or ſetting down, every ſack of corn, or pack of merchandiſe, in a fair or market.

PITHA. A port-town of Sweden, capital of the province of Pitha Lapmark, ſituated in 20 deg. of E. lon. and 64 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. on the weſt-ſide of the Bothnic gulph, 80 miles S. W. of Torne.

PITE. An imaginary money in France; being the fourth of a denier, and 12 deniers are about a halfpenny ſterling.

PITE. A kind of hemp, or flax, found in ſeveral parts of South America, particularly along the river Oronoko. This hemp is much longer and whiter than that which grows in Europe, and does not rot ſo eaſily in water. The Indians uſe it for the making of their hamocks, ſails, and cordage for their canoes, beſides ſeveral other uſes.

PITIS. A term among the Javaneſe for a ſmall coin of very baſe alloy, half lead, and half ſcoria of copper, which is brought them from China, where they are called caxas; having a great currency at Bantam, and throughout the reſt of the iſland of Java, as alſo in the neighbouring iſlands; 200 pites being worth about three farthings ſterling. See *Caxas*.

PITTENWEEM. A port-town of Scotland, in the county of Fife, ſituated in 2 deg. 25 min. of W. lon. and 56 deg. of N. lat. at the entrance of the frith of Forth, 23 miles N. E. of Edinburgh.

PLACARD, or *Placart*, is a term in Holland for the proclamations, by which are rendered public the reſolutions and ordonnances of the States-General of the United Provinces, concerning government or commerce.

One of the moſt important placards in this laſt reſpect, is that for the execution of the new tariff of the year 1725; wherein are regulated the duties of importation and exportation throughout the ſtates of the republic, being compoſed of 254 articles, divided into 18 ſections.

PLACENTIA. A port-town of Newfoundland in America, ſituated in 56 deg. of W. lon. and 48 deg. of N. lat. on a bay of the S. E. part of the iſland, 40 miles W. of St. John's, and 200 E. of the iſland of Cape Breton, ſubject to England.

PLAGUE-*water*, *Aqua epidemica*, is one of the compound waters of the ſhops. See *Water*.

PLAID. A kind of chequered ſerge manufactured in Scotland, and uſually 25 ells in length.

PLAIN *Scale*, is a thin ruler, whereon are graduated the lines of chords, ſines, tangents, ſecants, leagues, rhumbs, &c. of ready uſe in moſt parts of the mathematics, chiefly in navigation. See *Line*.

PLAIN *Chart*, in navigation, is a ſea chart, wherein the meridian and parallels are repreſented by parallel ſtraight lines; and where, of conſequence, the degrees of longitude are the ſame in all the parallels of latitude. See *Chart*.

PLAIN *Sailing*, in navigation, is the art of working the ſeveral caſes and varieties in a ſhip's motion, on a plain chart. See *Sailing*.

Plain ſailing is founded on a ſuppoſition of the earth's being a plane or flat; which though notoriouſly falſe, yet places being laid down accordingly, and a long voyage broke into many ſhort ones, the voyage may be tolerably performed by it, near the ſame meridian.

In plain ſailing it is ſuppoſed, that, by the rhumb-line, meridian, and parallel of latitude, there always will be formed a right-angled triangle; and that ſo poſited, as that the perpendicular ſide may repreſent part of the meridian, or north and ſouth line, containing the difference of latitude; the baſe of the triangle repreſents the departure, and the hypothenuſe the diſtance ſailed. The angle at the vertex is the courſe, and the angle at the baſe the compliment of the crown of the courſe; any two of which, with the right-angle being given, the triangle may be protracted, and the other three parts found.

PLAISTER *of Paris*. See *Plaſter*.

PLANK. A long piece of timber, ſawn about two inches thick, more or leſs, for various purpoſes, both in building houſes and ſhips; and alſo for other mechanical purpoſes. The trees which uſually afford planks are the oak, the beech, the fir, the walnut, the pear, and the poplar. The commerce of planks, as alſo of joiners, carpenters, and coopers timber, is a very conſiderable article in the Dutch trade; and all ſorts of planks are ſold at Amſterdam by the hundred, but more or leſs to the hundred.

PLANT. The univerſal name for all vegetable bodies, whether trees, ſhrubs, or herbs.

PLANTAIN, is an excellent vulnerary herb; being alſo uſeful for internal maladies, and other purpoſes.

PLANTATION, in the iſlands and continent of America, a ſpot of ground which ſome planter, or perſon arrived in a new colony, pitches on to cultivate and till for his own uſe. See *Colony*.

A plantation or colony, according to the Treatiſe on Naval Trade, is a place where people are ſent to dwell, or a company of people tranſplanted from one place to another, with an allowance of land for their tillage, and encouraged by immunities, for the good of themſelves, and the ſtate to which they belong.

In caſe a nation or people happen to be expelled out of their own land, they may ſeek void places, and waſtes in ſome other country; where the immediate poſſeſſing ſuch plantations creates a property againſt all perſons, but he that has empire there. Alſo ſome learned civilians are of opinion, that if there be a deſert, or barren ground, the ſame ought to be granted to ſtrangers, upon their requeſt; for they commit no offence who inhabit and manure a part of the land, that lies neglected and unoccupied. And where perſons coming into any territories, and having planted in a plantation there, if before they can reap the fruits of their labour, the neceſſities of life are wanting, by the laws of nature they may force a ſubſiſtence from a neighbour-planter; and the reaſon is this, becauſe ſubſiſtence belongs to every man, unleſs he has merited to loſe the life which he ſeeks to preſerve. The written laws are in ſome meaſure conformable to this; by which, if proviſions begin to fail in a ſhip at ſea, thoſe perſons which laid in particular ſtores for the voyage are obliged to bring the ſame out openly for the benefit of all.

The Britiſh plantations abroad are chiefly upon the continent and iſlands in America; the iſlands of Jamaica and Barbadoes, with ſome others, being much frequented by unfortunate perſons, who have ſo great advantages in trade, that by induſtry and application a preſent misfortune is oftentimes attended with a future happineſs, by accumulating great wealth from the products of theſe foreign colonies. The Britiſh plantations in general contain Jamaica, Barbadoes, part of the Leeward iſlands, Bermudas, the Bahamas, Virginia, Maryland, Penſylvania, New-England, New-York, Carolina, and Georgia.

The plantation-iſlands being originally acquired by conqueſt, or by ſome of the King's ſubjects going in ſearch of ſome prize, and planting themſelves there, the King is not reſtrained to rule them by any particular laws, but may govern them as he will. But it has been held, that the laws and cuſtoms by which the people of any iſland or plantation were governed before the conqueſt thereof, bind them until new laws are given; for there is a neceſſity that the former laws ſhould be in force till new ones are obtained; and even then ſome of their old cuſtoms may remain, as they do in Barbadoes, &c.: though,

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in caſe of an uninhabited country newly found out by Engliſh ſubjects, all laws in force in England are immediately in force there.

The Iſle of Man and Ireland are part of the poſſeſſions of the crown of England, yet retain their antient laws; and Jamaica was not governed by the law of England after it was conquered, till new laws were made; for they had neither ſheriffs nor counties. They were only an aſſembly of people which are not bound by Engliſh laws or ſtates, unleſs particularly mentioned therein: beſides, they in Jamaica have power to make laws, by which general laws of England may be altered by theirs in particulars. In Barbadoes all freeholds are ſubject to debts, and eſteemed but as chattels, till the creditors are ſatisfied, and then the lands deſcend to the heir. But the law is otherwiſe in England; which ſhews, that though that iſland is parcel of the poſſeſſions of England, yet it is not governed by the laws made here. By the laws of Virginia, negroes are ſaleable as chattels; but the laws of England do not extend to Virginia.

All that ſhall be made governors of the plantations, ſhall, before their entrance into their government, take an oath to do their utmoſt that the acts of parliament paſſed concerning the ſaid colonies and plantations be duly obſerved, ſo far as appertains to the ſaid governors reſpectively; and upon complaint to the King, and proof made before his Majeſty, or ſuch as he ſhall appoint, by the oaths of two or more credible witneſſes, that any of the governors, or commanders in chief, have neglected to take the ſaid oath, or been wittingly negligent in doing his duty accordingly; ſuch governor ſo offending ſhall be removed from his government, and forfeit the ſum of 1000 l.

By the 11th and 12th William III. c. 12. if any governor, lieutenant-governor, deputy-governor, or commander in chief, of any plantation or colony within his Majeſty's dominions beyond the ſeas, ſhall be guilty of oppreſſing any of his Majeſty's ſubjects in their reſpective governments, or of any other crime or offence contrary to the laws of this realm, or in force within their governments, &c. it ſhall be enquired of, heard and determined in the court of King's Bench in England, or before ſuch commiſſioners, and in ſuch county of this realm, as the King ſhall appoint, and by good and lawful men of the ſame county; and the like puniſhments ſhall be inflicted as are uſual for ſuch offences here in England.

And by the act 7th and 8th William III. c. 22. all laws, by-laws, uſages or cuſtoms in practice, in any of the plantations, which are repugnant to any laws already made here, or to this act, or any other law hereafter to be made in this kingdom, relating to the ſaid plantations, are declared null and void. And all places of truſt in the courts of law, or relating to the treaſury, in any iſland; colony, or plantation, belonging to England, ſhall be in the hands of the native-born ſubjects of England, Ireland, or of the ſaid iſlands: alſo perſons that claim any right or property in any iſlands, or tracts of land on the continent of America, by charter or letters-patent, ſhall not at any time alien, ſell, or diſpoſe of the ſame to any other perſons than the natural-born ſubjects of England or Ireland, &c. without the King's licence in council firſt had and obtained; and all governors appointed by any ſuch proprietors, ſhall be allowed and approved of by his Majeſty, and take the oaths enjoined to be taken by the governors or commanders in chief in any other colonies and plantations, under the ſame penalty they are liable to.

The ſtatute of the 12th Charles II. c. 18. enacts, That no alien may be a merchant, or factor, in any of the territories and plantations belonging to England, in Aſia, Africa, or America, on pain to loſe all his goods; one third to the King, another third to the governor of the plantation, and the other third to the perſon ſuing in any of the King's courts there: and if any governor of the plantations ſhall ſuffer any foreign-built veſſel to load or unload goods, before a certificate is produced that the owner or owners are not aliens, and examination made, ſuch governor ſhall be put out of his place.

Goods and merchandiſe ſhall not be imported into, or exported out of any of the plantations which belong to his Majeſty, in any other ſhips but thoſe belonging to the people of England or Ireland, &c. and of which the maſter and three-fourths of the mariners are Engliſh, on forfeiture of all the goods, and the ſhip or veſſel, with its furniture; a third part whereof to the King, another third to the governor where any ſuch default ſhall be, and the other third part to him that will ſeize or ſue for the ſame, &c. And where any abatement or privilege is given in the book of rates to goods imported or exported in ſhipping built in England, Ireland, Wales, &c. or any the King's territories in Aſia, Africa, and America, it is to be underſtood, that the maſter and three-fourths of the mariners be alſo Engliſh; and where that is required, they ſhall be ſuch during the whole voyage, unleſs in caſe of ſickneſs, death, or being taken priſoners, to be proved by the oath of the maſter.

And no ſugars, tobacco, cotton-wool, indico, ginger, fuſtic, or other dying wood, of the growth of any plantations in America, Aſia, or Africa, ſhall be tranſported to any place, other than to ſome Engliſh plantation, or to England, Ireland, Wales, or town of Berwick, on pain to forfeit them, or the value, and the ſhip with her furniture; one moiety to the King, the other to him that ſeizes or ſues for the ſaid forfeiture. And for every veſſel which ſhall ſet out from England, Ireland, &c. for any of the ſaid plantations, bond ſhall be given, with one ſurety, to the chief officers of the cuſtomhouſe of the place from whence ſhe ſails, of 1000 l. if the ſhip be leſs than the burthen of 100 tons, and of 2000 l. penalty if of greater burthen; that if the ſaid veſſel load any of the ſaid commodities at ſuch plantations, it ſhall bring them to ſome port of England or Ireland, &c.

Alſo for all ſhips coming from any other port or place to thoſe plantations, the governors, before the ſhips be permitted to load, ſhall take bond as aforeſaid, that they ſhall carry them to ſome other Engliſh plantations, or to England, Ireland, &c. And every ſhip taking on board any of the ſaid goods before bond given, or certificate produced from ſome cuſtomhouſe in England, &c. of ſuch bonds being there given, ſhall be forfeited; and the ſaid governors ſhall twice in every year return true copies of all ſuch bonds to the officers of the cuſtoms in London.

By the 15th Charles II. c. 7. in regard his Majeſty's plantations beyond the ſeas are inhabited and peopled by ſubjects of the kingdom of England: for the maintaining a greater correſpondence and kindneſs between them, and keeping them in a firmer dependance upon it, and rendering them yet more beneficial and advantageous, in the further employment and increaſe of Engliſh ſhipping and ſeamen, vent of the Engliſh woollen and other manufactures and commodities, &c. and making this kingdom a ſtaple, not only of the commodities of thoſe plantations, but alſo of the merchandiſes of other countries and places, for the ſupplying of them; and it being the uſage of other nations to keep their plantation-trade to themſelves:

It is enacted, That no commodity of the growth or manufacture of Europe ſhall be imported into any of the King's plantations in Aſia, Africa, or America, but what ſhall have been ſhipped in England, Wales, or town of Berwick, and in Engliſh built ſhipping, and whereof the maſter and three-fourths of the mariners are Engliſh, and which ſhall be carried directly thence to the ſaid plantations, on pain to forfeit the ſame, and if imported by water, the veſſel alſo; one third to the King, another to the governor of ſuch plantation, if there ſeized or ſued for, elſe that third to the King likewiſe; the other third to him who will ſeize or ſue for the ſame in any of the King's courts in ſuch plantations, or any court of record in England.

But nevertheleſs it ſhall and may be lawful to ſhip and lade in ſuch ſhips, ſo navigated as aforeſaid, in any ports of Europe, ſalt for the fiſheries of New England and Newfoundland; and in the Maderas and Azores, wines of the growth of the ſaid iſlands; and in Scotland or Ireland to take in ſervants, or horſes, and all victuals of the growth or production of the ſaid places, to tranſport them to the ſaid plantations.

Every perſon or perſons importing or bringing by la

any goods or commodities whatſoever into any of the ſaid plantations, ſhall deliver to the governor of ſuch place, or the officer by him appointed, within twenty-four hours, their names and ſurnames, with a true inventory of the ſaid goods: and no veſſel coming to any ſuch plantation ſhall lade or unlade any goods or commodities, till the maſter have made known the arrival of the veſſel, her name, his own name and ſurname, and ſhall have ſhewn that ſhe is an Engliſh built ſhip, and navigated as before mentioned, or produce ſuch certificate, and have delivered an inventory of her lading, with the places where her goods were taken in, on pain of forfeiting the ſhip and goods, of the growth or manufacture of Europe, not laden in England, Wales, or town of Berwick, to be recovered and divided as aboveſaid.

And if any officers of the cuſtoms in England, &c. ſhall give any warrant for, or ſuffer any ſugar, tobacco, ginger, cotton-wool, indigo, ſpeckle-wood, or Jamaica wood, fuſtic, or other dying wood of the growth of any of the plantations aforeſaid, to be carried into any other country, until they have been firſt unladen and put on ſhore in ſome port or haven in England, or Wales, &c. they ſhall forfeit their places, and the value of ſuch goods; one half to the King, the other to the informer.

By the 22d and 23d of Charles II. c. 26. every ſhip or veſſel that ſhall take on board any ſugar, or other commodities, at any of the Engliſh plantations, till bond be given as directed by the ſtatute 12th Charles II. or a certificate produced from the officers of ſome cuſtomhouſe in England, that ſuch bond hath been given there; or which ſhall carry the ſaid goods to any country or place, contrary to the tenor of ſuch bond; the ſaid ſhip or veſſel, with all her guns, ammunition, furniture, and lading to be forfeited.

But the act 25th Charles II. c. 7. ſeems to have taken off theſe penalties and forfeitures; which ordains, that if any veſſel ſhall come to any of the King's plantations to ſhip ſugar, tobacco, cotton-wool, indico, ginger, fuſtic, or other dying wood of their growth, and bond ſhall not be firſt given, with one ſurety, to bring the ſame to England; there are to be anſwered to the King ſeveral duties on the ſaid goods and commodities, to be paid where and to whom ſhall be appointed in the ſaid plantations, before lading thereof, under ſuch penalties to the officers, and upon the goods, as for non-payment, or defrauding the King of his cuſtoms in England: and in caſe any perſons liable to the payment of theſe duties, ſhall not have monies to anſwer the ſame, the officer ſhall take and accept, inſtead thereof, ſuch a proportion of the commodities to be ſhipped as ſhall amount to the value, according to their current price in the ſame plantations.

The 7th and 8th of William III. c. 22. reciting the acts for encouragement of the navigation of this kingdom, and better ſecuring and regulating the plantation-trade, &c. wherein great abuſes had been committed; for remedy thereof enacted, That no goods or merchandiſes ſhall be imported or exported to, or from any plantation abroad, or from one port or place to another port in the ſame, the kingdom of England, dominion of Wales, or town of Berwick, in any ſhip but what ſhall be built in England, Ireland, or the ſaid plantations, and wholly owned by the people thereof, and navigated with the maſter, and three-fourths of the mariners, of the ſaid places, under pain of forfeiture of ſhip and goods, &c. as by former ſtatutes; except ſhips taken and condemned as prize, to be navigated as aforeſaid, and foreign built ſhips for a certain time employed by the commiſſioners of the navy in bringing naval ſtores, &c. from the plantations for the King's ſervice.

No ſhip ſhall be deemed as a ſhip of the built of England, Ireland, Wales, &c. or any of the King's plantations in America, to be qualified to trade to any of the ſaid plantations, until the proprietor of ſuch ſhip ſhall reſiſter the ſame, and one or more of the owners make oath, *Where the ſhip was built, who are the preſent owners thereof; and that no foreigner, directly or indirectly, hath any ſhare, part, or intereſt therein.* Which oath is to be adminiſtred by the collector and comptroller of the cuſtoms of the port to which the ſhip belongs, if in England, Ireland, Wales, or Berwick; but if in any American plantation, then by the governor, with the principal officer of his Majeſty's revenue there. And which ſaid oath being atteſted by the governor, or cuſtomhouſe officer reſpectively, and having been regiſtered by them, ſhall be delivered to the maſter of the ſhip, for the ſecurity of her navigation, and a duplicate tranſmitted to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms at London, and there entered in a general regiſter: the veſſel that trades to or from the plantations, without ſuch proof made as here directed, ſhall be liable to ſuch proſecution and forfeiture, as foreign ſhips would be for trading thither. And no ſhip's name regiſtred ſhall be changed without regiſtering the ſhip a-new, under the like penalties; alſo upon ſale of any ſhare, ſuch ſale ſhall be acknowledged by indorſement on the certificate of the regiſter.

All ſhips, whether the King's or merchants ſhips, lading or unlading goods at any of the plantations aforeſaid, and the maſters and commanders thereof, ſhall be ſubject to the ſame rules, viſitations, ſearches, penalties, and forfeitures, as ſhips and their ladings, and the commanders and maſters, are ſubject and liable to in this kingdom, by virtue of 14th Charles II. c. 11. And the officers for collecting his Majeſty's revenue, and inſpecting the plantation-trade, in the ſaid plantations, ſhall have the ſame power and authority for viſiting and ſearching of ſhips, taking their entries, ſeizing goods prohibited, or for which duties ought to be paid, as are provided for the officers of the cuſtoms in England, by the ſaid act 14th Charles II. to enter houſes and warehouſes, to ſearch after and ſeize ſuch goods; and all perſons aſſiſting in the conveyance, or concealment of the goods, or in reſiſting any of the ſaid officers in performance of their duty, and the boats and other veſſels employed therein, ſhall be liable to the like penalties as are provided in relation to prohibited and uncuſtomed goods in this kingdom; and the officers ſubject to the ſame penalties for corruptions, frauds, &c. as here.

In caſes where the governors or officers of the cuſtoms in the plantations ſhall have reaſonable ground to ſuſpect that any certificates produced are falſe and counterfeit, as, that the certificate of having given ſecurity in England is falſe; in that caſe the ſaid governor or officers ſhall require and take ſufficient ſecurity there for the diſcharge of the plantation lading in England, Wales, or town of Berwick; and in caſe there ſhall be cauſe of ſuſpicion, that the certificate of having diſcharged the plantation-lading in this kingdom is falſe, they ſhall not vacate the ſecurity given in the plantations, till they ſhall be informed from the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in England, that the matter of the certificate is true: and if any perſon ſhall counterfeit, or raiſe any cocket, certificate, return, or permit, for any veſſel or goods, or knowingly make uſe thereof, ſuch perſon ſhall forfeit the ſum of 500 l. and the cocket, &c. ſo falſified ſhall be invalid, and of no effect.

When bonds are taken in the ſaid plantations, purſuant to the afore mentioned act, made 22d and 23d Charles II. the ſureties therein ſhall be perſons of known reſidence and ability in the plantations; and the conditions of the ſaid bonds ſhall be within eighteen months after the date thereof, danger of the ſeas excepted, to produce certificates of having landed the goods therein mentioned in one of his Majeſty's plantations, or in England, Wales, or Berwick; otherwiſe ſuch bonds, or copies thereof, atteſted under the hand and ſeal of the governor or commander in chief, to whom they were given, ſhall be in force, and allowed in all courts.

And it ſhall not be lawful, on any pretence whatſoever, to put on ſhore in the kingdom of Ireland, any merchandiſe of the growth or product of any of his Majeſty's ſaid plantations, unleſs the ſame have been firſt landed in England, Wales, or town of Berwick, and paid the rates and duties wherewith they are chargeable, under the penalty of forfeiture of ſhip and goods, three-fourths to the King, the other fourth to him that ſhall ſue for the ſame. But it is provided, that if any ſhip laden as aforeſaid, ſhall by ſtreſs of weather be ſtranded, or by leakineſs, or other diſability, be driven into any port of Ire-

land, and unable to proceed on her voyage, her goods and merchandiſe may be put on ſhore, but ſhall be delivered into the cuſtody of the chief officer of the cuſtoms there, till the ſaid goods ſhall be put on board ſome other ſhip or veſſel, to be tranſported to ſome port in England, &c.

By the 3d and 4th Anne, c. 8. any native of England or Ireland may ſhip, in any port of Ireland in Engliſh built ſhipping, whereof the maſter, and three fourths of the mariners at leaſt be Engliſh or Iriſh, any white or brown linen cloth which ſhall be of the manufacture of Ireland, and tranſport the ſame into any plantation, territory or place belonging to England, and there traffic with and vend the ſame. But no ſhip coming to any ſuch plantation or place, ſhall break bulk, until notice given to the governor thereof, or perſon appointed by him, of the arrival of ſuch ſhip, her name, and of the maſter; and ſhall have delivered to the ſaid governor, or other perſon, a true invoice of the lading, with a certificate from the chief officer of the port in Ireland where laden, of the particulars thereof, the names and abodes of the exporters, and of two perſons, who have made oath before ſuch chief officer, that the ſaid linen is of the manufacture of Ireland; and till the maſter of the ſhip hath taken oath before the governor, &c. that the goods are the ſame goods took on board by virtue of the certificate, nor until ſuch ſhip hath been ſearched.

And in caſe the maſter ſhall break bulk before ſuch notice given, certificate produced, oath and ſearch made as aforeſaid; or if on ſuch ſearch, any woollen manufacture, neceſſary apparel excepted, or linen not laden in England, nor of the manufacture of Ireland, ſhall be found, the ſhip and furniture, and all goods found therein, ſhall be forfeited; a third to her Majeſty; another third to ſuch governor of the plantation, if they are ſeized, informed againſt, or ſued for; if not, that third alſo to her Majeſty; the other third to him that ſues for the ſame. And ſuch ſhips coming from Ireland to any ſuch plantation, ſhall be ſubject to the like rules, ſearches, and penalties, as coming thither from England are.

If any ſhip laden in England for the plantations, ſhall put into any port in Ireland, and take on board ſuch Iriſh linen, the like certificate and oaths ſhall be made; and then the ſhip, her maſter, and lading, ſhall be liable to ſuch ſearches and penalties, &c. only as they were before the paſſing this act. Suits for offences are to be brought in a twelvemonth after diſcovery of any offence.

The act 6th Anne, c. 30. recites, that her Majeſty, by proclamation, dated June 18, 1704, ſettled the currency of foreign coins, in the colonies and plantations of America, for avoiding the inconveniencies that had ariſen in trade from the different rates the ſame ſpecies of foreign ſilver coin paſt at in the ſaid plantations. See *Money*.

By 8th George I. c. 18. reciting divers acts, by which certain commodities therein enumerated, of the growth, production, or manufacture, of any of the Britiſh plantations in America, Aſia, or Africa, are reſtrained to be imported into this kingdom, or to ſome other of the ſaid plantations, and under the ſecurities and penalties therein particularly mentioned; ſince the making of which ſtatutes, copper ore not being an enumerated commodity, is produced in the plantations, and carried to foreign markets in Europe, without being firſt brought into this kingdom, &c. therefore it is enacted, that all copper ore ſhall be under the like ſecurities and penalties, reſtrained to be imported in this kingdom, as is provided for other goods particularly enumerated by any former laws.

The ſtatute 4th George II. c. 15. ordains, that it ſhall be lawful to import into Ireland, from his Majeſty's plantations in America, all goods and merchandiſes of the growth or manufacture of the ſaid plantations, not being enumerated in any act of parliament. The goods excepted are ſugars, tobacco, cotton-wool, indico, ginger, ſpeckle-wood, or Jamaica wood, fuſtic, or other dying wood, rice, molaſſes, beaver-ſkins, and other furs, copper ore, pitch, tar, turpentine, maſts, yards, and bowſprits, the act 7th and 8th William III. notwithſtanding. But the goods and merchandiſes imported ſhall be in Britiſh ſhipping, whereof the maſter and three-fourths of the mariners at leaſt are Britiſh.

By the 6th George II. c. 13. the planters of the ſugar colonies in America having fallen under great diſcou ragements, ſo as to be unable to improve or carry o the ſugar trade upon an equal footing with the other ſu gar colonies, without ſome advantage and relief given them from Great Britain; it is enacted, that there ſha be paid to his Majeſty, for all ſugars and paneles of th product of any plantations in America, not under the d minions of his Majeſty, which ſhall be imported into a of his Majeſty's plantations, the ſum of 5 s. for eve 100 wt. and for all rum or ſpirits of foreign produc 9 d. for every gallon; and for molaſſes or ſyrups of ſu foreign produce, 6 d. *per* gallon.

By this act, ſugars, paneles, ſyrups, molaſſes, rum, a ſpirits of America, not being of the growth and prod of the Engliſh ſugar colonies, are prohibited to be i ported into Ireland, but ſuch only as are ſhipped in Gr Britain, in ſhips navigated according to law, &c.

The ſtatute 5th George II. c. 22. enacts, That no h or felts ſhall be exported out of any Britiſh plantations, any other Britiſh plantation or place, on penalty of 50 and forfeiture of the goods; and perſons aiding and aſſiſting therein ſhall forfeit 40 l. Any perſon may ſe hats and felts found on ſhipboard, &c. and carry them the King's warehouſe; and commiſſioners of the cuſto &c. in the plantations, permitting entries to be made ſuch hats for exportation, to forfeit 500 l. This ſta alſo regulates the trade of felt-making in the plantati as to apprentices and journeymen, &c. and no perſon habiting in the ſaid plantations ſhall retain in the art of hat or felt-making any negro, upon pain to fo 5 l. for every month. See Naval *Stores*.

Remarks.

Plantations are among ancient, primitive, and here works. When the world was young, it begat m children; but now it is old, it begets fewer; for plantations may juſtly be accounted the children of fo kingdoms. Lord Bacon ſays, he likes a plantation pure ſoil, that is, where people are not diſplanted, to end to plant in others; for elſe, it is rather an extirp than a plantation.

Planting of countries is like planting of woods; be we muſt make account to loſe almoſt 20 years p and expect recompence in the end; for the principal that has been the deſtruction of moſt plantations been the baſe and haſty drawing of profit in the firſt y It is true, ſpeedy profit is not to be neglected, as may ſtand with the good of the plantation, but no ther. It is a ſhameful thing, to take the ſcum o people, ſuch as tranſports, to fill new plantations; they are not induſtrious, they never can be bene The people proper for plantations, are gardeners, bandmen, ſmiths, carpenters, joiners, taylors, ſhe kers, fiſhermen, fowlers, and labourers, with ſom ſurgeons, apothecaries, cooks, and bakers.

In a new plantation, the firſt thing to be regard what kind of proviſions the country yields of it hand, as cheſnuts, walnuts, pine-apples, olives, plumbs, cherries, wild honey, and the like, to ma of them. The next thing to be conſidered is, wha viſions grow ſpeedily, and within the year, as parſnip rots, turnips, onions, radiſh, artichokes, maize, a like. Wheat, barley, and oats, require too much l but the planters may begin with peaſe and beans; b they want leſs labour, and ſerve for meat as well as Rice brings a great increaſe, and is a kind of Above all, there ought to be a ſtore of biſcuit, oat flour, and the like, in the beginning, till bread m had. For beaſts or birds, ſuch ſhould be chiefly ta are leaſt ſubject to diſeaſes, and multiply moſt, as goats, poultry, pigeons, and the like.

Wood commonly abounds too much, and therefo ber may be converted to profit. If there is iron or ſtreams to ſet the mills, iron is a good commodity wood abounds. Making of bay-ſalt, if the cli proper for it, ſhould be put in experience. G ſilk is a likely commodity. Pitch and tar, whe of pines and firs are, will not fail. So drugs an woods, where they are, cannot but yield great Beſides, ſoap-aſhes, and other things, may turn vantage.

A great authority adviſes, that the government of the plantation ſhould not depend upon too many counſellors and undertakers in the country that plants; but upon a temperate number, who ſhould be rather noblemen and gentlemen than merchants, as the laſt always look to the preſent gain. There ſhould be freedom of cuſtoms till the plantation is of ſtrength; and not only freedom from cuſtom, but freedom to carry their commodities where they may make their beſt of them, except there is ſome ſpecial cauſe of caution.

It has been a great endangering to the health of ſome plantations, that they have built along the ſea and rivers, in marſh and unwholſome grounds: therefore, though the planters begin there, to avoid carriage and other inconveniencies, yet they ſhould build rather upwards from the ſtreams, than along them.

In plantations among unciviliſed people, they ſhould not be entertained with trifles, but uſed juſtly and kindly: beſides, they ſhould be frequently ſent over to the planting country, that they may ſee a better condition than their own, and commend it when they return. After all, it is the moſt iniquitous thing in the world, to forſake or deſtitute a plantation, once in forwardneſs; ſuch as Georgia and Nova Scotia, each of them at both the extremities of the Britiſh ſettlements on the continent of America; for, beſides the diſhonour, it is the guiltineſs of blood of many commiſerable perſons. See *Colony*, *Britiſh*, *French*, *Spaniſh*, and *Dutch* America.

PLAPHART, A coin current at Lucern, in Switzerland, for $1\frac{1}{3}$ d. ſterling; and alſo at Cologne in Germany, worth $2\frac{1}{16}$ d. ſterling.

PLAPPER. A ſmall braſs coin ſtruck at Baſil in Switzerland, and not current in the other cantons; being worth 6 raps, or about a halfpenny ſterling.

PLASTER, or *Plaiſter*, *of Paris*, is a fiſſile ſtone, of the nature of a lime-ſtone, ſerving many purpoſes in building; and uſed likewiſe in ſculpture, to mould and make ſtatues, baſſo-relievo's, and other decorations in architecture; being dug out of quarries in ſeveral parts of the neighbourhood of Paris, from whence it is denominated. The fineſt is that of Montmartre. This plaſter is of two kinds, crude, or in the ſtone; and burnt, or beaten. The crude is the native plaſter, as it comes out of the quarry; in which ſtate it is uſed as ſhards in the foundations of buildings. The burnt plaſter is a preparation of the former, by calcining it like lime in a kiln or furnace, and then beating it into powder, and diluting and working it; in which ſtate it is uſed as mortar or cement in buildings.

This, when well ſifted and reduced into an impalpable powder, is uſed to make figures, and other works of ſculpture; beſides, it is of ſome uſe in taking out ſpots of greaſe, &c. in ſtuffs and ſilks.

In the plaſter-quarries is alſo found a kind of falſe talc, with which they counterfeit all kinds of marble.

PLASTERER, or *Plaiſterer*. A perſon who follows a mechanic trade, adapted to thoſe who ſpread mortar upon the walls and cielings of houſes, and alſo white waſh rooms.

PLASTERERS *company of London*, was conſtituted a fraternity by letters-patent of the 16th of Henry VII. dated the 10th of March 1501; which was confirmed by charter of the 19th of Charles II. dated the 11th of June 1667, by the appellation of The maſter and wardens of the guild or fraternity of the bleſſed virgin Mary of plaſterers, London; conſiſting of a maſter, 2 wardens, 32 aſſiſtants, and 77 liverymen; whoſe fine is 8 l. and to tranſact their affairs in, they have a handſome hall in Addle-ſtreet.

PLAT. A popular term, among mariners, &c. for a ſea-chart. See *Chart*.

PLATA, *Plate*, in commerce. A Spaniſh term, ſignifying ſilver; as vellon, which they pronounce vellion, ſignifies copper. Theſe two terms are not only uſed to expreſs the ſpecies of thoſe two metals ſtruck in Spain, but alſo to diſtinguiſh between ſeveral of their monies of accompt. Thus they ſay, a ducat of plata, and a ducat of vellon; a rial of plata, and a rial of vellon; which denominations augment and diminiſh the value by almoſt one half; 34 maravedis of plata being equal to 63 of vellon; and the piece of eight being only 272 maravedis of plata, but 510 vellon. See *Piaſtre*.

PLATA. A ſmall iſland in the Pacific ocean, near the coaſt of Peru, and province of Quitto, in South America, ſituated in 81 deg. of W. lon. and 1 deg. of S. lat. 200 miles weſt of Quitto, ſubject to Spain.

PLATA. A great river of Peru, which riſes in the province of La Plata, and runs S. E. till it joins the river of Paragua; after which the united ſtream bears the name of Plata, till it diſcharges itſelf into the Atlantic ocean below the city of Buenos-Ayres.

PLATE, in commerce, denotes gold or ſilver wrought into veſſels for domeſtic uſe. See *Gold*, *Goldſmith*, *Silver*, and *Embroidery*.

The drawback on Britiſh wrought plate was, by the ſtatute of the 6th George II. granted from 1ſt June 1720 for ever. Silver-plate made in Great Britain, the oz. troy 6 d. Which duty, having been paid by the maker, may be repaid upon exportation to foreign parts by way of merchandiſe, provided ſufficient ſecurity be given to the collector of the port before ſhipping, that it ſhall not be relanded in Great Britain; whereupon the collector of the cuſtoms is to grant a debenture, expreſſing the true kinds and quantities, with the ſhipping, certified by the ſearcher; which being produced to the collector of the duty, he is forthwith to repay the exporter; or, for want of money, to certify the ſame to the commiſſioners.

But by 12th George II. no drawback or allowance ſhall be paid on the exportation of plate or manufactures of ſilver, in caſe the ſame ſhall have been made ſeven years or more before the day of the entering the ſame for exportation.

PLATILLA, is a term among the Spaniards for a kind of very white linen manufactured at Cholet in Anjou, and Beauvais in Picardy, in France; as alſo at Breſlaw in Sileſia. Their uſual length is 5 ells, and breadth 3-4ths and 1-half; their chief deſtination being for Spain, and ſometimes for the coaſts of Africa.

PLATTS, on board a ſhip, are flat ropes, made of rope-yarn, and woven one in another; their uſe being to ſave the cable from galling the hauſe, or to wind about the flukes of the anchors, to ſave the pendant of the fore-ſheet from galling againſt them.

PLIMOUTH, or *Plymouth*. A port-town of Devon, ſituated in 4 deg. 27 min. of W. lon. and 50 deg. of N. lat. 40 miles S. E. of Exeter; a ſtation for building and laying up ſhips of war belonging to the royal navy, and well ſecured from enemies by its fortifications towards the ſea and land.

PLIMOUTH, is alſo a port-town of New England in North America, capital of the county of Plimouth, and ſituated on the ſouth-end of a bay of the ſame name, in 71 deg. of W. lon. and 41 deg. 25 min. of N. lat. being the firſt town the Engliſh built in New England, and once the capital of a diſtinct colony, but now united with the Maſſachuſets.

PLIMPTON. A borough town of Devon, ſituated near the Engliſh channel, 36 miles S. W. of Exeter.

PLOK-PENIN. A term uſed in the public ſales at Amſterdam, for a little ſum given to the laſt bidder; being a kind of earneſt given, whereby it is ſignified, that the commodity is adjudged to him.

The plok-penin differs according to the quality of the commodity, and the price of the lot: ſometimes it is arbitrary, and depends on the pleaſure of the buyer, and ſometimes regulated by the orders of the burgo-maſters. There are alſo merchandiſes where there are no plok-penins, and others where it is double.

PLOMO-RONCO. The richeſt of all the mineral ſilver ore that is taken out of the mines of Chili and Peru. It is black, and mixed with lead; from whence it receives its name; and this mixture helps to melt it without having recourſe to quickſilver; becauſe the lead, agitated by the fire, eaſily evaporates, and leaves the ſilver quite pure.

PLUMBER, or *Plummer*. A perſon who makes pipes for water-works, covers houſes or churches, or does any ſort of work in lead. See *Plumbery*.

PLUMBERS *company of London*, though it is of a conſiderable ſtanding, was only incorporated by letters-patent of the 9th of James I. dated the 12th of April 1611, by the appellation of The maſter, wardens, and commonalty of the myſtery of plumbers of the city of London.

This company, which is governed by a maſter, 2 wardens, and 24 aſſiſtants, has a livery, conſiſting of 57 of its members; who ſeverally, upon their admiſſion, pay a fine of 10 l. and tranſact their buſineſs in a ſmall, but convenient hall, ſituated in Chequer-yard, Dowgate-hill.

PLUMBERY. The art of caſting, preparing, and working lead, and of uſing it in buildings, &c. See *Lead*.

The lead uſed in plumbery is furniſhed from the lead-works in large ingots, or blocks, called pigs of lead, ordinarily weighing about a hundred pounds a piece. As this lead melts very eaſily, it is eaſy to caſt figures thereof, by running it into moulds of braſs, clay, plaſter, &c. But the chief article in plumbery is the ſheets, and pipes of lead, which make the baſis of the plumber-work in building.

PLUMBUM *Uſtum*, or *Burnt lead*. See Burnt *Lead*.

PLUSH. A ſort of ſtuff, partly made of wool, and partly of goats hair, ſometimes of hemp and goat-hair, and ſometimes entirely of ſilk.

PO. A great river of Italy, which riſes in the Alps, dividing France from Italy; and running firſt eaſt, ſoon after turns directly north, and viſits Turin, the capital of Piedmont, where it receives the river Doria, and continues its courſe north to Chivazzo; then turns eaſt again, paſſing through the territories of Piedmont, Milan, Montferat, Parma, Mantua, Ferrara, and Venice, diſcharging itſelf into the gulph of Venice by ſeveral channels; all which carry the name of Po, as well as ſome other ſtreams which run parallel to them. The Po receives in its courſe the two rivers Doria, the Leſſer Tanaro, Oglio, Adda, and Mincio; and paſſes by the towns of Verue, Caſal, Valenza, Placentia, and Cremona.

POET, or *Poed*. A large weight uſed in Muſcovy, particularly at Archangel, weighing about 33 lb. avoirdupois; whereby hemp, potaſhes, and ſuch other coarſe merchandiſe, are weighed.

POINT, in navigation and geography. Points of the horizon, or of the compaſs, are certain points formed by the interſections of the horizon with vertical circles. The number of theſe points, therefore, is really the ſame with that of the points conceived in the horizon, that is, infinite; though in practice only 32 of them are diſtinguiſhed. See *Compaſs*.

Some uſe point for the interſection of a vertical circle with a circle parallel to the horizon; and even ſome, for the ſegment of a vertical intercepted between the meridian and horizon, or a circle parallel thereto. The points are ſhewn by right lines drawn from a point aſſumed in a horizontal plane: but a point of the compaſs is popularly taken for a 32d part of the whole, or for an arch of 11 deg. 15 min. half of which, being 5 deg. 37½ min. is called a half point; and half of that, or 2 deg. 48¾ min. a quarter point.

Theſe points of the compaſs are divided into cardinal and collateral.

Cardinal points are the interſections of the horizon and meridian, called the north and ſouth points; and the interſections of the horizon with the prime vertical, called the eaſt and weſt. Theſe coincide with what the Latins call *cardines mundi*, and are a quadrant, or 90 degrees, diſtant from each other.

Collateral or intermediate points, are thoſe lying between the cardinal points; which are either primary, that is, thoſe equidiſtant from the two cardinals, as north-eaſt, ſouth-weſt, &c. or ſecondary, which are again either of the firſt order, or ſuch as are equidiſtant from a cardinal, and the next primary, as north-north-eaſt; or of the ſecond order, that is, equidiſtant between a cardinal or primary and firſt ſecondary, as north-eaſt by north. The primary collateral points therefore are 45 deg. diſtant from the cardinals; the firſt ſecondaries 22 deg. 30 min. from the cardinal and next primary collateral; and the ſecondaries of the ſecond order 11 deg. 15 min. from a cardinal, or firſt collateral, and a ſecond.

POINT, among ſeamen, is alſo uſed for a cape, or headland, jutting out into the ſea. See *Cape*.

They ſay, two points of land are one in another, when they are ſo in a right line againſt each other, as that the innermoſt is hindered from being ſeen by the outermoſt.

POINT, in perſpective, is a term uſed for various parts or places, with regard to the perſpective plane.

POINT, in the manufactories, is a general term uſed for all kinds of laces wrought with the needle: ſuch are point de Venice, point de France, point d' Eſpagne, point de Genoa, &c. which are diſtinguiſhed by the particular œconomy and arrangement of their points.

POINT, is alſo uſed ſometimes for lace woven with bobbins, as Engliſh point, point de Mechlin, point de Havre, &c.

POINTING, among ſeamen, the marking on the chart in what point or place the veſſel is: but all the difficulty in pointing a chart ariſes from our ignorance of the longitude. The pilot eaſily finds the latitude by taking the height of the pole; though for the longitude, there is no coming at it but by computation, which is very uncertain.

POINTING *the cable*, is a ſea term, denoting the untwiſting it at the end, and leſſening the yarn, and twiſting them again; making all faſt with a piece of marling to keep it from ravelling out.

POLA. A port-town of Iſtria, in the territory of Venice, ſituated in 14 deg. 35 min. of E. lon. and 45 deg. of N. lat. at the ſouth point of the peninſula of Iſtria, 90 miles S. E. of Venice.

POLAND, in its utmoſt extent, including regal and ducal Pruſſia, is bounded by the Baltick, Livonia, and Ruſſia on the north; by Ruſſia and Leſſer Tartary on the eaſt; by Beſſarabia, Moldavia, Tranſilvania, and Hungary on the ſouth; and by Pomerania, Brandenburg, and Moravia towards the weſt; extending 600 miles from north to ſouth, and 700 miles from eaſt to weſt, being ſituated between 16 and 34 deg. of E. lon. and 46 and 57 deg. of N. lat.

The principal rivers are the Weiſel, or Viſtula, the Warta, the Nieper, the Nieſter, the Dwina, the Bog, the Bug, and the Niemen.

Poland is uſually divided into eight parts. Proper Poland, the great dukedom of Lithuania, Pruſſia, Samogitia, and Courland; Warſovia, Polachia, and Poleſia; Red, or Little Ruſſia, Podolia, and the Ukrain.

Proper Poland is divided into the greater and leſſer.

In the Greater Poland are contained ſeven palatinates, or governments; the palatinate of Poſnania, Kaliſh, Siradia, Rava, Lanſchet, Breſty, and Inowlocz.

The chief towns in Poſnania, are Poſnan, ſituated on the river Warta; and Gneſna, ſituated in the marſhes, and anciently the metropolis of the whole kingdom; neither of which have any conſiderable trade.

In the palatinate of Kaliſh, the chief towns are Kaliſh and Kolo. The chief town in Siradia is of the ſame name. In the palatinate of Rava, the chief towns are Rava and Lowitz. In Lanſchet the chief town is Lancicia; but none of theſe towns, nor any of the reſt in the greater Poland, afford any thing remarkable for trade.

The Leſſer Poland is bounded by great Poland and Warſovia on the north; by Red Ruſſia on the eaſt; by Hungary on the ſouth; and by part of Germany towards the weſt. In this province are contained three palatinates; Cracow, Sendomir, and Lublin.

In the palatinate of Cracow, the chief town is Cracow, once the metropolis of the kingdom, ſituated in 50 deg. of N. lat. in a ſpacious plain near the Viſtula. It is the largeſt and beſt built town in Poland, but has no great trade.

In the palatinate of Lublin, the chief city is of the ſame name; which is a ſmall well built town, much frequented by Turkiſh, Muſcovite, Armenian, and German merchants; eſpecially at the four great marts, which are annually held here,

In the palatinate of Wilna, the chief town is Wilna, ſituated at the confluence of the rivers Wilia and Wilna, being a large populous trading city, the capital of Lithuania. The river is large and navigable, on which they tranſport their merchandiſe to Dantzick.

To the weſtward of Wilna lies the palatinate of Troki, in which Grodno, ſituated on the river Niemen, is the only

only place of any conſiderable trade; but it is meanly built of wood.

Pruſſia extends from 53 to 55 deg. of N. lat. being bounded by the Baltick ſea on the north; by Lithuania and Samogitia on the eaſt; by proper Poland and Warſovia towards the ſouth; and by Pomerania towards the weſt. It is in length about 200 miles, and in breadth upwards of 100 in the weſtern part, but not ſo much towards the eaſt. It is divided into Regal and Ducal Pruſſia. Regal Pruſſia takes up the weſtern part, and is ſubject to Poland; and Ducal Pruſſia is the eaſtern part, ſubject to the Elector of Brandenburg, now King of Pruſſia.

Regal Pruſſia is divided into three palatinates; Pomerelia, Culm, and Marienburgh. Pomerelia is ſituated on the weſt ſide the river Weſel, the chief town of which is *Dantzick*, ſituated in 19 deg. of E. lon. and 54 deg. of N. lat. 140 miles N. of Warſaw, and 70 S. W. of Koningſburg, containing 200,000 people. It is the moſt mercantile town of all thoſe ſituated on the Baltic, and the river Weſel or Viſtula, upon whoſe banks it is built, about a league from its mouth, brings it all the commodities of Poland, and ſerves to ſend back to the Poliſh provinces thoſe depoſited in the warehouſes of Dantzick.

Ships which draw more than eight feet of water cannot go up to the canal, which affords a communication between the Viſtula and the town: ſo that they muſt unload in the road, which is excellent; and a part of the cargo muſt be brought in barks called bordins.

The corn-warehouſes eſtabliſhed at Dantzick, in an iſland formed partly by the waters of the canal of the Viſtula, are in great reputation throughout Europe; which they certainly merit, if there is no exaggeration in what is ſaid of eight hundred thouſand tons of corn exported yearly by foreigners.

None but the burghers are privileged to purchaſe the Poliſh corn, when once entered their town; but they are obliged alſo to take all that enters according to the price regulated by the magiſtracy.

Beſides, foreigners have not the liberty of ſending their merchandiſe into the country, or of ſelling them to any other perſons than the Dantzickers; but they enjoy at leaſt that of putting them in warehouſes, till they can conveniently diſpoſe of them.

The Dutch ſeem very zealous for the liberty of this city; and they would not willingly ſee it ſubject to any power, not even to the Poles, who are however its real ſovereigns; but ſuffer the Dantzickers to live according to their own laws; contenting themſelves that the public coins ſhould be ſtruck, and juſtice adminiſtred, in the name of the King of Poland.

The cargoes of Engliſh, Dutch, and French ſhips for Dantzick are woollen cloths, ſilks, ſpice, and drugs for dying, other drugs for medicine, Italian cream of tartar, ſugar, oil, paper, leather variouſly dreſſed; laſtly, French ſalt, wine, and brandy.

The three laſt commodities are for Pruſſia; the Poles having in their country the ſalt of Waliſca, and eſteeming no other ſpirits than thoſe made of corn; nor no other wines, but thoſe of Hungary, particularly thoſe of Tokai; and the reſt they furniſh themſelves with at Dantzick.

Beſides corn, which is the principal commodity of Dantzick, foreigners export alſo maſts for ſhips, oak and fir-timber for carpenters work, hemp, flax, moſt kinds of aſhes, honey, wax, tallow, ſteel, iron, copper, lead, ſalt-petre, tar, yellow amber, hides, furs, wool, and Poliſh ſalt, when the Engliſh and Dutch cannot have French.

The Dantzickers trade to all the countries in Europe; but never to the Eaſt or Weſt Indies.

On the weſtern ſide of the Viſtula lies the palatinate of Culm, which has no place of trade.

In the palatinate of Marienburgh is the city of *Elbing*, ſituated on a river of the ſame name, which diſcharges itſelf into a bay of the Baltick ſea, and is about 30 miles to the eaſtward of Dantzick, with which it has a communication by that bay. The ſituation of Elbing is exceeding pleaſant; it is very populous, has a good trade, and is divided into the old and new town.

The merchandiſes exported from Poland conſiſt of wheat, rye, barley, oats, pulſe, and generally of all kinds of grain; beſides oxen, ſheep, horſes, hogs, hemp, flax, linen, hops, hides, tallow, leather, furs brought out of Muſcovy and dreſſed here, Poliſh furs, honey, wax, amber, pot aſhes, pitch, maſts, planks, ſalt, beer, vitriol, nitre, lead, iron, copper, pit-coal, glaſs, earthen-ware, and wool, of which there is great plenty, and tolerably good. Their imports conſiſt in woollen cloth, ſilks, tapeſtry, rich furs, jewels, gold and ſilver wrought and unwrought, wines, ſpices, ſalt-fiſh, fruit and tin. But notwithſtanding their exports are ſo large and valuable, their imports far exceed them, and the balance of trade is vaſtly againſt them. As to manufactures, they have none, except thoſe of linen, leather, hard-ware, and earthen-ware; and the better ſort of people, except in Pruſſia, look upon every thing that relates to trade or mechanick employments beneath their care, ſpending their revenues in rich habits, furniture, ſpendid equipages, and a profuſe way of living.

Ducal, or *Brandenburg Pruſſia*, from whence the King of Pruſſia takes his title, is bounded by the Baltick ſea on the north; by the province of Lithuania on the eaſt; by Warſovia on the ſouth; and by Regal or Poliſh Pruſſia towards the weſt: the chief town being *Koningſburgh*, the capital of the province, ſituated at the mouth of the river Pregel, about 80 miles to the eaſtward of Dantzick. It is a large, well built, populous city, and a place of good trade; for the bay, or Friſchaff, into which the river Pregel diſcharges itſelf, opens to the Baltic ſea, and forms a commodious port for this city. But it is at Pilaw, a conſiderable port at the entrance of this bay, that ſhips are diſburdened of part of their cargo for going to Koninſburgh, which is about 30 miles diſtant, and which they cannot make to without drawing only 10 feet of water.

This inconveniency is attended with two others, ſtrangers not being allowed to depoſite their merchandiſe in a warehouſe till a favourable time for a ſale comes; nor to land them, by the means of the canals, for ſelling them to any other perſons than the inhabitants of the town.

Beſides the merchandiſes of the growth of the province, the Pregel, which has its ſource in Lithuania, ſerves for tranſporting to Koningſburgh the commodities of Poland, as oak-timber for coopers, fir-planks, wheat, rice, barley, millet, hides, furs, hemp, but of an inferior quality to that of other parts of the north; flax, honey, wax, tallow, and aſhes.

The merchandiſes proper for this trade are woollen cloths, ſalt, iron, lead, tin, ſome wines, a little brandy, and vinegar, butter, cheeſe, ſugar, and rixdollars.

Memel is another port, ſituated 70 miles N. of Koningſburgh; but there are no other places of trade.

The duchy of *Courland* is ſituated between 21 and 26 deg. of E. lon. and between 56 and 57 deg. of N. lat. bounded by the river Dwina, which divides it from Livonia on the north; by Lithuania on the eaſt; by Samogitia on the ſouth; and the Baltic ſea on the weſt; being about 130 miles long, and 30 broad. It is uſually reckoned a province of Poland; but the Courlanders elect their own princes, and are governed by their own laws: however, they are influenced in their choice either by the Poles or the Ruſſians, and the latter ſeem to have the greateſt influence on them at preſent; though the ducal throne has been vacant for ſome years.

The capital city is Mittau, ſituated in 24 deg. of E. lon. and 56 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. Goldingen is 60 miles W. of Mittau. Libaw is a port-town ſituated on a bay of the Baltic, 80 miles W. of Mittau; and there are alſo the ports of Windaw, Angermund, and Pienen: but the linſeed and flax of this country are the beſt of Europe, and conſtitute the principal commerce of this duchy.

Poland is one large plain, from whence it is ſaid to derive its name. The only hills are the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Hungary and Tranſilvania on the ſouth. There are ſome large foreſts of pines and firs

in Lithuania: but the only ſea that borders on Poland is the Baltic. The government does not only reſemble a republic, but is really ſo, and ſtiled ſuch by the Poles themſelves in their acts of ſtate; for the legiſlative power is lodged in the ſtates, and the executive power in the ſenate, of which the King is only preſident when he is preſent; and they can meet and conſult without him. The crown is elective, and the eſtabliſhed religion is popery, except in the trading towns near the Baltic, where the Lutheran religion is profeſſed: there are alſo a multitude of Mahometan Tartars in Lithuania, great numbers of Jews, and many of the Greek religion. The King has a clear revenue of 140,000 l. a year; but he enjoys only the ſhadow of royalty.

POLAR *Circles*, are two leſſer circles of the ſphere, parallel to the equator, at the diſtance of 23 degrees from each pole, ſerving to mark the beginning of the frigid zones.

POLCHEN. A ſmall copper coin current at Dantzic, 60 of which make the florin, or 1 s. 6 d. ſterling.

POLDING, or *Poluſca*. See *Poluſca*.

POLE, in aſtronomy, one of the extremities of the axis whereon the ſphere revolves: theſe two points, each 90 degrees diſtant from the equator, being called by way of excellence, the poles of the world.

POLE, in geography, is the extremity of the earth's axis, or one of the points on the ſurface of our globe, thro' which the axis paſſes.

The altitude, or elevation of the pole, is an arch of the meridian intercepted between the pole and the horizon. To find the elevation is a very popular problem in aſtronomy, geography, and navigation; this, and the latitude of the place being always the ſame.

To obſerve the altitude of the pole. With a quadrant, obſerve both the greateſt and leaſt meridian altitude of the pole ſtar. See *Meridian*.

Subtract the leaſt from the greateſt, and divide the difference by 2; the quotient is the ſtar's diſtance from the pole, which, added to the leſſer altitude found, gives the elevation of the pole required.

Thus M. Couplet the younger, at Lisbon in 1697, in the end of September, obſerved the greateſt meridian altitude 41 deg. 5 min. 40 ſec. the ſmalleſt 36 deg. 28 min. the difference whereof is 4 deg. 37 min. 40 ſec. one half whereof 2 deg. 18 min. 50 ſec. added to the leſs, gives 38 deg. 46 min. 50 ſec. the altitude of the pole of Lisbon.

The altitude of the pole, together with the meridian line, being the baſis of all aſtronomical obſervations; to determine it with the greater accuracy, the meridian altitudes muſt be corrected from the doctrine of refractions.

By means hereof M. Couplet, ſubtracting 1 min. 25 ſec. in the propoſed example, leaves the corrected altitude 38 deg. 45 min. 25 ſec. Hence, 1. the altitude of the pole being ſubtracted from 90 deg. leaves the altitude of the equator.

2. If the greateſt meridian of this ſtar exceed the altitude of the equator, the latter ſubtracted from the former, leaves the declination of the ſtar northward; if the altitude of the ſtar be leſs than that of the equator, the former ſubtracted from the latter, leaves the ſtar's declination ſouthward. See *Declination*.

Dr. Hook, and ſome others, imagined the height of the pole, and the poſition of the circles in the heavens, in reſpect of thoſe of the earth, to be changed from what they anciently were: though M. Caſſini thinks there is no ground for ſuch ſurmiſe; but that all the difference we now find in the latitudes of places, &c. in reſpect of the ancient accounts, ariſes from the inaccuracies of the ancient obſervations. Indeed, it is no wonder they ſhould err in their obſervations, conſidering what inſtruments they uſed. He adds, it is probable there may be ſome variation in the height of the pole; but thinks this never exceeds two minutes; and that even this will vaniſh, after it is arrived to its higheſt difference.

POLE is alſo a copper coin ſtruck in Boghar, an ancient province of Perſia, at preſent governed by its own prince: 120 poles make the ſilver coin of the ſame town; which is worth about 6 d. ſterling; though the value is not always fixt, riſing and falling at the diſcretion of the prince.

POLERON. One of the Banda, or nutmeg iſlands in the Indian ocean, ſituated in 128 deg. of E. lon. and 4 deg. of S. lat. See *Banda* Iſlands.

POLICANDRO. A ſmall iſland of the Turkiſh Archipelago, ſituated in 25 deg. of E. lon. and 36 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

POLICY *of Inſurance*, or *Aſſurance of ſhips*, is a contract, or convention, whereby a perſon takes upon himſelf the riſques of a ſea-voyage, obliging himſelf to make good the loſſes and damages that may befal the veſſel, its equipage, tackle, victualing, lading, &c. either from tempeſts, ſhipwrecks, pirates, fire, war, repriſals, &c. in part or in the whole; in conſideration of a certain ſum, of ſeven, eight, or ten *per cent.* more or leſs, according to the riſque run; which ſum is paid down to the aſſuree by the aſſuree, upon his ſigning the policy. See *Inſurance*. The number of inſurers at Amſterdam is not above fifty or ſixty perſons; yet is their wealth and character ſuch, that a man never fails of an aſſurer, be the countries or ports what they will, the cargo ever ſo rich, or the danger every ſo imminent.

POLICY *of Inſurance*, or *Aſſurance of houſes*, is an inſtrument formed on the model of that for ſhips, whereby a perſon, or community of perſons, take on themſelves the riſques and damages that may befal houſes, their furniture, in whole or in part, &c. from fire, in conſideration of a certain ſum, or ſums, to be paid by the aſſurer according to the terms of the agreement. See *Inſurance*.

POLICY *of Inſurances of lives*, is an inſtrument whereby a ſociety of perſons, erected into a corporation, &c. oblige themſelves to pay a certain ſum of money, as a hundred pounds, upon the death of a perſon whoſe life they aſſure, in conſideration of a ſum of money; as one guinea paid quarterly to the inſurers during the life of the perſon aſſured. See *Inſurance*.

POLITICAL *Arithmetic*, is the application of arithmetical calculations to political uſes and ſubjects, as the public revenues, number of people, extent and value of lands, taxes, trade, commerce, manufactures, or whatever relates to the power, ſtrength, riches, &c. of any nation or commonwealth.

The chief authors who have attempted calculations of this kind are Sir William Petty, Major Grant, Dr. Halley, Dr. Davenant, and Mr. King; the principal points ſettled by them being as follows.

According to Sir William Petty's computations, tho' the land of Holland and Zealand be not above 1,000,000 acres, nor that of France leſs than 8,000,000; yet the former are near a third part as rich and ſtrong as the latter. That the rents of lands in Holland are to thoſe in France, as 7 or 8 to 1. That the people of Amſterdam are 2-3ds of thoſe of Paris or London; which, according to him, do not differ above a twentieth part from one another. That the value of the ſhipping of Europe is about 2,000,000 of tuns; whereof the Engliſh have 500,000, the Dutch 900,000, the French 100,000; the Hanburghers, Danes, Swedes, and Dantzickers have 250,000, and Spain, Portugal, Italy, &c. about as much. That the value of goods exported yearly from France into all parts was quadruple of that exported into England alone, and conſequently in all about 5,000,000 l. What was then exported out of Holland into England was worth 300,000, and what was exported thence into all the world 18,000,000 l. That the money yearly raiſed by the French King in time of peace is about 6½ millions ſterling; and that the monies raiſed in Holland and Zealand are about 2,100,000 l. and in all the provinces together 3,000,000 l. That the people of England are about 6,000,000, and their expences at 7 l. *per annum* a head 42,000,000 l. or 800,000 l. a week. That the rent of the lands is about 8,000,000 l. and the intereſts and profits of the perſonal eſtates as much. The rent of houſes in England 4,000,000 l. That the profits of the labour of all the people is 26,000,000 l. yearly. That in Ireland the people amount to about 1,200,000. That the corn ſpent in England at 5 s. the buſhel for wheat

and 2 s. 6 d. for barley, amounts to 10 millions *per annum*. That the navy of England, then, required 36,000 men to mann it, and other trade and ſhipping about 48,000. That in France to manage the whole ſhipping-trade, there were required 15,000 men. That the whole people of France are about 13 millions and a half; and thoſe of England, Scotland, and Ireland, together, about 9 millions and a half. That in the three kingdoms are about 20,000 churchmen, and in all France 270,000. That in the dominions of England are above 40,000 ſeamen, and in France not above 10,000. That in England, Scotland, and Ireland, and all other dominions depending thereon, there were then about 60,000 ton of ſhipping, which is worth about 4 millions and a half in money. That the ſea-line round England, Scotland, and Ireland, and the adjacent iſles, is about 3800 miles. That in the whole world are about 300 millions of people; whereof thoſe with whom the Engliſh and Dutch have any commerce, are not above 80 millions. That the value of commodities, traded for in the whole, is not above 45,000,000 l. That the manufactures exported out of England, amount to about 5,000,000 l. *per annum*. Lead, tin, and coal to 500,000 l. *per annum*. That the value of the French commodities, then, brought into England, did not exceed 1,200,000 l. *per annum*. That the whole caſh of England, in current money, was then about 6 000,000 l. ſterling.

Dr. Davenant gives ſome good reaſons why Sir William Petty's numbers are not to be entirely depended upon; and therefore advances others of his own, founded on the obſervations of Mr. King.

Some of the particulars are; that the land of England is 39 millions of acres; that the number of people, according to his account, is about 5,545,000 ſouls, they increaſing about 90,000 every year; allowances being made for plagues, &c. wars, ſhipping, and the plantations. The people in London he reckons at 530,000: thoſe in the other cities and market-towns in England 870,000; and thoſe in the villages and hamlets at 4,100,000. The yearly rent of the lands he accounts to be 10,000,000l. that of the houſes and buildings 2,000,000 l. *per annum*. The produce of all kinds of grain he reckons to be worth 9,075 000 l. in a year moderately plenty; the rent of the corn-lands annually 2,000,000 l. and their neat produce above 9,000,000 l. The rents of the paſtures, meadows, woods, foreſts, commons, heaths, &c. 7,000,000 l. The annual produce by cattle, in butter, cheeſe, and milk, he thinks is about 2,500,000 l. The value of the wool yearly ſhorn about 2,000,000 l.; of horſes yearly bred, about 250,000 l.; of the fleſh yearly ſpent as food, about 600 000 l.; of the hay yearly conſumed by horſes, about 1,300,000 l.; of the tallow and hides, about 600,000 l.; of the hay conſumed by other cattle 1,000,000 l.; of the timber yearly felled for building 500,000 l.; of the wood yearly ſpent in firing, &c. about 500,000 l. The land of England, to its inhabitants, is now about 7 $\frac{1}{4}$ acres *per* head. The value of the wheat, rye, and barley, neceſſary for the ſuſtenance of England, amounts to at leaſt 6,000,000 l. ſterling *per annum*. The value of the woollen manufacture made in England is about 8,000,000 l. *per annum*; and exports of all kinds of the woollen manufacture amount to above 2,000,000 l. *per annum*. The annual income of England, on which the whole people live and ſubſiſt, and out of which taxes of all kinds are paid, is now about 43,000,000 l. That of France 81,000,000 l.; and that of Holland 18,250,000 l. Major Grant, in his obſervations on the bills of mortality, computes that there are 39,000 ſquare miles of land in England; that in England and Wales there are 4,600,000 ſouls; that the people of London are about 640,000, one-14th part of the people of England; that in England and Wales are about 10,000 pariſhes; that there are 25 millions of acres in England and Wales, which is about 4 acres to every head; that but 64 out of 100 of the children born are alive at 16 years old; that but 40 of 100 are alive at 16 years end; that but 25 of 100 at 26 years end; that but 16 at 36 years end; that but 10 of 100 at 46 years end; that but 6 out of 100 at 56 years end; that but 3 out of 100 at 66 years end; and that but 1 out of 100 at 76 years end; and that London doubles itſelf in about 64 years.

Sir William Petty, in his diſcourſe about duplicate proportion, further tells us, it is found by experience, that there are more perſons living between 16 and 26 than of any other age; and, laying down that as a ſuppoſition, he infers that the ſquare roots of every number of mens ages under 16, whoſe root is 4, ſhew the proportion of the probability of ſuch perſon's reaching the age of 70 years. Thus, it is 4 times more likely that one of 16 years of age lives to be 70, than a child of one year old. It is thrice as probable, that one of 9 years lives to be 70, as ſuch a new-born child, &c. That the odds is 5 to 4, that one of 25 dies before one of 16 years; that it is 6 to 5, ſtill as the ſquare roots of the ages, that one of 36 years dies before one of but 25 years of age; and ſo on according to any declining age to 70, compared with a number between 4 and 5; which is the root of 21, the law age.

But none of theſe calculations ſeem to be rightly founded. Dr. Halley has made a very exact eſtimate of the degrees of the mortality of mankind, from a curious table of the births and burials at the city of Breſlau, the capital of Sileſia; with an attempt to aſcertain the price of annuities upon lives, from which he derives the following uſes. 1. To find in any multitude or body of people, the proportion of men able to bear arms, which he reckons from 18 to 56 years old; and accounts about 1-4th of the whole. 2. To ſhew the different degrees of mortality, or rather vitality, in all ages; by which means he finds the odds there is, that any perſon of any age does not die in a years time, or before he attains ſuch an age. 3. To ſhew of what number of years it is an even lay that ſuch a perſon ſhall die; and finds, for inſtance, that it is an even lay, that a man of 30 years of age, lives between 27 and 28 years. 4. To regulate the price of inſurances upon lives. 5. And the valuation of annuities upon lives. 6. How to value 2 or 3 lives after the ſame manner. See *Annuity*.

From the whole he makes two very good obſervations: 1. How unjuſtly we uſe to complain of the ſhortneſs of our lives; for that it appears, that one half of thoſe that are born do not live above 17 years.

2. That the growth and increaſe of mankind is not ſo much ſtinted by any thing in the nature of the ſpecies, as it is from the curious difficulty moſt people make of venturing on the ſtate of marriage; and therefore that celibacy ought to be every way diſcouraged by all wiſe governments; and thoſe who have numerous families of children to be countenanced and encouraged by good laws; ſuch as the *jus trium liberorum* among the Romans.

POLIUM, *Poley*. A medicinal plant, which makes an ingredient in the treacle of Andromachus: it grows in mountainous places, and is thence denominated montanum. The tops of its flowers are eſteemed cephalic, proper to promote urine, and the menſes; as alſo to prevent putrefaction.

POLL DAVY. A coarſe hempen cloth, chiefly manufactured in Bretagne in France, uſed for the ſails of ſhipping, and bought up in great quantities by the Engliſh in time of peace.

POLOMITTS, or *Polimits*. A kind of ſlight camblet, manufactured in French Flanders, whoſe length is indeterminate, but breadth is uſually 1-4th and a half.

POLTYNA. A ſilver coin of Ruſſia, worth 2 s. 3 d. ſterling, two poltynas making the ruble.

POLUSCA. A ſmall ſilver coin, ſtruck and current in Ruſſia, worth the half of the copeac; 200 poluſcas making the ruble, or 4 s. 6 d. ſterling.

POMATUM, or *Pomado*. A compoſition of apples, with lard and roſe-water, uſed by way of unguent on many occaſions; particularly for diſeaſes of the ſkin, pimples, ſcurfs, &c. to ſoften the hands, render the ſkin ſmooth, and the complexion freſh. See *Unguent*.

Pomatums are occaſionally made with jeſſamine, oranges, jonquils, tuberoſes, &c. that is, they are perfumed with the odour of theſe flowers. The beſt is ſaid to be that prepared with kid's greaſe, pippins, and orange ſliced, with a glaſs of roſe-water, and half a glaſs of white-wine, boiled

boiled and ſtrained, and at laſt ſprinkled with oil of ſweet almonds.

The unguentum pomatum preſcribed in the college diſpenſary, conſiſts of hog's lard, ſheep's ſuet, the apple called pome-water, roſe-water, and orrice root, boiled till the apples are ſoft, ſtrained, and perfumed with oil of rhodium. Dr. Quincy obſerves, that the apple is of no ſignificance at all in the recipe, and that the common pomatum ſold in the ſhops, is only lard beat into cream, with roſe-water, and ſcented with lemons, thyme, or the like.

POMEGRANATE. A medicinal fruit, in form of an apple or quince, full of ſeeds or kernels, incloſed within a reddiſh pulp, ſometimes ſweet, and ſometimes acid.

The pomegranate tree is of two kinds; the one wild, which produces a kind of flower uſed in pharmacy: the other cultivated in gardens, whereof there are two kinds; the one only bearing flowers, the other both flowers and fruit: the flowers of each, called cytini, are incloſed in an oblong purple calyx reſembling a bell. The trees never grow high; their branches are a little prickly; their leaves reſemble thoſe of the greater myrtle; and their fruit, which is compoſed of a great number of red angular grains, ſometimes ſweet, ſometimes ſour, and ſometimes vinous, according to the quality of the tree, are all incloſed in little diſtinct cells, and covered in common with a thick, browniſh rind; over which grows a thick kind of crowning, of the ſame nature with the rind, formed of a production of the calyx.

In general, pomegranates are not only agreeable to the taſte, but good for the ſtomach, and of conſiderable uſe in medicine. Of the kernels are made ſyrups and conſerves; and the peel, or rind, which is called malicorium, held very aſtringent, is an ingredient in ſeveral remedies and ptiſans, for dyſenteries, diarrhœas, hæmorrhages, lienteries, and relaxations of the gums. The antients alſo uſed the rinds as the moderns do ſumac, in the preparation of leather.

The rind ought always to be dried, after the grains are taken out; that dried without ſcouping always taſting muſty, and more likely to increaſe diſtempers than cure them. As to the conſerve, there is but little of the true ſold; being very difficult to make: that which ordinarily paſſes for it, is only ſugar melted down; to which they give the colour and ſharp taſte with cochineel, cream of tartar, and alum.

POMEGUES. One of the French iſlands on the coaſt of Provence. See *French* Iſlands.

POMPHOLYX, in pharmacy, a ſort of metalline flour, being a white, light, and friable ſubſtance, found adherent to the lid or converticle of the crucibles, or furnaces, wherein the copper is melted with calamine ſtone, for the making of braſs. See *Braſs* and *Calamine*.

It is eſteemed deterſive and deſiccative, tho' only applied externally; and much uſed in divers kinds of fevers: but its violence requires its being uſed with great precaution.

The apothecaries ſometimes call it *nil*, or *nihili album*; and ſometimes white tutty, in regard to its reſemblance to tutty in virtue. See *Tutty*.

PONDICHERRY. A town of India, lying in 80 deg. of E. lon. and 12 deg. 27 min. of N. lat. on the coaſt of Coromandel, ſituated 60 miles S. of Fort St. George, where the French have their chief factory, and a ſtrong fort to defend it. See *India*.

PONT, or *Punt*. A long meaſure uſed in China, 10 of which make 1 cobre, the cobre making 13 inches 2 lines. See *Cobre*.

PONT, or *Punt*, is alſo a flat-bottomed boat.

PONTAGE. A contribution towards the maintenance, repairing, and rebuilding of bridges; which was anciently one of the three general national charges, whence no perſon of any degree whatever was exempted.

PONTAGE. is alſo a due anciently belonging to the lord of the fee, for merchandiſes, that paſs over rivers, bridges, &c.

PONTI, is a copper coin of Sicily, 90 of which make the florin, or 1 s. 6½ d. ſterling.

PONTON, or *Pontoon*, in war, a little floating bridge, made of boats and planks; conſiſting of two veſſels, at a little diſtance, joined by beams, with planks laid acroſs, for the paſſage of the cavalry, the cannon, infantry, &c. over a river, an arm of the ſea, &c.

The late invented ponton is of copper, furniſhed with an anchor, &c. to fix it. To make a bridge, ſeveral of theſe are diſpoſed two yards aſunder, with beams acroſs them, and over thoſe, boards or planks. They are linked to one another, and faſtened on each ſide the river, by a rope run through a ring in each of their heads, and fixed to a tree, or ſtake on either ſhore. The whole make one firm uniform bridge, over which a train of artillery may paſs. Cæſar and Aulus Gellius both mention pontons; but theirs were no more than a kind of ſquare flat veſſels, proper for the carrying over of horſes, &c. Ours however take their names from them; thoſe authors call them pontones, of ponto.

PONZA. An iſland in the Mediterranean, ſituated in 13 deg. 50 min. of E. lon. and 41 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. near the W. coaſt of Naples, at the entrance of the bay of Gaieta.

POOLAWAY. One of the Banda, or nutmeg iſlands, in the Indian ocean, lying in 128 deg. of E. lon. and 3 deg. 30 min. of S. lat. See *Banda* Iſlands.

POOP, in a ſhip, is the deck over that which is commonly called the captain's cabbin. See *Poup*.

POOR. Such needy and indigent perſons as want the charitable aſſiſtance of others, to procure the neceſſaries of life.

The poor in England are reputed to be ten times more than the rich, and there are many excellent proviſions for them, though not properly enforced. The poors-rate amounts to about 3 millions and a half ſterling every year; beſides private charities, and hoſpitals; which is ſufficient to maintain the tenth of the inhabitants: but, inſtead of applying themſelves to honeſt induſtry, many of them chuſe to live in idleneſs, preferring beggary to labour.

Sir Joſiah Child, in his diſcourſe on trade, chap. 2. propoſes a ſcheme for regulating the poor; which, with ſome amendments, is as follows.

"That there be a corporation eſtabliſhed in every county for regulating the poor, to conſiſt of 50 perſons, with perpetual ſucceſſion, to be ſtiled fathers of the poor.

That the ſaid number of 50 be conſtantly filled up by the election of the freeholders once a year.

That all the pariſh-officers within each county be ſubordinate and accountable to their reſpective corporations.

That the ſaid corporations have power to aſſeſs and compel the payment from every pariſh in their county of the medium of the poors rates raiſed in the three years preceding.

That one tenth part of the ſaid ſum be abated yearly, until the whole in ten years time be done away, and the poor maintained by the donations of the charitable only.

That each corporation appoint a treaſurer to receive the alms of all charitably diſpoſed perſons.

That the ſaid corporations have power to erect work-houſes, hoſpitals, working-ſchools, houſes of correction, and to exerciſe all other powers relating to the poor, that any number of juſtices of the peace may now do in their quarter-ſeſſions, or otherwiſe.

That they receive none but infants, and perſons well recommended for their diligence and ſobriety, as proper objects.

That each of the ſaid fathers of the poor have power to commit any vagrant, or perſon not having a viſible eſtate or trade, and their own diſorderly poor, to the county goal.

That the ſaid commitments be bailable.

That at the aſſizes for the counties the perſons names committed be called over, and thoſe who cannot give good account of themſelves be tranſported for three years.

That the ſaid corporations have power to admit as members, having equal power with thoſe elected, every perſon paying in 100 l. to the poors uſe.

That ſeven or more fathers of the poor do make court.

That every miniſter and church-warden go together, on a year, to every houſe in their pariſh, to collect the al

of charitably diſpoſed perſons, entering the ſame in a book.

That the whole collection being made, the money be remitted to the corporation the pariſh belongs to, with the ſaid book ſigned by the ſaid miniſter and church-wardens.

That all money given for the poor be accounted ſacred, and that it be felony to miſapply, conceal, lend, or convert it to any other uſe or purpoſe whatſoever.

That every corporation do publiſh its accounts yearly.

That whatever the ſaid corporations want, be publickly bought of the loweſt contractor.

That whatever the ſaid corporations diſpoſe of, be adverti-ſed to be ſold by public auction to the beſt bidder.

That whenever they want money, or whenever a time of general calamity brings on an extraordinary charge, they take care to give public notice thereof, to ſtir up the charity of all good people to relieve their diſtreſſed and ſtarving brethren.

Of the benefits ariſing by well regulating our poor.

1. It will increaſe trade.

For our poor ſeeing that no idle vagrants can live here, but muſt be tranſported, and that none but thoſe well recommended for their diligence and ſobriety can be maintained by the fathers of the poor in ſickneſs or old age, they muſt of neceſſity become frugal, induſtrious, and work at ſuch places as trade will afford; not ſpend half of their wages in drink, as the Britiſh Merchant, vol. 1. p. 7, aſſerts it to be well known that ours do, whereby no nation can out-rival us on account of the plenty of proviſions of all ſorts that our country abounds with, and its natural advantages for trade ſuperior to any nation, the exemption from oppreſſion by taxes, and other good regulations; ſo that our poor, by abating their luxury and idleneſs, will be able to work as cheap as any people; the conſequence of which is a certain increaſe of trade.

By taking off our burdenſome and unjuſt poors rates on the induſtrious, who now maintain the idle, our goods will become cheaper, conſequently more vendible.

2 It will employ our poor.

This is a conſequence of the laſt remark; for as it is certain that they who bring their goods the cheapeſt to market will have the moſt trade, ſo thoſe that work the cheapeſt muſt have the moſt employment; for, 1ſt, it will be more conſtant by being cheaper; 2d, though they receive a leſs number of pence for wages, yet they will be more valuable by the prices of neceſſaries being freed from taxes with their conſequences; 3d, The poor being by this propoſal inured to labour and reſtrained from idleneſs, they will work more and ſpend leſs, therefore be enabled to lay up a better proviſion for their families than they now do.

3. It will increaſe the ſtock of people.

Though this can be proved to be a certain conſequence of the two former remarks; yet as ſome people, out of a falſe tenderneſs, may think that the tranſporting of many vagrants may depopulate the nation, I ſhall endeavour to ſhew the contrary.

1. Idleneſs is the root of all evil, and two of the puniſhments of evil-doers with us are hanging and tranſportation; ſo that idleneſs deprives us of many people; but this propoſal tending in its nature to make our people frugal and induſtrious, will preſerve and ſave many from thoſe two calamities.

2. Idleneſs brings on want, diſeaſes, death, and thins a nation; but frugality and induſtry cauſe plenty, health, long-life, and people a country.

3. Idleneſs diſables men from ſupporting a family; therefore prevents marriage; frugality and induſtry enable men to marry, and ſtock a country with people.

4. If this propoſal drives away the idle ſo much the better, they are a burden inſtead of a benefit to the community; it will ſupply their places by increaſing trade with more deſerving people from our neighbours, agreeable to this maxim, Such as your employment is for people, ſo many will your people be.

5. When our people ſee that idleneſs is deemed a crime, and puniſhed accordingly; but that frugality and induſtry the virtues, rewarded with good wages and a comfortable ſubſiſtence; a thorough reformation muſt enſue among them, the idle be few, and this objection vaniſh.

4. It will increaſe our riches.

This is a conſequence of the other remarks, which tends to make our people induſtrious; *the hand of the diligent maketh rich*, and the greater number of diligent hands we have, the more riches we ſhall get.

5. It will increaſe the value of our lands.

This is a conſequence of all the above remarks; for whatever cauſes trade employs the poor, increaſes the ſtock of people, and increaſes our riches, muſt increaſe the value of our lands.

The well regulating of our poor is proved to be the cauſe of trade, which is the cauſe of all the other remarks; therefore the well regulating our poor is a great increaſer of the value of lands.

But perhaps it will be ſaid, that the poor, being left to ſubſiſt on charity only, will be ſtarved.

To this may be anſwered, that the great number of idle beggars we now voluntarily maintain, proves the contrary; that in all times of general calamities our charity is eminent, as Sir Joſiah Child ſays it was after the fire of London, and was again proved in the hard winter in 1739; beſides, the fathers of the poor hereby propoſed being perſons of character and fortune, will for their own honour, by their delicate ſenſe of public good, and their love for true charity, take care to diſtinguiſh between the real and pretended objects of want, by which the numbers of the former will appear to be but few, and they by good management maintained at a ſmall expence; whereby the encouragement to charity will be vaſtly increas'd, by people's knowing certainly where to give their money to do good, the want of which certain knowledge is a great damp to our charity at preſent.

Therefore as we now maintain voluntarily more idle people than really want, there can be no doubt but they will, when reduced to proper objects only, be ſufficiently provided for.

Mr. Cary, in his diſcourſe of trade, has alſo made ſome excellent proviſions for the proper regulation of the poor; and part of the ſcheme has been carried into execution by the corporation of Briſtol, as appears by his Appendix p. 147: but the legiſlature have not been able to bring this grand point to bear in all places; though, it is evident, that the proper employment of the poor would greatly and moſt materially contribute to the trade and advantage of Great Britain.

Dr. Davenant has alſo publiſhed a ſcheme for ſettling the pariſh work; and has given a liſt of what the poors tax amounted to in one year, at the latter end of the reign of Charles II. as follows.

	£.
Bedfordſhire	6,911
Berkſhire	9800
Buckinghamſhire	14,800
Cambridgeſhire, and Iſle of Ely	9,128
Cheſhire, and Cheſter	5,796
Cornwal	9,257
Cumberland	4,988
Derbyſhire	7,953
Devonſhire, and Exon	34,764
Dorſetſhire, and Pool	13,885
Durham, Northumberland, and Berwick	13,629
Eſſex	37,348
Glouceſterſhire, and Glouceſter	19,600
Hampſhire	13,173
Herefordſhire	8,687
Hertfordſhire	10,760
Huntingdonſhire	5,850
Kent	29,875
Lancaſhire	7,200
Leiceſterſhire	11,600
Lincoln, and Lincolnſhire	31,500
Northamptonſhire	21,516
Nottinghamſhire	11,760
Norfolk, and Norwich	46,200
Oxfordſhire	7,950
Rutland	3,730
Salop	13,375
Staffordſhire, and Litchfield	7,150

Somerſetſhire and Briſtol	L.	30,263
Suffolk		25,750
Surry, and Southwark		15,600
Suſſex		18,720
Warwickſhire, and Coventry		9,800
Worceſterſhire, and Worceſter		10,640
Wiltſhire		18,240
Weſtmoreland		1,890
Yorkſhire, York, and Hull		26,150
Wales, N. and S.		33,753
London, Middleſex, and Weſtminſter		56,380
In all		665,362

But ſince that time the poors rates have been greatly augmented.

POPE, his territories. See *Italy*.

POPLAR, or *Aſp-tree*. A tree that principally thrives in a marſhy ground.

POPPY. A medicinal plant, famed for its narcotic quality: of which there are ſeveral kinds, ſome wild, and ſome cultivated; white, purple, ſcarlet, &c. Thoſe moſt uſed being the white, papaver hortenſe ſemine albo; and black, papaver hortenſe ſemine nigro. The heads of theſe plants are of ſingular virtue to promote ſleep, aſſuage pain, &c. they ſtop diarrhœas, hæmorrhages, &c. Of the juice of the white poppy is prepared the opium ſold in the ſhops; and of the juice of the leaves, meconium. See *Opium*, and *Meconium*.

POPULEUM, or *Populenum*, in pharmacy, an unguent, prepared of the buds of black poplar, violet leaves, navelwort, and lard, bruiſed and macerated; to which are added bramble tops, leaves of black poppies, mandragora, henbane, night-ſhade, lettuce, and burdock, boiled in roſe-water, and ſtrained. It is much uſed as a cooler in burns, ſcalds, and all ſorts of inflammations, as alſo to aſſuage arthritic pains.

POQUELLE. A plant of Chili in South America, whoſe flowers form a kind of gold button, fit for a yellow dye; and its ſtalk for a green.

PORCAT. A port-town of the Hither India, in Aſia; ſituated in 75 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 9 deg. of N. lat. on the coaſt of Malabar, 200 miles S. of Calicut, in the poſſeſſion of the Dutch.

PORCELAIN, or *Purcelain*. A fine ſort of earthen ware, chiefly manufactured in China, and thence alſo called China, or China-ware, but brought into Europe from other parts of the Eaſt, eſpecially Japan, Siam, Surat, and Perſia. See *Fayance*.

It is not known who was the inventor of porcelain; the Chineſe annals, which uſe to contain every thing in any wiſe memorable, being perfectly ſilent about it: nor do we know much more of the time of its invention; only it is certain, it muſt have been before the beginning of the 5th century; the annals of Feuliang relating, that from the ſecond year of the reign of the Emperor Tam, about the year of Chriſt 442, the workers in porcelain of that province had alone furniſhed the Emperors therewith.

Porcelain is made chiefly, ſome ſay wholly, at Kingteching, a large town in the province of Kiangſi: there is ſome, indeed, made in the provinces of Kanton and Fokyen; but it is of little account, being perfectly white, without either gloſs or painting, and far inferior in beauty and value to the porcelain of Kingteching. Attempts have been made to remove the manufacture from Kingteching to Pekin, and other places, but in vain, the porcelain made in the new manufactories never coming up to that of the old; ſo that Kingteching has the honour of ſupplying the greateſt part of the world with this commodity: and F. du Halde aſſures us, that even the Japoneſe come to China for it.

Manufacture of PORCELAIN. Porcelain makes a very curious article in commerce, and even natural hiſtory. Its manufacture has hitherto paſſed for a myſtery in Europe, notwithſtanding all the endeavours of the Jeſuit miſſionaries to penetrate into the ſecret: the veil, however, is at length drawn, and in a letter of F. d' Entrecolles to F. Orry, from Jauckew, dated September 1ſt, 1712, and late publiſhed in French, the whole proceſs is deſcribed in its circumſtances.

There are porcelains made of all colours; both with r gard to the grounds, and to the repreſentations thereof As to the colour of landſkips, &c. ſome are ſimple, ſu as blues, which are thoſe moſt uſually ſeen in Europ others are mixed up of ſeveral teints, and others ag heightened with gold.

Notwithſtanding the vaſt quantity of porcelains made moſt in all the provinces of the empire of China, th ſtill continue very dear, tho' not near ſo dear as ancientl for the Chineſe annals tell us of times, wherein a fin urn coſt 90 or 100 crowns on the ſpot: but what chie occaſions the extraordinary price of this commodity, ſpecially in Europe, is, beſides the great profits of t merchants in Europe, and their factors in China, that rarely happens an oven ſucceeds throughout; that it frequently quite ſpoilt, ſo that upon opening it, in lieu fine porcelains, is found a hard unformed maſs, into whi both the porcelains and their coffins are converted, eith by exceſs of heat, or ſome ill qualities in the matter.

Another reaſon of the dearneſs of porcelain is, that t ingredients it is made of, and the wood wherewith it burnt, grow more and more ſcarce. A third reaſon m be added for the exceſſive price of porcelains to the E ropeans, which is, that moſt of thoſe ſent to Europe formed on new models, frequently very capricious, a difficult to ſucceed in; which, yet, for the ſmalleſt defec are turned on the manufacturer's hands; and he not bei able to diſpoſe of them to the Chineſe, becauſe not to th taſte, nor to their uſe, is forced to charge the porcelain deliverS, the higher, to pay himſelf for thoſe refuſed.

The French have been ſeveral years attempting to imit porcelain: the firſt eſſays made at Rouen are ſaid to ha ſucceeded tolerably well; and are now ſaid to be carr to ſuch a point in the manufactories at Paſſi and St. Clo that the French porcelains want nothing to make them equal value with the Chineſe, but to be brought five ſix thouſand leagues. In effect, for fineneſs of the gra of the matter, the beauty and turn of the veſſels, the actitude of the deſign, and the luſtre of the colours, leaſt the blues, the French are not much behind Chineſe: but their grand defect is in the white of ground, which is uſually dingy and dull, and eaſily tinguiſhes itſelf from the pure ſprightly white of Chineſe.

But the Saxons ſeem to have exceeded the French: th is a manufacture at Miſſen, the capital of Miſnia, whi the Baron de Polnitz aſſures us, produces porcel painted and enamelled in ſuch perfection, that they more beautiful, as well as dearer, than thoſe of Ch itſelf. The invention is owing to an alchymiſt, w being clapped up in the caſtle of Koningſtein, by the King of Poland, on a ſuſpicion of being maſter of ſecret of the philoſophers ſtone, had leiſure enough, indeed to make gold, but to invent a ware, which, the great vent of it, conſiderably enriches the countr Throughout Perſia a great quantity of porcelain is m ſo beautiful, and perfect, that it is with difficulty di guiſhed from the Chineſe, for which the Dutch, import it abundantly into Europe, uſually ſell it: the terials for compoſing it being glaſs, and ſmall river pebb pounded together, which compoſition becomes ſo that it can very well reſiſt fire.

A manufactory of porcelain has lately been erected in Auſtrian dominions; and there have been alſo two nufactories eſtabliſhed in England, the one at Bow, the other at Chelſea in Middleſex, which promiſe fa rival all the reſt; but that at Bow has acquired the gre reputation, being under the direction of a very elabo painter.

PORCELAIN, alſo denotes a little kind of white ſea- found along with the ſponges; and current in ſe parts of Aſia, Africa, and America, by way of mon

FORCO. A city of Peru, in South America, in the vince of Los Carcos, ſituated in 68 deg. of W. lon 22 deg. of S. lat. a little W. of the mines of Po

where the Spaniards found ſilver mines before thoſe of Potoſi were diſcovered.

PORK. The fleſh of ſwine, being a common food when freſh; but infinitely more ſo when ſalted and pickled, for the uſe of mariners at ſea, who conſume near as much pickled pork as they do beef. See *Beef*.

PORLOK. A port-town of Somerſetſhire, ſituated on the Briſtol channel, in 3 deg. 40 min. of W. lon. and 51 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. 23 miles N. W. of Bridgewater.

PORPHYRY, in natural hiſtory, a precious kind of ſtone, or marble, of a browniſh red colour, frequently interſperſed with white ſtains; anciently brought from Egypt, and exceeding all others in hardneſs. See *Marble*.

PORQUEROLLE. One of the iſlands of Hieres, on the coaſt of Provence in France. See *French* Iſlands.

PORT, or the *Porte*, the city of Conſtantinople, ſo called by way of eminence, on account of its excellent harbour. See *Conſtantinople*, and *Turky*.

PORT, *Haven*, or *Harbour*. A commodious place ſituated on the ſea-coaſt, or the mouth of a river, with depth of water ſufficient for ſhips of burden, and convenient bottom for anchorage; where veſſels lie by, to load or unload, ſcreened from the wind, and ſafe from any enterprize of enemies, either by the diſpoſition of the place, or by means of a mole, dike, or the like, with a chain and light-houſe. See *Harbour*, and *Pharos*.

Ports are either natural or artificial; the former being thoſe which providence ſeems to have formed for the communication of commerce: and the latter are thoſe formed with moles, or projections into the ſea.

But more properly, a port, harbour, or haven, is a place where ſhips arrive with their freight; or of refuge againſt danger, being for the ſafe receiving of ſhips, and ſecurity of navigation: and a road is a little way out from port near the ſea, for any ſhips to ride in. The ports, in England, are only thoſe common places, to which the officers of the cuſtoms are appropriated; and which contain and include all the privileges and guidance of all members and creeks thereunto allotted.

By members, are underſtood thoſe places where anciently a cuſtom houſe hath been kept, and officers or their deputies are attending, they being lawful places of exportation or importation of goods and merchandiſe: and creeks, or nooks to unload wares, are places in which officers commonly are or have been placed, by way of prevention of frauds in the cuſtoms; not out of duty or right of attendance, for they are not legally allowed, without particular licence or ſufferance from the port, or member under which they are placed.

According to the maritime laws of France, all ports and harbours are to be maintained in their depth and cleanneſs; and no perſons are to caſt any thing into them that may obſtruct the ſame. There are always to be ſeamen aboard the ſhips in the harbour, to facilitate the paſſage of veſſels coming in and going out, clear the cable ropes, and do all the neceſſary work; and the mariners are not to make faſt their veſſels, but to the rings and ſtakes ſet up for that uſe, on pain of being fined. In every port and harbour, there are places aſſigned for refitting and caulking of ſhips, and pitching the ropes, &c. And no perſons are to keep any fire during the night, in the ſhips lying in docks and harbours, except in caſes of urgent neceſſity, by theſe laws.

By the laws of Oleron, the anchors of ſhips lying in any port or harbour are to be at a proper diſtance; and if after requeſt of a maſter of a ſhip, to remove his anchor farther diſtant from any ſhip near him, he refuſes to do it, and any damage happening thereby, he is to make ſatisfaction; alſo on probable cauſe, the other maſter may take up the ſame, and let it down further off: and where a ſhip lies at anchor, without placing a buoy to it, if damage is ſuſtained thereby, the party ſhall not only render ſatisfaction to the party damnified, but be alſo ſubject to puniſhment in the admiralty.

And by the laws of France, maſters of ſhips coming into a road, are to drop their anchors ſo far diſtant from each other, as the anchors and cables may not be foul of one another; under pain of being anſwerable for all damage, and an arbitrary fine. When there are ſeveral ſhips in any road, that which is outmoſt towards the ſea is obliged, in the night, to keep out a light, for the direction of other ſhips coming from ſea: and when a veſſel in the road would ſet ſail during the night, the maſter is obliged, the preceding day, to remove to a place convenient for going away, without running aboard of others, or doing any damage to other ſhips, on pain of ſatisfying all damages, coſts and charges.

There are divers ſtatutes for improving and preſerving the ports, havens and harbours of England; as the 23d Henry VIII. cap. 18. and 27th Henry VIII. cap. 23. for preſervation of the havens and ports of Plymouth, Dartmouth, Tinmouth, Falmouth, Fowey, and other ports in Devon and Cornwal: and thoſe who labour in tin-works there ſhall prevent the falling of ſtones and gravel into thoſe havens, upon a certain forfeiture. And the 34th Hen. VIII. cap. 9. ordains, that none ſhall caſt or unlade out of any ſhip or veſſel, in any haven, road, channel, or river flowing or running to any port-town, city, or other town, any rubbiſh, gravel, balaſt, or other wreck or filth, but only upon the land above the full ſea-mark, in pain of 5 l. penalty.

In the 27th year of Queen Eliz. an act was made concerning Orford haven in Suffolk. And by the 23d Eliz. cap. 6. there were certain duties granted of ſo much *per* ton on all ſhips and veſſels, for the repair of Dover harbour; and theſe ſtatutes were continued in the reign of James I. and 13th and 14th Char. II. The like act for repairing the haven of Great Yarmouth, granting duties to perform it, &c. 1 Jac. II. cap. 16. continued and explained by 1 Wil. and Mary, cap. 11. and 10th and 11th Wil. III. cap. 5. for the repairs of the harbour of Minehead in Somerſetſhire, 12th Wil. III. cap. 9. for repairing the port of Whitby, 1ſt Anne, cap. 19. and 7th Geo. I. cap. 16. The port and harbour of Rye, 10th Geo. I. cap. 7. The harbour and pier of Margat, 11th Geo. I. cap. 3. The port and haven of Sunderland in the county of Durham, 13th Geo. I. cap. 6. The harbour of Newhaven in Suſſex, 4th Geo. II. cap. 17. The harbour of Ilfordcombe in the county of Devon, 4th Geo. II. cap. 19. The port town of Scarborough, 5th Geo. II. cap. 11. The harbour of Arundel, 6th Geo. II. cap. 12. The port and harbour of Newcaſtle, 8th Geo. II. cap. 10. By the ſtatute of the 1ſt Eliz. and 13th and 14th Car. II. ports, members and creeks in England, and Wales, for the lawful landing and ſhipping of goods, except in Hull, and to what ancient and head port ſuch members and creeks ſhall belong, and alſo the extents, bounds, and limits of the ſaid ports, &c. may be appointed by his majeſty, by his commiſſion out of the court of exchequer; and the cuſtomer, collector, comptroller, and ſearcher of the head ports, or their ſufficient deputies, or ſervants, are to reſide at ſuch members or creeks.

By an act paſſed in the 6th Anne, members and creeks in Scotland, for the importation and exportation, and keys or wharfs for the landing and ſhipping of goods and merchandiſes, may be aſſigned and appointed, and the extents, bounds, and limits of every port, haven, or creek fixed, and aſcertained by her majeſty, by a commiſſion out of the court of exchequer there; cuſtomers, collectors, &c. as above.

Bar PORTS, are ſuch as can only be entered with the tide, as that of Goa.

Cloſe PORTS, are thoſe within the body of a city; as thoſe of Rhodes, of Venice, Amſterdam, Rochel, Bayonne, and St. John de Luz.

Free PORT, in commerce, is a port open and free for merchants of all nations, to load and unload their veſſels in, without paying any duties or cuſtoms. Such are the ports of Marſeilles, Genoa, Leghorn, Gibraltar, Ancona, and Trieſte.

Free port is alſo uſed for a total exemption and franchiſe, which any ſett of merchants enjoy, for goods imported into a ſtate, or thoſe of the growth of the country exported. Such was the privilege the Engliſh enjoyed for ſeveral years after their diſcovery of Archangel, and which

which was taken from them on account of the regicide in 1648.

Cynque PORTS. See *Cinque* ports.

The ports, members, and creeks, of Great Britain, as ſettled by commiſſions out of his Majeſty's courts of exchequer in England and Scotland.

The ports of South Britain, or England and Wales, with their diviſions into members and creeks.

Ports.	*Members.*	*Creeks.*
London,	——	Graveſend.
Berwick,	——	Aylemouth.
		Warnewater.
		Holy Iſland.
		Eaſt Marſhes, containing the coaſt of Northumberland, bordering upon Scotland.
Boſton,	——	Spalding.
		Foſdick.
		Wainfleet.
		Numby Chapel.
		Thettlethorp.
		Sallfleet.
Bridgwater,	Minhead,	
Briſtol,	——	Pill.
		Uphill.
Cardiffe,	Swanſey,	South Burrys.
		Neath, or Brittonferry.
		Newton.
	——	Aberthaw.
		Penarth.
		Newport.
		Chepſtow.
Carliſle,	——	Weſt Marſhes, containing the coaſt of Cumberland, bordering upon Scotland.
	Whitehaven,	Workington.
		Ravenglaſs.
		Milnthorp.
Cheſter,	Lancaſter,	Pile of Fowdry.
		Graunge.
	Poulton,	Wyrewater.
		Preſton and Riblewater.
	Liverpool,	Sankey-Bridge.
		Fradiſham.
		South Sore of the river Merſey from the red ſtones.
	——	Hilbree.
		Dawpoole.
		Neſton.
		Burtonhead.
		Baghill.
		Moſtin.
	Aberconway,	
	Beaumaris,	Holyhead.
		Amlogh.
	Carnarvon,	Pulhelly.
		Barmouth.
Chicheſter,	Arundel,	Pagham Point.
		Selſey.
	Shoreham,	Brighthelmſtone.
	Lewes,	Newhaven.
		Seaford.
	Penſey,	
	Haſtings,	
	Rye,	Winchelſea.
		Lyd.
		Rumney.
	Hythe,	Folſton.
Exeter,	Ilfracomb,	
	Barnſtable,	Clovelly.
		Appledore.
		Biddiford.
	——	Tincomb.
		Starcroſs.
		Beare and Seaton.
Exeter,	——	Topſham.
		Pouldram.
		Sydmouth.
		Lympſon.
		Exmouth.
		Aylmouth.
	Dartmouth,	Salcomb.
		Brixham.
		Torbay.
		Totneſs.
Glouceſter,	——	River Severn, from Bridg north to Kingroad.
Hull,	Grimſby,	Gainthorp.
	Bridlington,	
	Scarborough,	
Ipſwich,	Malden,	Leigh.
		Burnham.
		Weſt Merſey.
	Colcheſter,	Eaſt Merſey.
		Brickleſey.
		Wivenhoe.
	——	Maintree.
		Harwich.
Lynn,	Wells,	Burnham.
	——	Hitcham.
		Croſs Keys.
		Wiſbich.
Milford,	Aberdovy,	Aberyſtwith.
	Cardigan,	Newport.
		Fiſcard.
	Pembroke,	Haverford Weſt.
		Tenby.
		Carmarthen,
		Lanelthy.
		North Burrys.
Newcaſtle,	Whitby,	
	Stockton,	Middleſborough.
	Hartlepoole,	
	Sunderland,	
	Shields,	
	——	Scatondelaval.
		Blithe-nooke.
Plymouth,	Padſtow,	
	St. Ives,	
	Penſance,	
	Helford,	
	Falmouth,	Penrin.
		St. Mawres.
		Truro.
	Fowey,	
	Lowe,	
	——	Saltaſh.
		Stonehouſe.
		Cowſland.
Pool,	Lyme,	Bridport.
		Charmouth.
	Weymouth,	Portland.
		Lulworth.
	——	Swanidge.
		Wareham.
Sandwich,	Dover,	
	——	Deal.
		Ramſgate.
		Margate.
		Whitſtable.
	Feverſham,	
	Milton,	
	Rocheſter,	Queenſborough.
Southampton,	——	Chriſt Church.
		Limington.
	Cowes,	Yarmouth.
		Newport.
	Portſmouth,	Emſworth.
Yarmouth,	Woodbridge,	
	Aleborough,	Orford.
		Dunwich.
	Southwold,	Walderſwick.
	——	Leoſtoff.
	Blackney & Cley.	

All these ports are within some county, and therefore the court of admiralty cannot hold jurisdiction of any thing done in them.

As the port of London is of the greatest concern, particularly relating to the customs, the extent thereof is settled by the exchequer; which is accounted from the promontory or point called North-Foreland, in the isle of Thanet, and thence northward, in a supposed line, to the opposite point called the Nase, beyond the Gunfleet, upon the coast of Essex, and so continued westward through the river of Thames, and the several channels, streams, and rivers, falling into it, to London-bridge; saving the privilege to the ports of Sandwich and Ipswich, and the members thereof, respectively belonging.

Ports of North Britain or Scotland, with their divisions into members and creeks.

Ports.	*Members.*	*Creeks.*
Aberdeen,	——	Dunnotyr.
		Cartallan.
		Craytoun.
		Stone Hive or Haven.
		Sketraw.
		Finin or Port Lethim.
		Coves.
		Don or Old Town.
		Newburgh.
		The Slains.
		Bottom.
		Peter-Head.
		Rattero.
		Cairn Bulg:
		Frazersburg.
		Rosarty.
		Auchmedden.
		Bamff.
		Port Soy.
		Cullen Harbour.
Air,	——	Girvan.
		Turenberry.
		Dunmure Castle.
		Turn Point.
Borrowstonness,	——	Queen's Ferry.
		Blackness.
		Aven Water.
		Mouth of Carron.
		New Mill-burn.
Alloa,		Airth.
		Elphinston Pow.
		Stirling.
——		Clackmannan Pow.
		Kincardin.
		Culross.
		Torryburn.
		Limekilns:
		North Ferry.
		Innerkeithing.
		Donny Point.
Campbell-town,	——	Kyles Bute.
		Tarbet of Kintyre.
		Shipness Point.
		Crusage Bay.
		Carradale Bay.
		Sorral.
		Dunnaverty Bay.
		Mule of Kintyre.
Dumfries,	——	Water of Sark.
		Annan.
		Cumber Trees.
		Ridwath.
		Keltoun Thorn.
		Cars Thorn.
		Burhanry Bay.
Kircudbright,		East-side River Orr:
		Balcary Bay.
		Balmangan Bay.
		Cat-craig on Fleet.
		Burn of Carsloth.
Dunbar,	——	Eymouth.
		Coldingham.
		Cockburn's Path.
		Sketraw.
		Tywingham.
Dundee,	——	Ferry of Portincraig.
		Woodhaven.
		Balmerino.
		Pow Lindores.
		Pow Gary.
		North Ferry, or Brughtie.
		Mony Fouth.
		Button Ness.
		Indor Gowry.
Inverness,	——	Crooked Haven.
		Garmouth.
		Lossymouth, or Newport
		Elgin.
		Findorn.
		Brough Head.
		Nairn.
		Dalness.
		Channerie.
		Cromerty.
		Port Mahomack.
		Tain and Ferry.
		Dornock.
		Ferry Ends.
		Dunrobin.
		Helmsdale.
Irving,	——	Salt Coats.
		Port in Cross.
		Largs.
Kircaldy,	——	Aberdour.
		Burnt Island.
		Kinghorn.
		Dysert.
		Wester Weemys.
		Easter Weemys.
		Buck Haven.
		Mithil.
		Levan.
		Largo.
Anstruther,		Ely.
		St. Minants.
		Pitten Weemys.
		Craile.
		Fife Ness.
		Bindorson.
		Kingkill.
		St. Andrew's.
		Eden's Mouth.
Leith,	——	Newhaven.
		Royston.
		Muirhouse Haven.
		Cramond.
Montrose,	——	Mant's Haven.
		Aberbrothick.
		Auch Muty.
		Lunan Water.
		Usan.
		Ferry Den.
		Mather.
		John's Haven.
		Gourdon.
		Berrie.
		Tod Head.
Perth,	——	Mouth of Ern.
		Inch Sherry.
		Pow of Errol.
		Pow Cavy.
Port Glasgow,	Greenock,	Skelminly.
		Inverkip.
		Cleugh Stone.
		Gourock.
	——	Erskine.
		Renfrew.
		Partick.

Ports.	*Members.*	*Creeks.*
Port Glaſgow,	——	Scots-town.
		Kilpatrick.
		Dunbarton.
		Hill of Ardmore.
		Roſeneath.
		Holy Lock.
		Dunnine.
		Point of Toward.
Preſtonpans,	——	North Berwick.
		Aberlady.
		Port Seaton.
		Muſſelburgh.
		Friggat-burn.
Stranraer,	Port Patrick,	Glenluce.
		Drummore.
		Portneſſoch.
		Flott.
		Carvillan.
		Wick of Sear.
		Bay of Cairn.
		Bay of Finnard.
		Ballantree.
		Sand Houſe.
Wigtoun,	——	Entry of Fleet.
		Ferry Town.
		Cars Know.
		Newton Stewart.
		Inverwall.
		So. Bay Poul-town.
		Iſle of Whithorn.
		Burn of Monreith.
		Burn of Gileſſey.

PORT, is alſo uſed ſometimes for the burden of a ſhip; the capacity of a veſſel being eſtimated in tuns; each whereof may contain about two thouſand pounds weight of ſea-water. When it is ſaid a veſſel is of the port, or burden of a thouſand tuns, it is not meant, as ſome imagine, that it bears ſo many caſks of merchandiſe; but that the ſea-water, which would be contained in the ſpace that the capacity of the veſſel poſſeſſes in the ſea, weighs a thouſand tuns, which, at the rate of two thouſand pounds each, is as much as to ſay, it bears a burden of two millions weight. See *Ton*.

PORT, is likewiſe uſed for a ſtrong wine brought from Oporto, or Port-a-Port in Portugal, whence its name. See *Wine*.

PORT, among ſailors, denotes the larboard, or left ſide of the ſhip. *To port the helm*, is to put the helm on the left ſide of the ſhip, that the ſhip may go to the right, or to the ſtarboard.

PORTENDIC. A French ſettlement on the river Senegal, in Africa.

PORTATIVE *Mill*. See *Mill*.

PORTECROZ. One of the iſlands of Hieres, on the coaſt of Provence, in France. See *French* Iſlands.

PORT *Deſire*. A harbour on the eaſt coaſt of South America, ſituated in 70 deg. of W. lon. and 47 deg. of S. lat. 150 miles N. E. of port St. Julian, where ſhips ſometimes touch in their voyage to the South ſea.

PORTEN *Beſſin*. A port-town of France, in the province of Normandy, ſituated on the Engliſh channel, in 50 min. of W. lon. and 49 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. 18 miles N. W. of Caen.

PORTER, ſometimes means one of thoſe ſett of men who make it their buſineſs to carry goods from one place to another; alſo a perſon to lade and unlade ſhips. See *Cuſtoms*.

PORTERS *company of London*, is a fellowſhip, conſiſting of tackle and ticket porters, which was conſtituted a fraternity by act of common council, in 1646, with a power of annually chuſing from among themſelves 12 rulers, ſix of each denomination, two whereof to be regiſters, for the good government of the community, and for hearing and determining all differences that may ariſe between the members of the united body. However, the court of Lord Mayor and Aldermen have reſerved to themſelves a power of appointing one of their own body, as the chief judge of all controverſies. One laudable cuſtom of the maſter tackle porters deſerves juſtly to be commemorated; which is, that when any of their b thren are diſabled by ſickneſs, or other contingency, or they receive their ſhares of all profits, as if actuall buſineſs; and that too during life: but this fraternity h neither hall or livery.

PORTERAGE. See *Scavage*.

PORTGREVE, or *Portgrave*, was anciently the princi magiſtrate in ports and other maritime towns. Camden obſerves, that the chief magiſtrate of Lon was anciently called portgreve; inſtead of whom, Rich I. ordained two bailiffs; and ſoon afterwards King J granted them a mayor for their yearly magiſtrate.

PORT-HOLES, in a ſhip, are the embraſures, or hol the ſides of the veſſel, through which the muzzles of cannon are put. Large ſhips have three rows of port-ho or batteries, each uſually conſiſting of fifteen port-ho In ſtorms, they uſe to ſhut up the port-holes, to prev the water's driving through them. In Engliſh, Du and French ſhips, their valves or caſements are faſte a-top of the apertures; in Spaniſh veſſels, aſide of th

PORTLAND. A peninſula in the county of Dor ſituated on the Engliſh channel, in 2 deg. 35 min. W. lon. and 50 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 10 miles S. Dorcheſter. Here the beſt free ſtone is dug, of wh St. Pauls in London, Weſtminſter-bridge, and moſt the grand fabrics in England are built. See *Stone*.

PORT-LAST, in a ſhip, denotes the gun-wale. W a yard is down on the deck, the ſay, the yard is do at port-laſt.

PORT LEWIS. A town belonging to the French, in iſland of Hiſpaniola. See *French* America.

PORT L'ORIENT. A fortreſs, and port-town of Fra ſituated in the province of Bretagne, at the mouth of river Blavet, oppoſite to Fort Louis, in 3 deg. 15 m of W. lon. and 47 deg. 42 min. of N. lat. being the tion of the French Eaſt India ſhips, from whence it la obtained the name of the Eaſtern port, or Port L'Orie 78 miles N. W. of Nants, and 25 miles N. W. of V nes, or Vannes.

PORT LOUIS. A port-town of France, in the provi of Bretagne, ſituated on the bay of Biſcay, in 3 d 6 min. of W. lon. and 47 deg. 42 min. of N. lat. at mouth of the river Blavet, and ſometimes called Blav 70 miles N. W. of Nants: it has a good harbour, be a ſtation for part of the royal navy; and for the ſhips the French Eaſt India company.

PORT MAHON. See *Minorca*.

PORT-NAILS, in a ſhip, ſuch as are uſed to faſten hin to the ports.

PORTO. A city and port-town of Portugal, in the p vince of Entre-Minho-Douro, ſituated near the mo of the river Douro, and the Atlantic ocean, in 9 deg. W. lon. and 41 deg. 14 min. of N. lat. 300 miles S. Braga. See *Portugal*.

PORTO-BELLO. A port-town of America, ſituated 82 deg. of W. lon. and 10 deg. of N. lat. in the p vince of Terra Firma proper, or Darien, on the narrow part of the Iſthmus, which joins North and South Am rica, 70 miles N. of Panama, and 300 miles W. of C thagena. It is a large, ſecure, and commodious harbo with a narrow entrance, defended by forts and batteri and at the bottom of the harbour ſtands the town, o ſemicircular form, as the land is on which it is built; fended alſo by ſeveral forts, which were all taken by A miral Vernon, with ſix ſhips only, in the year 17 But he quitted it again, after he had demoliſhed the wor either on account of the unhealthfulneſs of the place, becauſe he had ſcarce any land forces on board, or, ſome ſuggeſt, becauſe his orders were defective. Here A miral Hoſier was loſt by the unhealthfulneſs of the pla and moſt of the ſhips buried their crews twice over; beſid the ſhips were ſo damaged by the worms, that they we not fit for ſervice afterwards. The greateſt part of t inhabitants are Malattoes, Indians, or Negroes. Spaniard of ſubſtance chuſes to reſide in ſo unhealthfu place; tho', during the time of the fair, it uſed to be much crouded with merchants, that above 100 crow were given for a poor lodging, and 1000 crowns for a ſho during the ſhort time the galeons remained there, a

provisions were proportionably dear. See *Spaniſh* America.

PORTO CAVALLO, or *Porto Cabelo*. A port-town of Terra Firma, in America, on the Caraccos coaſt, ſituated on a bay of the North ſea, in 67 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 10 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 120 miles S. of the Dutch iſland Bonaire, ſubject to Spain.

PORTO FARINO. A port-town of Tunis, in Africa, ſituated in 9 deg. of E. lon. and 36 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 70 miles N. of Tunis, and a little W. of the ruins of Carthage, ſubject to the Dey of Tunis.

PORTO FERAJO. A port-town on the N. ſide of the Iſle of Elba, in the Tuſcan ſea, ſituated in 11 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 42 deg. 35 min. of N. lat. 40 miles N. W. of Orbitello, ſubject to the Duke of Tuſcany.

PORTO GALIETO. A port-town of Spain, in the province of Biſcay, ſituated in 3 deg. 6 min. of W. lon. and 43 deg. 25 min. of N. lat. 8 miles N. of Bilboa.

PORTO HERCOLE. A port-town of Italy, in the province of Tuſcany, ſituated in 12 deg. of E. lon. and 42 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. on the coaſt of the ſtate Del Preſidii, on a bay of the Tuſcan ſea, 60 miles S. E. of Sienne, ſubject to Spain.

PORTO RICO. An iſland in the Atlantic, or American ocean, ſituated between 64 and 68 deg. of W. lon. and in 18 deg. of N. lat. being 120 miles long, and 60 broad. See *Spaniſh* America.

PORTO RICO, or *St. John*'s city, is the capital of Porto Rico, ſituated on a ſmall iſland within the harbour, on the north ſide of the chief iſland, and joined to it by a cauſeway.

PORT ROPES, in a ſhip, are thoſe which ſerve to haul up the ports of the ordnance.

PORT SALE. A public ſale of goods to the higheſt bidder: but in the ſtatute of the 35th Hen. VIII. cap. 7. it denotes the ſale of fiſh preſently upon its arrival in the port or haven.

PORTO SANTO. The leaſt of the Madeira iſlands, in the Atlantic ocean, ſituated 16 deg. of W. lon. and 33 deg. of N. lat. 300 miles W. of Morocco, in Africa, ſubject to Portugal. It is not above 18 miles in circumference, but produces the ſame ſort of wine as the larger iſland does. See *Madeira* Iſlands.

PORT VECCHIO. A port-town in the iſland of Corſica, in the Mediterranean, ſituated on a bay of the ſea, in 9 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 40 deg. 25 min. of N. lat. 40 miles N. of Sardinia.

PORTO VENENO. A port-town of Italy, in the territory of Genoa, ſituated near the bay of Spezzia, in 10 deg. 35 min. of E. lon. and 44 deg. 5 min. of N. lat. 45 miles S. E. of Genoa.

PORT ROYAL. A port-town, ſituated in the S. E. part of Jamaica, in America, at the extremity of a long point of land, running W. about 12 miles from the body of the iſland, lying in 77 deg. of W. lon. and 17 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. having the ocean on the ſouth, and a fine bay on the north, which forms one of the moſt commodious harbours imaginable, 3 leagues broad, and deep enough for a ſhip of 700 tons to lie cloſe to the ſhore, well defended by forts and platforms of guns. See *Britiſh* America.

PORT ROYAL, is alſo an iſland on the coaſt of South Carolina, in America, ſituated in 80 deg. of W. lon. and 31 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. which, with the neighbouring continent, forms one of the moſt ſecure and commodious harbours in the Britiſh plantations. The iſland is about 15 miles long, and has a town on the N. E. ſhore called Beaufort town; but neither the town, nor the iſland were ſo ſtrongly fortified lately, as a harbour of that importance deſerves. See *Britiſh* America.

PORT ROYAL, in Acadia. See *Annapolis*.

PORT ST. MARY's. A port-town of Spain, in the province of Andaluſia, ſituated on the bay of Cadiz, in 6 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 36 deg. 32 min. of N. lat. 10 miles N. E. of that city. See *Spain*.

PORTSMOUTH. A borough and port town of Hampſhire, ſituated in 1 deg. 6 min. of W. lon. and 50 deg. 48 min. of N. lat. on a fine bay of the Engliſh channel, oppoſite to the Iſle of Wight, 20 miles S. of Wincheſter, and 70 miles S. W. of London, one of the moſt ſecure and capacious harbours in England, ſtrongly fortified and defended by a numerous artillery, both on the ſea and land ſide: here great part of the royal navy of England are built and laid up; and where are ſome of the fineſt docks, yards, and magazines of naval ſtores in Europe: but the general rendezvous for the royal navy is uſually at Spithead, on the eaſt end of the Iſle of Wight, oppoſite to Portſmouth.

PORTUGAL, is a kingdom bounded by the Spaniſh province of Galicia on the north; by the provinces of Leon, Eſtremadura, and Andaluſia, on the eaſt; and by the Atlantic ocean on the ſouth and weſt; and lying between the 7th and 10 deg. of W. lon. being about 300 miles in length from N. to S. and generally about 100 miles in breadth from E. to W.

It is uſually divided into ſix provinces, namely Eſtremadura, Beira, Entre-Minho-Douro, Tralos Montes, Alentejo, and Algarva.

This country does not only conſiſt, great part of it, of mountains, but ſome of the moſt barren on that continent. Towards the bottom of them indeed they are pretty well planted with vines, which afford abundance of good wine. The ſoil produces alſo great plenty of olives, but the oil is not ſo good as in Spain. Of oranges and lemons alſo nature is very bountiful here, and their ſweet oranges, which were brought from China, are ſome of the beſt in Europe; but their ſour oranges are not comparable to thoſe of Seville. Their plantations of mulberries feed abundance of ſilk worms. Of wheat and barley they have not enough in the beſt years for the ſubſiſtence of the natives, and when they are not ſupplied from the neighbouring Spaniſh provinces, the Engliſh and Dutch import great quantities of grain from the north, as alſo from England. As to the peaſants and country people, they live miſerably upon maiſe, or Indian corn, a very coarſe kind of food. Nor have they much good paſture; the beſt is towards the north, and the fleſh of their cattle is generally lean and dry. As to almonds, raiſins, figs, cheſnuts, and ſome other fruits, there are great plenty, but they are not reckoned ſo good as the fruits in the ſouth provinces of Spain. Among the products of their ſoil, ſalt alſo may be reckoned, for this is extracted from the ſea-water let into pans on the coaſt, eſpecially in a bay near Setival, or St. Ubes, as the Engliſh ſailors call it, from whence vaſt quantities are exported to the north, and the American plantations. Of ſea and river fiſh they have alſo good ſtore; and their mountains, it is ſaid, afford mines of gold and ſilver, but none of the former have been opened for many years. The ſilver mine at Guacaldane produces annually a good quantity of that metal. There are alſo mines of lead, iron, and alum; quarries of jaſper, and other fine marble, with cryſtal, rubies, emeralds, and other precious ſtones. Either their wool, or thoſe that manufacture it are in fault, for they make only ſome coarſe cloth, worn by the meaneſt of people; others wear Engliſh cloth, or ſtuffs, but black bays more than any other kind; nor is their manufacture the beſt.

The horſes in Portugal are briſk lively animals, as they are alſo in Spain, but of a ſlight make, and mules being much ſurer footed, are more uſed both for carriage and draught. Some black cattle, and flocks of ſheep are ſeen here. Their hogs and kids are much the beſt food; and there is ſcarce any country where they make more marmalade, both white and red, with abundance of other ſweet meats, and they deal pretty much in perfumed waters.

The rivers in Portugal are the Minho, the Douro, the Tagus, the Guadiana, the Mondego, the Lima, the Sadao, the Vouga, the Leza, the Ave, the Cavado, the Zezere, the Alba, the Coa, the Laura, the Canha, and the Caya.

There is ſcarce a ſtate in Europe, having the title of a kingdom, and a peculiar King, of leſs extent than Portugal; yet ſcarce one at the ſame time of ſo extenſive a commerce, and upheld with greater reputation. Its great conqueſts in both Indies, its eſtabliſhments in ſeveral parts of the coaſts of Africa, and its poſſeſſion of the Azores, Madeira, and Cape Verd iſlands, had for a conſiderable

time ſupported this commerce, and perhaps might yet preſerve its firſt ſplendor, if the union of Portugal and Spain had never happened.

This union, ſo fatal to the Portugueſe trade, happened in 1580, after the death of Cardinal Henry, ſucceſſor of the unfortunate Sebaſtian, killed in Africa, at the battle of Alcacer, the 4th of Auguſt 1578.

The Portugueſe becoming ſubjects of the Spaniſh king, had dreadful enemies in the Dutch, who fought for their liberty, at the ſame time that they were ſubjected to the Spaniards.

Soon after, Brazil, except a few places, was taken from the Portugueſe; they loſt a part of their Eaſt India conqueſts, which their new enemies made themſelves maſters of, as much by ſtratagem as open force; and having alſo loſt ſome of their colonies upon the coaſt of Guinea, they had hardly ſtrength enough to maintain a part of their African commerce, which was before equally glorious and lucrative to them.

It is true, that after ſixty years of a forced union, Portugal entered upon its firſt rights and privileges; and that all its territories in the three other parts of the world, acknowledged with it for King, John Duke of Braganza, who was proclaimed the 1ſt of December 1640.

But the fatal ſtroke to the Portugueſe trade was ſtruck, and tho' they afterwards repoſſeſſed themſelves of Brazil, and were reſtored to their forts and eſtabliſhments on the African coaſts, yet they never could well eſtabliſh themſelves in the Eaſt Indies; ſo that, upon whatever footing the preſent trade of Liſbon is, it may be well ſaid to be nothing in compariſon to their ancient commerce, when all the riches of the Perſian gulph, Arabia, the ſtates of the Mogul, the other coaſts of India, China, Japan, and all the iſlands of that vaſt part of the ocean, were aſſembled at Goa, the capital of their conqueſts in the Eaſt Indies, and arrived at Liſbon in numerous fleets, to be from thence diſtributed among all the nations of Europe by the hands of the Portugueſe alone.

The commerce of Portugal, ſuch as it is at preſent, is carried on either by foreigners, as the Engliſh, Dutch, and French, who load their ſhips for Liſbon, and Oporto, the only conſiderable ports of this kingdom; or by the Portugueſe themſelves, who import their merchandiſe to the neighbouring countries, and export from them ſuch as they have an occaſion for.

But it is in Brazil, and ſome other Portugueſe colonies, that the greateſt conſumption is made of the merchandiſe imported to Liſbon on Dutch, Engliſh and French bottoms.

Liſbon, is the capital of the kingdom, being ſituated in 9 deg. 25 min. of E. lon. and 38 deg. 45 min. of N lat. on the north bank of the river Tagus, about 10 miles from the mouth of it, 80 miles W. of the frontiers of Spain, 300 miles W. of Madrid, and 850 S. W. of London. It is about 6 miles long, winding with the river, from which it riſes with an eaſy aſcent. It is computed there are 30,000 houſes, and 200,000 inhabitants. The harbour of Liſbon will contain ſeveral thouſand ſail of ſhips, which ride in the greateſt ſecurity; and the river is about 3 miles over, where ſhips ride in 18 fathom water: but the entrance into the harbour is ſo difficult, that it cannot be paſſed without a pilot. This entrance is defended by two handſome forts; the one ſeated on the ſhore, and the other ſtanding oppoſite to it, on a ſhelf in the midſt of the water.

Porto, or *Oporto*, is the next conſiderable place of trade, being ſituated in 9 deg. of W. lon. and 41 deg. 10 min. of N. lat. near the mouth of the river Douro, 3 miles from the ſea, and 120 miles N. from Liſbon, having a very commodious harbour.

About 20 ſhips depart every year from Liſbon and Oporto, for Rio Janeiro; 30 for the bay of All Saints; as many for Pernambuca, and 7 or 8 for Paraiba, in America. Thoſe which go to Rio Janeiro, and the bay of All Saints, are from 200 to 500 tons; and thoſe for Pernambuca, and Paraiba 250 and upwards to 300; becauſe large ſhips cannot enter the ports of theſe two provinces of Brazil.

All the ſhips deſtined for the ſame place depart and return together; thoſe of Oporto joining thoſe of Liſbon. The ſhips deſtined for Paraiba and Pernambuca go always together, and return alſo in a body.

The King of Portugal allows yearly five ſhips of war for convoying the merchantmen; namely, two for Rio Janeiro, as many for the bay of All Saints, and one for Pernambuca. About their return, he ſends alſo ſome other ſhips as far as the Azores.

The departure of all theſe ſhips for Brazil, is uſually in the month of March, and their return in September and October.

The merchandiſe ſent to the Brazils, are flour, wine, brandy, oil, common woollen ſtuffs, linens, and thread from Portugal.

Silk and woollen ſtockings, hats, bays, ordinary cloth, and other woollen and ſuch like ſtuffs from England, and fine cloth from Holland and France.

Bleached linens, called *panicos*, and unbleached, called *aniages*; and round copper plates; copper baſons, and pipe ſtaves from Hambourg.

Linens of a ſmall breadth, druggets, ſerges, and brocades from France.

Laſtly ſilk tabbies, taffeties, ſilk for ſewing, and paper from Italy.

The Engliſh, Germans, and Italians, have the principal part of this commerce. The Engliſh commodities are articles of neceſſity to Portugal; the Italian, except in coin, are moſtly articles of luxury.

The returns from Brazil are in ſugar, tobacco, leather, &c. See *Portugueſe* America.

All the Brazil trade is carried on by Portugueze ſhips, no other nation being allowed to trade there. However, ſome interlopers, and pretty often the Engliſh, have a ſhare in the cargoes; but in the name of Portugueſe merchants, as is practiſed in the commerce of Spaniſh America.

Foreigners, as is ſuppoſed, loſe not much by this interdiction of trade to the Brazils; not only upon account of the length of the voyage, which continues uſually a year, but alſo upon account of the ſmall freightage paid for the merchandiſes ſent there, on which even the King of Portugal, to contribute to the expences of the convoy he allows, raiſes a duty, which one with another amounts to the fourth of what returns to the freighter; beſides that the rigging, and manning of Portugueſe ſhips, come to them much cheaper than other nations, upon account of the ſobriety of the people, and the little wages given to ſeamen.

Brazil-wood is not included in this commerce, as belonging ſolely to the King; who, one year with another, has 5000 quintals imported, whoſe profits, all expences deducted, amount to about 14,000 l. ſterling.

The Britiſh commodities which may in a great meaſure be ſaid to work the mines of Brazil, pay 23 *per cent.* duties inwards to Liſbon, and 6 *per cent.* outward duty to Brazil, all on a valuation made on ſome articles much too high. And in Brazil they pay more than 10 *per cent.* on their full eſtimation. All imports from Brazil pay likewiſe great duties in Portugal.

One or two ſhips depart every year from Liſbon to Goa, equipped and manned by the King. Their burden is about 800 tons, but the cargo of the merchandiſe exceeds 1200. Beſides, the paſſengers and ſoldiers, they are laden with ſeveral things of no uſe in trade. Their voyage is about eight months in going, and the ſame in returning; and they always on their return touch at Brazil to come with the fleet.

The cargo of theſe ſhips for Goa conſiſts in wrought and unwrought coral, Italian paper, Dutch ſcarlet, Portugueſe tobacco on the King's account, ſilver ſpecie, and ſome other merchandiſe. The merchandiſe of return are rough diamonds, all ſorts of Chineſe and India ſtuffs, ſaltpetre, indigo, muſk, ambergreaſe, and ſeveral other valuable commodities.

This commerce is very beneficial, and may be computed at 35 *per cent.* profit by exchange, and between 30 and 40 by the ſilver only.

The duty of commiſſion is 13 *per cent.* at Goa, and the duty of entry paid in Portugal for India diamonds is 7 *per cent.*

The Portugueſe have alſo a pretty good trade on the coaſts of Africa; from whence, beſides the Negroes they have either an occaſion for in their American colonies, or to tranſport to thoſe of other nations, as alſo great numbers they even bring into Portugal itſelf, they bring wax, ivory, and gold duſt.

The iſland of St. Thomas, upon the ſame coaſts, furniſhes them with the ſame merchandiſe, and beſides with a quantity of indifferent ſugar.

The Madeira, Azores, and Cape Verd iſlands, are alſo ſubject to Portugal; but its commerce to theſe iſlands is inconſiderable: however, the Portugueſe import there, oil, bays, ſerges, rice, and paper. They export from Tercera, and St. Michael, wheat, and barley, which pay no duty of entry in Portugal, but 4 *per cent.* exportation when under the Portugueſe flag, and 14 *per cent.* when under that of foreigners; from Fayal and Madeira they export wines, which are uſually in time of peace ſent to the Brazils and Barbadoes, but in war time to the north. Madeira ſends alſo ſugars and dry confects.

All the nations which trade to Liſbon have alſo factories and conſuls at Oporto. The Engliſh and Dutch, eſpecially the former, have a pretty conſiderable trade there; that of the French is not ſo good; and the merchandiſe which may be had at Oporto conſiſts in wines, ſugars, oil, tanned leather, Brazil tobacco, cork, ſumac, oranges and citrons, Brazil and Campechy wood, and tallow.

It is computed that the Engliſh export from Oporto, one year with another, to the amount of 18 or 20,000 pipes of wine, valued at about 6 l. the pipe.

Brazil ſugars are worth about 12 s. the arobe or 32 lb. oil is worth about 10 s. the almude, or 4 ½ gallons; Brazil tobacco, 1 l. 4 d. the arobe; cork 6 s. the quintal; fine ſumac, 9 s. the arobe; oranges 9 s. 8 d. and citrons 12 s. 4 d. the thouſand; laſtly Brazil wood from 3 to 4 l. the quintal.

The other conſiderable places are Braga, ſituated on the river Cavado, 170 miles N. of Liſbon, and 32 N. of Oporto. Viana, a port-town, 36 miles N. of Oporto. Braganza, ſituated on the river Sabor, 100 miles N. E. of Oporto. Miranda de Douro, ſituated on the river Douro, 20 miles S. of Braganza. Villa Real, ſituated 50 miles E. of Oporto. Coimbra, ſituated on the river Mondego, 90 miles N. of Liſbon. Guarda, 65 miles E. of Coimbra. St. Ubes, ſituated on a fine bay, 21 miles S. of Liſbon, where great quantities of fine ſalt are made. Evora, or Eibora, 70 miles S. E. of Lisbon. Porto Legre, 80 miles E. of Lisbon. Elvas, ſituated on the river Guadiana, 22 miles E. of Eſtremos. Beja, 60 miles S W. of Elvas. Lago, where the Engliſh fleets bound for the ſtreights, frequently take in freſh water, ſituated 25 miles W. of Faro. Tavira, ſituated at the mouth of the river Gilaon, 25 miles E. of Faro.

The following judicious account of the trade of Portugal was drawn up on a very particular occaſion, by a merchant who reſided many years in that kingdom.

"I ſhall now proceed to give you ſome account of Portugal, its commerce, and the trade of other nations to that kingdom; in which I ſhall advance nothing but known truths; ſuch as are built on facts, and can be vouched for by all experienced perſons. And my principal inducement to this undertaking, is to give the public ſome clear notions of a ſubject, which has of late been written and talked of with the greateſt ignorance and abſurdity.

The Portugueſe themſelves carry on no commerce of conſequence with any other European dominions: the Britiſh, French, Dutch, Germans, of various countries, who all go under the denomination of Hamburghers, Danes, Swedes, Spaniards, and moſt of the ſtates of Italy, have factories and conſuls ſettled in Liſbon: and ſome of them, particularly the Engliſh, have the ſame at Oporto; alſo a few houſes in Viana, Figeira, Faro, and likewiſe on the iſland of Madeira. Of theſe people, the Portugueſe merchants purchaſe the neceſſary commodities for their India, Guinea, and Brazil commerce; as the town and country dealers do thoſe for their home conſumption. And the ſame merchants purchaſe of the natives, or take in barter, the ſeveral products of their dominions, which they export to the countries proper for their ſale.

The native exports of Portugal are wine, lemons, oranges, dried figs, ordinary raiſins, almonds, ſalt, oil, cork, ſumack, tunny-fiſh, and other ſmaller articles. Wool uſed likewiſe to be exported in conſiderable quantities, but the extraction of it from that kingdom is now prohibited. However, I believe the Dutch get a good deal of it off ſtill, under the name of Spaniſh wool, by the help of forged certificates, and falſe-ſwearing; of which bad practice the Portugueſe make as little ſcruple, for gain, as even the worſt of our own countrymen.

The commodities the Portugueſe bring from their foreign dominions, and ſell, chiefly at Liſbon, for other European countries, are diamonds of Brazil and India, ſugars, tobacco, Brazil wood of ſeveral ſorts, cocoa-nuts, coffee, cotton, pepper, ſeveral ſorts of drugs, ſome inferior kinds of ſpices, whalebone, raw and tanned hides, elephants teeth, arrack, orchella, citrons, and, occaſionally, China ware, Indian ſilks, and cotton piece-goods. And here it may be proper to obſerve, that all their India commerce is going to be made more regular and extenſive.

To theſe exports I ſhall venture to add ſilver and gold. The former, as no product of their own, is allowed to be ſhipped off by entry and licence. The latter is not, except for corn, in times of great want, and, by ſtipulation, for ſome articles they receive from Sweden, as I have been informed. But in either of thoſe caſes, the procuring of the licence would be attended with ſo much trouble, that it is rarely, if ever, ſollicited. However, in their exports, gold muſt be and is underſtood as a commodity, which Portugal ought to wink hard at the extraction of, or they could not themſelves even get it from America, or carry on any of their other commerce, as I ſhall hereafter make appear: and have now only to add, on this head, that Britain receives as ſmall, or a ſmaller proportion of gold, than any other nation trading with Portugal, as will be apparent from a general view of their commerce; notwithſtanding the whole weight of that accuſation is levelled at us, through folly and ignorance in ſome, and from a want of ſpirit, reſolution, and abilities in others: for Portugal, of all kingdoms in the world, has the leaſt reaſon to miſuſe or affront Great Britain.

The imports in Portugal, for their home and colony conſumptions, are almoſt all things neceſſary for the ſupport, convenience, ornament, or luxury of life; of moſt of which articles I ſhall give ſome account when I come to treat ſeparately of the trade of each country.

Portugal is fruitful, eſpecially its vallies, and many of its plains, in wine, oil, fruits, and grain: but their crops of the latter are of all the moſt uncertain, and particularly for wheat; of which grain the great city of Liſbon never receives, even in the moſt favourable years, more than a third part of the native growths for its annual conſumptien: and I believe I may ſay near the ſame proportion is wanting of barley, for the feeding of their horſes, mules, and other cattle. The country is very mountainous, and the mountains in general are barren; being moſtly rocks of coarſe marble, ſome of them quite naked and craggy, others covered with a ſhallow ſoil, and in general exceeding ſtony. In their level country they have very extenſive ſands, many of the looſe, red, and heavy ſort; others of the white and lighter kind.

The country is alſo very ill watered, eſpecially in their ſouthern provinces, which prevents their being well peopled or cultivated, as, from a want of that element, the poor inhabitants ſuffer greatly, particularly by the loſs of their cattle in dry years.

However, the ſoil and climate being more kindly in the northern provinces of the kingdom, thoſe are in all reſpects better peopled, as well as cultivated: and from that part of the country, and their iſlands, Brazil has been principally ſupplied with inhabitants; while their ſettlements in India and Guinea have been recruited from the ſouth, moſtly by tranſported felons and vagabonds ſent from Liſbon; in which city, pride, lazineſs, and vice, are predominant qualities; inſomuch that the children of Liſbon are branded for worthleſsneſs even to a proverb.

In fine, the nature of their government, which is entirely abſolute, has too ſtrong a tendency to oppreſſions de-

ſtructive of induſtry, eſpecially in thoſe parts of the country where the climate is an additional encourager of lazineſs, as well as the promoter of vice. To which may be added, the invincible pride of all noble and genteel families, every branch of whom will abſolutely ſtarve rather than uſe any ſort of employment for their ſupport. But above all, the burthens of prieſts, friars, nuns, and the ſuperſtitious influence they have over the people, as well as an univerſal litigious diſpoſition in the whole nation, conſpire to make every order of the people in that country poor. Then, joined to the natural ſterility of the ſoil, the number of ſoldiers neceſſary to garriſon a country which is almoſt all frontier, and whoſe pay is ſo ſmall as to oblige them to a life of celibacy, the great numbers of religious orders of all ſorts, and the neceſſary draughts of people for their immenſe extent of territory in America, keeps the mother country continually weak in people. So that they do, and muſt always, depend chiefly on the ſuccours and ſupplies of other nations, both for their protection and ſubſiſtence.

But the All wiſe diſpenſer of bleſſings, to ſupply their deficiency in ſtrength and the extent of kingdom, as well as of the exterior wealth of the earth, and even induſtry, has given them a treaſure from under it. Their gold and diamond mines have enabled their monarchs of late to make a figure among the great potentates of Europe, and made them generally reſpected from the convenient and neceſſary commerce carried on to their dominions, greatly beneficial to all. The people of Portugal, in general, look on no nation with ſo evil an eye as Spain: France they have no affection nor eſteem for; and always expreſs a juſt ſenſe of the natural connection they have with us in commerce and intereſt, as well as a faith and reliance on our ſupport in times of need.

I ſhall now return to the diſcuſſion of commerce; and, for the reaſons given above, muſt obſerve, the native poverty of Portugal was ſo great on the diſcovery of their gold mines, that they would have found it impoſſible to have worked them, but from the credit given by other countries, and particularly Great Britain, in the neceſſary commodities for that purpoſe. And as their returns of bullion augmented, their credit from us, and by degrees all other countries, grew greater: and, tho' now conſiderably enriched themſelves, they ſtill work their very mines, and carry on almoſt all their colony commerce, and much of their home trade, with foreign capitals. For they are truſted with all articles of traffic till the returns come round: inſomuch that the merchants of other countries not only ſtand the diſburſe of the coſt of their goods, and the charges of tranſporting them to Portugal, but alſo of the King's duties, which are very high on moſt of the articles that are re-exported, till, as I ſaid before, the returns for them arrive. A cuſtom and confidence ſo greatly advantageous to the King as well as the ſubjects of Portugal, that the foreign merchants ſettled amongſt them, eſpecially the Engliſh, ought to live under the faireſt and ſtrongeſt protection, even had they no treaty to exact it, becauſe on the ſupport of the foreign factories that neceſſary credit muſt depend: for without ſuch merchants or factors reſiding in the kingdom, no ſuch credits could with ſafety, nay abſolutely would, be given. And it as ſtrongly behoves every nation that would preſerve its commerce to that kingdom, to ſupport its merchants eſtabliſhed there; otherwiſe the trade of that country will go gradually declining, and at laſt be entirely loſt."

Thus far the author of Mercator's letters has given us a true idea of the Portugueſe commerce in general; after which, he proceeds to give an account of the trade there of other European nations, and afterwards that of Great Britain as follows.

"To begin with their moſt remote trade, I ſhall include in one article the whole Baltick coaſts, or the commerce of all countries within the Sound. The commodities from whence are flax, hemp, Ruſſia leather, Ruſſia linen, ſail-cloths, iron, wrought, caſt, and in bar; copper; timber, planks and boards, not only for the King's ſhipyards, and all other ſhip-work, but alſo for building of their beſt houſes, and other works, where durable wood is required; coarſe linens of ſeveral kinds; wheat, ry and barley, in very conſiderable quantities; bees-wa pipe-ſtaves, ſtock-fiſh, pitch, tar, and other commo ties.

The exports from Portugal to the Baltic, are ſome c goes of ſalt, a few lemons and oranges, a little arra and a meer trifle of wine; ſo that the balance paid ſpecie muſt be exceeding great.

From Hamburg and other neighbouring ports, are i ported immenſe quantities of German linens, of all kin and qualities; and, occaſionally, many of the Balti commodities.

The exports for Hamburgh and its neighbouring por are ſome ſalt, ſugars, and tobaccos, whalebone, a lit wine and arrack, a few lemons, oranges, and dried fi ſome cocoa nuts, coffee, cork, citrons, a few India goo occaſionally, and other trifling articles; the whole which, however, cannot amount to one quarter of t value of their imports; conſequently the balance paid ſpecie muſt be very great. It is, however, to be a knowledged the ſilver imported into Liſbon is chiefly return for German linens, and ordinary Engliſh woll goods; a trade greatly beneficial to Portugal.

From Holland are imported great quantities of fine t woollen cloths, hair-camblets, linens, ſpices, corda anchors, and all ſorts of naval ſtores, moſt of the B tick commodities, all kinds of grain, prodigious quantit of ſmall round cheeſes, coach-horſes, arms, ammunitio and accoutrements of war, indigo, toys, and other a ticles.

The exports for Holland are a few lemons, oranges, a dried figs, a ſmall quantity of wine, ſome candied citro orchella, wool under certificates of its being Spaniſh, ſ veral cargoes of ſalt, diamonds, whalebone, a few ſug and tobaccos, Brazil wood, ſome cocoa-nuts, coff Brazil hides, India goods in conſiderable quantities, wh to be had at public ſale; cork, ſumack, canes for weave and other articles. The balance paid by Portugal Holland in ſpecie, and abſolutely carried over in their o ſhips, &c. is very great.

The French ſend to Portugal fine woollen cloths, vario kinds of ſtuffs, particularly a ſort of black goods call druggets, of which they ſell immenſe quantities for t habits of the clergy, having entirely thereby deſtroy the conſumption of Engliſh crapes, once a very impo tant article of our trade; wrought ſilks, a great quanti of linens and cambricks; dreſſed calve-ſkins, anoth branch taken from us; hats, ſilk ſtockings, both which articles they are alſo getting from us; all ſorts toys, furniture, ribbands, and moſt of the ornament parts of female dreſs; grain of all kinds, when they ha it to ſpare, and ſometimes in immenſe quantities; clare champaigne, and brandies, though prohibited, are ſmuggl in; as are flowered and figured ſilks, gold and ſilver lace India goods, and other contraband commodities: th likewiſe import printed books, ſome ordinary ſorts cutlery ware, and an abundance of ſmaller articles, whi it would be too tedious to enumerate. By the help of wo ſmuggled from us, they have made attempts to rival in our very great article of long-bays, but hitherto wit out ſucceſs. God grant their future endeavours, aid by our inattention, may not bring ſuch a project to be The French take from Portugal ſome raw hides, a ſma quantity of fruit, a few cocoa-nuts, and occaſionally little pepper; alſo ſome Brazil wood and orchella. The formerly likewiſe uſed to receive ſome Brazil diamond but, I think, they now prohibit the importation of the in France. So that Portugal pays them a very great b lance in bullion, and for articles, in general, the leaſt n ceſſary of any they import.

The Portugueſe take from Spain immenſe quantities cattle, both for labour and ſlaughter, a great deal of B cay iron, a vaſt many cheap wrought ſilks and velvet moſt of which are ſmuggled, to defraud the King of h duties; many cargoes of a thin, ſtrong kind of ruſhe for ordinary cordage, and other uſes; printed book ſome dried raiſins, and occaſionally corn and oil, a ſome other commodities.

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The Spaniards take from Portugal, cured tunny-fiſh, ſome tobacco, a few ſugars, ſome cocoa-nuts, which are ſmuggled in, as is alſo a vaſt quantity of ſpecie; ſome part of which balance Portugal, however, gets from them again, by the ſame method, in another part of the world. To this article I muſt alſo add the vaſt ſums of money Portugal pays to Spain for the labour of the people of Galicia, who are the principal ordinary working perſons at Liſbon, and in many other cities: they come young into Portugal, where they work hard, and fare hard, for a conſiderable number of years; and then retire, with incredible ſums, for ſuch people, to their own country.

The Italians import into Portugal immenſe quantities of wheat, a great deal of barley, and alſo a deal of Levant rice, vermicelli and oil occaſionally. They likewiſe import prodigious quantities of writing paper, a vaſt abundance of wrought ſilks and velvets, coral, and many expenſive curioſities; great quantities of glaſs beads, for their Guinea and home conſumption; a great many cotton goods, by ſpecial licence from Malta; many toys, and other inferior articles; not to particularize religious traffic, which is very great and public.

The Italians export from Portugal, hides, a conſiderable quantity of ſugars and tobaccos, cocoa-nuts, pepper, ordinary ſpices, elephants teeth, Brazil wood, ſome drugs, and an immenſe quantity of bullion. Inſomuch that, of late, while gold bore ſo high a price in England, it has been a drug all over Italy: a circumſtance well worthy of Britiſh obſervation and attention."

Having thus given an impartial account of the commerce carried on betwixt Portugal and other European territories, the judicious author proceeds to give a ſtate of the trade carried on from the Britiſh dominions with that kingdom. In which he makes it appear, that no nation is more neceſſary to them in commerce than Great Britain, nor is leſs indebted to them for a balance in bullion.

"I ſhall now proceed to give an account of our trade with Portugal, evidently advantageous to both kingdoms in a mere commercial light; to Great Britain, as we furniſh them with commodities that employ many of our people, and procure us alſo a balance in bullion; to Portugal, as we ſend them little but what is cheap, of great uſe, nay, I may ſay of almoſt abſolute neceſſity for their ſubſiſtence, and receive from them in return moſt of their native and many of their colony commodities, which, in general, are articles of luxury with us, and ſome of them ſuch as we could be ſupplied with cheaper from other countries. Whereas they take no one article in preference from us, not even the ſingle one which we have an excluſive right, by the treaty of Queen Anne, of ſupplying, I mean cloths; ſince it is notorious all the fine ones they uſe go from France and Holland, while we religiouſly obſerve our obligation in the treaty, by admitting their wines at one third leſs duty than is paid for thoſe of France: and if our more ordinary cloths have ſtill a conſiderable vent there, as well as in Spain, it is ſolely owing to our being yet able to furniſh them much cheaper than any other country can do; but how long we may continue able to do ſo, I ſhall not preſume to ſay, unleſs ſome of our burthenſome taxes are timely taken off, and the extraction of wool from Ireland as well as England can be more effectually prevented; though by what methods to be accompliſhed I ſhall not pretend to ſay.

The exports from England to Portugal are long-bays of all kinds, Colcheſter bays, Spaniſh, Yorkſhire, and ſome few Glouceſter cloths; long-ells, ſhalloons, ſays, ſerges, Spital-fields, Norwich and Coventry ſtuffs of various kinds; printed linens, watered tabbies, ſilk and worſted ſtockings, hats, great quantities of Birmingham and Sheffield wares, ſome wrought plate, lead ſhot, copper, pewter, tin, coals, corn of all kinds, pulſe, flour, biſcuit, iron hoops, toys, watches, arms, and accoutrements of war, ſome cordage, ſhip-chandlery articles; and, in fine, almoſt every thing produced or made here that is uſeful and cheaper than in other countries.

From Scotland they have barley, and a little cured ling.

From Ireland they receive butter in great quantities, ſalted beef and pork, ſalted ſalmon and hake, ſome ordinary camblets, barley, and potatoes.

From Newfoundland, New England, and Nova Scotia, dried cod-fiſh, and particularly from the former place, in great quantities.

From Carolina, ſeveral cargoes of rice.

From New-York, Philadelphia, Virginia, and Maryland, wheat, flour, Indian corn, biſcuit, pipe-ſtaves, bees-wax, and lumber.

They alſo buy moſt of their commercial ſhipping from us, ſome river built, by order, but moſtly of Old or New-England conſtruction, that have been uſed.

Great Britain exports from Portugal almoſt all the wines that are ſhipt from their whole dominions, including the Weſtern iſlands and Madeira. The ſame of lemons and oranges. Salt for all our fiſheries, and moſt of our colony-uſe in North America; for our fiſheries in England and Scotland; and to Ireland prodigious quantities, for their fiſheries, exported proviſions, and whole national uſe; dried figs, raiſins, almonds, cork, ſumach, orchella, citrons, ſugars of late, in very great quantities for Ireland, near, if not quite ſufficient for that kingdom's conſumption; and from thence I have heard a great many, when refined, have been run into England; the whole to the great reproach of our colony-management, as is alſo our traffic there in French ſugars. Diamonds, both of Brazil and India, Brazil wood, arrack, and occaſionally other Indian commodities, which our ſhips ſmuggle into many parts of the Britiſh dominions; oil, when they have it to ſpare, and at reaſonable rates; and ſometimes cocoa-nuts, elephants teeth, drugs, a few tobaccos, and other articles.

I have not placed their cotton among the exports for any particular country, as hitherto they have received no great quantities from Maranham; and there are generally bidders upon it of all nations, who ſend it to thoſe places, where it is moſt likely to turn to account, the importation, I think, being prohibited no where.

From this ſhort view of the particulars of the Portugal commerce, it is fully apparent that our trade with Portugal, is the leaſt burthenſome and diſadvantageous to them of any; that in no article do we enjoy any preference, or receive any favour; but on the contrary, in the branch of fine cloths, a manifeſt injury.

In an account of ſo general and extenſive a trade, it cannot be expected I ſhould aſcertain quantities, as ſuch a taſk muſt have been the particular labour of years; and even with the utmoſt exertion of toil, art and expence, could never have been made perfect. Every man verſed in the trade, or that takes informations, may readily determine, from a view of the exports and imports, as I have put them one againſt the other, that the balance muſt be very great which Portugal pays to every country in Europe: and that from us ſhe receives hardly one article of luxury, nothing but the very cheapeſt and moſt uſeful of our commodities; and that from the many articles we take in return, all things of leſs abſolute uſe to us, ſhe pays us a ſmaller balance in proportion than to any other nation ſhe trades with.

I ſhall now recommend a few points to the immediate conſideration of whom they may concern.

And firſt, I recommend to ſome ſubſtantial Fabricant, or publick-ſpirited gentleman, to endeavour, in ſome place where labour is cheap, to ſet a manufacture on foot that may rival the black French druggets; an article which, if it could be brought to bear, would employ every inhabitant of a conſiderable village.

Secondly, to ſome of our northern counties, or to Ireland, I recommend the making the ſort of cheeſes ſent by the Dutch to Liſbon; of which many cargoes go in a year: and I cannot think but in our country they are to be made cheaper.

Thirdly, to whom it concerns, to ſupport and extend our hat trade, chiefly by preventing the ſale of beaver to the French, and to encourage the importing of greater quantities of it.

Fourthly, improving our ſilk-ſtocking buſineſs as much as poſſible, in point of cheapneſs and quality, particularly in gauze fabricks.

And fifthly, I humbly recommend to the conſideration of the legiſlature, the taking off, if poſſible, the duties on

ſoap

ſoap and candles, as articles that muſt and do greatly affect all our low-prized manufactures; of which kinds the bulk of our exports are now become. And I think, if an equivalent is neceſſary for the ſupport of government, the tax in lieu ſhould be laid on luxury, which is grown to ſo dangerous and ſhameful a pitch in Britain."

Having thus conſidered the intereſts of Portugal in reſpect to commerce, and made appear that her trade with Great Britain is of all others the moſt neceſſary and leaſt diſadvantageous, the ſame author then undertakes to make evident the ſtrong and natural dependence ſhe has on Great Britain for ſupport; and the good effects, in a political view, a very cloſe connection with Great Britain muſt always have for Portugal, in preference to an alliance with any other power in Europe.

"The natural and dangerous enemy of Portugal is Spain. For as the acquiſition of that kingdom would be of ſuch infinite conſequence, in the points of eaſe, convenience and power, to the Spaniards; the Portugueſe would be blind and ignorant indeed, not to ſuppoſe their ambitious neighbour would miſs no opportunity, on any pretence, for ſeizing on their country. And that ſuch an apprehenſion does always exiſt in Portugal, is evident from the alarms conſtantly taken on any movements or augmentation of troops on the Spaniſh frontier.

The antipathy and hereditary hatred the people of thoſe kingdoms have for each other, putting the Galicians out of the caſe, are extremely obvious and ſtrong. From traditions of former ſufferings, and a dread of future ones, the Portugueſe even abhor Spaniards; they conſider them as having been the unwarrantable ſeizers of their country, and the tyrannical ruiners of it afterwards, to make the acquiſition ſecure: while on the other ſide, it may be ſaid, as violent a prejudice operates, and almoſt to an equal degree. The proud Spaniards conſider the Portugueſe as a province of rebellious and revolted ſlaves, whom they want to ſhake their whips at, and conſtrain to a ſervile obedience, but cannot. They affect to deſpiſe the Portugueſe; but, in the manner of expreſſing their contempt, always manifeſt an anger that ſhews they are moſt ſenſibly hurt. Such is the animoſity that reigns now, and has for ages reigned, betwixt thoſe nations; nor is there the leaſt likelihood of an abatement of it, but, on the contrary, rather an increaſe.

Thus, with Spain for an hereditary enemy, and France a friend that ſhe dares not truſt; where can Portugal, too weak to defend herſelf, look for an able and truſty ally? To Italy? No: they have no ſuccours to ſend; but, on the contrary, live themſelves in perpetual need of them from others. Can Holland do the buſineſs? Moſt certainly no: her ſtrength and weight are no more. And as for the more northern kingdoms, they are at too great a diſtance, and too poor, to enter upon, or comply with ſuch an engagement. Great Britain, then, is the only nation that ever has been, can, or will be, the ſafe, the truſty, the generous, the able ſupporter of Portugal. If we examine hiſtory, from almoſt the firſt foundation of their monarchy, it will be found we were always their true and honourable allies. We generouſly helped them to conquer their country, and have ever protected them in it: for the truth of which I appeal to their own hiſtorians as well as ours. At the reſtoration of their monarchy, our Charles the firſt was one of the firſt princes that acknowledged their John the Fourth, and entered into a treaty with him: the good effects of which were, however, in ſome meaſure prevented by the unhappy troubles that juſt then broke out in Britain.

If a ſquabble happened in Oliver's time, it was from an indiſcretion of the court of Portugal that they paid heartily for; and, on their becoming wiſer, we became their friends again. Charles the Second was no ſooner reſtored to his dominions, than the intereſts of Portugal were by him taken to heart. He married their Infanta in preference to all other princeſſes, notwithſtanding the Spaniſh King offered to portion higher any other catholic or proteſtant princeſs that he would chuſe. He confirmed all former treaties made betwixt the nations, and made a new and perpetual one with Alfonſo the Sixth; by which Great Britain is to ſuccour them in times of need, and particularly with a naval force adequate to the neceſſity of their demand. It was under the ſame King's ſingle and expreſs mediation, the treaty was negotiated, by which Spain firſt acknowledged the independency of Portugal, Charles being guarantee; and by his powers did the Earl of Sandwich abſolutely accompliſh and ſign the treaty.

In conſequence of our above mentioned engagements, did Great Britain, in the year 1735, ſend them a ſuccour of near thirty ſhips of the line, ſo very expeditiouſly fitted out, that they carried, themſelves, the firſt public news of their appointment; which fleet remained, under the command of Sir John Norris, 22 months in the river Tagus, to the coſt of above a million ſterling to Great Britain. And whenever they require another and greater aſſiſtance, I hope we ſhall as readily grant it, on the ſingle condition that Portugal as fully and willingly complies with her obligations to us, in obſerving thoſe regulations in reſpect to commerce, which the ſame national treaty confirms and preſcribes: and which is not demanding from them any favour; nothing diſhonourable to their crown, or diſadvantageous to their country; nothing but what impartial juſtice exacts, and what good policy on their ſide would readily promote."

The patriot-ſpirited Mercator then goes on to ſhew that the Britiſh traders in Portugal labour under ſeveral diſadvantages; ſome of which, with as much freedom as veracity, he proceeds to lay before the public as follows:

"The firſt I ſhall name is, the prejudice which bigotry inſpires them with againſt us, on account of our religion. It muſt be acknowledged, to the great honour of the Portugueſe, that all orders of them are very civil to foreigners, and the better ſort are particularly polite: but ſtill they are rigid roman catholics, with whom it is a neceſſary point of faith, to think too ſeverely of thoſe who differ from them in religious principles. And although there are many of the nation who are very obliging in their carriage, nay, that do many kind and friendly actions for our proteſtant merchants; yet it is not to be doubted but the very beſt of them would like us ſtill better, if we profeſſed the ſame tenets with themſelves: and there are others, no doubt, who eſteem it a merit to hate us, and who think it a much leſs crime to deceive, over-reach and defraud us, than any ſuch as are of their own church. Beſides, the difference in religion does in a great meaſure prevent a free intercourſe with them, and hinders our having that intereſt with the clergy, in particular, which is often of very great ſervice to the roman catholic merchants of other countries.

The next diſadvantage our countrymen labour under, is that of having too often improper or incapable c——

The Britiſh factory of Liſbon had formerly the indulgence of chuſing and recommending a conſul; but fooliſhly reſigned it, to prevent animoſities from growing up among themſelves; and there are perſons yet on the ſpot who ſigned the letter for that purpoſe. Fatal reſignation! for, thereby, the office is now fallen among thouſands of others, to be ſquabbled for by people who regard it for nothing but its profits; and who, without conſidering conſequences, think of little elſe but making the poſt as eaſy as it is profitable to them. Now, rightly conſidered, I believe it will appear, there is no power can legally oblige one Briton to pay money to another without an act of the legiſlature to authoriſe it: and therefore conſulage can be conſidered only as a voluntary gratification for ſatisfactory ſervices: conſequently the merchants have a right to demand reaſonable and proper ſervices, or refuſe paying any conſul his appointments, eſpecially if it is made a reſolution of the majority of the body. But as this is a point of law, any able practitioner would greatly oblige the world by impartially diſcuſſing it, as a matter in which the proſperity of commerce and the rights of the ſubject are greatly intereſted.

To the ill execution of the c—nſ—r o—ce, muſt be added, that our countrymen labour ſometimes under the diſadvantage of having the m—ſt—l functions too badly performed. It is well known that, in Portugueſe ſpirit and dignity in a miniſter are very eſſential qualifications for preſerving a national reſpect, as the certain con-

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quences of an abject, mean, or puſillanimous behaviour, are its being ſlighted, deſpiſed, and trampled on. I will ſuppoſe, for example, that if our nation ſhould be ſo unfortunate, at any time, as to have a miniſter at that court, who, in the face of ſo very proud a people, could be ſo mean as to trade, nay, ſo indiſcreet as even to let his name appear at the head of a compoſition in a bankruptcy; what figure can it be thought he could make? and how little muſt he, of neceſſity, be reſpected, either by the natives, or his own countrymen? Nay, I will carry my ſuppoſition farther, and imagine a proteſtant merchant of our factory, perſecuted without a crime, ſhould apply to him, by the direction of the body of merchants, for his protection, and ſhould receive from him this anſwer, "I can't protect you, I come hither for other "purpoſes; if you want protection you muſt go to a "convent for it." I ſay, if ſuch a thing as this could poſſibly happen, what opinion would Portugal have of Great Britain? how would our merchants there look? how would they be treated by the very meaneſt of that people? and how long, after ſuch a diſgrace, could Portugal be tolerable to a Briton?

A noble negotiator that, not an age ago, left Liſbon on terms bad enough with his countrymen, had, notwithſtanding his piques, the wiſdom and honour to deliver his true ſentiments on the very evening of his departure from thence, in or near the following words: "Well, after all, the trade to this place is of great conſequence to Great Britain; and there ought to be a miniſter here of illuſtrious birth, with a high character and large appointments; nor is the beſt nobleman in the kingdom too great for the office, to ſupport properly the dignity of the crown and the rights of the nation. And there ought to be a conſul of ſufficient abilities, who ſhould be a merchant: one that could obtain weight and influence in the tribunals of the kingdom, and do all the under parts of buſineſs without troubling the miniſter; who ought never to appear but in matters of real importance; and, when he does move, he ſhould have ſuch powers as to enable him to act with great weight and dignity: and ſo will I inform the miniſtry when I get to London."

It is to be hoped that ſo wiſe and neceſſary an information was given; and that, to this nation's great benefit as well as honour, a time will come for carrying ſuch prudent counſel into execution.

Were, therefore, the national diſadvantages of having bad c——s and improper m—ſt—s, prevented by wiſe determinations here, moſt others would thereby be greatly weakened, if not entirely removed. Even the firſt I mentioned, their prejudice againſt us on the ſcore of religion, would a good deal be blunted, or at leaſt many of its bad effects removed, by a glare of grandeur on one hand, and a ſteady, wiſe and prudent conduct on the other; eſpecially if attended with affability, liberality, and politeneſs. But from the reverſe of theſe qualities, either in miniſters or conſuls, I am ſure all honeſt and worthy merchants of Great Britain will join me in ſaying, good Lord deliver us.

There is another diſadvantage our merchants labour under in Portugal, which is a prejudice kept up againſt them in particular, from being ſuppoſed the principal ſhippers-off of gold: an allegation in itſelf not entirely true, and in its conſequences abſolutely unjuſt, as I ſhall make plainly appear."

The author then proceeds to diſcuſs the intereſting point that has puzzled ſo many weak heads; that is, the extraction of gold from Portugal, which has been ever fooliſhly repreſented as an immenſe evil to that kingdom, ſuffered, however, out of great kindneſs and particular favour, to Great Britain.

"Nothing is more evident, than that gold is, in itſelf, of no other value than for the neceſſary and convenient uſes it can be put to. For example, I will ſuppoſe every Portugueſe had his houſe full of that metal, and was at the ſame time in want, as he muſt be if he would not part with it, of comfortable food and raiment; might he not, in ſuch a caſe, with propriety be ſaid, amidſt his uſeleſs heaps of ſhining ore, to be miſerable, poor, and wretched? What are particulars, or what is a ſtate the better for

dead and uſeleſs piles of wealth? It certainly might as well be kept under ground, as brought above it to no purpoſe; nay, it had better be kept there, on ſuch principles, than produced to the light; becauſe the care and labour of working the mines would then be avoided.

Should the whole race of Portugueſe fall again into their old, penurious, and inelegant methods of life; feed upon pulſe, or other ſuch ordinary food, and that in a ſparing manner, nay, even without cleanlineſs; when their own corn was exhauſted, if they would content themſelves with eating cheſnuts inſtead of bread, as the poor, in bad years, yet do in the north part of their kingdom; or with the pods of the locuſt-tree, which often ſupply the like wants to this day in Algarve; I ſay, if the people of the metropolis, and other affluent parts, of their kingdom, could condeſcend to foregoe the comforts of grateful food, kick off their ſhoes and ſtockings once more, and make, as in times paſt, an ordinary cloak their clothing by day, and only bed by night, of what value would gold become? or in what ſhape could they propoſe to make it ſerviceable to them? For my part, I ſee no other uſe it could poſſibly be put to, than the buying of themſelves, in times of need, a protection obſtinately to poſſeſs a wretched and comfortleſs independence. Whereas, on the contrary, by parting with their gold in commerce to other kingdoms, they enjoy not only the comforts, but elegancies of life; make a reſpectable figure in Europe; and are ſecure ſingly from us, while they are ſo wiſe as to preſerve our friendſhip, of a fuller and ſafer protection than they could poſſibly buy from the hire of all the mercenary troops upon earth.

Thus have I proved, I hope, from every conſideration, that the extraction of gold from Portugal is no real evil to that kingdom, and more eſpecially any proportion of it that, from our very neceſſary and uſeful commerce, comes to ſo natural, powerful, ready, and ſafe an ally as Great Britain.

But, we are to lament that, from a want of mercantile knowledge and due obſervation, all the odium of the Portugueſe falls on our nation for the extraction of their bullion; than which nothing can be more unreaſonable or unjuſt: but as ignorance is the foundation of this prejudice, I ſhall now endeavour to remove it.

That Portugal muſt and does pay a great balance in bullion to every other nation ſhe trades with, I hope I have made apparently obvious: but if a farther proof thereof is wanting, I appeal to the weekly, nay, I may almoſt ſay daily practice of our buying bills for thoſe balances of the ſeveral countries to whom they are due.

Such debts of Portugal do we purchaſe commonly for ready money, in an exchange buſineſs; which ſeldom gives a profit equal to national intereſt, and a decent premium for ſea riſques: and yet is a negotiation more favourable for us than any other nation, on account of our ſituation, and the number of privileged ſhips we continually have at Liſbon; as alſo from the ſuperior characters of our mercantile navigators to thoſe of Holland and other countries; inſomuch that our ſhips not only bring the money to England, but are alſo the general carriers of it, for all nations, to Italy. Thus, becauſe our ſhipping is principally uſed for the extraction of gold, and our country is made greatly a channel for its conveyance, both the ignorant of Portugal and of Great Britain imagine the balance of our commerce immenſely greater than it really is: for, as I ſaid before, England is only a channel for the greateſt part of the ſpecie our ſhips bring from Portugal; moſt of it going out of the kingdom at her eaſtern ports, as ſurely as it enters at the weſtern ones; ſo that our gain on the traffic for the payments Portugal makes to many other nations by the way of England, including freight, commiſſion, profit, and charges, may reaſonably be eſtimated at from two and a half to three *per cent.* and no more. Such is the profit for which we do the buſineſs, run the riſques, and bear the odium, in Portugal, belonging to other countries.

I cannot quit this head without obſerving, that it is exceeding ill policy in Portugal to make the riſque of extracting gold great; becauſe, according to the difficulties, the exchanges will be proportioned more or leſs againſt

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them. And, I muſt add, if we were not the carriers of any, it would nevertheleſs go, and more to the diſadvantage of Portugal: for national balances, like thoſe of private people, muſt be paid, ought to be ſo, and will be, in bullion, let what laws ſoever be made to hinder it.

The Portugueſe therefore, as our friends and well-wiſhers, ought by all means to preſerve to us the advantage of being the carriers of their bullion. Nay, the late King of Portugal did ſo, on a patriot principle, after his eyes were once well opened, as they were in Wingfield and Roberts's affair; for it is well known he ever after diſcouraged informations and diligences about the extraction of coin, being well ſatisfied of the abſolute neceſſity there was for its going out of his kingdom.

The great Lord Galway made a ſpeech in the year 1709, to his late Portugueſe Majeſty, when that nobleman was general there of the Britiſh forces, and ambaſſador from Queen Anne, on a project then in agitation at the court of Liſbon, to prevent the extraction of bullion: of which Lord Galway having received information, he immediately demanded an audience of the King, to whom he ſtrongly and elegantly delivered his ſenſe on the ſubject, in the following manner:

"Your Majeſty cannot be ſufficiently commended for the ſteady attention you have always ſhewn to the affairs of your government. And the pains you have lately beſtowed on examining into the balance of trade, is a new proof of that merit which would intitle you to the crown, had it not deſcended to you from a long and glorious line of royal anceſtors. But permit me, ſire, to obſerve, that there is a greater King; one by whom all kings reign, and whoſe providence is over all his works. According to his diſtribution of things, riches belong to ſome nations, and induſtry to others; and by theſe means the liberality of heaven is made equal to all. Vain, ſire, are all human counſels, when oppoſed to his wiſdom; and feeble the efforts, even of royal powers, when directed to croſs his will. You have forbid gold to be exported out of your dominions, and you would willingly enforce the prohibition: but the thing is impracticable. You may reſtrain your ſubjects, but you cannot ſet bounds to their neceſſities. But ſay this was poſſible: ſuppoſe you could defeat the induſtry of the northern nations; what would be the conſequence? Their huſbandmen, graziers, weavers, and all that infinite train of manufacturers that now labour quietly at home to clothe and feed your ſubjects, would then turn ſoldiers; and, inſtead of ſeeing their merchantmen in the river of Lisbon, you would hear of their fleets conveying them to Brazil, to fetch much more of that gold than you now fetch for them. Beſides, ſire, if they are gainers by their trade, they thereby become the natural guarantees of your dominions. It is not only their treaty, but intereſts that bind them to your ſervices. You have potent enemies, and you require powerful friends. The ambition of France knows no bounds; and the pride of Spain will teach her to keep up a perpetual claim to your territories and crown. You have no recourſe to fruſtrate the views and defeat the endeavours of thoſe potentates, but to the maritime powers; and, therefore, let me beſeech your majeſty to conſider, that every project to diſtreſs them, is in effect a ſcheme to deſtroy yourſelf."

This ſpeech, it is ſaid, had its deſired effect; as ſuch ſpeeches ever muſt have in Portugal; at leaſt while the preſent ſyſtems of power and politics remain as they are in Europe, or the Portugueſe preſerve their ſenſes; or the governing men their true loyalty to their King, and a generous zeal and patriot love for their country."

Mercator then gives the following account of the nature and reaſonableneſs of the privileges to which the Britiſh merchants are intitled in Portugal; and the neceſſity there is for ſupporting both them and the national dignity of Britain in that kingdom.

"Of theſe privileges many were the ſpecial grants, doubtleſs for wiſe reaſons, of ſeveral of the Kings of Portugal in ancient times, and were mere acts of grace and favour, till the celebration of Cromwell's treaty with John the Fourth, when they became our abſolute right, by being declared ſuch in the third article thereof.

I ſhall now mention the particular articles of privilege a preſent contended for, as well as others that are loſt; an ſhall ſubjoin a ſhort obſervation on moſt of them.

I will begin with a very neceſſary one, which is the righ of having juſtice duly adminiſtred; and that certainl ought not to be reckoned a favour in any nation: but i is at preſent too well known to be the caſe in Portugal and I am afraid has been for many ages paſt the cuſtom there, to regard perſonal influence more than impartial juſtice, in judicial determinations; which, doubtleſs, occaſioned the treaty's being ſo very full, as it is, of regulations on that head.

The office of judge conſervator is our ſtipulated right, b the 7th article of the treaty, whoſe province it is to judg all our cauſes; but with a right, however, for either party to appeal to a body of judges, who are to give the fina ſentence within four months: which rule is ſo far from being obſerved, that law-ſuits may be kept undetermined for forty years. The judge conſervator is likewiſe to protect the ſubjects of Great Britain, not from juſtice but wicked or vexatious inſults. But that authority, like every other, is now taken from him; and our merchants of the moſt reſpectable figure are thereby ſubjected to the inſolences of the very meaneſt fellows in office having many of them been carried by ſuch, unheard, un examined, both with and without orders from their ſu periors, to the Newgates and Gatehouſes of the kingdom and ſuffered outrages in their houſes and properties, with out a poſſibility of obtaining reparation, or any ſort of ſatisfaction whatever; even after proving the illegality of the proceeding, and the innocence of the inſulted perſon Let every merchant of Great Britain, every ſubject of theſe kingdoms, think ſeriouſly of ſuch a ſituation; and never venture more to pronounce a valuable body of their countrymen blameable for ſolliciting, nay demanding, for it is their right, protection from ſuch unjuſtifiable violences; or that their judge conſervator may be re ſtored to his ſtipulated authority for that purpoſe.

As to the navigation articles for America, they are all be come now of no account: our ſhips are not allowed, un leſs in diſtreſs, to go to any of their colonies, except Mazagam and their African iſlands; and there without preference. The right of having houſes of trade in Bra zil, and their other ſettlements, is alſo entirely taken from us.

The right of a legal navigation to Portugal, and com merce there, with an equitable ſecurity of property, par ticularly in periſhable commodities, and ſome of the owing no duties to the king, are ſtipulated to be fr from all vexatious embaraſſments; all of which is agree able to reaſon, juſtice and good policy, for them to fo low of; and yet, in moſt of thoſe articles, our merchant are eternally plagued with vexatious obſtructions, an plunderings.

We have alſo, by ſtipulation, a right to the wearing ſuch arms for our defence as are uſed by the natives: article which I hope is not thought a favour for us to e joy, becauſe thoſe nations who have no treaties wi them do the ſame, and ought to do it in every country The liberty of profeſſing our religion likewiſe, I ho this nation has too much dignity to receive as a favo from any in Europe, eſpecially while the ſame indulgen is granted to the people of all countries in Great Britain That debts owing to our merchants by perſons ſequeſtere by the king or inquiſition, ſhould be made good to creditors, is certainly a very reaſonable and neceſſary pulation: yet in regard to the king it is not obſerve in regard to the inquiſition it is.

That the king, or any other power, by arbitrary pr tections, ſhall not guard the effects of our debtors fr legal executions, is likewiſe an article of mere juſti yet it is frequently and wantonly violated.

The not protecting our run-away ſailors, on a prete of changing their religion, and the obliging them, wh demanded, to return to their ſhips, is an article now at all regarded by the Portugueſe: on the contrary, th are encouraged in unreaſonable and inſolent proſecuti of their captains, ſeduced from their duty, and ſuppor in their reſiſtance; debauched in infamous houſes, wh

they are encouraged to run in debt; for the payment of which they are afterwards ſold like cattle to the Portugueſe and others; ſuch practices being abſolutely become a traffic in Lisbon, to the diſhonour as well as prejudice of Great Britain.

The Britiſh factory have a right, under the authority of their judge conſervator, to appoint, out of their own body, adminiſtrators of the effects of ſuch of their countrymen who die without partners, or inteſtate: which is certainly not only a very reaſonable but very neceſſary article, and can be no evil to Portugal.

Our merchants are exempted from hired or perſonal military ſervice, as well as their domeſtics; and from civil and religious offices, and all church tributes; which in ſome points are merely reaſonable and agreeable to the practice of all nations; in others, moſt neceſſary exemptions. They have, moreover, the right of having all neceſſaries for their houſes and perſons, and thoſe of their families, duty free; but this privilege is now made of little conſequence to them. They have likewiſe, by royal decrees and the laws of the land, the right of being treated as gentlemen, even in the article of criminal proſecutions; but it is ſo far loſt to them, that they are continually, even from wanton inſolence, treated as ſlaves: and they have another privilege, which is that of being priſoners at large for debt. By the ſeparate and ſecret article, the regulation of duties on our woollen goods is made; but, to the manifeſt prejudice both of Great Britain and Portugal, it is, like moſt of the others, never regarded.

Such are the Britiſh privileges in Portugal, and the ſubſtance of the ſtipulations in our favour of the treaty with that crown; which ignorant perſons have thought full of mighty advantages to this nation. Whereas the fact is ſo far otherwiſe, that if they join Charles the ſecond's treaty, and that of Queen Anne to Oliver Cromwell's, and then take a cool view of our ſituation, and that of other nations in Portugal, it will be found we are upon much the worſt footing with them of any, being in nothing favoured in trade, and yet the only nation obliged to ſuccour and protect them, as we frequently have done at an immenſe expence.

The treaty made between Queen Anne and Peter the ſecond of Portugal conſiſting but of two articles, except the preamble and concluſion, and thoſe being ſhort ones, I ſhall here give them entire to the public.

ARTICLE I.

"His ſacred royal Majeſty of Portugal promiſes, both in his own name, and that of his ſucceſſors, to admit for ever hereafter, into Portugal, the woollen cloths, and the reſt of the woollen manufactures of the Britons, as was accuſtomed, till they were prohibited by the laws; nevertheleſs upon this condition, that is to ſay,

ARTICLE II.

That her ſacred royal Majeſty of Great Britain ſhall, in her own name, and that of her ſucceſſors, be obliged, for ever hereafter, to admit the wines of the growth of Portugal into Great Britain; ſo that at no time, whether there ſhall be peace or war between the kingdoms of Britain and France, any thing more ſhall be demanded for theſe wines by the name of cuſtom or duty, or by any other title whatſoever, directly or indirectly, (whether they ſhall be imported into Great Britain in pipes or hogſheads or other caſks) than what ſhall be demanded for the like quantity or meaſure of French wine, deducting or abating a third part of the cuſtom or duty. But if at any time this deduction or abatement of cuſtoms, which is to be made as aforeſaid, ſhall in any manner be attempted and prejudiced, it ſhall be juſt and lawful for his ſaid royal Majeſty of Portugal again to prohibit the woollen cloths, and the reſt of the Britiſh woollen manufactures."

I muſt here obſerve, that the cloth trade is not the only article to which we have an excluſive right; for the treaty manifeſtly gives it for woollen goods in general: and ſuch was the right that we accordingly did enjoy, in its full and genuine ſenſe, till the late Dutch conſul, Mr. Heſterman, found the means of explaining it away in favour of his nation; who thereupon began introducing Dutch cloths, now increaſed to a great trade. And the French have ſince taken the like advantage of our ſupineneſs, to traffic in cloths to Portugal, though in ſecret; and the better to cover it, their cloths go with Engliſh marks, tickets, and package, though they are well enough known: and for many other kinds of their woollen goods, they are imported into Portugal openly, and in very great quantities.

From the ſenſe of the treaty, enforced by many years practice, I think it is clear, that we have the ſole excluſive right of importing woollen goods of all kinds into Portugal; and we are the only nation who give them an equivalent for that right; the conditions whereof, to their advantage, being duly obſerved by us, ſurely demands as honourable an obſervation, on their part, of the ſtipulations made in our favour; and I ſee no reaſon for ſuffering ourſelves quietly to be elbowed out of our rightful poſſeſſions by any intruders whatever.

In regard to our national dignity, weight, and privileges, I have only to add, as a ſerious truth, that the Portugueſe people laugh, nay cry ſhame on us, for giving them ſo tamely and readily up. The French act in all points with a quite different ſpirit: they have no treaty, no privileges, but from favour; and yet, from being better ſupported, their merchants gain ground on ours every day. And as to the flag of France, they make it greatly reſpected in Portugal, and every where elſe: whereas the Britiſh flag has too frequently ſuffered indignities.

It is evident, both from reaſon and obſervation, that in Portugal, the nation that beſt ſupports its dignity will, in the end, be the prevailing one in commerce. It is the nature of the people to require ſpirit in thoſe they have to do with, and they always reſpect it wherever it appears. If any man can point out one advantage we ever got by making conceſſions there, I ſhall be very glad to learn a truth at preſent unknown to me; as it alſo would be to me to have a ſingle inſtance produced, where ſpirited proceedings have failed of obtaining their juſt and honourable ends; for, indeed, the Portugueſe are no fools."

The author then ſhews the cauſes of the late contentions in Portugal, in which the conduct of the Britiſh merchants there has been greatly miſrepreſented. Among other inſtances of the vexations and perſecutions to which the Britiſh merchants are liable in Portugal, he mentions the following.

A Britiſh houſe of great figure, that had large warehouſes at a country-ſeat they hired about a league above Liſbon, on the banks of the river, had a viſitation there by the very meaneſt officers of the cuſtom-houſe, under a pretence of ſearching for ſmuggled goods. The family being in town, and only one ſervant there, who had not the keys of the warehouſes; on their being demanded to be opened, the officers were told by the ſervant, that he would ſend for his maſters and the keys, as he immediately did: but they inſolently, and without a legal authority, broke open the doors; and, finding nothing to ſeize, left the warehouſes expoſed to plunder, as the gentlemen found them when they arrived; for they went thither directly, with their keys, on receiving the notice that was ſent them. This, like all other violences, no ſort of ſatisfaction could be obtained for: and yet, if thoſe fellows had carried but a pound of foreign tobacco, ſnuff, or ſoap, or a ſingle pack of foreign cards, and then ſwore they had found them there, the houſe would have been confiſcated and ruined.

The 17th article of the treaty expreſsly ſays, If it happens that any controverſy does ariſe between the ſaid King's inſpectors, officers or miniſters, and the ſaid merchants, concerning the goodneſs of fiſh, or any other ſorts of proviſions whatſoever, which ſhall be carried to any of the ſaid King's dominions; the ſame ſhall be determined by the arbitration of good men, provided they are Portugueſe, who ſhall be equally choſen by the magiſtrate of the place, and the conſul of the Engliſh nation, and they ſhall determine the buſineſs in ſuch a manner, that no damage may accrue to the owner in the mean time while the matter is in diſpute.

Notwithſtanding the equitable precautions in this article of

of the treaty, the health-officers are guilty of ſuch arbitrary inſolences and plunderings, as are wicked and infamous to the higheſt degree. For example, in the ſummer of the year 1752, a great quantity of foreign grain being then at Lisbon, under falſe and ridiculous pretences, they exerciſed ſuch tyrannies as would diſgrace even a Barbary government. They ſeized whole warehouſes of corn, fined the owners of it, condemned the grain, and threw conſiderable quantities, at the expence of their owners, into the river. From others they took bribes to be quiet; which was the real end they drove at, and not the ſafety of the public; for it is well known the people of that office are capable, for money, of ſuffering the very plague to be imported and ſold. With ſuch proceedings, it muſt be concluded, all the holders of grain were greatly terrified; inſomuch that the prices of wheat, and eſpecially Engliſh, which is not ſo fit for keeping as Streights grain at any time, and was that year, from a wet harveſt, of an inferior quality, fell fifty, ſixty, nay ſeventy *per cent.* in price; ſo that the whole commerce did not loſe leſs that ſummer than 50,000 l. ſterling, beſides the ſums given in bribes to thoſe harpies, the health-officers. On that occaſion the whole Portugueſe nation cried ſhame on ſuch proceedings! however the ſpoilers found protection, the merchants were plundered without redreſs, and the dealers in Engliſh grain ſuffered more in proportion than any others. I muſt here beg leave to inſtance one barbarous act of their wanton tyranny, which was as follows:

Two Engliſh houſes, who had a great deal of our country wheat on hand, finding their corn begin to ſuffer in quality, from the hot weather and weavel, joined together in a petition to the health-office, for leave to ſhip it off, under bond ſecurity for producing certificates of its being landed in other countries; which petition was rejected, under the unwarrantable and improbable pretence, that they might convey it to other parts of Portugal, and obtain forged certificates to cover the fraud: whilſt their real motive for the refuſal was, not to let a commodity get out of their power which they had hopes of ſqueezing gains from. And, as a proof of the iniquity of this proceeding, I can aver, that the corn was afterwards ſold for making bread at Lisbon; alſo, that it made very good bread; and yet it was embaraſſed in its ſales by the health-officers, to the great loſs of thoſe who had ſued for a juſt and reaſonable right, and were refuſed it.

The hard impoſitions that even attend the very unloading of corn, on its arrival at Lisbon, can be vouched for by almoſt every maſter of a ſhip that uſes the trade. It muſt be eaſily conceived, that hardly any cargo of corn can be navigated without receiving ſome little damage, either from heating, or water made by the ſhip on her paſſage. The firſt kind of prejudice is always removed by care in the warehouſe, after it is landed; and for the ſecond, any corn damaged by ſalt water, it has been cuſtomary to ſell for what it might be found worth, to feed hogs or other animals with; for corn can hardly be ſo bad as not to ſerve well for ſome neceſſary uſe. Yet health-officers have been ſo tyrannical of late, as to throw into the river great quantities of grain but little damaged, and ſometimes when it was not at all ſo, merely to procure iniquitous fees for themſelves. It was not long ago that a merchant had a cargo of corn conſigned to him, ſome of which was ſpoilt, by the ſhip's making water on the voyage; when he heard of it, he ordered the damaged wheat to be thrown over-board: no, ſays the health-officer, there muſt be a diligence done, and fees paid: the gentleman replied, there was no neceſſity for any ſuch diligence, ſince all it could do was to cauſe the corn to be thrown away, and he did not want to preſerve it: but his remonſtrances were in vain, for the pick-pocket innovation was inſiſted on.

Such were the tranſactions in the year 1752; and in the following ſummer, another game was play'd equally tyrannical and unjuſt. The harveſt had failed in Spain, and the crop alſo proved very ſhort in Portugal: however, in the latter kingdom there was a very conſiderable ſtock of foreign grain on hand; and, though the price of it was raiſed, yet the merchants went on ſelling it in their uſual manner, without any combination, fraud, or ill practice in their proceedings. They were not moleſted for a conſiderable time, that orders might be given for buying up farther great quantities, as was actually done, for a future ſupply: but in the month of Auguſt, juſt the dangerous time for embaraſſments to the ſtock on hand, miſrepreſentations having been made, out comes a royal ordinay, in effect to take it, in that critical ſeaſon, out of the proprietors hands; or at leaſt, putting it out of their power to uſe the proper means for its preſervation; thereby expoſing many people to ruin: nay more, they were made liable to a treatment due only to the vileſt of felons, and that even without the power of being heard in their own defence; for the order expreſsly directed the preſident of the corn market to take out ſecret informations concerning all tranſgreſſors of it, and tranſmit them to the ſecretary of ſtate, for the King to determine the puniſhment in his cloſet.

Down falls corn, on this proceeding, five and twenty *per cent.* in its prices; which might make the difference of near another fifty thouſand pounds on the year's trade; beſides the danger to the merchants, from falſe informations, of ſequeſtration, corporal puniſhment, and baniſhment from the kingdom; all againſt the force of judicial determinations, as well as reaſon and cuſtom; and alſo againſt the ſanction of a national treaty; in the tenth article of which there is this ſtipulation, "And the people of this republic (England) may freely carry arms, corn, fiſh, and all other ſorts of merchandiſe, into the kingdoms, ports, and territories of the King of Portugal, and ſell the ſame at their pleaſure, either by retail or wholeſale, to any perſon whatſoever, and for whatever prices they can get; and they ſhall not be prohibited, circumſcribed, or incapacitated, by his ſaid royal Majeſty, or his miniſters, governors, farmers of the revenues, or monopolies, or by any chamber, or juriſdiction of any tribunal either public or private."

Such were the ſecurities under which the merchants had ſent for the corn, about which they were treated as I have before deſcribed. I have now only to add on the ſubject, that foreign grain is, by the very laws of the kingdom, a free trade; owing no kind of duty to the King, nor any fee whatever to his officers, except a trifle for an entry at the corn-table; and, therefore, there was no lawful plea for cauſing the prejudices our merchants were made to ſuffer, or the very alarming dangers to which they were ſo arbitrarily expoſed.

The author then continues to point out ſome further grievances, to which the Britiſh merchants are expoſed in Portugal. He ſays, that part of the ſeparate, or ſecret article of the treaty begins thus: "That the people and inhabitants of England, trading (as has been already mentioned) in the kingdoms, dominions, ports or territories of the ſaid King, ſhall not pay more duties and taxes, but only in the manner following, *viz.* that the Engliſh goods, merchandiſe, and manufactures, ſhall never exceed 23 *per cent.* on their valuation, for the payment of the duties; and they ſhall be favourably valued, according to the regimen (or book of rates) of the cuſtom-houſe, and the ancient laws of the kingdom; and ſuppoſe there ſhould be any motive for raiſing the valuation by reaſon of a riſe in the real value of goods and merchandiſe, it ſhall not be done but by the conſent, and in the preſence of two Engliſh merchants, who reſide and dwell in Portugal, and are choſen by the Engliſh conſul; and, granting that the merchandiſe ſhould fall from its preſent or future exact value, the valuation and duties ſhall be determined by diſintereſted perſons, who ſhall be choſen by the Engliſh conſul and the officers of the cuſtom-houſe."

Such are the ſtipulations for regulating the duties on our Britiſh manufactures in Portugal; but theſe are now as little attended to in that kingdom as the reſt, to our manifeſt injury, and indeed to theirs alſo.

The great article of crapes, which we have now loaded a moſt enormous duty: and at preſent, long ells and ſhalloons, and ſome other ſorts of ſtuffs, pay from 28 to 30, and even upwards, *per cent.* duties on their fair valuation.

luation. The conſequences of which are, that theſe branches greatly decline, and moſt of the traffic in them is become clandeſtine, to the great prejudice of the fair traders, and alſo of the royal revenue of Portugal. Beſides, Spain lies ſo very convenient for ſmuggling in her cheap and ſtrong ſilks, that, if not timely check'd, they muſt infallibly undermine a very great part of our ſtuff-trade to Portugal, which can only be preſerved by a better and juſter regulation of the duties thoſe goods are to pay.

It has become a practice of late for the provedors, or chief officers of the cuſtom-houſe, to act in ſo capricious and tyrannical a manner, that our merchants can make no certain calculations on hardly any thing they deal in, notwithſtanding there is a printed book of rates; and there are alſo certain officers in the cuſtom-houſe, whoſe ſole buſineſs is to aſcertain the qualities of merchandiſe; but their determinations are no farther attended to than as the ſuperior pleaſes. I ſhall furniſh two inſtances, out of hundreds that might be produced, of his overbearing and arbitrary management.

The firſt was of ſome Engliſh cloths, of a quality often imported by the gentleman thoſe belonged to. The valuers of the goods put them at their uſual rate; the director of the cuſtom-houſe inſiſted they ſhould pay according to another: the owner remonſtrated on the injuſtice of ſuch a demand: every valuer in the cuſtom-houſe peremptorily aſſerted they could not poſſibly have in higher eſtimation than their old one given, without a manifeſt injury to the merchant; yet the chief officer perſiſted in his demand. The merchant appealed to the higher tribunals, his cloths lying all the while, I believe near a twelvemonth, open in the cuſtom-houſe, but could obtain no redreſs, and was forced to ſubmit to the impoſition.

The ſecond inſtance I ſhall produce was concerning printed linens. One Engliſh houſe diſpatched, in the beginning of a week, ſome caſes of them, at the uſual rate of paying duties for ſuch goods, which had always been regular and certain: about the middle of the ſame week, another Engliſh houſe ſent to diſpatch ſome caſes of the very ſame goods, both for kinds and qualities, and the valuers declared the rates for them to be as uſual. But Mr. Chief Director peremptorily inſiſted they ſhould pay more than *cent. per cent.* higher duties. The owner remonſtrated, but in vain; he was obliged to pay the unreaſonable exaction; nay the duties were afterwards raiſed greatly higher. When that gentleman reproached the cuſtom-houſe valuers for the impoſition, thinking it was their fault, the poor men ſhrugg'd up their ſhoulders, and ſhaking their heads, replied, 'What, ſir, would you have us to do? we are as badly uſed as yourſelf. Since L-— T—— came over here, and did nothing, you muſt look upon yourſelves as given into the hands of this man, as we are, for him to do what he pleaſes with.'

Such capricious and unreaſonable exactions, made without any the leaſt previous notice, deſtroy all calculation, and render uncertain every rule by which merchants can and do regulate their proceedings; and therefore are acts of the moſt barbarous oppreſſion and injuſtice.

Such were the violences and injuries that have from time to time created uneaſineſs in the minds of our merchants at Liſbon; and as they were contrary to ſtipulated regulations, they were certainly ſtronger grounds for complaint; and for any the merchants might make for ſuch wrongs and dangers as I have mentioned, I am very certain every candid reader will excuſe, nay commend them. They were, upon too good grounds, put under an extraordinary apprehenſion ſome time ago. A method was taken to quiet their fears on that head, which effectually did it. They were, however, at the ſame time, promiſed their grievances ſhould alſo be redreſſed, and their juſt priviledges reſtored: but what has been the event thereof? Reader, thou ſhalt be impartially informed: for the following novelties have happened within the two years laſt paſt.

1ſt. The few remaining powers of our judge conſervator, for protecting the Engliſh merchants, have been entirely taken away, by a public printed decree of his moſt faithful Majeſty's.

2dly. Our corn trade has been made ten times more precarious, and the perſons and fortunes of our merchants rendered unſafe from the worſt and moſt arbitrary violences, warranted by a written ordination of the King of Portugal's, which was ſtuck up on the doors of the corn market in Liſbon: its whole tenor expreſsly contrary to the tenth article of the treaty; which they now ſo effectually annul, as to diſpatch no petition about corn in which a right from that treaty is claimed.

3dly. By a decree of the King of Portugal's, in favour of that righteous officer called the provedor of the cuſtom-houſe, all caſes, wrappers, barrels, and package whatſoever, are made his due, of any merchandiſe imported into Portugal, and may be taken by him in ſpecie, if he pleaſes. A moſt unjuſt ordination, as well as enormous tax; for the package is certainly as much the merchant's as the goods it contains; and, in ſome caſes, ſuch as butter, rice and flour, for example, cannot be ſeparated. In ſhort, never was there a law ſo unreaſonable or ſo unjuſt! That officer's chief pay aroſe formerly from a duty only on package, which the Kings of Portugal might have ſome grounds for exacting, as it was a light charge to the merchant; but henceforward it may be made what an arbitrary officer pleaſes: though, in fact, we ought to pay no ſort of duty on package, as by a decree of King Emanuel's, now incorporated with our rights, we are intitled to import, free of duties, canvas, wrappers, bags, and other neceſſaries, for carrying on of our buſineſs, provided they are for our uſe, and not for ſale.

4thly. The inſecurity of the perſons and fortunes of our merchants, from the before-mentioned corn-ordination, the new diamond law; and, above all, the unprecedented baniſhment of a Britiſh merchant, without a crime and without a hearing, on a pretence of what Portugal had nothing to do with.

The enumerating of theſe facts are the beſt and fulleſt vindication of our merchants at Lisbon that can, or need to be given for their proceedings, in appealing to their ſovereign, through the proper channel of his miniſtry, for his royal ſupport and protection. They are well known to have hearts filled with zeal, loyalty, duty, and affection for their King, and a becoming reſpect for all who are in authority under him. But they would no longer deſerve the name of Britons, if they acted in a manner ſo unbecoming of themſelves, as to forget that juſtice is their due, and legal liberty their birthright. There never was a more falſe or injurious opinion propagated, than that our merchants at Lisbon are either factious, turbulent, or unreaſonable; they are not ſo, but the reverſe: and as their cauſe is juſt, they truſt it muſt prevail.'

I promiſed to give the public ſome examples of our flag's having been inſulted, and the perſons alſo of his Majeſty's naval officers: which I ſhall now content myſelf with having only mentioned; as, if any perſon is deſirous of a more particular information, it may be had from almoſt any gentleman who has lived many years in Portugal.

I did intend, in ſome future letter, to have delivered my ſentiments on the ſubject of a propoſal, made ſome time ago, for taking off the bounty on exported corn; the immediate conſequence of which ſcheme's taking place, muſt have been an entire ſtoppage of all exportation of grain, or a reduction of the rents of lands a full fifth part from their preſent value.

It is a miſtaken notion in Great Britain, that other nations cannot ſubſiſt without our corn, which the preſent year gives an undeniable proof of. There has been almoſt a total failure of the crops in Spain, very ſhort ones in Portugal, and hardly enough in France for their national ſupport; and yet there has been no demand for Engliſh grain in thoſe countries; nay, very little has gone, becauſe it was too dear. And their ports have been, notwithſtanding, regularly ſupplied with more than ſufficient quantities; which they had on better terms from the Levant, Naples, Sicily, Sardinia, Philadelphia, Virginia, Dantzick, and Koningsberg. And ſuch being the caſe this year, how much more muſt it be when France and Spain are themſelves conſiderable exporters? as is frequently the caſe. This makes it evident, that our corn can never find a foreign expence, but at prices proportionate for its qua-

lity to that of other nations; and as it has generally been, and now is, above its proportionate price to thoſe of other nations, the bounty cannot be taken off, without obliging the farmers to ſell ſo much lower as to make up the difference; and from the farmers, I am convinced, the abatements muſt be made on the landlords. So that the ſingle alternative is this, unleſs we reduce our tillage, either the government muſt pay the bounty, or the landed gentlemen lower their rents, near, or quite a fifth part, from what they are now at."

PORTUGUESE *America*. The Portugueſe poſſeſs only Brazil, or Braſil, in America: but this part of the new world is ſo extenſive, fertile, and rich, that they have no reaſon to complain of their diviſion.

Brazil is ſituated between 35 and 36 deg. of W. lon. and between the equator and 35 of S. lat. being 2500 miles long, and 700 broad; bounded by the river Amazon, and the Atlantic ocean, on the north; by the ſame ocean on the eaſt; by the river Plata on the ſouth; and by a chain of mountains, which divide it from Spaniſh America, and the country of the Amazons, on the weſt.

It is divided into the fifteen captainſhips of Para, Marignan, Siara, Petagues, Rio-Grande, Payraba, Tamara, Pernambuco, Bahia or the bay of All Saints, Ilheos, Porto-Seguro, Spirito-Sancto, Rio-Janeiro, St. Vincent, and Del-Rey.

There are ſome ſmall iſlands on the coaſt of Brazil, where ſhips touch ſometimes for proviſions in their voyage to the South ſea; particularly Fernando, in 3 deg. of S. lat. St. Barbaras, in 28 deg. of S. lat. and St. Katharine's alſo in 28 deg. of S. lat.

The land is rather low than high near the coaſt; but exceeding pleaſant, being chequered with woods and ſavannahs, or large meadows, and the trees for the moſt part evergreens. However, on the weſt-ſide of it, far within land, are the high mountains which ſeparate it from the Spaniſh province of La Plata; and in theſe are innumerable ſprings and lakes, from whence iſſue abundance of rivers, that fall into the great rivers Amazon and La Plata, or run acroſs the country from weſt to eaſt, and fall into the Atlantic ocean; which laſt are very numerous, and of great uſe to the Portugueſe in turning their ſugar-mills.

Alvarez Cabral, a Portugueſe, driven there in his voyage to the Eaſt Indies by a ſtorm in 1501, took poſſeſſion of this country for the crown of Portugal; but Americus Veſpuſius was the perſon who properly diſcovered it, having traverſed almoſt all the coaſts from the river of the Amazons to that of Plata, which at preſent make almoſt the limits of Brazil from north to ſouth.

The inland part of Brazil is not as yet well known; the Portugueſe not having penetrated above 240 miles, becauſe the vaſt countries which ſeparate it from Peru are inhabited by innumerable Indians who love liberty, and who diſpute foot by foot the poſſeſſion of a country which belongs to them, and of which they look upon all ſtrangers as the uſurpers.

The French were the firſt who attempted to divide Brazil with the Portugueſe; and for this purpoſe, in 1550, eſtabliſhed themſelves there at the mouth of Rio-Janeiro, where they raiſed a fort, and laid the foundations of a pretty numerous colony: but the Portugueſe expelled them in 1558, and built in the place of this fort the city of St. Sebaſtian, which is now famous for its extenſive commerce.

The Dutch, in the following century, were more dangerous enemies to the Portugueſe than the French; and by their Weſt India company, eſtabliſhed at Amſterdam in 1623, ſignaliſed their firſt exploits againſt Spain, of which Portugal then made a part, by the taking of Pernambuco, Tamara, Payraba, and Tignares.

The count of Naſſau, who was ſent there in 1636, in quality of this company's governor general, added to theſe conqueſts the governments of Siara and Marignan; ſo that of the fifteen governments which compoſe Brazil, the Dutch poſſeſſed ſeven.

But this progreſs being ſtopped in 1641 by the truce concluded between the States-General and Portugal, which ſometime before had extricated itſelf from the Spaniſh dominion; the Portugueſe reaped ſuch an advantage from this relaxation, as alſo from the indolence and avarice of the Dutch company's directors, who had paſſed into Brazil in 1654 to take upon them the government of it, that in 1655 they had repaired all their loſſes, and re-entered the poſſeſſion of all that the Dutch had taken from them during the ſpace of 20 years.

The States general ſtrove in vain to remedy this revolution, by the war they declared againſt Portugal in 1656; and, in virtue of a treaty concluded in 1661, by the mediation of the King of England, were obliged to give up all their pretenſions to Brazil, on receiving 8 tuns of gold from the Portugueſe.

It is to this peace of 1661 that the Portugueſe of Brazil owe all the repoſe of their colonies, and the Portugueſe of Europe the great trade they drive on there by the means of ſeveral ſhips, which depart yearly from Liſbon for the bay of All Saints, Pernambuco, and Rio-Janeiro, the three moſt conſiderable governments of thoſe which compoſe Brazil.

It will be ſufficient to ſpeak here of theſe three governments, whereof the capitals, St. Salvador, Olinda, and St. Sebaſtian, are in ſome reſpects the ſtaples of all the European merchandiſe which come to Brazil, and of all thoſe with which Braſil furniſhes Europe.

The bay of All Saints, or *Baiha de Todos Sanctos*, upon the northern coaſt of which the city of St. Salvador, the capital of Brazil, and reſidence of the viceroy, is ſituated, is famous for its tobacco-plantations, which in ſome parts advance to upwards of 50 leagues up the country.

It is true, that ſome governments, eſpecially that of Rio-Janeiro, produce as good tobacco; but the inhabitants are prohibited to plant more than they have either an occaſion for themſelves, or for the trade they carry on with the Spaniards of Buenos-Ayres, to promote the ſale of that of All Saints bay.

The city of *St. Salvador* lies in 14 deg. of S. lat. in a ſituation of little advantage for the conveniency of the inhabitants, but well fortified near the coaſt, and almoſt inacceſſible.

Moſt of the warehouſes are between the city and the port; but the tranſport of merchandiſe is on that ſide very difficult, requiring cranes, and other machines, to raiſe them over the ramparts. However, there is another mountainous, but very long and troubleſome way, where the Negroes are obliged to ſerve like beaſts of burden, carrying their maſters in ſedans, and all the merchandiſe on their backs.

The inhabitants of St. Salvador are rich, and ſeem fond of commerce. The port, which is but 200 fathoms from the city, is excellent, and capable of containing ſeveral veſſels. The Liſbon fleet arrives there yearly in the month of June; and in Auguſt all the ſhips which ſeparated from this fleet, for Pernambuco, Rio-Janeiro, Marignan, Payraba, Tamara, and the other ports of the coaſt of Brazil, rendezvous there for returning.

The number of ſhips this fleet conſiſts of is not certain, but may be ſuppoſed to amount to 40 or 50, carrying from 12 to 36 pieces of cannon.

It is alſo to the bay of All Saints that the Portugueſe East India and African ſhips come; the cargoes of all which in general being tobacco, the principal commodity, common ſugar, ſugar candy, indigo, whale fins and oil, the whales reſorting abundantly to the bay from June to September; cotton, oil, balſam capaiva, ipecacuana, paraayra-brava, ſome cinnamon, long pepper, ginger, elephants teeth brought from the coaſt of Africa, copper from Angola, leather of the country, ſilks, wood for dying and perfumes, ſaffron, rocou, lacca, rock cryſtal, cocoa's fit for inlaid work upon account of their thickneſs, and others ſo ſmall as to form the grains of beads, ambergreaſe, which the ſea ſometimes caſts in the gulph, amethyſts, whereof there is a mine in this government, gold found in the ſand of a river in the diſtrict of St. Vincent, the fifth of which belongs to the King; laſtly all kinds of confects dry and liquid, among others oranges, citrons, lemons, and ananas.

The Liſbon fleet brings to St. Salvador wines, brandy, corn, oil, cheeſe, cloths, ſtuffs, linens, wrought and unwrought

unwrought iron, paper, all ſorts of copper and iron utenſils; laſtly, all neceſſaries of life not met with in Brazil. Some provinces of Brazil may produce a ſufficiency of wine and corn, to ſupply all the reſt, without having recourſe to Europe; but the Portugueſe policy has hindered the culture of vines, and the ſowing of corn, that the inhabitants of Brazil might be always neceſſitated to have recourſe to Portugal. The ſame political views have been followed by the Spaniards, at leaſt in ſome parts of their colonies; the planting of vines being allowed only in Peru, becauſe they cannot ſend a ſufficiency there by the North ſea.

It is by the ſhips which come from Goa, and touch at the bay of All Saints, in their return to Europe, that St. Salvador, and the reſt of Brazil, are furniſhed with the ſpices, drugs, and merchandiſe of the eaſt; it is alſo by the African ſhips from the ports of Angola and Congo, that they receive their negroes, elephants teeth, wax, honey, civet, gold, and all other particulars from theſe quarters; but uſually theſe merchandiſes, the ſlaves excepted, are ſent to Portugal by the Liſbon fleet.

Pernambuco, called by the Dutch *Fernambuc*, is ſituated between the diſtricts of the bay of All Saints and Tamara; its capital, and almoſt only town, being Olinda, 100 leagues from St. Salvador.

This city is one of the largeſt and moſt populous of Brazil, ſituated on the ſea-coaſt, upon an eminence.

The port is ſmall, and of difficult entrance: however, ſeveral ſhips reſort there from Portugal, the Canaries, and ſome other diſtricts of Brazil; without which it could ſcarce ſubſiſt, being deſtitute of almoſt all the neceſſaries of life.

Notwithſtanding theſe inconveniencies, its trade is pretty conſiderable in wood and ſugar; the ſoil proving very good for the latter, and the other being found in abundance throughout the whole government, particularly in the place which the Portugueſe call *O Matta de Brazil*, 10 leagues from Olinda, where it is the beſt, and is cut in greateſt plenty. This wood is called in Europe ſometimes *Brazil wood*, and ſometimes *Pernambuco wood*. See *Brazil* wood.

In the whole province are reckoned to the amount of 100 ſugar-mills, each mill affording, one year with another, about 2000 lb. of ſugar. The reſt of this commerce is much upon the footing of that in All Saints bay.

Rio-Janeiro. St. Sebaſtian is the capital of this government, being ſituated in 23 deg. of S. lat. on the weſt of the river, about 2 leagues from the ſea. The plain which ſurrounds it, and the banks of the river Janeiro, are extremely fertile in ſugar-canes, indigo, tobacco, and cotton. Wheat has alſo been ſown there with ſucceſs; but there is no commerce of it, no more than of tobacco, for the reaſons already alledged in ſpeaking of the trade of the bay of All Saints.

The mountains ſurrounding this plain abound with Brazil wood; which, together with ſugar, indigo, cotton, leather, and train-oil, make the principal trade of Rio-Janeiro, and are ſufficient to enrich the inhabitants, who are the moſt opulent, and the moſt addicted to traffic, of all the Brazilians.

Their ſugar, and other plantations, are cultivated by negroes, as in all other parts; but they have beſides ſeveral Indian families among them, who work at theſe plantations, yet enjoy an entire liberty, whilſt the others are ſunk in an unſupportable ſlavery.

It is particularly with the Portugueſe of Rio-Janeiro, that the Spaniards of Buenos-Ayres carry on a trade, and ſupply them with flour, biſket, with ſalted and dried fiſh before the ſun; taking in exchange ſugar, tobacco, indigo, wines, brandy, and ſeveral European merchandiſe, which the Portugueſe ſhips import to Rio-Janeiro.

The brandies the Portugueſe ſupply the Spaniards with are of two ſorts; the one extracted from wine, which comes from Liſbon; and the other from ſugar, called *guildine*, made in the country, which is of a bad quality, and even unwholſome.

The other principal towns are Para or Belim, St. Lewis, Siara, St. Luc, Tignares, Payraba, Tamara, Receif, Ilheos, Santa Cruz, Spirito Sancto, and St. Vincent.

The diamond mines lie to the weſtward of St. Sebaſtian, and are farmed by his Portugueſe Majeſty to a company at Rio-Janeiro, for the annual rent of 138,000 cruſadoes, or 26,000 l. ſterling, on condition that they ſhall not employ any more than 600 ſlaves in theſe mines. See *Diamond*.

But the Brazils are moſt remarkable for their rich mines of gold, the firſt of which was diſcovered in 1680, near St. Salvador; and after this many others were found in ſeveral parts of the country, which have greatly enriched the European world, as they furniſh 5 millions ſterling of gold every year, of which a fifth belongs to the King. The Brazil wood alſo produces to the value of 30,000 l. annually; and the produce of this country alone ſupports the crown of Portugal, which, on every other ſide, has been ſtript of its once invaluable trade.

POST, denotes the diſpatch a courier or letter-carrier makes, by changing horſes from time to time: but the word is alſo applied to the perſon himſelf, the houſes where he takes up and lays down his charge, and the ſtages and diſtances between houſe and houſe; whence the phraſes, poſt-boy, poſt horſe, poſt-houſe, &c.

Lewis Hornigk has an expreſs treatiſe on poſts; of which he makes four kinds, on horſeback, in chariots, in boats, and on foot; which laſt kind is in uſe in Italy, Turky, and Peru.

Herodotus aſcribes the origin of poſts to Cyrus or Xerxes; but the poſts inſtituted by thoſe princes were no more than couriers.

In effect, poſts on the preſent footing are but a modern invention; though ſome go back as high as Charlemaign. It is certain, it was the policy, or rather the diffidence, of Lewis XI. of France, that they owed their riſe to; that uneaſy prince firſt ſettling them by an ordonnance of the 19th of June 1464, to be the ſooner and more ſurely advertiſed of what paſſed in his kingdom, and in the neighbouring ſtates.

From France the inſtitution propagated itſelf by degrees through the ſeveral other parts of Europe. In Germany poſts were firſt ſettled by the Count de Taxis at his own expence; in acknowledgment of which the Emperor Matthias, in 1616, gave him in fief the charge of poſtmaſter under him and his ſucceſſors.

In England poſts were firſt eſtabliſhed by act of parliament, 12th Charles II. which enabled the King to ſettle a general poſt-office, and appoint a governor. In the 1ſt year of King William III. an act of parliament paſſed in Scotland for erecting a poſt-office in that kingdom; but, after the union, an act of parliament paſſed, the 9th of Queen Anne, for uniting both offices, and ſettling one general poſt-office throughout all the Britiſh dominions. There is alſo a general poſt office in Ireland, independent of that in England. See *Letters*.

The Engliſh poſt-office is now managed by two commiſſioners, or poſtmaſters general; who have under them about forty other officers, of their own appointing, who are all ſworn, and give ſecurity for the faithful diſcharge of their reſpective duties; as the receiver, comptroller, accomptant, 6 clerks of the ſeveral roads, a windowman, and 16 ſorters, for the inland office. For the foreign office are a comptroller, an alphabet-keeper, 6 clerks, and a foreign officer, beſides ſolicitors and clerks, and 67 letter-carriers.

On this grand office depend 182 poſtmaſters in Great Britain; who keep regular offices in their ſtages, and ſub-poſtmaſters in their branches.

Though the number of letters in England was anciently very inconſiderable; yet it is now ſo much increaſed, that this office, before the addition of the penny-poſt, was farmed at 50,000 l. a year. See *Letters*, and *Fund*.

The Great Mogul performs part of his poſtage by pigeons, kept in ſeveral places, for the conveyance of letters on extraordinary occaſions, who will carry them from one end of that vaſt empire to another. The ſame vehicles have been uſed by the Dutch in ſieges: and at this day, Tavernier obſerves, the conſul of Alexandretta ſends

news

news daily to Aleppo, in five hours time, though thoſe two places are three days journey on horſeback apart.

Penny-POST. A poſt eſtabliſhed for the benefit of London, and the parts adjacent; whereby any letter or parcel, not exceeding 16 ounces weight, or 10 l. value, is ſpeedily and ſafely conveyed to and from all parts within the bills of mortality, to moſt towns and villages within 10 miles of London, for one penny each packet, letter, &c. This office is managed by a comptroller; under whom are an accomptant, collector, 6 ſorters, 7 ſub-ſorters, and above 100 meſſengers.

POST, in merchandiſe, is to collect the particulars of each perſon's accompt into one leaf or place, that it may always readily appear whether he is a debtor or creditor.

POSTAGE, is the money paid for the carrying or bringing a letter by the public poſt.

POSTSCRIPT. An addition to a letter, or ſomething wrote at the bottom, after it was ſuppoſed to be finiſhed.

POT. A domeſtic utenſil, made of

POT-*metal*, which is a compoſition of braſs and lead, 20 lb. of the former being uſually put to 100 lb. of the latter. See *Braſs*, and *Lead*.

POTASHES, are properly the lixivious aſhes of certain vegetables uſed in making glaſs and ſoap. See *Aſhes*.

POTOSI. A city of Peru, in South America, ſituated in 67 deg. of W. lon. and 22 deg. of S. lat. 300 miles S. E. of Arica, at the bottom of the mountain of Potoſi, in which is the richeſt ſilver mine that ever was diſcovered, from whence the Spaniards have drawn many hundred ſhip-loads of treaſure. It is ſituated in one of the moſt barren countries of America, deſtitute of corn, graſs, and trees, and all manner of herbage. The hill is now little more than a ſhell, the Spaniards having dug through and through it; for when they could get no more by digging downwards, they began at the bottom of the hill, and dug through it horizontally.

POTTERY. The art of making earthen pots and veſſels, or the manufacture of earthen and ſtone ware.

The wheel and lathe are the chief, almoſt the only inſtruments uſed in pottery; the firſt for large works, the ſecond for the ſmall; though in reality they are the ſame as to the manner of working them.

Earthen ware is commonly called delft, from a city in Holland, where that manufacture has been brought to the greateſt perfection; being made of clay, wrought and cleanſed from all its impurities, glazed or painted in imitation of porcelain, with metallic colours, chiefly made of a proportion of tin and lead, burnt and pounded in mills.

Stone-ware is made near Liverpool, of ſtone pounded, inſtead of clay; the glazing being made of lead, as in the earthen ware, though it is not coloured. See *Porcelain*.

POTTLE. A meaſure, containing 2 quarts of liquor; alſo a baſket holding the ſame quantity of ſtrawberries, raſpberries, or the like.

POUCHOC. A drug growing in Siam, from whence it is ſent to China, being equally good for medicine, and for affording a yellow dye.

POUD, or *Pout*. A Ruſſian weight, being about 34 lb. avoirdupois, uſed principally for weighing ſalt at Aſtracan.

POULTER, or *Poulterer*. A perſon who makes a trade to breed, buy, and ſell, all ſorts of eatable fowls and birds.

POULTERERS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 19th of Henry VII. dated the 23d of January 1504, by the ſtyle of The maſter, wardens, and aſſiſtants of poulters, London; who have a maſter, 2 wardens, 23 aſſiſtants, and a livery of 106 members, whoſe fine is 20 l. but they have no hall to treat of their affairs.

POUND. A weight of a certain proportion, much uſed as a ſtandard for determining the gravities of bodies. See *Weight*.

There are two different pounds in England, the pound troy, and the pound avoirdupois.

The pound troy conſiſts of 12 ounces, each ounce of 20 pennyweights, and each pennyweight of 24 grains; ſo that 480 grains make an ounce, and 5760 grains a pound. This pound is uſed in the weighing of ſilver, gold, precious ſtones, all kind of grains, &c. It is alſo uſed by apothecaries, though differently divided. Among them 24 grains make a ſcruple, 3 ſcruples a drachm, 8 drachms an ounce, and 12 ounces a pound.

The pound avoirdupois conſiſts of 16 ounces; but the avoirdupois ounce is leſs by 42 grains than the troy ounce, which amounts nearly to a 12th part of the whole: ſo that the ounce avoirdupois only contains 438 grains, and the troy ounce 480: the difference of which is nearly as that of 73 to 80; that is, 73 ounces troy make 80 ounces avoirdupois, and 112 avoirdupois pounds make the hundred weight or quintal.

By this weight are weighed all large and coarſe commodities; as fleſh, butter, cheeſe, iron, hemp, lead, fleece, &c.

The Engliſh avoirdupois pound is equal to $14\frac{2}{7}$ ounces of a Paris pound; ſo that 100 of the former pounds make 91 of the latter.

The French pound contains 16 ounces; but one French pound is equal to 1 pound $1\frac{2}{3}$ oz. of an avoirdupois pound; ſo 100 Paris pounds make 109 Engliſh avoirdupois pounds.

The Paris pound is divided in two manners. The firſt diviſion is into 2 marcs, the marc into 8 ounces, the ounce into 8 gros, the gros into 3 deniers, the denier into 24 grains, each weighing a grain of wheat. The ſecond diviſion of the pound is into two half pounds, the half pound into quarters, the quarters into two demi-quarters, the demi-quarter into 2 ounces, the ounce into half ounces, &c.

The firſt diviſion is uſually followed in weighing gold, ſilver, and other precious wares; and the latter in that of leſs value.

At Lyons, the pound is 14 ounces; 100 Paris pounds making 116 pounds of Lyons. At Venice the pound is equal to 8 ounces 3 quarters of the French pound, &c.

For the ſeveral pounds of the ſeveral cities and countries, their proportion, reduction, diviſion, &c. See *Weight*.

POUND, alſo denotes an imaginary money, uſed in accompting; containing more or leſs, according to the ſeveral names added to it, and the ſeveral countries it is uſed in. See *Money*.

Thus in England, it is called a pound ſterling; in France, a pound, or livre tournois, and Pariſis; in Holland and Flanders, a pound, or livre de gros, &c.

The term took its riſe hence, that the ancient pound ſterling, though it only contained 240 pence, as ours does, yet each penny being equal to five of ours, the pound of ſilver weighed a pound troy.

The pound ſterling, or Engliſh pound, contains 20 ſhillings, the ſhilling 12 d. and the penny 4 farthings.

Antiently there were three ways of paying a pound money into the exchequer: 1. The payment of a pound *de numero*, which was juſt 20 s. in tale. 2. *Ad ſcalam*, which was 6 d. over and above the 20 s. 3. *Ad pensam*, which was giving the full weight of 12 ounces.

The French pound, or livre tournois, contains 20 ſols or ſhillings, and the ſol 12 deniers or pence tournois, which was the value of an ancient French coin called franc; a term ſtill ſynonymous with livre.

The pound, or livre tournois, contains in like manner 20 ſols or ſhillings, and the ſol 12 deniers or pence Pariſis. Each ſol Pariſis is equal to 15 deniers tournois; ſo that a pound Pariſis is equal to 25 ſols tournois. See *Livre*.

The pound, or livre de gros, of Holland, is divided into 20 s. gros, and the ſhilling into 12 d. gros. It is equal to 6 florins, the florin valued at 24 ſols tournois, ſuppoſing the exchange upon the footing of 100 pence gros for a French crown of 3 livres tournois; ſo that the pound gros amounts to 10 s. and 11 d. farthing ſterling.

The pound gros of Flanders and Brabant is divided like that of Holland, and like that too is equal to 6 florins, but the florin is equal to 25 ſols tournois; ſo that the Flemiſh pound is equal to 7 livres, 10 ſols tournois, or 11 ſhillings and three pence ſterling.

Merchants, factors, bankers, &c. uſe characters, or initial letters, to expreſs the ſeveral kinds of pounds of

compt, as *L.* or *L. ſt.* pounds ſterling; *L. G.* pounds gros; and *L.* or *L. T.* pounds tournois; the pound weight being marked *lb.*

OUNDAGE. An Engliſh ſubſidy granted to the King upon all manner of merchandiſe imported or exported by all merchants, natives, denizens, or aliens. See *Duty*, and *Cuſtoms*.

It is called poundage, becauſe fixed at the rate of ſo much *per* pound; as 1 s. in every pound or twenty ſhillings; and for Engliſh commodities exported by aliens, 1 s. more. It was firſt granted to Edward VI. for the term of his life, afterwards to King Charles II. and ſince continued to his ſucceſſors. See *Tonnage*.

OUP, or *Poop*, in navigation. The hind part of a veſſel, or that where the helm is fixed, called alſo ſtern.

The French frequently call it queue, tail, becauſe the rudder here applied ſerves the ſame purpoſes in a ſhip, as the tail does to fiſhes.

It is divided into three or four ſtories, which all together form the poup-caſtle, or hind caſtle; the outſide whereof is richly adorned with balconies, galleries, pilaſters, trophies, the arms of the prince, &c.

To have the *wind in poup*, is to have it behind, or favourable.

OUP is more particularly uſed among the Engliſh for the floor, or deck over the round-houſe, or maſter's cabbin, being the higheſt part of a ſhip's hull a-ſtern.

OURVEYOR, or *Purveyor*. An officer of the houſhold, who provides and buys in corn, and other proviſion for the King, mentioned in magna charta, and ſeveral ſtatutes.

Pourveyor became a name ſo odious in times paſt, that, by the ſtatute of the 36th of Edward III. the heinous name of purveyor was changed into that of achator or buyer; and the office was much reſtrained by the ſtatute of the 12th of Charles II.

OWDER, or *Pouder*, in pharmacy. A dry medicine pulveriſed, or prepared by being broken and reduced into almoſt imperceptible atoms, either in a mortar, or by chemical preparations.

OWDER, for hair, made of ſtarch, is to be liable to the ſame duties, and to enjoy the ſame drawbacks as ſtarch. See *Starch*.

OWDER, is flour of wheat or beans, well ſifted and prepared, to give it an agreeable odour. That wherein ſtarch ground is mixed, is the worſt.

un-POWDER. See *Gun*-powder.

ſuits POWDER. See *Cortex* Peruviana.

OWDER *cheſts*, in the ſea-language, are boards joined in form of a triangle, and filled with gun-powder, pebbles, &c. which they ſet fire to when the ſhip is boarded by an enemy, and ſoon make all clear before them.

RAGUE. The capital of Bohemia, ſituated in 14 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 50 deg. of N. lat. See *Bohemia*, under *Germany*.

RATIQUE, or *Prattic*, in commerce. A negotiation, or communication of commerce, which a merchant-veſſel obtains in the ports it arrives in, and the countries it diſcovers.

Hence, to obtain pratique, is to obtain a liberty to frequent a port, to go aſhore, buy, and ſell, &c.

RATIQUE, or *Product*, is particularly uſed for a licence to traffic, granted to the maſter of a ſhip in the ports of Italy and Portugal, upon a bill of health; that is, a certificate that the place whence he came is not annoyed with any infectious diſeaſe.

RECARIOUS, or a *precarious commerce*, is that which is carried on by two nations at war with each other, by the interpoſition of a third, which is neuter. Thus it is ſaid, that the Engliſh have a precarious commerce with the Spaniards by the interpoſition of the Portugueſe, when the two former being at war, the latter lends them its veſſels, flags, and name, to continue their trade.

RECIOUS *ſtone*, called alſo *gem* and *jewel*, is a ſtone extraordinarily hard, durable, tranſparent, and of a beautiful colour or water. See *Gem*, *Diamond*, and *Pearl*.

Of theſe we may diſtinguiſh three kinds.

1. Such as are entirely tranſparent; which again may be divided into ſuch as are either colourleſs, as the diamond, or coloured, as the emerald: which diviſion of coloured gems may be ſubdivided into thoſe of one colour, as the ruby; and thoſe of ſeveral, as the amethyſt.

2. Brilliant, or ſhining, as the Bohemian granate.

3. Semi-tranſparent, as opal.

Biſhop Wilkins divides precious ſtones into more and leſs tranſparent.

The leſs tranſparent he diſtinguiſhes by their colours; into red, as the ſardian and cornelian; pale fleſhy colour, like that of a man's nail, as the onyx; bluiſh, as the turquois; pale purple, as the calcedony; and thoſe of various colours, as opal, and cat's eye.

The more tranſparent he diſtinguiſhes into ſuch as are colourleſs, as the diamond, and white ſapphire; and coloured, which are either red, as the ruby, carbuncle, and granate; yellow, as the chryſolite and topaz; green, as the emerald, ſmaragd, and beryl; bluiſh, as the ſapphire; and purple, or violaceous, as the amethyſt and hyacinth.

Dr. Woodward divides precious ſtones ſomething more preciſely, into opake, ſemi-opake, and tranſparent.

The opake are either of one colour, as the turquois; or of various colours, as lazuli, and jaſperſemi-opake: either have their colours permanent, as the agat, calcedony, onyx, ſardonyx, cornelian, and beryl; or their colours vary according to the poſition of the light, as the oculus cati, and opal. Tranſparent ſtones are either with colours, as the topaz and hyacinth; yellow, or partaking thereof, granate, ruby, and amethyſt; red, ſapphire, water-ſapphire, and aquemarine; blue, as emerald, and chryſolite; green, or partaking thereof; or without colours, as the chryſtal, pſeudo-diamond, white-ſapphire, and diamond.

The natural hiſtory, characters, properties, &c. of each ſtone, ſee under its proper name, *Diamond*, *Cornelian*, *Ruby*, *Turquois*, *Onyx*, *Emerald*, *Chryſolite*, &c.

PREME. A coarſe precious ſtone, being the marcaſite of the emerald. See *Emerald*.

PREMIUM, literally, denotes a reward or recompence. See *Bounty*.

Among merchants it is taken for that ſum of money, as 8 or 10 *per cent.* which is given to an inſurer, for inſuring the ſafe return of any ſhip or merchandiſe. See *Inſurance*.

PREMIUM, is alſo uſed in the money and paper trade, for what is given for a thing above par. Thus lottery-tickets, and the like, are ſaid to bear 10 or 20 s. premium, when they are ſold for ſo much more than the prime coſt at which the government iſſued them.

PRESBURG. The capital city of Hungary, ſituated in 17 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 48 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. See *Hungary*.

PRESS, in the woollen manufactory, is a large wooden machine, ſerving to preſs cloths, ſerges, rateens, &c. thereby to render them ſmooth and even, and to give them a gloſs. See *Packer*.

This machine conſiſts of ſeveral members, the chief of which are the cheeks, the nut, and the worm or ſcrew, accompanied with its bar, which ſerves to turn it round, and make it deſcend perpendicularly on the middle of a thick wooden plank, under which the ſtuffs to be preſſed are placed.

The calender is alſo a kind of preſs; ſerving to preſs or calender linens, ſilks, &c. See *Calender*.

PREST-ALL, in the ſea-language, is when a ſhip carries all the ſail ſhe can poſſibly croud. This is ſometimes done in giving chace, &c. but it is a dangerous experiment, leſt the ſhip overſet, or bring her maſts by the board; in which latter caſe ſhe becomes an eaſy prey.

PRESTOE. See *Denmark*.

PREVAT. A town of Turky, 200 miles diſtant from Conſtantinople, and remarkable for its trade in buffalo-hides. See *Turky*.

PREVESA. A port-town of Albania, or Epirus, ſituated in 21 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 38 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. on the bay of Larta, at the entrance of the gulph of Venice, 25 miles north of the iſland of Cephalonia.

PRIAMAN. A port-town of the iſland of Sumatra, one

of the Sunda iſlands in Aſia, ſituated in 98 deg. of E. lon. and 1 deg. of S. lat. a Dutch factory, 120 miles weſt of Jamby. See *Sunda* iſlands.

PRIMAGE. A duty at the water-ſide, appointed by a ſtatute of Henry VIII. to be paid to the maſter and mariners of the ſhip, by the merchants whoſe goods are loaded and unloaded; which is paid to the maſter for the uſe of his cables and ropes, in moving the goods, and to the mariners for their ſervice and aſſiſtance. This is different in different places; in ſome 12 d. *per* ton, in others a penny *per* pound, and in others 6 d. *per* bale or pack. See *Duty*, and *Cuſtom*.

PRIME. The beſt, chief, or moſt valuable part of any thing.

PRIME *coſt*. The money which any goods coſt at the firſt hand.

PRIMUMS, in the manufactures, are the originals that furniſh matter to work upon: thus wool is the primum of cloth.

PRINCES *Iſland*. A little iſland on the weſt coaſt of Africa, lying in 9 deg. of E. lon. and 2 deg. of N. lat. about 40 leagues N.E. of St. Thomas, and as much to the weſtward of Loango; being the leaſt of the iſlands in the gulph of Guinea, and in poſſeſſion of the Portugueſe. It affords rice, Indian corn, plenty of fruits, roots, and herbs; it has no want of cattle, hogs, or goats; but what it abounds in moſt is ſugar canes. See St. *Thomas*.

PRINCIPAL. The capital of a ſum due, or lent; and ſaid in this ſenſe, in oppoſition to intereſt, which ſignifies the profit accruing from the lending of money. See *Capital*.

PRINTER. A perſon who compoſes and takes impreſſions from moveable characters or types, ranged in order; or from copper plates engraven, by means of ink and a preſs. See *Stationers* company.

The compoſitor is the perſon who compoſes the work, by putting the letters in proper order, and making up the forms; the preſſman puts the work of the compoſitor to the preſs, where he ſpreads the paper, and gives the impreſſion.

This art has been carried to great perfection in Holland, and ſome places of Germany, where great quantities of claſſical books have been printed: but the printers of Great Britain are now as good as any in Europe. See *Books*.

The Copper-plate PRINTER, is a perſon who takes off the impreſſion of copper-plate prints or engravings; which is a buſineſs very different from the letter-printer. And the printſeller ſells theſe prints; being the ſame to the copper-plate printer, as the bookſeller is to the letter-printer.

The Callico PRINTER is employed in printing or ſtaining cotton and linen cloth. The firſt hint of this branch of buſineſs was had from the Eaſt Indies, where thoſe beautiful cloths called chints are made to the greateſt perfection. The Indians paint all their callicoes with the pencil; but their patterns are wild; all their figures, except flowers and plants, being monſtrous; though they excel in their dyes, particularly reds, greens, and blues. The callico-printers of Europe perform their work in a different manner, for it is properly printing; and the Engliſh took the hint from the Hamburghers, who firſt fell into that method. The patterns, when drawn by the pattern-drawer, are cut out upon wooden types by the pattern-cutter. The cloth to be printed is extended upon a table, and the types being covered with the proper colours, are laid on, and the impreſſion is left upon the cloth. They begin to lay on the types at one end of the piece, and ſo continue to the other, leaving no vacancy between. When the whole piece is printed, the cloth is waſhed and bleached; after which it is dried, calendered, and laid up in folds fit for the ſhop. Paper-hangings are printed after the ſame manner, and may be called a branch of this trade. And printing of cards is much allied to the callico-printing, as it is performed with types after the ſame manner.

The Stuff PRINTER, is employed in ſtamping ſtuffs for houſehold-furniture; which is done by heat, and a braſs roller, charged with the deſigned figures.

PRINTING. The art of letter-printing was firſt diſcovered in Germany by a common ſoldier, about 300 years ago; being much about the ſame time that gun-powder was invented by a monk of the ſame country. It is one of the moſt uſeful arts that ever was invented; and the great commerce of books is owing to this diſcovery.

The Chineſe were in poſſeſſion of this valuable art ſome thouſand years before the Europeans: but their printing is ſomething like copper, or wooden-plate printing in Europe, whereas letter-printing is performed by types made of a mixed metal.

PRISAGE, or *Butlerage*, of wines. By ſeveral ſtatutes perſons free thereof, cuſtoming the wines of one not free forfeit to the King double the value of priſage, and their goods and chattels perſonal for ever; for which they may be proſecuted within three years after the offence committed. See *Cuſtoms*.

PRIVATEER. A ſmall convenient ſhip of war, fitted out by any prince, or company of merchants, with his authority, to make prizes of all the ſhips they can take from the enemy.

In the treatiſe of naval trade, it is ſaid, that a privateer is a kind of private man of war, in Holland termed *caper*. Their uſe is not very antient; and ſome account them but one remove from pirates, who, without any reſpect to the cauſe, or having any immediate injury done them, or not being ſo much as hired for the ſervice, ſpoil men and goods, and innocent traders, making a trade and calling of it, amidſt the calamities of a war.

But that privateers in general are lawful, when under right conduct, there is no room to queſtion; for if a war be entered into on a juſt foundation, they cannot be unjuſt. All ways of bringing an enemy to reaſon, which are not againſt the laws of nations, are allowed; and it is no matter whether a perſon ſo commiſſioned is paid by the prince, or content to pay himſelf out of the ſpoil of the enemy; or if he acts for no pay at all, but out of love to his country, and loyalty to his prince.

It has therefore been cuſtomary, ſince the trade of Europe hath been ſo great and important, for princes and ſtates in caſe of a rupture with other princes, to iſſue forth commiſſions to private men to equip ſhips of war; and the perſons concerned in privateers adminiſter at their own coſts a part of a war, by providing ſhips of force and all other military utenſils, to endamage the enemy, having, inſtead of pay, leave granted to keep what they can take from the enemy, allowing the admiral his ſhare, &c. Then, beſides the common private commiſſions, there is mention of ſpecial commiſſions granted to perſons that take pay, who are under diſcipline; and, if they diſobey orders, may be puniſhed with death. And the wars in latter ages have generally given occaſion for the iſſuing commiſſions to annoy the enemies in their commerce, and hinder ſuch ſupplies as might ſtrengthen them, or lengthen out the war; and likewiſe to prevent the ſeparation of ſhips of greater force from their fleet or ſquadrons.

Privateers may not attempt any thing againſt the laws of nations; as to aſſault an enemy in a port or haven, under the protection of any prince or republic, be he friend, ally, or neuter; for the peace of ſuch places muſt be kept inviolably. And when theſe private commiſſions are granted, there is always great care to be had and taken by caution, to preſerve the leagues of allies, neuters, and friends, according to their various and ſeveral treaties; and therefore, by a marine-treaty between King Charles II. and the ſtates of Holland, made at London in the year 1674, before a commiſſion ſhall be granted to any privateer or caper, the commander is to give ſecurity for 1500 l. and if ſuch ſhips have above 150 men, then for 3000 l. &c. that they will make ſatisfaction for all damages which they ſhall commit in their courſes at ſea, contrary to treaties with that ſtate, upon pain of forfeiting their commiſſions, and anſwering ſuch damage, for which the ſhip is made liable.

And by other articles in the ſaid treaty, if torture, cruelty, or any barbarous uſage, after a caption, be done to the perſons taken in the prize, the ſame ſhall diſcharge ſuch prize, although ſhe was lawful; and the captains ſhall loſe their commiſſions; alſo both they and

the offenders be ſubject to puniſhment. This agreement between the Engliſh and Dutch is fit to be a ſtandard to all nations whatſoever; and by the treaty of Utrecht there is an article with France to the ſame purpoſe. See *Treaties*, and *Prize*.

PRIVILEGE, in commerce, is a permiſſion from a prince or magiſtrate, to make and ſell a certain merchandiſe, or to engage in a certain commerce, either excluſively of others, or concurrently with them.

The firſt is called an excluſive privilege, the latter ſimply privilege.

Excluſive privileges are ſeldom to be granted, on account of the hindrance they are of to trade; yet they are ſometimes very juſt and reaſonable, by way of reward for the invention of uſeful machines, manufactures, &c. Excluſive privileges for foreign commerce are uſually granted on the following conditions: That the commodities be brought from remote parts, where there is no going without running great riſks: that the privilege be only for a limited time: that the perſons privileged be not allowed to monopoliſe, or to raiſe and fall their commodities at pleaſure; but that the ſale and price be always proportionable to the expence, intereſts, &c. and that the privileges aſſiſt the ſtate, on occaſion, with part of their gains.

Privilege for the impreſſion of books is properly excluſive; being a permiſſion, which an author, or bookſeller, obtains under a prince's ſeal, to have alone the impreſſion of a book, with a prohibition of all others to print, ſell, or diſtribute the ſame, within a certain term of years, uſually 14, under clauſes and penalties expreſſed therein. Theſe privileges were unknown till the beginning of the 16th century, when they were introduced in France. The oldeſt is ſaid to bear date in the year 1507, and to have been occaſioned by ſome printers counterfeiting the works of others as ſoon as they appeared.

But people were yet at liberty to take them, or let them alone, at pleaſure; till the intereſts of religion, and the ſtate, occaſioned the reſtraining of this liberty.

In 1563, Charles IX. publiſhed a celebrated ordonnance, forbidding any perſon, on pain of confiſcation of body and goods, to print any letter, ſpeech, &c. without permiſſion.

The like has been ſince done in England; though at preſent privileges are not only ſeldom required, but, by the late act for ſecuring the properties of books, ſeem needleſs.

PRIZE, is ſaid of ſuch ſhips, veſſels, and goods, as are taken at ſea from the enemies of the ſtate, or from pirates, by the King's ſhips, or by privateers commiſſioned by the admiralty; which is underſtood likewiſe of the ſhips, veſſels, and goods, which enemies or pirates take from merchants. See *Capture*.

By the ſtatute of the 13th George II. made on the declaration of war againſt Spain, it was enacted, That the flag-officers, commanders, and other officers, ſeamen, mariners, and ſoldiers, on board every Britiſh man of war, ſhould have the ſole property of all ſhips and merchandiſe they ſhould take in any part of the world, being firſt adjudged lawful prize, to be divided in ſuch proprietor as his Majeſty ſhould order by proclamation; which was alſo thereby extended to the owners and the crew of privateers. That there ſhould not be paid above 10 l. to all the judges and officers in any court of admiralty abroad, for condemnation of any capture under 100 tuns burthen; nor above 15 l. if of that or any greater burthen. That ſhares not demanded in three years ſhould be paid to the uſe of Greenwich hoſpital. That the officers and crew on board of ſuch ſhips of war and privateers, in any action, where any ſhips of war or privateers ſhould be taken from the enemy or deſtroyed, ſhould be entitled to a bounty of 5 l. for every man which was living on board any ſhip ſo taken or deſtroyed at the beginning of the engagement between them. That if any ſhips belonging to Britiſh ſubjects ſhould be taken by the enemy, and retaken by Britiſh ſhips, ſuch ſhips retaken ſhould be reſtored to their proper owners; paying, in lieu of ſalvage, an eighth part of the value, after having been in poſſeſſion of the enemy 24 hours; if above 24, and under 48 hours, a fifth part; if above 48, and under 96 hours, a third part; and if above 96 hours, a moiety: but if ſuch ſhip ſhould be taken by any privateers through conſent or connivance, the privateer ſhould be judged good prize; one moiety to his Majeſty, and the other to the informer: or if ſuch ſhip ſhould be taken by a man of war, by conſent or connivance of the captain, ſuch captain ſhould forfeit 1000 l. and forfeit his employment for 7 years; and the ſhip and goods ſhould be deemed good prize to his Majeſty.

By the ſtatute of the 6th and 10th of Queen Anne, and 15th of George II. prize-ſhips and goods are not to be exempted from duties, &c. but the goods may be unladen and brought on ſhore, in the preſence of the officers of the cuſtoms, and ſecured in proper warehouſes, under the ſeparate locks of the collector, comptroller, and agent of the captors, till they are appraiſed and ſold; and, when they are ſold, before delivery to the buyers, they are to pay the cuſtom and exciſe.

Prize-goods of the growth and product of foreign plantations, condemned in and imported from the Britiſh plantations in America, are, upon proper certificates and oaths, to pay the ſame duties as if of the produce of the ſaid Britiſh plantations.

PROCEED, in trade, is the net amount of a cargo, or parcel of goods, after all charges are defrayed.

PROCITA. A ſmall iſland on the weſt-coaſt of Naples, ſituated in 14 deg. of E. lon. and 41 deg. of N. lat. between the iſland of Iſchia and the continent.

PROCTOR, in the civil law, is the ſame in the admiralty and ſpiritual courts, as an attorney at the common law.

PROMONTORY. See *Cape*.

PROMPT *Payment*. See Prompt *Payment*.

PROPONTIS, or *Sea of Marmora*, divides Europe from Aſia; and obtained the name of marmora from a little iſland in it, which conſiſts of a rock of marble. See *Marmora*.

PROPORTION, or *Pro rata*, in commerce. A term ſometimes uſed among merchants, when, in ſpeaking of any undertaking, they ſay, each perſon muſt reap the profit, or ſuſtain the loſs, *pro rata*, or in proportion to his intereſt; by which is meant, each ſhall gain or loſe in proportion to the ſum he put in ſtock.

PROTECTION, of perſons or ſhips, is the ſame as a paſſport. See *Paſſport*.

PROTEST, in commerce, is a ſummons made by a notary-public to a merchant, banker, or the like, to accept or diſcharge a bill of exchange drawn on him, after his having refuſed to accept or pay the ſame. See *Exchange*.

It is called a proteſt, becauſe containing a proteſtation, that the party will return the bill, and even take up money at intereſt, and charge all coſts, damages, carriage, and re-carriage, on the refuſer.

There are two kinds of proteſts; the one for want of acceptance, the other for want of payment. See *Acceptance*.

The firſt to be made by the bearer of the bill, at the time of preſenting it, in caſe the perſon on whom it is drawn refuſes to accept it for the time, or the ſum there expreſſed. The latter is made as the bill falls due, whether it has been accepted or not. See *Exchange*.

The bearers of bills of exchange, that have been accepted, or which become payable at a certain day, are obliged to have them either paid or proteſted within three days after due, on the penalty of anſwering for the omiſſion: and it muſt be obſerved, that if the third day happen to be a holiday, the proteſt is to be made on the eve thereof.

At Paris and Hamburg the proteſt is to be made within ten days. At Venice, where all bills are paid in banco, the proteſt, for want of payment, is to be made within ſix days, otherwiſe in three days; but then the bank is ſuppoſed open, otherwiſe no proteſt to be made. At Rome, proteſts for want of payment are to be made within fifteen days. At Leghorn, Milan, and Bologna, there is no time fixed; but at Amſterdam they are to be made within five days.

The negotiants of ſome places, as thoſe of Rome, never look

look upon themſelves obliged to proteſt in default of payment: but this opinion is contrary to univerſal cuſtom, and natural reaſon; ſince, till after proteſtation, they they have no remedy or reſource againſt the drawer or indorſer, nor any title to be reimburſed.

M. Ricard adds, that bills of exchange drawn from Amſterdam, Antwerp, or Spain, are to be proteſted in default of payment within fourteen days after they fall due; after which time the bearer ſtands the riſk and chance of the non-proteſted bill, not the drawer or indorſer, in caſe the party happens to fail after the ſaid fourteenth day.

PROVEDITOR. An officer in ſeveral parts of Italy, particularly at Venice; where the proveditor general of the ſea, is an officer whoſe authority extends over the whole fleet, when the captain-general is abſent. He has particularly the diſpoſal of the caſh, and pays the ſeamen and ſoldiers.

The captain-general and proveditor are mutually ſpies over one another. Though the proveditor be inferior to the general, yet is the power ſo divided, that one has authority without ſtrength, the other ſtrength without authority.

PROVENDER, properly ſignifies food for cattle; but means alſo frequently the ſame for men.

PROVIDENCE *Plantation*. A colony of New England; which, with Rhode iſland, conſtitutes a charter-government, independent of the Maſſachuſets, or any other colony of New England. See *Britiſh* America.

PROVIDENCE, is alſo one of the leaſt of the Bahama iſlands in the American ocean, ſituated in 78 deg. of W. lon. and 25 deg. of N. lat. See *Britiſh* America.

PROVIDENCE, is likewiſe another ſmall iſland, of difficult acceſs, in the American ſea, ſituated in 82 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 12 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. 150 miles E. of Nicaragua, and the Moſkito country, which the Engliſh buccaneers formerly fortified and defended againſt the Spaniſh guarda coſtas, but afterwards abandoned it; though this iſland might be of great ſervice to the Engliſh, if they ſend colonies to the Moſkito country, as has been propoſed.

PROVINCE, among the Romans, was a country conquered by them, without the bounds of Italy, governed by a deputy or lieutenant, and having peculiar laws and privileges. But the word is now chiefly uſed for a canton, or diviſion, of a kingdom or commonwealth, comprehending ſeveral cities, towns, &c. all under the ſame government, and uſually diſtinguiſhed by the extent of either the civil or eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction.

The United Provinces are the ſeven northern provinces of the Low Countries; who, revolting from the Spaniſh dominion, made a firm and perpetual alliance, offenſive and defenſive, at Utrecht, in the year 1579. See *United* Provinces.

PROVISION, ſometimes means all ſorts of food; but particularly ſalted fleſh and fiſh, as well as flour, peaſe, and other neceſſaries, for the diet of mariners.

The price of labour is regulated by the price of proviſions; and any country that can afford proviſions cheaper than another, can afford to work cheaper, and underſel thoſe countries where proviſions are dearer. Thus beef and mutton are ſold in the French provinces for half the price which is given for them in the Engliſh counties; whereby the French manufacturers can work cheaper than the Engliſh, and the merchants of France can underſel thoſe of Great Britain in foreign markets.

PROVISION, in trade, is the ſame with commiſſion, and means the reward or premium paid to the factor for buying and ſelling goods for another.

PROVISO, a ſea term. A ſhip is ſaid to moor a proviſo, when ſhe has an anchor out, and alſo a hawſer aſhore; whereby ſhe is moored with her head to the ſhore, with the two cables at leaſt.

PROVOST, in a fleet, is a ſort of goaler or executioner, having the care of criminal offenders.

PROW, in navigation, denotes the head or fore-part of a ſhip, being that which is oppoſite to the poop or ſtern.

In the front of the prow is the beak that cuts the water, to make way for the veſſel; but the prow is lower than the poop, containing fewer ſtories or decks; and on the beak is uſually ſome figure or hieroglyphic, which often gives name to the veſſel.

PROW, in ſtrictneſs, is only that part of the fore-caſtle which is aloof, and not in the hold, particularly that between the chaſe and the loof. See *Ship*.

PRUNELLÆ *Sal*, in pharmacy, is a preparation of putrified ſalt-petre, called alſo lapis prunellæ, and cryſtal mineral. See *Salt*-petre, and *Cryſtal*.

It is given to cool and provoke urine, in fevers and quincies; though ſome think that ſalt-petre purified three or four times would be a better medicine. See *Nitre*.

PRUNES, are plumbs dried and baked in an oven, or in the ſun; thoſe chiefly uſed in England being brought from the Levant, and Bourdeaux in France, which are black and large; great quantities whereof are uſed by the Engliſh and Dutch.

PRUSSIA. See *Poland*.

PRUTH. A river which riſes in the province of Red Ruſſia in Poland, runs S. E. through Moldavia, and diſcharges itſelf into the river Danube.

PTOLEMAIS. A port-town of Phenicia, now a province of Aſiatic Turky, ſituated in 36 deg. of E. lon. and 32 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the coaſt of the Levant, or Mediterranean ſea, 20 miles ſouth of Tyre.

PUBLICAN. A perſon that keeps a houſe of entertainment, either for travellers, or other company; ſuch as inns, alehouſes, and the like. See *Victualler*.

PUCCA *Maund*. A weight uſed in the Eaſt Indies, being 74⅔ lb. avoirdupois.

PUDDINGS, in a ſhip. Thoſe ropes which are faſtened to the yard-arms of the main and fore yards, to keep them from galling; alſo the ſewing of the ring of the anchor with ropes, to ſave the clinch of the cable from galling, are called the puddings of the yard and anchor.

PUEBLA *Nova*. A town of Mexico, in America, in the province of Veragua, ſituated on a bay of the Pacific ocean, in 84 deg. of W. lon. and 8 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. 400 miles weſt of Panama.

PUL, in commerce. A general name which the Perſians give to all the copper-monies current in that empire, particularly the kabeſqui and demi-kabeſqui.

Olearius, who was at Iſpahan in 1637, in the retinue of the ambaſſador of Holſtein, aſſures us, that each city in Perſia has its ſeveral copper-money, marked with its particular badge; which is only current in that diſtrict, and changed every year. At the beginning of each year, which is at the vernal equinox, all the old money is cried down, and the new appears in its place.

Both the emperor and the ſtate find their intereſt in this frequent change: the firſt, in that he only gives at the rate of 17 d. ſterling *per* pound for copper; yet delivers it out coined in kabeſqui and demi-kabeſqui at above 2 *per* pound. The ſecond, in that the copper-money is by this means leſs abundant, being reduced each year nearly the ſame quantity.

The ſame author adds, that, at the time when he was in Perſia, the kabeſqui at Iſpahan were ſtruck with the image of a lion, at Scamachia with a devil, at Kaſchan with a cock, and at Kilan with a fiſh.

PULMO *Marinus*, *Sea-lungs*. A light ſpongeous body of a ſhining colour, like cryſtal, intermixed with blue, and uſually of a figure reſembling the human lungs; whence it has this denomination: though it is alſo called urtica marina, or the ſea-nettle; which ſwims at the top of the water, and is popularly reputed to preſage a ſtorm. It is commonly ſuppoſed to be only a viſcous excrement of the ſea, hardened by the ſun. But Sir Robert Sibbald and Dr. Merret rank it among the zoophytes.

It ſhines in the night-time, and communicates its luminous property to a ſtick rubbed therewith; being applied to the ſkin, it raiſes an itching, and takes off the hair.

PULSE. The common name for rice, barley, wheat, and other vegetable grain. See *Corn*.

PUMICE-*Stone*. A calx, or kind of ſpongeous ſtone, very porous and friable; but naturaliſts are not agreed about the nature and origin of pumice. Some look upon it as pieces of rock half burnt, and calcined, caſt up in eruptions

tions of volcanoes, particularly thoſe of Ætna and Veſuvius, into the ſea; and which, by being in the ſalt-water, lays aſide the black colour that the impreſſion of the ſubterranean fires had given it, and becomes whitiſh, or ſometimes only greyiſh, according as it has floated more or leſs in the ſea.

Dr. Woodward conſiders pumice as only a ſort of flag, or cinder; and affirms it is only found, either where forges of metals have antiently been, or near ſome volcano or burning mountain.

Other authors will have the pumice to ariſe from the bottom of the ſea, whence they ſuppoſe it detached by ſubterranean fires; accounting, this way, both for its lightneſs and poroſity, and its ſaline taſte; alledging, in confirmation thereof, that pumice is frequently found in parts of the ſea far remote from all volcanoes; and adding, that ſeveral parts of the Archipelago are frequently found covered with it, all at once, after a few inward ſhakes and heavings of the bottom of the ſea.

Pumice makes a very conſiderable article in commerce; being much uſed in the arts and manufactures, to poliſh and ſmooth ſeveral works.

Its pieces are of ſeveral ſizes. The parchment-makers and marblers uſe the largeſt and lighteſt, the curriers the heavieſt and flatteſt, and the pewterers the ſmalleſt.

Pliny obſerves, that the antients made conſiderable uſe of pumice in medicine, but it is out of the preſent practice.

PUMP. A machine formed on the model of a ſyringe, for the raiſing of water.

PUMPS, uſed in ſhips, are of ſeveral kinds; as the chain-pump, uſed by the Engliſh in large veſſels, is double; one of which riſes as the other falls. This yields a great quantity of water, works eaſily, and is eaſily mended; but takes up a great deal of room, and makes a diſagreeable noiſe.

Bar pumps, are ſmall ones, made of cane, or a piece of wood, bored through, uſed inſtead of cocks, to pump beer or water out of the caſks.

Bur pumps, called alſo bildge pumps, are chiefly uſed by the Dutch, who have them by their ſhips ſides. In theſe is a long ſtaff, with a bur at the end, like a gunner's ſponge, to pump up the bildge water.

PUMPMAKER, is a perſon employed in making pumps and pipes for the conveyance of water from one place to another. There are ſeveral ſorts of pumps; but moſt of them, except the common pump, which will not riſe above 32 feet, are made by the engineer, or engine-maker.

PUN. A weight uſed in the Eaſt Indies, being 80 cories. See *Coris*.

PUNCH. The name of an inſtrument uſed to ſtrike marks upon iron, copper, or wood.

PUNCHEON, or *Punchion*. A meaſure for liquids, containing a hogſhead and 1-3d, or 84 gallons, or 1-3d of a tun. See *Meaſure*.

PUNTAS *de Moſquito*. A kind of lace proper for the commerce of Spaniſh America; which the Dutch ſend abundantly to Cadiz; half whereof ſhould be of the ſame deſign, from 3 to 8 or 10 fingers in breadth, and the other half of another deſign from 4 to 10 fingers breadth.

PURBECK *Iſle*. The ſouth-eaſt diviſion of the county of Dorſet, ſituated on the Engliſh channel, remarkable for its fine ſtone uſed in the beſt buildings.

PURCHASE. Any thing bought or acquired by means of money.

PURCHASE, in the ſea-language, has the ſame meaning with draw in, at land. Thus ſailors ſay, the capſtan purchaſes apace, that is, draws in the cable apace; and when they cannot draw or hale any thing in with the tackle, they ſay, the tackle will not purchaſe.

PURE, or *fine Gold*. See Fine *Gold*.

PURL. A ſmall narrow edging or lace, ſet or made upon the edge of a broad lace.

PURPLE. A red colour, bordering on violet, dyed chiefly with cochineal, or ſcarlet in grain. See *Scarlet*, and *Cochineal*.

Purple was much eſteemed among the antients, eſpecially the Tyrian purple, which underwent more dyes than the reſt, and was almoſt peculiar to emperors and kings; yet this purple did not exceed that now in uſe. The chief reaſons why the former has been diſuſed are, that the latter is both cheaper and finer.

The antient purple was tinged or given with the blood or juice of a precious turbinated teſtaceous ſea-fiſh, called purpura; whereof there are deſcriptions in ſeveral authors, and ſhells in moſt of the cabinets of the curious. See *Dying*.

In the ſeas of the Spaniſh Weſt Indies about Nicoya, is found a ſhell-fiſh, which perfectly reſembles the antient purpura, and in all probability is the very ſame. This fiſh, Gage tells us, uſually lives ſeven years. It hides itſelf a little before the dog-days, and continues to diſappear for 300 days running.

They are gathered plentifully in the ſpring; and by rubbing one againſt another, yield a kind of ſaliva, or thick glair, reſembling ſoft wax: but the purple dye is in the throat of the fiſh, and the fineſt part in a white little vein, the reſt of the body being of no uſe. Cloth of Segovia, dyed with it, is ſold for 20 crowns the ell; and none but the greateſt Spaniſh lords uſe it.

The fiſh, Mr. Reaumur obſerves, is a kind of buccinum, a name given by the antients to all fiſhes whoſe ſhell bears any reſemblance to a hunting horn. And it appears from Pliny, that part of the antient purple was taken from this kind of ſhell-fiſh: ſo that this may be eſteemed a recovery of what had been ſuppoſed entirely loſt.

The method of obtaining the colour, the author deſcribes thus. The ſhell, which is very hard, being broken, with the mouth of the fiſh downwards, ſo as not to cruſh the body, and the broken pieces being picked off, there appears a white vein lying traverſely in a little furrow or cleft next the head of the fiſh.

In this vein is the purple matter lodged; ſome of which being laid on linen, appears at firſt of a light green colour; and, if expoſed to the ſun, ſoon changes into a deep green, in a few minutes into a ſea-green, and in a few minutes more into a blue; thence it ſoon becomes of a purpliſh red, and in an hour more of a deep purple red. And here the ſun's action terminates; but, by waſhing in ſcalding water and ſoap, and drying it, the colour ripens to a moſt bright beautiful crimſon, which will bear waſhing admirably without any ſtiptic. See *Crimſon*.

The fiſh is good food; but there are ſeveral kinds differing in ſize and ſhell, and alſo in the colour of the tinging liquor; ſome of which are found on the coaſts of Poictou in France.

Mr. Reaumur has diſcovered another very different kind of purple. It is produced in oval grains about a quarter of an inch long, and about one thick, full of a white liquor bordering on yellow, which cover certain ſtones or ſands, about which the buccina of Poictou uſually aſſemble. By the experiments Mr. Reaumur has made, it appears, that theſe grains are neither the eggs of the buccinum, nor the ſeeds of any ſea-plants, but the eggs of ſome other unknown ſea-fiſh. Theſe grains being bruiſed on a white linen, at firſt only tinge it yellow, and that inſenſibly; but in three or four minutes give it a very beautiful purple red, provided the linen is expoſed to open air; for the air of a room, even though the windows are open, will not do: but thiscolour fades a little by repeated waſhings.

Mr. Reaumur concludes, from ſome experiments he made, that the effect of the air on the liquor does not conſiſt in its taking away any particles thereof, nor in giving it any new ones; but only in its agitating it, and changing the arrangement of the parts that compoſe it. He adds, that the liquor of the buccinum, and that of the grains, ſeem nearly of the ſame nature; except that the latter is more watery, and only ſaline; whereas the other is hot and pungent.

The Caribbee iſlands have likewiſe their purple fiſh. It is called burgan, being of the ſize of the end of the finger, and reſembling periwinkles. The ſhell is of a browniſh azure, its fleſh white, its inteſtines of a very bright red, the colour whereof appears through the body; it being this that dyes the froth, which it caſts when taken, and which at firſt is of a violet hue, bordering

ing on blue. To oblige them to yield the greater quantity of froth, they lay them on a plate, ſhake and beat them againſt one another; when the plate is immediately covered with the froth, which is received on a linen cloth, and becomes purple in proportion as it dries.

P. Labat obſerves, that if this be the real Tyrian purple, the ſecret of preparing and fixing it is loſt; this colour being found to dwindle and diſſipate, in proportion as the linen dyed with it is waſhed.

The ſame author gives a deſcription of another purple dye, produced by a plant growing in the Antilles; the juice of which tree, when cut ſtanding, is of a blood red, and communicates the ſame colour to cloths; though, like the former, it loſes much in waſhing.

PURRE. See *Cidrkin.*

PURRYSBURG. A town of Georgia, in North America, ſituated in 81 deg. of W. lon. and 31 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. on the river Savanna, 30 miles weſt of the mouth of it, 20 miles weſt of the town of Savanna, and 130 miles ſouth-weſt of Charles-town.

PURSE. A manner of accompting; or a ſum called a ſpecies of money of accompt, much uſed in the Levant, particularly at Conſtantinople, conſiſting of about 500 dollars, or 120 l. ſterling; and it is ſo called, becauſe all the Grand Signior's treaſure in the ſeraglio is kept in leather bags of this value.

This method of accompting the Turks derive from the Greeks, and they from the Romans; whoſe Emperor brought it to Conſtantinople.

PURSER. An officer aboard a man of war, who receives her victuals from the victualler, and is to take care that they are in good condition, and well laid up and ſtowed. He is alſo to keep a liſt of the men and boys belonging to the ſhip, to ſet down directly the day of each man's admittance into pay, that the paymaſter or treaſurer of the navy may iſſue out his diſburſements, and pay off the men according to the purſer's book.

PURVEYOR. See *Pourveyor.*

PUTTY, ſometimes denotes powder of calcined tin, uſed in poliſhing, and giving the gloſs to works of iron and ſteel. See *Tin*, and *Emery.*

PUTTY, is alſo uſed to denote ſpodium. See *Spodium.*

PUTTY, in its popular ſenſe, denotes a cinericious kind of paſte, compounded of whiting and linſeed oil, beaten together to the conſiſtence of tough dough; uſed by glaziers, for faſtening the ſquares of glaſs in ſaſh-windows, &c. as alſo by houſe painters to ſtop up the crevices, and clefts in timber and wainſcot, to prevent the wet from getting in and ruining the work.

PYRMONT. Capital of the county of Pyrmont in Germany, ſituated in the circle of Weſtphalia, on the confines of the duchy of Brunſwic, in 9 deg. of E. lon. and 52 deg. of N. lat. 40 miles S. W. of Hanover; from whence are had the beſt mineral waters in Germany.

PYRITES, in phyſiology. A ſulphurous inflammable kind of ſtone, compoſed of an acid ſalt, incorporated with an oily or bituminous matter; having its name pyrites, or fire-ſtone, from its giving fire on being ſtruck againſt ſteel.

Pyrites bears a near affinity to marcaſite, with which the generality of authors confound it; though Dr. Woodward makes this diſtinction between the two, that pyrites is reſtrained to the nodules, or thoſe pieces found in ſtrata of another kind, and marcaſite to thoſe found in ſtrata of the ſame kind; to which may be added, that the marcaſite frequently contains arſenic, and the pyrites ſeldom, if ever. See *Marcaſite.*

Pyrites has always a metalline part in it, and ſometimes a cretaceous or okerous part; and in proportion as any of theſe prevail, the body commences a ſulphur, alum, or vitriol. See *Vitriol*, *Copperas*, and *Sulphur.*

The metal in pyrites is chiefly iron; ſometimes there is copper in it, and always a little gold, rarely ſilver, and never lead or tin.

Dr. Liſter attributes thunder, earthquakes, &c. to the ſulphurous and inflammable breath of the pyrites.

Pyrites is applied by ſome authors to the marcaſites of all metals; the names whereof are varied according to the metals they partake of. Thus chryſitis is that of gold, argyritis that of ſilver, ſideritis that of iron, chalcitis that of copper, and moliditis that of lead.

PYROLA. A plant, borrowing its name from the figure of its leaves, becauſe like thoſe of the pear-tree; but ſome call it the *winter-green*, becauſe it preſerves its leaf notwithſtanding the rigour of the ſeaſon. It grows beſt in cold countries, and is pretty common in Germany.

Its ſtalks are about a foot and a half in height, and bear on their ſummit ſeveral white flowers of an agreeable ſmell.

As this plant is ſeldom found in hot countries, real pear-tree leaves are ſubſtituted in its place by ſome herbaliſts, who ſow the pippins, and cut the ſtalks when of the ſize of the real pyrola, and dry them for a nearer reſemblance; the decoction of this plant being very aſtringent, and good for cleaning and curing ulcers.

Q.

Q, IS uſed as an abbreviature in ſeveral arts. Thus *Q. Pl.* in phyſical preparations, ſtands for *quantum placet*, or *quantum vis*, as much as you pleaſe of any thing. *Q. S.* for *quantum ſufficit*, or as much as is neceſſary.

QUACK, or *Empiric*. A perſon who pretends to underſtand the practice of phyſic, or who ſells ſome particular noſtrums, either for one or many diſorders, which is now carried on as a branch of trade. Many of theſe noſtrums, ſome of which are licenſed by authority, are ſent in great quantities to the American colonies, and have alſo a great conſumption at home: but though ſome of them, as Dr. James's fever-powder in particular, are of great ſervice to mankind, others may be as prejudicial.

QUADRANS, in the antient Engliſh cuſtoms, was the fourth part of a penny, or a farthing. See *Penny*, and *Farthing*.

QUADRANT, denotes a mathematical inſtrument, of great uſe in navigation and aſtronomy, for the taking of altitudes, angles, &c. being variouſly contrived, and furniſhed with various apparatus, according to the ſeveral uſes it is intended for; but they all have this in common, that they conſiſt of a quadrant, or quarter of a circle, whoſe limb is divided into 90 degrees; that they have a plummet ſuſpended from the centre, and are furniſhed with pinnulæ, or ſights, to look through.

QUADRIN. A ſmall piece of coin, valued like a farthing, or the fourth part of a ſuperior coin.

QUADRUPLE, is particularly uſed for a gold coin, worth four times as much as that whereof it is the quadruple.

The quadruple of the Spaniſh piſtole is a piece of four piſtoles, worth about 3 l. 12 s. ſterling, called alſo double doubloon.

The quadruple of the louis d'or is only equal to two louis d'ors or French piſtoles, or 11. 13 s. ſterling.

QUALITY, in a commercial ſenſe, is ſaid of the good or ill condition of a mercantile commodity, as of its perfection or imperfection: thus, this corn, this wine, is not of a good quality; or, on the contrary, it is excellent.

QUALITY, is alſo a kind of worſted ſtuff, about two fingers broad, uſed for binding of womens petticoats and gowns, being ſold for 3 farthings, or 1 d. a yard by the haberdaſhers.

QUANTITY, is ſaid of the number of things aſſembled in one and the ſame place: but, in a commercial ſenſe, quantity is underſtood of the number of merchandiſe in a bale, barrel, or packet; or of ſuch as compoſe the cargo of a merchant-veſſel, or any other water or land carriage.

QUARANTAIN, is uſed for a meaſure, or extent of land, containing 40 perches.

QUARANTAIN, or *Quarentine*, is more particularly uſed for the term of forty days, which ſhips coming from places ſuſpected of contagion are obliged to wait in certain places appointed, to air themſelves before they come into port.

Several places in the Baltic being infected with the plague, in the 9th year of the reign of Queen Anne, an act was then made, That, during that infection, and at all times hereafter, when any foreign places ſhall be infected, all veſſels coming into England or Ireland from thoſe places, ſhall make their quarantain, in ſuch place, and for ſuch time, and in ſuch manner, as hath been or ſhall be directed by the Queen, or her ſucceſſors; and that until the ſhips ſhall be diſcharged, no perſon or goods coming or imported therein ſhall come or be brought on ſhore, or put in any other veſſel; nor ſhall any perſon go on board ſuch ſhip, without licence from him who is to ſee quarantain performed; but that all ſhips, perſons, and goods, ſhall be ſubject to ſuch orders touching quarantain, as ſhall be made by the Queen, and her ſucceſſors, and notified by proclamation.

That juſtices of peace of the counties adjoining to the place where quarantain is to be made, are to cauſe watches to be ſet day and night in convenient places in the neighbouring pariſhes, with ſtrict orders not to ſuffer any perſon to come on ſhore, or go on board the ſhips, except ſuch who are to ſee the quarantain performed, or ſhall be licenſed. After quarantain performed, and proof thereof made on oath by the maſter, and two others belonging to any ſuch ſhip, before a cuſtomer of the next port, or his deputy, and one juſtice of the peace near the port, that the ſhip, and all and every perſon therein, have performed the quarantain, and that they are all free from infection; then the cuſtomer, together with the juſtice, ſhall give a certificate thereof, and the ſhip and perſons ſhall be no longer detained.

By the ſtatute of the 7th of George I. it was enacted, That when any country ſhall be infected, and any order concerning quarantain and the prevention of infection ſhall be made by his Majeſty; as often as any ſhip ſhall attempt to enter into any port, the principal officer of the cuſtoms, and ſuch perſon as ſhall be authoriſed to ſee quarantain performed, ſhall go off to ſuch ſhip, or cauſe ſome other perſon by him appointed ſo to do; and ſhall at convenient diſtance, demand of the perſon having charge of the ſhip, a true account of the following particulars; the name of ſuch ſhip; the name of the commander; at what place the cargo was taken on board; what places the ſhip touched at in her voyage; whether ſuch places, or any, and which of them, were infected; how long the ſhip had been in her paſſage; how many perſons were on board when the ſhip ſet ſail; whether any, or what perſons, during the voyage, had been or ſhall be then infected; how many died in the voyage, and of what diſtemper; what ſhips he or any of his company went on board, or had any of their company come on board his ſhip in the voyage; to what place ſuch ſhips belonged; and alſo the true contents of his lading.

And in caſe it ſhall appear on ſuch examination, or otherwiſe, that any perſon on board is infected, then it ſhall be lawful for the officers of any ſhips of war, or of any forts or garriſons, and all other his Majeſty's officers whom it may concern, on notice thereof given to them, and for any other perſons whom they ſhall call to their aſſiſtance, to reſiſt the entrance of ſuch ſhip into any port or place; and to oblige any ſuch ſhip to depart out of the ſame, and uſe all neceſſary means for either of the ſaid purpoſes, by firing of guns upon ſuch ſhip, or any other kind of force and violence whatſoever. And if ſuch ſhip ſhall come from any place viſited with the plague, or have any infected perſon on board, and the maſter, &c. ſhall not diſcover the ſame, he ſhall be adjudged guilty of felony, without benefit of clergy; alſo if ſuch maſter, &c. upon demand made, ſhall not make a true diſcovery, in any other of the particulars before mentioned, he ſhall forfeit 200 l.

That if any maſter, or other perſon, having the charge of a ſhip liable to perform quarantain, ſhall quit ſuch ſhip, or permit any ſeaman or paſſenger to leave the ſame, and go on ſhore, or on board any other veſſel, before quarantain be fully performed, except in ſuch caſes, and by proper licence, as ſhall be directed by the order made concerning quarantain; or ſhall not, within convenient time after due notice given by the proper officer, cauſe his ſhip and the lading to be conveyed into the place appointed

pointed for quarantain; then every ſuch ſhip, with the tackle, &c. ſhall be forfeited: and ſuch maſter, for every ſuch offence, ſhall incur the forfeiture of 200 l. and if any perſon ſhall quit ſuch ſhip, by going on ſhore, or on board any other veſſel, it ſhall be lawful for all perſons, by force and violence, to compel ſuch perſon to return on board; and every perſon ſo quitting, &c. ſhall for every offence ſuffer ſix months impriſonment, and alſo forfeit 200 l.

That, during times of infection, when any part of Great Britain, &c. or France, Spain, Portugal, or the Low Countries, ſhall be infected with the plague, his Majeſty, by proclamation, may prohibit and reſtrain all boats and veſſels, under the burthen of 20 tuns, from ſailing out of any port or place of Great Britain or Ireland, or the iſles of Guernſey, &c. till ſecurity be given by the maſter to the principal officer of the cuſtoms, or chief magiſtrate, by bond to the King in penalty of 500 l. with condition not to go to, or touch at any country or place, mentioned in ſuch proclamation, nor on board any ſhip at ſea, and not to ſuffer any perſon to come on board his veſſel from any other ſhip, or receive any goods whatſoever out of any other ſhip: and if any ſuch veſſel ſhall paſs out of any port or place, before ſuch ſecurity given, ſhe ſhall, together with her tackle, &c. be forfeited; and the maſter, and every mariner of the veſſel, being thereof convicted, ſhall forfeit 50 l. or ſuffer three months impriſonment.

That if it ſhall appear to his Majeſty, that any veſſel ſhall come into any place infected, or being laden with any goods taken on board at any ſuch infected place, or from on board any veſſel infected, or that there be any perſons or goods on board actually infected; in any of the ſaid caſes it ſhall be lawful for his Majeſty, by order in council, to empower any perſons to burn ſuch ſhip, &c. and the infected goods, or ſo much thereof as ſhall be neceſſary for preventing the ſpreading of the infection.

That all goods, after the quarantain is performed, ſhall be opened and aired, in ſuch places, for ſuch time, and in ſuch manner, as ſhall be directed by his Majeſty, by order made and notified as aforeſaid; and after ſuch order ſhall have been duly complied with, and proof ſhall be made thereof by the oaths of two or more witneſſes, before the cuſtomer, &c. of the port lying next to the place where the goods ſhall be carried, or any deputy, and one juſtice, &c. upon certificate by ſuch cuſtomer, &c. to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in Great Britain or Ireland, ſuch goods ſhall be forthwith diſcharged, by order of any two of the ſaid commiſſioners, &c.

By the ſtatute of the 8th of George I. it was declared lawful for the King, by one or more proclamations, to be iſſued before ſuch a time, to prohibit all perſons to go to any kingdom or place, which ſhall be infected with the plague; and to export out of Great Britain and Ireland, or any the dominions thereunto belonging, to any place infected, to be ſpecified in ſuch proclamation, any goods or commodities whatſoever; or to import any goods or commodities from any ſuch country or place.

That all goods, wares, and merchandiſe, exported or ſhipped for exportation, contrary to the meaning of ſuch proclamation, and of this act, and the veſſels on which they ſhall be ſo exported or ſhipped, with the tackle, furniture, and apparel thereof, ſhall be forfeited, and may be ſeized wherever found; and every perſon that ſhall have procured ſuch goods to be imported, ſhall forfeit treble value.

That if at any time after the iſſuing ſuch proclamation as aforeſaid, any perſon ſhall go to any country or place infected, contrary to the meaning of the proclamation, and of this act, he ſhall incur a *præmunire*.

By the ſtatute 1ſt George II. for the performing of quarantain, it was enacted, That when any country ſhall be infected, it ſhall be lawful for his Majeſty to order ſhips to be provided, or houſes or lazarets for the receiving and entertaining of perſons obliged to perform quarantain, during ſuch time as they ſhall continue infected, or till they have performed ſuch quarantain; and alſo ſheds, tents, and other places proper for the depoſiting, opening and airing of goods and merchandiſes, to be provided and erected, to continue for ſuch time as his Majeſty ſha
think fit and direct, in convenient places within any par
of Great Britain or Ireland, to be allowed and approve
by two or more juſtices of the peace for the county, &c.
where the ſame lie, living near thereto, under their hand
and ſeals, in any waſte grounds or commons; or, wher
ſuch waſtes are not ſufficient, in the ſeveral grounds of an
perſons, not being a garden, orchard, yard, &c. payin
ſuch rate, rent, or other conſideration as ſhall be agree
on, or aſſeſſed and adjudged by the juſtices of peace a
their general quarter-ſeſſions.

That the proper officers authoriſed to put in execution th
orders made by his Majeſty in council, and notified b
proclamation, ſhall compel all perſons obliged to perfor
quarantain, and all goods and merchandiſes comprife
within ſuch orders, to repair or be conveyed to ſome
the ſhips, houſes, or lazarets, ſheds, tents, or othe
places, provided as before mentioned: and if any perſo
obliged to do quarantain, ſhall wilfully refuſe or neglec
to repair, within convenient time after due notice give
him by the proper officer, to the ſhip, houſe, lazaret
or other place duly appointed for him; or having bee
placed in ſuch ſhip, &c. ſhall eſcape out of the ſame
before quarantain fully performed, or attempt it; in ſuc
caſe the watchmen, and other perſons appointed to ſe
quarantain performed, by any kind of violence that th
caſe ſhall require, may compel every ſuch perſon to re
turn into ſuch ſhip, &c. and on their refuſal ſo to do
or actually eſcaping, &c. ſhall be adjudged guilty of fe
lony, and ſuffer death, without benefit of clergy.

That if any perſon not infected with the plague, no
liable to perform quarantain, ſhall preſume to enter an
ſhip, houſe, lazaret, &c. ſo appointed as aforeſaid, whi
any perſons infected, or under quarantain, ſhall be therei
and ſhall return, or attempt to return from thence, un
leſs in ſuch caſes, and by licence, as ſhall be directed b
any orders ſo made and notified; it ſhall be lawful fo
the watchmen, or other perſons having the guard of ſuc
ſhip, &c. by any kind of violence, to compel ſuch pe
ſon to repair to ſome ſhip, lazaret, &c. there to conti
nue and perform quarantain: and if ſuch perſon ſha
eſcape out of ſuch ſhip, &c. before he ſhall have pe
formed the ſame, he ſhall be guilty of felony, witho
benefit of clergy.

That if any officer, or other perſon appointed to ſ
the quarantain performed, or any watchman placed o
any houſe, lazaret, ſhip, or other place, for performan
of quarantain, ſhall knowingly and willingly ſuffer an
perſon, ſhip, goods, or merchandiſes, to depart or be re
moved from thence, unleſs in ſuch caſes, and by ſuch l
cence as ſhall be directed by ſome order made and not
fied by proclamation, every ſuch offender ſhall be a
judged guilty of felony, and ſuffer death without bene
of clergy. But no attainder of felony, by virtue of th
act, ſhall work any corruption of blood, or forfeiture
goods, chattels, or hereditaments.

But there is a clauſe in this ſtatute, That whereas cotto
ſkins, human hair, and certain other ſpecies of me
chandiſes, are more eſpecially liable to retain infectio
and may be brought from places infected into other cou
tries, and thence imported into his Majeſty's dominio
in ſhips not obliged to perform quarantain: therefo
when any foreign country ſhall be infected with t
plague, all ſuch goods and merchandiſes, as ſhall be par
cularly ſpecified in any order to be made concerning qu
rantain, and notified as aforeſaid, which ſhall be import
in any part of his Majeſty's dominions, from any forei
country, and in any ſhip whatſoever, ſhall be liable
ſuch order ſo made.

By the 6th George II. it was declared lawful for his M
jeſty, by proclamation, to prohibit all perſons to
from Great Britain or Ireland, or the iſles of Guernſe
Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, unto any place wh
ſhall be infected with the plague, to be mentioned in ſu
proclamation, during the time therein ſpecified, and u
der ſuch regulations as in the proclamation ſhall be p
ſcribed. Alſo it ſhall be lawful for his Majeſty, by p
clamation, to prohibit all perſons to come from any pl
infected with the plague, ſpecified in ſuch proclamatio
in

into Great Britain or Ireland, &c. under the regulations preſcribed in any ſuch proclamation. And all perſons who ſhall export goods contrary to the King's proclamation, ſhall forfeit double the value. That if, after the iſſuing ſuch proclamations aforeſaid, any perſon ſhall go to any place infected, contrary thereto, the perſon offending ſhall forfeit 500 l. one moiety to his Majeſty, and the other to him who ſues for the ſame; and if any perſon coming from any place infected, ſhall enter into, or any goods ſhall be landed out of any ſhip in any place in Great Britain or Ireland, &c. contrary to ſuch proclamation, the perſons offending therein ſhall be guilty of felony, and ſuffer death without benefit of clergy; and ſuch ſhips or goods ſhall be forfeited to his Majeſty: and all perſons, who, after proclamation, ſhall cauſe any ſuch goods to be imported, ſhall forfeit treble value.

That in every proclamation, to be iſſued for prohibiting commerce with any place infected with the plague, a reaſonable time ſhall be allowed, before the prohibition declared by ſuch proclamation ſhall commence; regard being had to the diſtance of the infected places from Great Britain, Ireland, or any of the iſles aforeſaid, and to the time within which notice of ſuch proclamation may arrive at ſuch infected places.

By a late act, it was enacted, That if the plague ſhall appear on board any ſhips being to the northward of Cape Finiſterre, the maſter, &c. ſhall immediately proceed to the harbour of New Grinſby, in the iſland of Scilly; where he is to remain till his Majeſty's pleaſure be known: or if he cannot make the iſland of Scilly, he is to remain in ſome open road, till he receives orders from his Majeſty, or his privy council; and ſhall take care to prevent any of his men from going out of the ſhip, or having intercourſe with other ſhips or perſons; and the maſter, or any of his men, who are diſobedient herein, ſhall ſuffer death without benefit of clergy. That the maſter of every ſhip ordered to perform quarantain, ſhall deliver on demand, to the chief officer appointed to ſee quarantain duly performed, ſuch bill of health, and manifeſt, as he ſhall have received from any Britiſh conſul during his voyage, together with his log-book and journal, under penalty of 500 l. That, after quarantain is duly performed, and upon proof to be made by the oaths of the maſter, &c. and of two of the perſons belonging to ſuch ſhip, or two other credible witneſſes, before the cuſtomer, comptroller, or collectors of the port, or their deputies, or any juſtice of the peace or, within any of the iſles of Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, before two jurats or magiſtrates, that ſuch ſhips have duly performed quarantain, and are free from infection; and after producing a certificate to that purpoſe, ſigned by the chief officer who ſuperintended the quarantain of the ſaid ſhip, then ſuch officers and magiſtrates are to give a certificate thereof; upon which the ſhip and crew are to be liable to no further reſtraint or detention. That if any perſon ſhall wilfully conceal from the officers of quarantain, or clandeſtinely convey any letters or goods from any ſhip under quarantain, he ſhall ſuffer death, without benefit of clergy.

QUARRY. A place under-ground, out of which are dug marble, free ſtone, ſlate, lime-ſtone, or other matters proper for building. See *Stone*, *Marble*, *Slate*, and *Lime*.

QUARRY, *Quarrel*, in glaziery. A pane, or piece of glaſs, cut in a diamond-form; being of two kinds, ſquare and long; each being of a different ſize, expreſſed by the number of pieces which make a foot of glaſs, as 8ths, 10ths, 12ths, 15ths, 18ths, and 20ths; but all the panes are cut to the ſame angle. See *Glaſs*.

QUART. A diminutive meaſure, containing one-fourth, or quarter, of ſome other meaſure. See *Meaſure*.

The Engliſh quart is a fourth of a gallon, or two pints.

The French, from whom the Engliſh borrow the word, beſides their quart, or pot of two pints, have various other quarts, diſtinguiſhed by the whole, whereof they are quarters; as quart de muid, and quart de boiſſeau. See *Muid*, and *Buſhel*.

They have alſo the quart of a yard.

QUARTAL. A ſort of corn-meaſure uſed in ſome parts of France, particularly in the county of Breſſe.

QUARTARIO. A liquid meaſure at Venice, 16 of which make the amphora. See *Amphora*.

QUARTARIO, is alſo a Venetian corn-meaſure, weighing about 32 lb. avoirdupois.

QUARTAS, or *Quartos*. A copper coin uſed in Spain for ſmall payments, and worth 4 maravedis, from whence it is named. There are alſo double quartas, worth 8 maravedis; 34 quartos make the piſtarine, or 10 ¾ d. ſterling; 136 make the piece of eight, or 3 s. 7 d. ſterling; and 680 make the piſtole, or 17 s. 11 d. ſterling.

QUARTATION, among refiners. A method of purifying gold, by melting three parts of ſilver with one of gold, and then caſting the mixture into aqua fortis; which, diſſolving the ſilver, leaves the gold at bottom in form of a black powder. See *Refining*.

QUARTER, in Engliſh weights, is a fourth part of the quintal or hundred weight, being 28 lb. avoirdupois. See *Hundred*, and *Quintal*.

QUARTER, is alſo a dry meaſure of England, containing of corn 8 buſhels ſtriked, ten quarters making the laſt; and the quarter of coals is the fourth part of a chaldron. See *Meaſure*.

QUARTER, is alſo applied to long meaſure, being the 4th part of an ell or yard: thus the French ell is 6 quarters, or 54 inches; the Flemiſh ell is 3 quarters, or 27 inches; the Engliſh ell is 5 quarters, or 45 inches; and the Engliſh yard is 4 quarters, or 36 inches.

QUARTER, in law, is the fourth part of the year: hence the days whereon thoſe quarters ſtatedly commence, are called quarter-days; being the 25th of March, called Lady-day; the 24th of June, called Midſummer-day; the 29th of September, called Michaelmas-day; and the 25th of December, or Chriſtmas-day: on which rents are uſually paid, as alſo the intereſt due on any principal ſum lent on mortgage or bond.

QUARTER, in navigation, or a quarter of a point, wind, or rhumb, is the fourth part of a cardinal point, wind, or rhumb, or of the diſtance between two cardinal points and winds.

The quarter contains an arch of 11 deg. 15 min. being what Wolfius, with regard to the other diviſions, calls a ſecondary point of the ſecond order. See Cardinal *Point*.

QUARTER *of a ſhip*, is that part of the ſhip's hull, which lies from the ſteerage-room to the tranſom.

QUARTER-*deck of a ſhip*, is that aloft the ſteerage, reaching to the round-houſe.

QUARTERING, in the ſea-language. When a ſhip under ſail goes at large, neither by a wind nor before a wind, but as it were betwixt both, ſhe is ſaid to go quartering.

The term is alſo uſed, when a ſhip ſails with quarter winds.

QUARTERMASTER. An officer on board a ſhip; of which there are more or leſs, according to her burthen; their buſineſs being to rummage in the hold on all occaſions; to overlook the ſteward in his delivery of victuals to the cook, and in his pumping and drawing out the beer; and in general, to take care there is no waſte.

The quartermaſter, or quarteer, is alſo to mind the ſhip's loading, which is the buſineſs he is chiefly employed about.

QUARTERN, or *Quarteron*. A diminutive of quart, ſignifying a quarter of a pint, as a quart does a quarter of a gallon.

QUARTER-*Wind*, at ſea, is a lateral or ſide wind; or a wind which does not blow in ſtern, but a little aſide of it. See *Wind*.

Properly the quarter-wind is that which comes in abaft the main-maſt ſhrouds, even with the quarter of the ſhip; which is the beſt of all winds, as bearing into all the ſails; whereas a wind blowing full in ſtern, is kept off by the ſails of the mizzen. See *Sailing*.

QUATRIN, is a ſmall Italian copper coin; that of Naples being 2-15ths of a penny ſterling, and 40 make the Paul

or 6 d. ſterling; that of Rome is 3-16ths of a penny ſterling, and 32 make the Jule or 6 d. ſterling; the quatrin of Leghorn is 13-90ths of an Engliſh penny, 40 making the Jule or 7-9ths of a penny ſterling; and that of Bologna is 1-10th of a penny ſterling.

QUAY, or *Kay*. A ſpace of ground paved, on the ſhore of a river, or port, deſtined for the loading and unloading of merchandiſe. See *Wharf*.

QUAYAGE. A duty paid by merchants for the liberty of uſing the quay of any ports where their ſhips arrive, for the unloading of their merchandiſe.

QUEBEC. The capital of the French colonies in North America, ſituated in 74 deg. of W. lon. and 47 deg. 35 min. of N. lat. on the weſt-ſide of the river of St. Laurence, 300 miles N. W. of Boſton. See *French* America.

QUEDA. A port-town of Malacca, in the Further India in Aſia, ſituated in 98 deg. 35 min. of E. lon. and 7 deg. 10 min. of N. lat. 300 miles north of Malacca, ſubject to the Dutch.

QUEMKAS, otherwiſe called *bouille-cotonis*, or *bouille-charmay*. A ſort of atlas, or ſatin, brought from the Eaſt Indies. See *Atlas*.

QUESTMEN. Perſons choſe annually, in each ward of the city of London, to go from houſe to houſe, and in the markets, to inquire into abuſes and miſdemeanors, eſpecially ſuch as relate to weights and meaſures.

QUEUE. A wine-meaſure, uſed in ſome provinces of of France: the queues of Orleans, Blois, Nuys, Dijon, and Macon, are alike; making one muid and a half of Paris, or 420 pints.

QUICKSILVER. A very ponderous fluid mineral, by the chemiſts called mercury. See *Mercury*.

QUILLAGE, is a term among the French for a duty paid in France by ſuch merchant-veſſels, as enter for the firſt time ſome port of the kingdom: thus, at Bourdeaux, this duty is 3 livres 4 ſols, or 2 s. 7 d. ſterling.

QUILLOT. A corn-meaſure uſed at Smyrna, Conſtantinople, and in ſome other port-towns of the Levant, being about 75 lb. avoirdupois.

QUILLS, of ſwans, turkies, and geeſe, eſpecially the latter, are no inconſiderable article of trade; being ſold to the ſtationers by the thouſand, and retailed by them by the hundred, of ſix ſcore to the hundred.

Great quantities of quills are brought to London from Germany and Holland; particularly the latter, which are the beſt; and there are alſo great parcels ſent from Scotland and Wales.

QUILO. A ſilver coin of Tuſcany, worth about 5 d. ſterling.

QUILOA, or *Quiola*. A port-town of Zanquebar, on the eaſt-coaſt of Africa, ſituated in 39 deg. of E. lon. and 10 deg. of N. lat. 300 miles north of Moſambique, ſubject to Portugal, or at leaſt tributary to that crown, where the Portugueſe of Braſil ſend every year to purchaſe negroes.

QUILON. See *Coulan*.

QUINQUINA, *Quinaquina*, called alſo *China-china*, and *Kin-kina*. A medicinal bark, brought from the Weſt Indies; called alſo, by way of eminence, *the bark*; or *Cortex Peruvianus*, the Peruvian bark, from the country whence it is brought; and popularly *the jeſuits bark*, becauſe, at its firſt introduction, chiefly ſold and adminiſtered by the jeſuits.

The tree which yields this bark grows in divers provinces of Peru, but chiefly Quenca, Ayavaca, and Loxa; the beſt and fineſt coming from the mountains fourteen leagues round the city of Loxa.

The tree that produces the quinquina is tall, and its trunk thicker than a man's thigh, tapering from the root upwards; but without any branches till near the top, where they grow regular as if lopped by art, and with the leaves form an exact hemiſphere. The bark is blackiſh on the outſide; but ſometimes mixed with white ſpots, where grows a kind of moſs, by the Spaniards called *barbas*, its leaves reſembling the leaves of plumb-trees.

The Spaniards diſtinguiſh four ſorts of this precious bark; the caſcarilla colorada, or reddiſh bark; amarylla, or yellowiſh; creſpilla, or curling; and blanca, or whitiſh.

The colorada and amarylla are reckoned the beſt. The creſpilla is the produce of the ſame ſort of tree, only growing in a cold climate, which impairs the quality of the bark, and renders it whitiſh on the outſide, cinnamon coloured within, and unfit for medicinal uſe.

The blanca is procured from another ſpecies of the tree, of a much bigger trunk, the leaves of a lighter green colour, and the bark a very thick ſpongeous ſubſtance, whiti on the outſide, being ſo tough as to require the force an ax to ſlice it from the tree. When firſt cut dow is as bitter as the beſt ſort, and has then the ſame virtue the cure of intermitting fevers; but when dry, and any length of time, it grows good for nothing. reality, both ſorts are found to have much ſurer a quicker effects when green, than when dry; ſo that Europeans only come in for the ſecond virtues: what worſe, the bad ſort is in great plenty, and the gr very ſcarce, and hard to come at: for which reaſ with a little of the fine bark ſent to Panama for E rope, large quantities of the worſe ſort are mixed.

The ſmall bark, which curls up like ſticks of cinnamo and which in England is much eſteemed, as being ſu poſed to be ſent from the branches of the tree, a therefore more efficacious in the cure of fevers, is o the bark of the younger trees; which being very th curls in this manner: for the bark of the branches never gathered, as it would not compenſate the ch of cutting.

The ſeaſon for cutting the bark is in Auguſt, the dry time of the country; the cutters being Indians, p vided each with a large knife and a bag. When t have ſliced down the bark as high as they can re they faſten ſhort ſticks, with withs, to the tree at pr diſtances, like the ſteps of a ladder, and thus mount, ſlice to the very top: when the bag is full, they car to the low country, to a neighbouring hut, to dry, w is done by ſpreading it in the open air, and freque turning it. If it happen to have been cut wet, they c it directly to the low country to dry, otherwiſe it lo colour, turns black, and rots. After a tree has barked, it requires 18 or 20 years to grow again.

There is an opinion, that the better ſort of bark ſoon be at an end, or at leaſt inacceſſible; partl reaſon of its diſtance from any inhabited place, an impenetrability of the woods where it grows; partly by the want of Indians to cut it, whoſe through the cruelties of the Spaniards, is likely to b tally extinct.

The quinquina was but little known in Europe t year 1640. The jeſuits of Rome firſt brought vogue in Spain and Italy in 1649; and in 165 Cardinal de Lugo, of that order, brought it into F It was at firſt ſold for its weight in gold. Wh duced into powder, it is by foreigners called the nal's powder; but uſually the jeſuits powder, or *patrum*.

It met with great oppoſition at firſt. Chiflet and pius diſtinguiſhed themſelves againſt it: but it almoſt univerſally allowed one of the greateſt a remedies within the whole province of medicine.

Some call the gentian-root the European quinqui ſe good againſt intermitting fevers. See *Gen* Quinquina is ſold at Amſterdam from 1 s. 6 d. to ſterling the pound.

QUINT, or *Fifth*. A term particularly uſed in America, for ſignifying what is due to the King gold and ſilver extracted from the mines, or o gathered.

This duty is ſo conſiderable, that it is proved f regiſters of the quinted gold and ſilver, that, ſ mines of Potoſi alone, the King of Spain has ha then fifty years upwards of 111 millions of p 19,500,000 l. ſterling.

The quint is alſo due to the King for all ſorts of ſtones; under which denomination are compr not only thoſe of any brilliancy, but alſo the bea coral, loadſtone, jet, arcanſon, and vitriol.

The King of Portugal has alſo a fifth of all the diamonds of the Braſils.

QUINTAL, in commerce. The weight of 100 lb. See *Hundred*, and *Weight*.

The quintal admits of ſome differences in different places, according as the pound conſiſts of more or leſs ounces, and as the ounce is lighter or heavier.

Thus, the Paris quintal, or hundred, yields 123 pounds at Montpelier, and the Montpelier hundred only 81 pounds at Paris. The quintal of Conſtantinople is eſteemed the heavieſt of all thoſe uſed in the Levant; containing 45 ocquas, the ocquas weighing 2 $\frac{9}{16}$ Dutch pounds; ſo that the quintal is equal to 112 $\frac{3}{4}$ pounds of Amſterdam, 124 pounds of Venice, and 160 of Leghorn.

The Engliſh quintal uſually conſiſts of 112 pounds avoirdupois, and is divided into four quarters.

QUINTAL, was alſo formerly uſed for a weight of lead, iron, or other common metal, uſually equal to an hundred pounds, at ſix ſcore to the hundred.

St. QUINTIN. A town of France, in the province of Picardy, ſituated in 3 deg. 16 min. of E. lon. and 49 deg. 55 min. of N. lat. See *France*.

QUIRAT. A ſmall weight uſed at Cairo, and throughout Egypt; the drachm being equivalent to 16 quirats, and the quirat to 4 grains.

QUITAL. See *Carat*.

QUITTO *City*. Capital of the province of Quitto in Peru, in South America, ſituated in 78 deg. of W. lon. and 30 deg. of S. lat. 200 miles eaſt of the Pacific ocean, and 140 miles north of Guiaquil. See *Spaniſh America*.

R. THE 17th letter of the alphabet, and uſed in commerce for the following abbreviations: Rs, remittances; Rv'd, received: R°. recto: Rx. rixdollar.

℞, in medicinal preſcriptions, ſtands for *recipe*, or *take*: it is alſo uſed in the Britiſh navy to denote the word run, when a man has deſerted from the ſhip.

RAAGDAER. An officer in Perſia who receives the duties of the high roads: theſe raagdaers being divided into cantons, and each anſwering only for the places he is charged with; but, in conſequence of the duties paid them, they are obliged to keep the high roads in order, and to reſtore to the proprietor the value of the merchandiſe, and other effects he may be robbed of, when they cannot recover them; but, if they recover them, they keep a third for their trouble. They have under them ſeveral bands of ſoldiers for the ſafety of travellers and merchants; but this good regulation is frequently ill executed, and ſometimes theſe very guards are the greateſt robbers.

RABATE, in commerce. See *Rebate*.

RABBETING, in carpentry, the planing or cutting of channels, or grooves, in boards.

In ſhip-carpentry, it ſignifies the letting in of the planks of the ſhip into the keel, which in the rake, and run of a ſhip, is hollowed away, that the planks may join the cloſer.

RABINET. A ſmall piece of ordnance, between a falconet and a baſe. See *Cannon*.

RACK, or *Arack*. See *Arack*.

To RACK *wines*, is to draw them from off their lees, after having ſtood long enough to clear and ſettle. Hence,

RACK-*Vintage*, is frequently uſed for the ſecond voyage made by Engliſh wine-merchants into France for racked wines; whence they uſed to return about the end of December.

RACLIA. One of the leaſt of the iſlands of the Turkiſh Archipelago, near the iſland of Nio: but uninhabited.

RAFFLING. A term uſed when a company of perſons club to the purchaſe of a commodity, and he that throws the higheſt on three dice takes it.

RAG. A piece of linen or woollen cloth, worn, or torn to ſhivers, or in a jagged mangled manner, uſed for the making of paper. See *Paper*.

By the ſtatute of the 11th of Geo. I. old rags, old ropes, or junk, or old fiſhing nets, for making paper, or paſtboard, not regularly entered and landed are forfeited.

RAG-*Bolts*, certain iron pins in a ſhip, which are ragged and hacked on the ſides, to prevent their being drawn out.

RAIN-*Deer*. A ſort of ſtag of a prodigious ſwiftneſs, very common in Lapland, Muſcovy, and other northern countries; whoſe ſkins are uſed in England, for the covering of chairs and ſaddles, which have a ſtrong agreeable ſcent, vulgarly called Ruſſia leather. See *Leather*.

RAINS, in the ſea-language, denotes all that tract of ſea northward of the equator, between 4 and 10 degrees of latitude; and lying between the meridian of Cape Verde, and that of the eaſtermoſt iſlands of the ſame name.

It takes its name from the almoſt continual calms, conſtant rains, and thunder and lightening to a great degree found there. The winds when they blow are only ſmall uncertain guſts, and ſhift about all round the compaſs; ſo that ſhips are ſometimes detained here a long while, and can make but little way.

RAISINS. Grapes which remain on the tree till fully ripe, and then dried in the ſun, or in an oven, to fit them for keeping, and for ſome medicinal purpoſes: the raiſins of the ſun, or jar raiſins, being thoſe dried in the ſun.

Of theſe are various kinds: as, raiſins of Damaſcus, thus called from the capital city of Syria, in the neighbourhood whereof they are cultivated, which are much uſed in the compoſition of ptiſans, together with jujubes and dates: they are brought flat and ſeeded, of the ſize of the thumb, whence it is eaſy judging of the extraordinary bulk of the grape, when freſh. Travellers tell us of bunches weighing 25 pounds. Their taſte is faintiſh and diſagreeable.

The common raiſins are the fruit of ſeveral ſpecies of grape; and the common way of drying them is to tie two or three bunches together, before they are plucked from the vine, and dip them into a hot lixivium of wood-aſhes, with a little oil of olives in it; after which, they ſhrink and wrinkle, being left growing 3 or 4 days: they are then cut, and dried in the ſun at leiſure.

France affords great quantities of raiſins; particularly the picardans and muſcats, which grow chiefly in Provence and Languedoc. The Calabrian raiſins are brought from Italy; and the raiſins of the ſun from Spain.

All kinds of raiſins have much the ſame virtues, being nutritive and balſamic; but ſubject to fermentation with juices of any kind. There is a particular ſort of wine made with raiſins; and alſo a ſpirit extracted from them called raiſin-brandy: but the ſmaller kind of grapes are called currants, or corinths. See *Currants*.

RAKE, of a ſhip, is ſo much over her hull as over-hangs at both ends of the keel: that part of it which is before, being called the rake forward on; and that part which is at the ſetting on of the ſtern poſt, being called her rake aft, or aft-ward on: and when a ſhip has a ſmall rake forward on, but is built with her ſtern too ſtraight up, ſhe is called bluff-headed.

RAKE *of the rudder*, is the hindermoſt part of it. See *Rudder*.

RAMA. A town of Paleſtine, remarkable for its trade of gums and cottons. See *Turky*.

RAMADA. A port-town of Terra Firma, in South America, in the province of New Granada, ſituated on the coaſt of the North ſea, in 72 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 11 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 100 miles E. of St. Martha, near which is a rich copper mine.

RAMBURG. See *Hamburg*.

RAMEKINS. A fortreſs of the United Provinces, in the province of Zealand, ſituated on the South coaſt of the iſle of Walcheren, in 3 deg. 35 min. of E. lon. 5 miles S. of Middleburg; which was one of the fortreſſes put into the poſſeſſion of the Engliſh by the Dutch, as a ſecurity for their fidelity, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth.

RAMSAY. An iſland in the Iriſh channel, on the coaſt of Pembrokeſhire, ſituated in 5 deg. 20 min. of W. lon. and 51 deg. 55 min. of N. lat. 15 miles N. W. of Milford Haven, and 4 miles W. of St. Davids.

RAMSGATE. A port-town of Kent, ſituated near the Downs, in 1 deg. 22 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. between the north and ſouth Foreland; 8 miles N. E. of Canterbury.

RANCHIERA. A port-town of Terra Firma, in South America, in the province of New Granada, ſituated on the coaſt of the North ſea, in 72 deg. of W. lon. and 11 deg. 34 min. of N. lat. between the town of Rio de la Hache and Cape de Vela; near which was a rich pearl fiſhery, when the Spaniards invaded this country; where they deſtroyed multitudes of Indians, in forcing them to dive for pearls beyond their ſtrength, and other hardſhips and oppreſſions.

RANDERS. A town of North Jutland, ſubject to Denmark. See *Denmark*.

RANDS. A ſort of tanned hides. See *Hide*.

RANGES, in a ſhip, are two pieces of timber going a croſs from ſide to ſide; one aloft, on the forecaſtle, a little abaft the fore-maſt; and the other in the beak-head before the mouldings of the bow-ſprit.

RAOLCONDA. A city of the Hither India, in Aſia, ſituated in the province of Golconda, in 79 deg. of E. lon. and 17 deg. 12 min. of N. lat. 120 miles N. W. of Maſſulapatan, and 150 miles N. E. of Golconda; near which is a rich diamond mine, ſubject to the Mogul.

RAP. A term for bad or counterfeit halfpence in Ireland.

RAPE. A name given the wood, or ſtalks of the cluſters of grapes, when dried and freed from the fruit; which is uſed in making vinegar, ſerving to heat and ſour the

wine: but it is firſt put into a place to ſour itſelf, before caſt into the vinegar veſſel; to which end, preſently after the vintage, it is carefully put up in barrels, leſt it take air; otherwiſe it would heat itſelf, and be ſpoiled; there being no other way of keeping rape, hitherto diſcovered, but to fill the veſſel wherein it is contained with wine or vinegar. See *Vinegar* and *Wine*.

RAPE-SEED, is the ſeed of a kind of wild cabbage, or turnip, called by the Flemings colza or colzat, being cultivated abundantly in ſeveral parts of Flanders, Holland, England and Ireland; as alſo in Brie, Champagne, and Normandy, in France: from which ſeed an oil is extracted, commonly uſed by woollen manufacturers, and for burning in lamps. See *Oil*.

RAPEN. A ſmall copper coin current at Lucern, and ſome other parts of Switzerland, being $\frac{1}{5}$ of 1 d. ſterling, and 9 make the batzen, or 1 $\frac{4}{5}$ d. ſterling.

RAPPAHANOCK. A large navigable river, which riſes in the mountains W. of Virginia in America; runs from the N. W. to the S. E. through that province, and diſcharges itſelf into the bay of Cheſepeak.

RAS. A long meaſure uſed in Piedmont for ſtuffs, equivalent to the fathom of Lucca, which contains one foot, 9 inches, and 10 lines, making half an Engliſh ell.

RAS, is alſo a name given by the French to ſeveral ſorts of ſerges.

RASBERRY. A common garden fruit, of which a particular kind of wine is made.

RASEBURG. A port-town of Sweden, in the province of Finland, and territory of Nyland, ſituated on the gulph of Finland, in 23 deg. of E. lon. and 60 deg. 22 min. of N. lat. 50 miles S. W. of Abo.

RASIER. A corn meaſure uſed in French Flanders, being of two ſorts; the one called the ſea meaſure, and the other the land meaſure: the firſt weighs 280 lb. and ſometimes 290 lb. avoirdupoiſe; but the ſecond only 245 lb.

RASSAD, or *Razad*. A kind of glaſs ware, or ſmall beads of glaſs, of diverſe colours, with which the Negroes on the coaſt of Africa, and the Americans, adorn themſelves; being given them in exchange for ſeveral rich merchandiſes.

All ſorts of raſſad are not proper for the African coaſts: on thoſe of Angola, particularly at Loango of Boiria, Malimbo, and Cabindo, none but black, and white and black, are neceſſary; being uſually exchanged by the maſs, weighing three pounds and a half.

In a cargo, to treat for 612 Negroes, about 3000 lb. of raſſad are requiſite; that is, 1200 lb. of white, 800 of black, and 1000 of all other colours.

RATAFIA. A fine ſpirituous liquor, prepared from the kernels of ſeveral ſorts of fruits, particularly cherries and apricots.

Ratafia of cherries, is prepared by bruiſing the cherries, and putting them into a veſſel wherein brandy has been kept; then adding to them the kernels of cherries, or ſtrawberries, ſugar, cinnamon, white pepper, nutmegs, cloves; and to 20 pounds of cherries 10 quarts of brandy. The veſſel is left open 10 or 12 days, then ſtopped cloſe, for two months before it is tapped.

Ratafia of apricots is prepared two ways; either by boiling the apricots in white wine, adding to the liquor an equal quantity of brandy, with ſugar, cinnamon, mace, and the kernels of apricots; infuſing the whole for 8 or 10 days; then ſtraining the liquor, and putting it up for uſe; or by infuſing the apricots, cut in pieces, in brandy, for a day or two, paſſing it through a ſtraining bag, and putting in the uſual ingredients.

RATE. A ſtandard, or proportion, by which either the quantity or value of a thing is adjuſted.

The rates of bread in London are fixed by authority. See *Bread*.

The rate of intereſt, as now eſtabliſhed by law in England, is 5 *per cent*. The rate of intereſt in Italy is 3 *per cent*. In Sweden 6. In France 5. In Spain 10. In Barbadoes 10. In Turky 20. See *Intereſt*.

The rates or fares of hackney-coachmen, chairmen, and watermen, are fixed by act of parliament.

The rates of exchange, factorſhip, &c. are different. See *Exchange*, and *Factorage*.

RATE, of a ſhip of war, is its order, degree, or diſtinction, as to magnitude, burthen, &c. See *Ship* and *Navy*.

The rate is uſually accounted by the length and breadth of the gun-deck, the number of tons, and the number of men and guns the veſſel carries. There are ſix rates: a firſt rate man of war has its gun-deck from 159 to 174 feet in length, and from 44 to 50 feet broad; it contains from 1313 to 1882 tons; has from 706 to 1000 men; and carries from 96 to 10 guns. See *Navy*.

Second rate ſhips have their gun-decks from 153 to 165 feet long; and from 41 to 46 broad; they contain from 1086 to 1482 tons; and carry from 524 to 640 men; and from 84 to 90 guns.

Third rates have their gun-decks from 142 to 158 feet in length; and from 37 to 42 feet broad: they contain from 871 to 1262 tons; and carry from 389 to 476 men; and from 64 to 80 guns.

Fourth rates are in length on the gun-deck, from 118 to to 146 feet; and from 29 to 38 broad: they contain from 448 to 915 tons; carry from 226 to 346 men; and from 48 to 60 guns.

Fifth rates have their gun-decks, from 100 to 120 feet long; and from 24 to 31 broad; they contain from 259 to 542 tons; carry from 145 to 190 men; and from 48 to 60 guns.

Sixth rates have their gun-decks, from 87 to 95 feet long; and from 22 to 25 feet broad; they contain from 152 to 256 tons; carry from 50 to 110 men, and from 16 to 24 guns.

The new built ſhips are much larger, as well as better than the old ones of the ſame rate; whence the double numbers all along; the larger of which expreſs the proportions of the new-built ſhips, as the leſs thoſe of the old ones.

RATEEN, or *Ratten*, in commerce, a thick woollen ſtuff, quilled, wove on a loom with four tredles, like ſerges and other ſtuffs that have the whale or quilling.

There are ſome rateens dreſſed and prepared like cloths; others left ſimply in the hair; and others where the hair or nap is frized.

Rateens are chiefly manufactured in France, Holland, Ireland, and Italy; being moſtly uſed in linings.

The frize is a ſort of coarſe rateen; and the drugget, a rateen half linen, half woollen.

RATEL. A weight uſed in Perſia, of about 16 ounces; being the 6th part of the ſmall batman, called otherwiſe batman of Tauris. See *Batman*.

Book of RATES, is a book eſtabliſhed by the Britiſh parliament, ſhewing at what value goods which pay poundage are to be reckoned at the cuſtom-houſe.

The book of rates annexed to the act of tonnage and poundage, made in the 12th of Charles II. is ſubſcribed with the hand of Sir Harbottle Grimſtone, then ſpeaker of the houſe of commons: but an additional book of rates of goods and merchandiſes uſually imported, and not particularly rated in the former, with rules and orders, is ſigned by Spencer Compton, Eſq; ſpeaker of the houſe of commons in the 11th of Geo. I. See *Cuſtoms*.

But as the book of rates is in the hands of every merchant, and being too long to be inſerted in this work, it has been thought proper to omit it; eſpecially as it may be ſeen at large in Crouch.

There are alſo public books of rates in the cuſtom-houſes of Ireland, France, Holland, Spain, Portugal, and other trading countries.

RATION, or *Ratian*, in the army, a pittance or proportion of ammunition, bread, drink, or forage, diſtributed to each ſoldier for his daily ſubſiſtence.

The ſhips crews have alſo their rations, or allowances of biſket, pulſe, and water, proportioned according to their ſtock: the uſual ration at ſea, particularly among the Portugueſe, &c. being a pound and half of biſket, a pint of wine, and a quart of freſh water *per* day; and each month an arrobe, or 31 pounds of ſalt meat, with ſome dried fiſh and onions.

RATIS. A weight uſed for diamonds and pearls in India, particularly Bengal, being the $\frac{7}{8}$ of a caract, or three grains $\frac{1}{2}$.

RAT-LINES, or as the ſeamen call them ratlings, thoſe

lines which make the ladder ſteps, to go up the ſhrouds and puttocks: hence called the ratlings of the ſhrouds.

RATTLE. A weight in the Eaſt Indies, being 1 lb. and 4½ dr.

RATTARS. A Perſian word, which ſignifies the cuſtom-houſe officers, and ſometimes the guards eſtabliſhed on the high roads for the ſafety of travellers and merchants. The cuſtom-houſe rattars very ſeldom extort any thing from Franks; and for the moſt part never open their bales, or cheſts of merchandiſe; contenting themſelves with their ſimple declaration.

RATONEAU. One of the French iſlands on the coaſt of Provence. See *French* Iſlands.

RATTAN. See *Ruatan*.

RATZ. A ſmall billon coin of Switzerland, worth about a halfpenny.

RAVELLA. A port-town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, and Hither Principat, ſituated on the north-ſide of the gulph of Salerno, in 15 deg. of E. lon. and 40 deg. of N. lat. 20 miles S. of Naples.

RAVENGLAS. A port-town of Cumberland, ſituated on the Iriſh channel, in 3 deg. 5 min. of W. lon. and 54 deg. of N. lat. 15 miles S. of Cockermouth, and 38 miles S. W. of Carliſle.

RAW *Hide*. See *Hide*.

RAW *Silk*. See *Crude* ſilk, and *Silk*.

REA. See *Ree*.

REACH, in the ſea-language, the diſtance between any two points of land that lie in a right line one from another.

REAL, *Rial*, or *Ryal*, in commerce. See *Rial*.

REAL, is alſo a ſilver coin at Bencoolen, in the Eaſt Indies, worth 5 s. ſterling.

REALGAR. A red friable mineral ſubſtance, popularly called red arſenic, or orpiment; being prepared from orpiment, by fuſing it over the fire in a cloſe veſſel, and brought from China in different figures, which ſeem to be caſt in moulds. See *Orpiment* and *Arſenic*.

It is of an acrimonious nature, and reputed poiſonous, tho' not in any great degree; and Boerhaave takes it for the ſame with the Sandaracha of the ancients.

In the hiſtory of the French academy, there is an account of a cup brought to Paris, by the embaſſadors of Siam, and preſented there, as a remedy uſed by that people againſt all diſeaſes. Upon an examination, which had like to have coſt Mr. Homberg dear, he found it to be a kind of realgar, or red arſenic, more cauſtic than ours.

Its uſe among the Siameſe, he takes to have been the ſame with that of regulus of antimony; to give an emetic quality to the wine drank out of it.

As the doſe of medicines is much ſtronger in the torrid zone than among us, the quantity of ipecacuanha, ordinarily taken by the Indians, being 20 times as great as that among us, it is very poſſible a cup of realgar, tho' enough to poiſon an European, may prove a gentle medicine to a Siameſe.

REALISE, in commerce, a term little known in trade before the year 1719, when thoſe immenſe fortunes began to be made in France and England, by the buſineſs of actions or ſtock. See *Action*, *Bubble*, and *Company*.

By realiſing is meant the precaution, many of thoſe who had gained moſt, took, to convert their paper into real effects; as lands, houſes, rich moveables, jewels, plate; but above all into current ſpecie. A precaution capable of ruining the ſtate; but which the French regency had the wiſdom to fruſtrate, by taking proper meaſures to have the money, thus hoarded up, returned to the public.

REALEO. A port-town of Mexico in North America, capital of the province of Nicaragua, ſituated on a bay of the Pacific ocean, in 91 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 12 deg. of N. lat. being W. of Leon and the lake Nicaragua.

REAM. A parcel of paper conſiſting of 20 quires, each of which ought to contain 25 ſheets.

REAR *Admiral*, is the admiral of the third and laſt ſquadron of the Royal fleet. See *Admiral*, *Navy*, and *Fleet*.

REBATE, or *Rebatement*, in commerce, a term much uſed at Amſterdam, for a diſcount, or abatement, in the price of certain commodities, where the buyer advances the ſum in hand for which he might have taken time. See *Diſcount*.

Rebate, which in England is uſually called prompt payment, is eſtimated by months; and is only allowed for certain kinds of merchandiſes, which, according to the cuſtom of Amſterdam, are, German wools, aſhes, and pot-aſhes, Italian ſilks, ſugars of Brazil, and Spaniſh wools which are ſold at 15, 18, 33, 16, and 21 months rebate. That is, theſe commodities are ſold for ready money, only deducting, or rebating the intereſt of the money which ought not to be paid till the end of 15, 18, &c. months.

This intereſt, called rebate, is uſually regulated on the footing of 8 *per cent. per annum*.

The reaſon of this expedient is, that the merchants having not always money to pay for their goods in hand, by means of the rebatement, ſuch as have will be engaged to diſcharge themſelves as ſoon as poſſible, in hopes of the diſcount.

RECEIPT, or *Receit*, in commerce, an acquittance or diſcharge; or an act whereby it appears a thing has been paid off or acquitted: but where the receipt is on the back of the bill, &c. it is uſually called an endorſement. See *Acquittance* and *Endorſement*.

Among tradeſmen, receipt uſually makes the ſecond of the three articles of an accompt; the receipt containing the monies received; the two others the expence, and the return or balance. See *Accompt*, and *Book*-keeping.

RECEIVER, denotes an officer, whereof there are various kinds, denominated from the particular matters they receive, the places where, or the perſons for whom, &c. as receiver of rents, receiver general of the cuſtoms, and others.

RE-CHANGE, in commerce. See *Re-exchange*.

RE-CHANGE, is uſed at ſea for ſuch tackle as is kept in reſerve aboard the ſhip, to ſerve in caſe of failure of that already in uſe: but the Levantines uſe the word reſpect or reſpit, in the ſame ſenſe.

RECKONING, in navigation, the act of eſtimating the quantity of a ſhip's way; or of the diſtance run from one place to another; which is uſually performed by means of the log-line.

Yet this is liable to great irregularities. Vitruvius adviſes an axis to be paſſed thro' the ſides of the ſhip, with two large heads propending out of the ſhip, wherein are to be included wheels touching the water, by whoſe revolution the ſpace paſſed over in any given time, may be meaſured. The ſame has been lately recommended by Snellius; though there are few authors who have wrote of navigation, but have ſhewn the inſufficiency of the method. See *Sailing*.

RECONNOITRE, is uſed at ſea, where a veſſel or fleet, &c. is ſaid to reconnoitre when they approach near enough to examine the rate and burthen of a veſſel, the force ſhe may have aboard, what nation it is of, &c.

To reconnoitre a land or ſhore, is to obſerve its ſituation in order to find what land it is.

RECTIFIER, in navigation, an inſtrument uſed for the determining the variation of the compaſs, in order to rectify the ſhip's courſe. See *Variation* and *Courſe*.

It conſiſts of two circles, either laid open or let into one another, and ſo faſtened together in their centres, that they repreſent two compaſſes; the one fixed, the other moveable; each divided into thirty-two points of the compaſs, and 360 degrees, numbered both ways, from the north and the ſouth, ending at the eaſt and weſt in 90 degrees.

The fixed compaſs repreſents the horizon, in which the north, and all the other points are liable to variation.

In the centre of the moveable compaſs is faſtened a ſilk thread, long enough to reach the outſide of the fixed compaſs. But if the inſtrument be made of wood, a brass index is uſed inſtead of the thread. See *Compaſs*.

RED, in dying, one of the five ſimple or mother colours of the dyers. See *Dying*.

Some reckon ſeven kinds or caſts of red; as ſcarlet red, crimſon red, madder red, half grain red, lively orange red, and ſcarlet of cochineel; but they may be all reduced

duced to three, according to the three principal drugs which give the colours; being vermilion, cochineel, and madder.

Beſides theſe reds, which are good and allowed colours, there is alſo a brazil red, which is diſcouraged, as fading eaſily.

Of the ſeven good reds, only four have particular caſts or ſhades; the madder red, crimſon red, lively orange red, and ſcarlet of cochineel.

The caſts or ſhades of crimſon, are fleſh colour, peach-colour, carnation-roſe colour, and apple-tree-flower colour. Thoſe of madder are fleſh colour, onion-peel colour, and flame colour. Thoſe of the orange are the ſame with thoſe of crimſon. Scarlet, beſides the ſhades of all the reſt, has ſome peculiar to itſelf, as cherry colour, fire colour, &c.

RED *Arſenic.* See *Arſenic.*

RED-*Herring*, or *Smoked-herring.* See Herring-*Fiſhery.*

RED *Lead.* See *Lead.*

RED *Sea*, is that which ſeparates Aſia from Africa, lying to the weſtward of Arabia, and to the eaſtward of Egypt, extending from the ſtreights of Babelmandel to the town of Suez.

Some authors apprehend that the redneſs of the ſands, or the coral which is found at the bottom of it, or the redneſs of its waters, were the occaſion of its name: and others, that the redneſs of the bordering hills might juſtly give occaſion to it: but as to the ſand of this ſea, travellers aſſure us, they are no redder than thoſe of other ſeas, though ſome of the mountains near it are.

The Arabs call it the ſea of Clyſna, being the name of a town which formerly ſtood at the bottom of the gulph: but it is alſo obſerved, that the Holy Scripture calls it Yam Souf, or the ſea of Ruſhes; becauſe its banks are covered with ruſhes or weeds.

No ſea was more frequented than this before the diſcovery of the way to the Eaſt Indies by the Cape of Good Hope: but of late few ſhips, except the Turkiſh gallies, and the veſſels which tranſport the Mahometan pilgrims to Mecca, go higher than Mocha. See *Arabia* and *Egypt.*

REDDLE, *Ruddle*, or *Red Chalk*, a red foſſile ſtone, which has its particular mine or quarry; and is uſed by painters, &c. to make red pencils, or craions for deſigning: the beſt ſort being the produce of England, which is moderately hard, and eaſy to cut or ſaw into long ſlips. The goldſmiths and gilders alſo uſe it to burn the gold lea they uſe. Some call reddle *lapis hæmatites*, ſuppoſing if to have a particular faculty of ſtopping blood: but others will have the real hæmatites to be another ſtone. It alſo abounds in the Britiſh American colonies, and in Germany; being a ſpecies of marl.

REDUCED *Chart.* See Reduced *Chart.*

REDUCTION, in arithmetic, is the converting of monies, weights, or meaſures, into the ſame value in other denominations, as pounds into ſhillings and pence, or ſhillings and pence into pounds.

REE, *Rea*, *Reis*, *Rais*, or *Res.* A little Portugueſe copper coin, 20 of which make the vintin, or 1 $\frac{7}{20}$ d. ſterling: being both a current and imaginary money; the Portugueſe uſually reckoning by rees, as the Spaniards by maravedis. See *Coin.*

Strangers in treating with them are frequently ſurpriſed with demands of ſeveral thouſand rees, when the matter betwixt them is only a few pieces of eight; the millree or thouſand rees, only making 5 s. $\frac{1}{2}$ d. ſterling; and 4870 make the moidore, or 27 s. ſterling.

The Portugueſe keep their accompts in milrees and rees, 1000 rees making a milree, which they ſeparate thus: 25 — 600, that is, 25 milrees and 600 rees, or 7 l. 4 s. ſterling.

The other gold monies of Portugal are,

		l.	s.	d.
The 24 — 000	piece - -	or 6	15	0
12 — 800	- - -	3	12	0
12 — 000	- - -	3	7	6
6 — 400	- - -	1	16	0
4 — 800,	or moidore -	1	7	0
3 — 200	- - -	0	18	0

		l.	s.	d.
2 — 400	or half moidore - -	0	13	6
1 — 600	- - -	0	9	0
1 — 200,	or quarter moidore -	0	6	9
800	rees, or teſtoon -	0	4	6
400	- - -	0	2	3

Their ſilver monies are,

The 400	rees or cruſado - - -	0	2	3
480	- - - -	0	2	8 $\frac{4}{5}$
240,	or 12 vintin piece - -	0	1	6
100,	or 5 ditto - -	0	0	9
50,	or 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ ditto -	0	0	4 $\frac{2}{2}$

The copper coins are,

The 200	rees, or vintin - - -	0	0	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
10,	or half ditto - - - -	0	0	0 $\frac{3}{4}$
5,	or quarter ditto - -	0	0	0 $\frac{3}{8}$

REE, is alſo a coin at Bombay, 100 of which make the rupee, or 2 s. 6 d. ſterling.

REEF, in navigation, when there is a great gale of wind, ſailors commonly roll up part of the ſail below, that by this means it may become the narrower, and not draw ſo much wind; which contracting and taking up of the ſail, they call a reef, or reefing the ſail.

So alſo when a top-maſt is ſprung, as they call it, that is cracked, or almoſt broken in the cap, they cut off the lower piece, that was near broken off, and ſetting the other part, now much ſhorter, in the ſtep again, call it a reefed top-maſt.

REEL, in the manufactures, a machine ſerving for the office of reeling, or the winding of thread, ſilk, cotton, or the like, in a ſkain, or upon a bottom, to prevent its entangling.

It is alſo uſed for the charging, or diſcharging of bobbins or quills, to uſe them in the manufacture of different ſtuffs, as thread, ſilk, cotton, &c: but reeling is performed different ways, and by different engines.

REEVING, in the ſea language, is the putting a rope through a block: hence, to pull a rope out of a block, is called unreeving.

RE-EXCHANGE, in commerce, a ſecond payment of the price of exchange, or rather the price of a new exchange, due upon a bill of exchange that comes to be proteſted; and to be refunded to the bearer, by the drawer, or indorſer. See *Exchange.*

The occaſion of re-exchange is, when the bearer of a bill of exchange, after proteſting it for want either of acceptance or payment, borrows money on his own promiſe, bond, or the like; or draws a bill of exchange in the place where the payment was to be made, on the perſon who furniſhed the firſt; for which he pays a ſecond exchange, which being added to the firſt already paid, the drawer of the firſt bill is anſwerable for two exchanges, properly called exchange and re exchange. See *Proteſt.*

The bearer of a proteſted bill has a right to recover both the one and the other on the drawer: yet the ſimple proteſtation which the bearer makes in the act of proteſt, that he will take up a like ſum at re-exchange, for want of his bill being accepted or paid, is not ſufficient to intitle him to demand the re-imburſement of his re-exchange; unleſs he makes it appear he has actually taken up money in the place whereon the bill was drawn.

Otherwiſe the re-exchange will only amount to the reſtitution of the firſt exchange, with intereſt, the expences of proteſting, and of the journey, if there have been any.

If a bill of exchange, payable to the bearer or order, come to be proteſted, the re-exchange is only due upon the drawer for the place where the remittance is made; not for thoſe places where it may have been negotiated: at leaſt, the drawer has a right to be refunded his re-exchange for thoſe places, by the indorſer.

Indeed, the re-exchange is due from the drawer upon all places where a power of negotiation is given by the bill, and upon all others, if the power of negotiating be indefinite.

Laſtly,

Laſtly, the intereſt of the re-exchange, of the expences of the proteſt, and the journey, are only due from the day of the demand.

It is ſuppoſed to be the Gibelins, driven out of Italy by the faction of the Guelphs, and ſheltered at Amſterdam, who firſt eſtabliſhed the cuſtom of re-exchange; on pretence of the intereſts, damages, and expences they underwent, when the bills given them for the effects they had been obliged to abandon, were not accepted, but came to be proteſted.

REFE. A long meaſure uſed at Madagaſcar, being much of the nature of the European fathom.

REFINING. The art or act of purifying a thing, or of rendering it finer, clearer, and purer; being chiefly uſed in ſpeaking of metals, ſugar, and ſalt.

The refining of gold is performed three ways; either with antimony, with ſublimate of mercury, or with aqua-fortis; which laſt method, much the moſt uſual and leaſt dangerous of the three, is called departing or parting. See *Gold*, and *Departing*.

REFINING *of gold with antimony.* They here uſe a wind furnace, with an ordinary crucible, of a ſize anſwerable to the quantity of gold to be refined; obſerving, that the gold and antimony together do not above half fill it.

The gold being melted in the crucible, the antimony is thrown in it, in powder. The proportion of the mineral to the metals, is about a pound to eight ounces, if the gold be between 22 and 16 carats fine: if it be beneath 16 carats, they uſe about five quarters of a pound to eight ounces: the coarſer the gold, ſtill the more antimony is required.

As ſoon as the antimony is in the crucible, it is covered up; and after charging the furnace with charcoal, they put on its head or cover; which ſtands till ſuch time as the crucible is left quite bare; then the head being taken off, and the crucible left to cool in the furnace itſelf, till ſuch time as it may be taken out by the hand, they break it, to get out the bottom or culot, which is a maſs of fine gold remaining at the bottom, with the fæces of the antimony, the ſilver and copper alloy, and ſometimes little particles of gold itſelf over it.

Tho' the gold thus prepared is very pure, yet the antimony gives it ſuch a harſh brittle quality, that it ceaſes to be ductile; and muſt be ſoftened by fuſion with ſalt-petre and borax, to bring it to itſelf.

For this operation they prepare what they call a dry coppel; that is, a coppel made of crucible earth, which does not imbibe like the coppels made of aſhes.

The coppel being ſufficiently heated in the refining furnace, they put the gold in it, and cover it up with charcoal.

As ſoon as the gold is diſſolved, which is very ſoon, by reaſon of the remains of the antimony, they blow it with the bellows to drive the mineral entirely away, which now goes off in ſmoak; adding to it as ſoon as the fumes ceaſe, a little ſalt-petre and borax, in powder, which collect the impurities remaining upon the diſſolution, and fix the gold in the coppel, in form of a plate.

The gold being taken out of the coppel, and melted a-freſh in a crucible, with an addition of two ounces of ſalt-petre, and as much borax in powder, to each 8 ounces of gold, as ſoon as it ceaſes to fume, they caſt it into an ingot, which upon trial is found 23 carats twenty-ſix thirty-ſeconds fine.

As to the particles of gold which may have been left behind with the alloy in the fæces of the antimony, they get them out by a dry-coppel, with the ſame meltings and ingredients as are uſed in ſoftening the former. And when they are aſſured, by the eſſay, of the ſhare of gold that matter contains, they refine it to ſeparate the copper; and afterwards make the depart.

As to the gold which may be left ſticking to the dry coppels, they get it out by breaking, and pulveriſing the crucibles, and by repeated lotions of the powder thereof in ſeveral waters.

REFINING *of gold by means of ſublimate of mercury.* The proceſs is begun like that with antimony; being in the ſame furnace, with the ſame coal, the ſame fire, and the ſame crucibles.

The gold being melted in the crucible, they caſt in the ſublimate, not pulveriſed, but only broke in pieces. As to the proportion, to 8 ounces of gold to be refined they put an ounce, or ounce and half, or even two ounces, if the gold be of 22 carats; three ounces, if 20 carats; and 4 or 6 ounces, if it only be from 18 to 20 carats. In which laſt caſe, they part the ſublimate into two, putting half at a time, with the gold, into a new crucible; which, when the operation is over, leaves the gold from 18 to 23 carats, according to its fineneſs before. After this they raiſe it farther by the fire, as follows.

The broken ſublimate being put into the crucible with the melted gold, the crucible is immediately covered up to ſmother the mineral: which done, the furnace is filled with charcoal, and the head put on. A quarter of an hour after, they take off the head, lay the crucible bare, and give the gold air, that is, blow off all the aſhes, and other impurities that may be floating on the liquid gold with a pair of bellows, the nozzle whereof is crooked. This they repeat again and again, till all the impurities of the gold being carried off, by virtue of the ſublimate, it is found of a bright glittering colour: after which it is taken out of the crucible, and the gold caſt into an ingot.

The method of refining by ſublimate is both more complete, and cheaper than that by antimony; but they are both exceedingly dangerous, by reaſon of their ſulphurous and arſenical exhalations: the only difference in their malignity conſiſting in this, that the poiſon of the antimony is flower than that of the ſublimate. See *Mercury*.

Gold may alſo be refined with lead and aſhes; but this is a method ſeldom uſed, excepting in aſſays. See *Aſſay*.

REFINING *of ſilver.* There are two ways of refining ſilver, the one with lead, the other with ſalt-petre. The beſt and cheapeſt is that with lead; tho' that with ſalt-petre ſtill obtains in many places, for want of workmen who underſtand the proceſs of the latter. See *Silver*.

Refining with ſalt-petre is performed in a wind-furnace. The ſilver refined having been reduced into grains, of the ſize of little peas, by pouring it, when melted, into a tub of common water, it is heated over again in a boiler. After this, they put it in a crucible, and along with it, to every eight ounces of metal two of ſalt-petre. The crucible is now covered with an earthen lid in form of a dome, exactly luted; which lid, however, is to have a little aperture in the middle.

The crucible being put in the furnace, and covered with charcoal, which is only to be lighted by degrees, at length they give it the full force of the fire to put the metal in a perfect fuſion. This they repeat three times ſucceſſively at an interval of a quarter of an hour.

After the third fire, they uncover the furnace, to let the crucible cool; and at length break it, to get out the ſilver which is found in a button or culot; the bottom where is very fine ſilver; and the top mixed with the fæces of the ſalt-petre, the alloy of the ſilver, and even ſome particles of the fine ſilver.

The culot being ſeparated from the impurities, is melted in a new crucible; charcoal duſt, being thrown into the diſſolution, and the whole briſkly worked together. Then the crucible being covered up again, and the furnace charged with coal, a ſecond fire is given it.

This done, the aſhes and other impurities are blown from the top of the metal, till it appear as clear as a looking-glaſs; and then an ounce of borax broke in pieces is thrown in.

Laſtly, the crucible being covered up again, they give the laſt fire; after which, it is caſt into ingots, eleven penny-weights, and ſixteen grains fine.

To recover the ſilver that may be left in the fæces, or ſcoria, they pound them, and give them repeated lotions in freſh waters.

REFINING *of copper*, is only performed by giving the mineral matter ſeveral lotions before the melting it; and then giving it ſeveral repeated fuſions. See *Copper*.

REFINING *of tin*, is performed much after the ſame manner as that of copper. See *Tin*.

Tho' two kinds of fineneſs of this metal may be diſtinguiſhed: the one ariſing from its fuſion; that tin taken

out of the furnace wherein it is melted, being always purer than that towards the bottom.

The other kind of fineneſs, is that given the tin by adding ſome other mineral to it, to render it more ſonorous, as well as brighter: ſuch is tin of antimony, pewter, &c.

REFINING *of iron*, begins likewiſe by the melting it. See *Iron*.

The greater degree of fuſion this mineral has, the more the metal is purified; but this firſt fuſion is not ſufficient. To render the iron malleable, and fit to endure the file, it muſt be melted a ſecond time; then forged and beaten a long time with heavy hammers, wrought by water; afterwards heated in the fire, and at laſt reduced on the anvil into bars of ſeveral thickneſſes: but the more the iron is heated in the fire, and the more it is beaten, whether hot or cold, the finer it becomes.

Steel is only iron refined to a great degree by heating it, with ſome other ingredients which cloſe up the pores, and ſoften the grain. See *Steel*.

REFINING *of lead*, is performed like that of moſt other imperfect metals, by frequent meltings, ſtill ſcumming it before it is cold, caſting in tallow, and other kinds of fat. They alſo make aſſays of lead; not to refine it, but to ſee if it is pure, and without mixture of any other metal. See *Lead*.

REFINING *of ſugar*. The operation is begun by ſeveral ſtrong lixiviums or lyes of lime-water, and eggs ſhells all mixed and beaten together.

The firſt refining is performed in the Caribbees, Jamaica, and other places where the ſugar canes are cultivated; and only ſerves for the brown and coarſe ſugar.

When theſe are imported into Europe, the ſugar-bakers take them up, and refine them farther, by a ſecond operation, or rather a repetition of the firſt.

To render the ſugar very fine, fit for confections, they uſually give it a third refining; wherein they only uſe the whites of eggs and their ſhells beaten together, and thrown into the melted ſugar, which is called clarifying the ſugar. See *Sugar*.

REFINING *of ſalt-petre*. The ſalt being put in an earthen or iron veſſel, as much ſpring water is poured on as is ſufficient to diſſolve it. The veſſel is then put over a gentle fire, and as ſoon as the water begins to boil, alum-powder is thrown into it: the proportion is one pound of alum to 128 pounds of ſalt-petre; and a little vinegar is added. As it boils the ſcum is to be taken off; and thus it is refined. See *Salt-petre*.

REFLUX *of the ſea*. The ebbing of the water, or its return from the ſhore; it is thus called, as being the oppoſite motion to the flood or flux. See *Flux* and *Tide*.

REFRACTION, in commerce, is a term ſometimes uſed by merchants, where there has been an overſight in an accompt, to the prejudice of a perſon, who thereupon demands reſtitution of ſo much, added or omitted by miſtake. Thus one tradeſman ſays to another. "You muſt make me a refraction of five pounds forgot in your accompt; or I will reduct or make you a refraction of 30 s. charged inadvertently in my bill."

REGGIO. A port-town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, and further Calabria, ſituated in 15 deg. 50 min. of E. lon. and 38 deg. 28 min. of N. lat. on the ſtreight of Meſſina, oppoſite to Meſſina in Sicily. See *Italy*.

REGISTER *Ships*, or *Ships of Regiſter*, in commerce, are veſſels, to which the King of Spain, or the council of the Indies, grant permiſſion to go and traffic in the ports of the Spaniſh Weſt Indies: which are ſo called, becauſe the ſhips are to be regiſtered before they ſet ſail from Cadiz, which is the place where they uſually load for Buenos Ayres.

Theſe veſſels, by the tenor of the cedula, or permit, are not to exceed three hundred ton: but there is that good underſtanding between the merchants and the council of the Indies, that ſhips of five hundred ton frequently paſs un-noted.

The permiſſions coſt thirty thouſand pieces of eight each, or 5375 l. ſterling: but were they to coſt a hundred thouſand, the merchants would be gainers, and the King of Spain a loſer. For tho' the quantity and quality of the merchandiſes on board are always expreſſed; yet, by by force of preſents, the officers here, and in the Indies, allow them to load and unload vaſtly more than the permiſſion expreſſes.

Veſſels, whoſe certificate only mentions twelve thouſand ſkins, and a hundred thouſand pieces of eight, have been known to have on board above four millions in gold and ſilver; twenty ſix thouſand ſkins, &c. ſo that the King of Spain's fifth, and his other dues, were almoſt nothing to what they ſhould be.

Add to this, that in the year 1702, 1703, &c. theſe regiſter veſſels, countenancing and backing each other, ſold their commodities for above three hundred *per cent.* profit: a hat being ſold for 18 pieces of eight, or 3 l. 4 s. 6 d. ſterling; an ell of ordinary cloth for 12 pieces of eight, or 1 l. 7 s. ſterling, &c.

REGRATOR. See *Foreſtalling*.

REGULUS, in chemiſtry, denotes the fineſt and pureſt part of a metal, or mineral, which ſinks or precipitates to the bottom of the crucible or furnace, in melting the mineral or ore.

To procure the regulus, that is, the mercurial parts of metals, flux powders are commonly uſed; as nitre, tartar, &c. which purge the ſulphurous part adhering to the metal, by attracting and abſorbing it to themſelves.

Regulus is principally uſed for that of antimony, which is a ponderous metallic powder, that, by fuſing ſome of the mineral, in its crude ſtate, ſinks to the bottom, leaving the ſcoria or impurities a-top. See *Antimony*.

The alchemiſts will have this matter called regulus, that is little king, as being the firſt born of the royal metallic blood; which is really a ſon; but not a perfect man, or not yet a perfect metal for want of time and proper nouriſhment.

Antimony purified by ſimple fuſion, is called regulus of antimony; or regulus antimonii philoſophorum. But the more common way of reducing it into a regulus, is with the addition of flux powder, as tartar, and nitre.

The ſcoria found at the top of this regulus, is violently emetic, as well as the regulus itſelf, whereof if cups, or drinking veſſels be caſt, the wine put into them will become vomitive.

Of this regulus, caſt in moulds, are made thoſe commonly called the antimonial pills, weighing about 10 grains each; one of which being ſwallowed will operate conſiderably both by vomit and ſtool.

Theſe pills having thus performed their office, and been diſcharged the body, will ſerve the ſame purpoſe again and again; whence they have obtained the name of perpetual pills. The virtue of this regulus is not however inexhauſtible, as has been imagined: for by repeated infuſions in wine, tho' the liquor is made violently emetic at firſt, yet by degrees it loſes its force, and at length ceaſes to be vomitive.

Martial REGULUS *of antimony*, is a mixture of little bits of iron, as the nails of horſes ſhoes, melted with the regulus.

In this operation, the iron diſſolving and abſorbing the ſulphurous parts of the antimony, more ſtrongly than the fluxes in the former caſe, and turning it into a crocus; the antimony is hereby brought to a greater degree of purity, and rendered more efficacious than in the common regulus.

This regulus is ſometimes farther purified by repeated fuſions and detonations, with the addition of freſh antimony, and more nitre alternately: in which caſe it becomes regulus antimonii ſtellatus, or ſtarry regulus of antimony.

REGULUS *of Arſenic*. See *Arſenic*.

REILBON. A kind of madder, brought from Chili in South America: its leaf is much like that of the European madder, except that it is ſomewhat ſmaller; and it is from the root of the plant, boiled in water, that the reddiſh colour is extracted.

REIMBURSEMENT, in commerce, the act of repaying or returning what monies a perſon had received by way of advance; or what another has diſburſed or paid for him. A perſon who gives a bill of exchange in payment, is to reimburſe it, if it comes to be proteſted, for want of being accepted or paid. See *Bill* and *Proteſt*.

REIMURSING, is alſo uſed for paying the price a commodity coſts its owner. Thus, one perſon ſays that another has ſurrendered to him the lot of merchandiſe adjudged to him at the ſale of London, by the directors of the Eaſt India company, on condition of reimburſing the price of the purchaſe, with the expences of carriage, and a profit of 5 *per cent.*

RELAY, in tapeſtry, is an opening left in a piece of tapeſtry, where the colours of figures are to be changed; becauſe on thoſe occaſions the workmen are changed; or elſe the places are left to be filled up till the reſt of the work is done. See *Tapeſtry.*

RELEASE, is a term uſed in law for a deed, or inſtrument, by which actions, demands, titles, eſtates, &c. are ſometimes extinguiſhed, annulled, tranſmitted, abridged, or enlarged; alſo a freeing, or ſetting at liberty from priſon, or all actions, or claims whatever.

REMIT, in commerce, or to remit a ſum of money, bill, or the like, is to ſend a ſum of money, &c. See *Remittance.*

To remit, is alſo uſed among bankers for what is accuſtomed to be given a banker, or as it were diſcounted with him, for his giving a bill of exchange. See *Exchange.*

To remit, is likewiſe to give up a part of a perſon's due to a debtor: thus a perſon ſays he will remit another a fourth part of what he owes, on condition of paying him the reſt in hand.

REMITTANCE, in commerce, is the traffic, or return, of money from one place to another, by bills of exchange, orders, or the like. See *Commerce* and *Exchange.*

A remittance is properly a bill of exchange, or the like, ſent to a correſpondent, and the content thereof to be received by him, of ſome other perſon on whom it is drawn. Thus it is ſaid, ſuch a perſon has remitted, or made a remittance of five thouſand pounds in bank notes, to his correſpondent at London: or a perſon ſays he will remit another, or make him a remittance of five hundred crowns in three bills of exchange, drawn on a particular banker in a particular city, and payable at ſight.

By means of theſe remittances, large ſums of money are returned from one city to another, without danger, and without carriage.

In London it is eaſy getting remittances upon any city in the world: but in the country it is more difficult. Nor are remittances eaſily had upon Copenhagen. See *Exchange.*

REMITTANCE, is alſo uſed in ſpeaking of the payment of a bill of exchange: thus, I have received an hundred piſtoles on your remittance. Mr. N. banker in your city, ſhould have paid two hundred crowns on my remittance.

REMITTANCE, likewiſe denotes the due or fee allowed the banker, both of his wages, and the different value of the ſpecies, in the place where you pay the money, and where he remits it.

Book of REMITTANCE. See *Book*-keeping.

RENT. A ſum of money, or other conſideration, iſſuing yearly out of lands or tenements, alienated on that condition.

The rents of all lands in England and Wales appear, by the computations of Dr. Davenant and Mr. King from the land tax, to be nearly ten millions *per annum*; thoſe of the houſes not let with the lands, two millions more; and thoſe of all other hereditaments two millions more: in all fourteen millions.

RENTERING, and *Finedrawing*, in the manufactories, the ſewing of two pieces of cloth, edge to edge, without doubling them; ſo as that the ſeam ſcarce appears at all: hence alſo called fine-drawing. See *Fine*-drawing.

Serges, &c. are to be ſewed; cloths fine-drawn. It is ſaid of the fine-drawers in the Eaſt Indies, that if a perſon tears a piece of fine muſlin, and gives it one of them to mend, it ſhall be impoſſible for him to diſcover the place where it is rejoined, even though he had made a mark to know it by.

The dexterity of the fine-drawers in England, though inferior to that above mentioned, is nevertheleſs ſuch, as puts them in a condition to defraud the King, by ſewing a head or ſlip of Engliſh cloth on a piece of Dutch,

Spaniſh, or other foreign cloth; or a ſlip of foreign cloth on a piece of Engliſh, ſo as to paſs the whole as of a piece and by that means avoid the duties, penalties, &c.

To renter in tapeſtry, is to work new warp into a piece of tapeſtry damaged, eaten by the rats, &c. and on the warp to reſtore the ancient pattern, or deſign. The warp is to be of woollen, not linen: and among the titles of the French tapeſtry-makers, is included that of renterers.

RENTERING, or rather *Finedrawing*, is particularly uſed for a rent or hole happening in dreſſing or preparing of piece of cloth, artfully ſewed up, or mended with ſilk. All fine drawings are reputed defects or blemiſhes; and ought to be allowed for in the price of the piece. Hence it has been eſtabliſhed as a rule, which is certainly founded on natural equity, that every manufacturer ſhould mark the fine drawings of his cloths with a piece of packthread tied to the liſt; to direct the draper to the ſpot: and that the draper appriſe the taylor, or other perſon, to whom he ſells it, of the ſame; that he may not come to damage in the cutting; there being inſtances of drapers condemned to take back their cloth, when cut to pieces, for omitting to mention the fine drawings, and other flaws.

On this occaſion M. Savary extolls the procedure of an Engliſh merchant, who ſending a piece of cloth damaged in one ſpot, to his correſpondent at Paris, put a piece of gold in the damaged place, to make up the damage. But as this example is perhaps the only one of its kind, that author recommends it to the merchant or draper to unfold all the pieces entirely, as they come to him, to diſcover the fine drawings and other flaws, in order to make the clothier accountable for them.

REODER. A liquid meaſure uſed in Germany, being two feoders and a half. See *Feoder.*

REPACKING. The packings of goods over again.

REPACKED *Herrings.* See *Herring.*

REPAIRERS. Artificers who chaſe figures, and beautify ſword-hilts.

REPAYMENT. See *Drawback.*

REPEATING *watches.* See *Watch.*

REPRISALS, or *Reprizals*, in the civil law, a right which princes have to retake from their enemies, ſuch things as they unjuſtly detain from them; or other things equivalent thereto.

When a place is taken, or held from a prince, he ſeizes another by way of repriſal. Sometimes he takes more of the oppoſite party, by right of repriſals.

REPRISALS, is alſo uſed for a letter, or permiſſion, which a prince ſometimes gives a ſubject, upon a full cognizance of the cauſe; authoriſing him to retake from the firſt perſons he meets with, of the oppoſite party, as many effects as make an equivalent to what have been violently forced from him; and for which the oppoſite prince has refuſed to do him juſtice.

Theſe permiſſions are alſo called letters of mark, or marque, and in the ſtatute 27th Edw. III. law of marque; in regard a perſon, denied juſtice in another man's territory redreſſes himſelf by goods belonging to men in that territory. See *Marque.*

REPRISE, or *Reprize*, in the commerce by ſea. A merchant ſhip which having been taken by a corſair, privateer, or other enemy, is retook or recovered by a veſſel of the contrary party; the word being French, and ſignifies a reſumption, or re taking. See *Prize.*

When a veſſel thus retaken has been 24 hours in the hands of the enemy, it is deemed a lawful prize. If the repriſe have been made within 24 hours, the veſſel is to be reſtored to the proprietor, with every thing therein, upon his allowing one third to the veſſel who made the repriſe.

If the repriſe have been abandoned by the enemy, either in a tempeſt, or from any other cauſe, before it have been led into any port, it is to be reſtored to the proprietor.

Letter of REQUEST. See *Marque.*

RESIDENT. A public miniſter, who manages the public affairs of one country, in the court of a prince, or ſtate of another.

Thus the King of England has reſidents at the courts of the electors, and other princes of Germany, and Italy: at the republic of Genoa and Lucca: and they, reciprocally, have reſidents at the court of Great Britain. Reſidents are a claſs of public miniſters inferior to ambaſſadors and envoys; but like them are under the protection of the law of nations. See *Ambaſſador*.

RESIN. A fat, viſcid, ſulphurous juice, oozing either ſpontaneouſly, or by inciſion, from ſeveral kinds of trees, particularly the pine and fir.

Camphor is a kind of reſin; and maſtic is the reſin of the lentiſk: but the beſt of all the claſs of reſins is turpentine; and the coarſeſt is what is commonly called roſin. See *Roſin*.

Reſin is properly a juice of the bark only: but Boerhaave will have it to be the oil of the bark farther inſpiſſated by the heat of the ſun, ſo as to become friable: he adds, that it may be produced from any vegetable oil, by boiling it much and long.

If turpentine be ſet over a gentle fire, it firſt diſſolves and becomes an oil, then a balſam, then pitch, and then roſin; in which ſtate it is friable in the cold, fuſible by fire, and inflamable and combuſtible, as alſo diſſoluble in ſpirit of wine, but not in water, which are the characters of a reſin.

There are two kinds of reſins; the one liquid, the other dry and hard. The firſt is the natural reſin as it flows from the tree: the ſecond only differs from the firſt in that it is condenſed by the heat of the ſun, or by that of a culinary fire.

Reſins will incorporate with oil, or rectified ſpirits; but not with an aqueous menſtruum.

The difference between reſins and gums conſiſts in this; that reſins are more ſulphurous, and gums more aqueous; ſo that the firſt diſſolve in oil or ſpirit of wine, and the laſt in water. See *Gum*.

M. Tournefort makes a kind of intermediate claſs of vegetable juices, which he calls gum-reſins; that diſſolve partly in ſpirit of wine, partly in water; ſuch as Galbanum, bdellium, opopanax, ſagapenum, &c.

The reſins of ſeveral vegetables which abound with reſinous particles, but not ſo as to yield any by inciſion, as jalap, benzoin, ſcammony, turbith, &c. are thus obtained. The vegetable being groſsly powdered, is put into a matraſs, and rectified ſpirits of wine poured on it, to the height of four fingers above the matter: then the neck of another matraſs being luted into the former, to make a double veſſel, the matter is digeſted three or four days in a ſand heat, till it has given a good tincture to the ſpirit of wine. Then the diſſolution is filtrated, and two thirds of the clear liquor evaporated off, and the remainder poured into a large veſſel of water, where it turns into a kind of milk, whence the reſin, in time, precipitates to the bottom in a white powder. This, when waſhed and dried in the ſun, grows into the ordinary conſiſtence of a reſin.

RESINE. A term in France for the evaporated juice of the grape, coagulated in the cold; in which ſtate it is uſed as a moiſt ſugar.

RESPITE. *Letters of Reſpite*, or *Credit*, are inſtruments anciently granted by ſovereign princes to honeſt, but unfortunate debtors, to ſcreen them from their too rigorous creditors. See *Marque*, and *Letter*.

Theſe ſtill obtain in France; being firſt introduced by Pope Urban II. in favour of the Croiſés, or perſons who went to the holy war.

RESTAUR, *Reſtor*, in ancient cuſtoms, the remedy or recourſe which aſſurers have againſt each other, according to the date of their inſurances; or againſt the maſters, if the average ariſe through their default, as through ill loading, want of caulking, or want of having the veſſel tight. See *Inſurance*.

RESTITUTION. See *Marque*.

RETAIL, in commerce, the buying of goods in the great, or by wholeſale, and ſelling them out again in ſmall parcels. See *Commerce* and *Merchant*.

REVE, in ancient cuſtoms, a duty or impoſition on merchandiſes imported. See *Duty* and *Cuſtom*.

REVEL. A port-town of Livonia, in the diviſion of Eſtonia, or Eaſt-land, ſituated at the ſouth entrance of the gulph of Finland, in 24 deg. of E. lon. and 59 deg. of N. lat. 140 miles N. of Riga, and 110 miles W. of Narva. See *Ruſſia*.

REVENUE. The yearly income that any perſon receives for the ſupport of himſelf and family: but it is more particularly applied to the public taxes. The certain revenues of the King of England were anciently greater than thoſe of any king in Europe; and, till the time of the civil wars, they enjoyed in domains and fee-farm rents, almoſt enough to diſcharge all the ordinary expences of the crown, without any tax or impoſition on the ſubject. See *Tax*, *Cuſtoms*, *Duty*, and *Exciſe*.

Mr. Maddox, in his hiſtory of the exchequer, gives an account of the different branches of the ancient revenue of the crown, from the Norman conqueſt. See *Exchequer*.

Upon the reſtoration, the crown revenues being found much alienated, and the crown charges increaſed; the parliament ſettled a yearly revenue of 1,200.000 l. upon the King; ſo much as the former crown revenue fell ſhort of that ſum, being to be raiſed upon goods exported and imported, upon liquors and fire-hearths.

At the death of King Charles II. the revenue amounted to 1,800,200 l. *per annum*. In King James the ſecond's time it was raiſed to 2,000,000 l. which was computed to be one tenth of the revenues of the whole kingdom.

At the ſame time the revenues of the King of France were computed at ſeven millions ſterling, and thoſe of the ſtates of Holland at three millions.

The ſeveral ſpecies of taxes in Great Britain are as follows:

The land tax, at 2 s. in the pound	*L.*	1,000,000
Malt-tax — —		700,000
Cuſtoms and exciſe —		5,000,000
Stamp-duties, *uncertain*.		
Window-tax, coaches and chairs, hawkers and pedlars —		1,000,000

Free REVENUE, is the revenue which is not mortgaged for the payment of any old debt, being the land-tax and the malt-tax; the former of which, at 2 s. in the pound, is generally computed at a million a year, and the latter at 700,000 l. but as there may be a deficiency in each, both of them may be computed at 1,600,000 l. a year; and though the civil liſt revenue is generally computed at a million a year, it may be reckoned at 900 000 l. which makes in the whole 2,500,000 l. free revenue yearly: but though two millions may be ſufficient to defray all the expences of government, the nation has run prodigiouſly in debt, and taxes have been impoſed which lie heavy on the merchant, the tradeſman, the manufacturer, the farmer, and the labourer. See National *Debt*.

REVERSION, in law, is defined by Coke, a returning of lands, &c. into the poſſeſſion of the donor, or his heirs, after the expiration of the term for which they were given or granted to another. The word has a double acceptation: 1. *Jus revertendi cum ſtatus poſſeſſionis defecerit*. 2. When the poſſeſſion and eſtate, which was parted with for a time, ceaſes, and is determined in the perſon of the alienees, aſſignees, grantees, or their heirs, or effectually returns to the donor, his heirs or aſſigns, whence it was derived.

The difference between a reverſion and a remainder conſiſts in this, that a remainder is general, and may remain or belong to any man, but him that grants or conveys the land: whereas a reverſion is to himſelf from whom the conveyance of the land proceeded, and is commonly perpetual as to his heirs alſo; and yet ſometimes reverſion is confounded with remainder.

For the values of reverſions, or eſtates in reverſion, the little book of tables for renewing and purchaſing college and church leaſes, printed at Cambridge in 1700, and recommended by Sir Iſaac Newton, furniſhes a very uſeful table, which ſhews what one pound due at the end of any number of years to come, not exceeding forty, is worth in ready money at 5, 6, 7, 8, and 10 *per cent. per annum*.

Suppoſe it required, what 1 l. due a year hence is worth in

in ready money? To find this by the common operations, the method is; let 100 l. with the intereſt of a year added to it, be the firſt term in the rule of three, 100 l. the ſecond, and 1 l. the third; for as 1 l. with its intereſt going on to the end of the year, is to a bare 100 then due; ſo muſt 1 l. with its growing intereſt, be to the decreaſe of 1 l. at the year's end: then, at 6 l. and 10 l. *per cent.* the work will ſtand thus:

As, 106 . 100 : : 1 — 0,9433071, or 18 s. $10\frac{1}{4}$ d.
110 . 100 : : 1 — 90909, or 18 s. 2 d.

Whence it appears, that 1 l. due a year hence, at 6 l. *per cent.* is worth 18 s. $10\frac{1}{4}$ d. and at 10 *per cent.* 18 s. 2 d. ſo that 18 s. $10\frac{1}{4}$ d. ready money is worth 20 s. to be paid a year hence at 6 *per cent.* and 18 s. 2 d. ready money is worth 20 s. to be paid a year hence at 10 *per cent.* See *Intereſt.*

But the following table ſhortens the work. To find by it how to renew a leaſe of 21 years, that has but one year lapſed, at the rate of 10 *per cent.* look into the ſame, and under the rate of intereſt mentioned, and right againſt 21 years, in the common angle of meeting you have 2 s. $8\frac{1}{2}$ d. which is the fine to be paid to renew one year lapſed in the ſaid leaſe, ſuppoſing the rent to be 1 l. *per annum*: for it is 21 years before the leaſe is completed, in which time the fine of 2 s. $8\frac{1}{2}$ d. will amount to 20 s. and therefore, by paying that fine, the leaſe may fairly be made up again.

Suppoſe, again, an eſtate in fee-ſimple, whoſe real value is 100 l. but mortgaged, or leaſed out, for 20 years; what is the reverſion of it now worth at 6 d. *per cent.* intereſt? By the table you find, that 1 l. to be paid 20 years hence is worth but 6 s. $2\frac{2}{3}$ d. and multiplying that with 100, you will find 100 times 6 s. is 30 l. 100 times 2 or 200 d. makes 16 s. 8 d. and 100 times 3-4ths, or 300 q. makes 6 s. 3 d. the ſum 31 l. 2 s. 11 d. which is the preſent value of 100 l. to be paid 20 years hence.

A TABLE of reverſions, ſhewing what 1 *l. due any number of years hence, under* 41, *is worth in ready money at* 5, 6, 7, 8, *and* 10 per cent.

Years.	5 per cent.			6 per cent.			7 per cent.			8 per cent.			10 per cent.		
	s.	d.	q.	s.	d.	q.	s.	d.	q.	s.	d.	q.	s.	d.	q.
1	19	0	2	18	10	1	18	8	0	18	6	0	18	2	0
2	18	1	2	17	9	1	17	5	2	17	1	3	16	6	1
3	17	3	1	16	9	2	16	3	3	15	10	1	15	0	3
4	16	5	1	15	10	0	15	3	0	14	8	1	13	8	0
5	15	8	0	14	11	1	14	3	1	13	7	1	12	5	0
6	14	11	0	14	1	0	13	4	0	12	7	0	11	3	3
7	14	2	2	13	3	2	12	5	1	11	8	0	10	3	0
8	13	6	1	12	6	2	11	7	2	10	9	2	9	4	0
9	12	10	2	11	10	0	10	10	2	10	0	0	8	5	3
10	12	3	1	11	2	0	10	2	0	9	3	0	7	8	2
11	11	8	0	10	6	1	9	6	0	8	6	3	7	0	0
12	11	1	2	9	11	1	8	10	2	7	11	1	6	4	2
13	10	7	1	9	4	2	8	3	2	7	4	0	5	9	2
14	10	1	0	8	10	0	7	9	0	6	9	2	5	3	0
15	9	7	2	8	4	0	7	3	0	6	3	2	4	9	1
16	9	2	0	7	10	2	6	9	1	5	10	0	4	4	1
17	8	1	2	7	5	0	6	4	0	5	4	3	3	11	1
18	8	4	0	7	0	0	5	11	0	5	0	0	3	7	0
19	7	11	0	6	7	0	5	6	1	4	7	1	3	3	0
20	7	6	1	6	2	3	5	2	0	4	3	2	2	11	2
21	7	2	0	5	10	2	4	10	0	3	11	3	2	8	2
22	6	10	0	5	6	2	4	6	0	3	8	0	2	5	2
23	6	6	0	5	3	0	4	2	2	3	4	3	2	2	3
24	6	2	1	4	11	1	3	11	1	3	1	3	2	0	1
25	5	10	3	4	8	0	3	8	1	2	11	0	1	10	0
26	5	7	1	4	4	3	3	5	1	2	8	1	1	8	0
27	5	4	1	4	1	3	3	2	2	2	6	0	1	6	1
28	5	1	0	3	10	3	3	0	0	2	3	3	1	4	2
29	4	10	1	3	8	1	2	9	2	2	1	3	1	3	0
30	4	7	2	3	6	1	2	7	2	1	11	3	1	1	3
31	4	5	1	3	3	1	2	5	1	1	10	0	1	1	0
32	4	2	1	3	0	2	2	3	2	1	8	1	0	11	1
33	4	0	0	2	10	1	2	1	2	1	6	3	0	10	1
34	3	9	2	2	8	3	2	0	0	1	5	1	0	9	1
35	3	7	2	2	6	2	1	10	2	1	4	0	0	8	1
36	3	5	1	2	5	1	1	9	0	1	3	0	0	7	3
37	3	3	1	2	3	2	1	7	2	1	2	0	0	7	0
38	3	1	2	2	2	0	1	6	2	1	1	0	0	6	1
39	2	11	3	2	0	0	1	5	0	1	0	0	0	5	3
40	2	10	0	1	11	0	1	4	0	0	11	0	0	5	1

EZAL. A corn-measure, used in Alsace, and in some parts of the neighbouring provinces.
At Brisac the rezal of wheat weighs 164 lb. avoirdupois weight, of maslin-corn 162, and of rye 158.
At Colmar the rezal of wheat weighs 160 lb. of maslin-corn 156, of rye 154.
At Sceleſtat, of wheat 168, of maslin-corn 166, of rye 164.
At St. Marina, of wheat 178, of maslin-corn 175, of rye 176.
At Straſburg, of wheat 160, of maslin-corn and rye as much, and of oats 104.
At Haguenau, of wheat 160, of maslin-corn 160, of rye 155, and of oats 112.
At Weiſſenburg, of wheat 164, of maslin-corn 162, of rye 159, and of oats 104.
At Liſtemberg, of wheat 184, of maslin-corn 183, of rye 182, and of oats 104.
At Nancy, of wheat 174, of maslin-corn 173, of rye 172, and of oats 144.
At Longwy the rezal of Nancy is used, but heavier by two pounds.
At Saverna, of wheat 170, of maslin-corn 165, of rye 160.
At Hamingue, of wheat 163, of maslin-corn 160, and of rye 159.

RHAA. A name given by the inhabitants of Madagascar to the tree which produces the gum called *dragons blood*.

RHAPONTICUM. A medicinal root, in form resembling rhubarb, and nearly of the same virtues; whence it is sometimes called Turkish rhubarb.
It is frequently mixed with rhubarb by those who send that drug into Europe: but they are distinguished by this, that the rhubarb is generally in roundish pieces, the internal streaks or lines whereof run transverse; and rhaponticum in longish pieces, having its streaks running lengthways: besides, that rhaponticum chewed in the mouth leaves a viscidity behind it, which rhubarb does not. See *Rhubarb*.
The scarcity of the rhaponticum of the Levant occasions the mountain-rhaponticum, or monks rhubarb, to be frequently substituted for it; which is a wild sort of lapathum, by botanists called *alpinum:* but they are distinguished by this, that the former is yellow without, and reddish within; the latter being blackish without, and yellow within.
Dr. Quincy, however, confounds the two, when he says, the rhaponticum grows plentifully in England; and that it is only used as an alterative, and does not come up to a cathartic. It is certain, what now obtains in the shops under the name of rhaponticum, is no other than the mountain rhapontic, or monks rhubarb, and is much inferior in virtue to the rhaponticum verum.

RHE, or *Ree*. A little island in the bay of Biscay, near the coast of Aunis, in France, situated in 1 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 46 deg. 14 min. of N. lat. 7 miles west of Rochelle.

RHINE *Lower Circle*, or the *Lower Circle of the Rhine*, is one of the circles of Germany; consisting of the palatinate of the Rhine, and the three ecclesiastical electorates, namely, those of Mentz, Triers, and Cologn; all of which lie upon the river Rhine. See *Germany*.

RHINE *River*, rises in the country of the Grisons in Switzerland; and running north by Coire, continues its course till it forms a lake, called the *lake of Constance*; from whence it turns west, passing by the cities of Constance and Schaffhausen; and having visited Basil, runs from thence directly north, dividing Suabia from Alsace; it then runs into the Palatinate; and receiving the Neckar, the Maine, and the Moselle; continues its course north by Mentz, Coblentz, and Cologn, entering the Netherlands at Skenkinchans; after which it is divided into several channels, the two largest whereof obtain the name of the Lech and the Waal; which running west through the United Provinces, discharge themselves into the German sea below Rotterdam; the ancient channel of the Rhine, which fell into the sea a little to the west of Leyden, being entirely choaked up and lost.

RHINE *Upper*, or the *Circle of the Upper Rhine*, consisted of the landgravate of Alsace, and the landgravate of Hesse, comprehending the Wetteraw; but now only Hesse can be accounted a part of Germany; France having at present united Alsace to that kingdom. See *France*, and *Germany*.

RHODES. An island of Asiatic Turky, situated in the Mediterranean, in 28 deg. of E. lon. and between 36 and 37 of N. lat. See *Turkish* Islands.
The antient Rhodians were a powerful people at sea, and instituted an excellent system of maritime laws; which were afterwards adopted by the Romans, and by Richard I. of England, when he made the laws of Oleron. The Rhodian laws were divided into two sections; the one containing 21 articles, and the other 51 articles; which, together with those of Oleron, and some other laws, particularly those of Wisbuy, are the foundation of that part of the civil law, whereby all maritime causes are determined. See *Civil* law, and *Treaty*.

RHODES *Island*, is also a part of New England. See *British* America.

RHONE. One of the largest rivers in France, which rises in the mountain La Fourche, one of the Alps, in Switzerland; and running west through the country called the Valais, divides it into two parts; then passing through the lake of Geneva, visits that city; from whence it runs S. W. to Lyons in France; where, joining the river Soane, it continues its course due south; and passing by Orange, Avignon, and Arles, falls into the Mediterranean to the westward of Marseilles. There are several cataracts in the upper part of the river; so that it is not navigable till four or five leagues below Geneva; and it runs forward with such an impetuous force, that it is very difficult getting vessels up the stream.

RHUBARB, or *Tai-haam*. A medicinal root, large, compact, and heavy; yellow without, of a nutmeg colour within; an astringent, bitterish taste, and an agreeable, aromatic smell; of great use in medicine as a purgative.
Considering the great use of this drug, it is surprising we should know so little of the place where the plant grows that produces it. Some say it comes from the kingdom of Boutan, in the extremities of India; others, that it is found in the provinces of Xensi and Suchen in China. Others will have it only grow in Persia; and others on the confines of Muscovy, deriving its name from Rha, the river among us called Wolga, and barbarum; that is, root found by the barbarians on the river Rha.
But it is certain, that the greatest quantities of rhubarb are brought from Thibet in Tartary, and Tsetchanen in China. The stalk of the rhubarb is like the small bamboos or Chinese canes, hollow, and very brittle, three or four feet high, and of a dark violet colour. In March it sends forth long and thick leaves; which are succeeded by flowers of a yellow, and sometimes a violet colour. In September they pull it up, and find the root large and long; that which is heaviest, and most marbled near the heart, being most esteemed. The Chinese, after having cleaned the roots, cut them in pieces about two inches large, and dry them on plates of stone, under which they kindle fires: but, as this operation is not sufficient to exhaust all they humidity, they make a hole in each piece, and suspend them in the greatest heat of the sun, till they are in a condition to be kept without being corrupted.
Rhubarb, in Latin *rhabarbarum officinarum*, was not known to the antients; whose rhaponticum, which indeed resembles it, is not the real rhubarb,
Good rhubarb, steeped in water, gives it a saffron colour; and when broke, looks bright, with somewhat of a vermilion cast. Some druggists have the art of renewing their old roots, by dying them of a yellow hue: but the cheat is easily known by handling them, the powder wherewith they colour them sticking to the fingers.
Rhubarb is esteemed an excellent cathartic, proper in diarrhœas, to fortify the stomach, and to create an appetite.
Mr. Boulduc informs us, in the memoirs of the royal academy, that he drew extracts from rhubarb, both with

water and ſpirit of wine; but the purgative virtue, he ſays, was much more viſible in the former than the latter; which ſhews that it conſiſts more in a ſalt than an oil. He obſerves, however, that rhubarb taken in ſubſtance has a ſtill better effect; and adds, that of all the operations he performed on it, none gave any credit to the common opinion which aſcribes an aſtringent quality to rhubarb.

Two ſorts of rhubarb are ſold at Amſterdam; that of the Levant, and that of Muſcovy: both are purchaſed by the pound; the tare is purſuant to the weight, and they yield 2 *per cent.* deduction for good weight, and as much for prompt payment. The rhubarb of the Levant coſts from 8 to 14 s. ſterling the pound, and that of Muſcovy from 5 s. 3 d. to 8 s. the pound.

There is a tincture of rhubarb in wine, and alſo in ſpirit.

Monks RHUBARB. See *Rhaponticum*.

White RHUBARB. See *Mechoacan*.

RHUMB, *Rumb*, or *Rum*, in navigation. A vertical circle of any given place, or the interſection of a part of ſuch a circle with the horizon.

Rhumbs therefore coincide with points of the world, or of the horizon; and hence the mariners diſtinguiſh the rhumbs by the ſame name as the points and winds; uſually reckoning 32 rhumbs, which are repeſented by the 32 lines in the roſe or card of the compaſs.

Aubin defines a rhumb, a line on the terreſtrial globe, ſea-compaſs, or ſea chart, repreſenting one of the 32 winds which ſerve to conduct a veſſel: ſo that the rhumb a veſſel purſues, is conceived as its rout or courſe.

Rhumbs are divided and ſubdivided like points: thus, the whole rhumb anſwers to the cardinal point; the half rhumb to a collateral point, or makes an angle of 45 degrees with the former. The quarter rhumb makes an angle of 22 deg. 30 min. therewith; and the half quarter rhumb makes an angle of 11 deg. 15 min.

RHUMB *Line*, in navigation, is the line which a ſhip, keeping in the ſame collateral point or rhumb, deſcribes throughout its whole courſe.

The great property of the rhumb-line, or loxodromia, and that from which ſome authors define it, is, that it cuts all the meridians under the ſame angle; which angle is called the angle of the rhumb, or the loxodromic angle; and the angle which the rhumb-line makes with any parallel to the equator, is called the complement of the rhumb.

An idea of the origin and properties of the rhumb-line, the great foundation of navigation, may be conceived thus. A veſſel beginning its courſe, the wind wherewith it is driven makes a certain angle with the meridian of the place; and, as it is ſuppoſed the veſſel runs exactly in the direction of the wind, it makes the ſame angle with the meridian which the wind makes.

Suppoſing then the wind to continue the ſame, as each point or inſtant of the progreſs may be eſteemed the beginning, the veſſel always makes the ſame angle with the meridian of the place where it is each moment, or in each point of its courſe, which the wind makes.

Now, a wind, for inſtance, that is north-eaſt, and which of conſequence makes an angle of 45 deg. with the meridian, is equally north-eaſt wherever it blows, and makes the ſame angle of 45 deg. with all the meridians it meets. A veſſel therefore driven by the ſame wind, always makes the ſame angle with all the meridians it meets with on the ſurface of the earth.

If the veſſel ſails north and ſouth, it makes an angle infinitely acute with the meridian, that is, it is parallel to it, or rather ſails in it: but if it ſails eaſt and weſt, it cuts all the meridians at right angles. In the firſt caſe it deſcribes a great circle; in the ſecond, either a great circle, as the equator, or a parallel to it. If its courſe is between the two, it does not then deſcribe a circle; ſince a circle drawn in ſuch a manner would cut all the meridians at unequal angles, which the veſſel cannot do. It deſcribes therefore another curve; the eſſential property whereof is, that it cuts all the meridians under the ſame angle; which curve is called the loxodromic curve, rhumb-line, or loxodromy; being a kind of ſpiral, which, like the logarithmic ſpiral, makes an infinity of circumvolutions, without ever arriving at a certain point to which it ſtill tends, and towards which it approaches every ſtep.

This aſympotic point of the rhumb line is the pole; to which, were it poſſible for it to arrive, it would find all the meridians conjoined, and be loſt in them.

The courſe of a veſſel, then, except in the two firſt caſes, is always a rhumb-line; which line is the hypothenuſe of a rectangle-triangle, whoſe two other ſides are the ſhip's way, or run in longitude and latitude.

Now the latitude is uſually had by obſervations; and the angle of the rhumb, with one or other of the two ſides, by the compaſs.

All therefore that is required by calculation in ſailing, is the value of the length of the rhumb-line, or the diſtance run: but, as ſuch curve-line would prove very perplexing in calculation, it was neceſſary to have the ſhip's way in a right line; which right line however muſt have the eſſential property of the curve-line, that is, to cut all the meridians at right angles.

If a ſhip ſail on a north or ſouth rhumb, it deſcribes a meridian; if on an eaſt or weſt rhumb, it deſcribes either the equinoctial, or a parallel thereto.

To find the rhumb between two places, by calculation or geometrically, there are two canons or proportions: the firſt, as the radius is to the co-ſine of the middle latitude, ſo is the difference of longitude to the whole departure from the meridian, in the courſe between the two places propoſed: the ſecond, as the radius is to the half ſum of the co-ſines of both latitudes, or as the diameter is to the ſum of the co-ſines of both latitudes, ſo is the difference of longitude to the departure from the meridian.

RIABAULS *Smals*, are cotton cloths, of an indifferent quality, brought from the Eaſt Indies, and uſually white; their length being nine ells, and breadth half an ell.

RIAL, or *Ryal*. A Spaniſh ſilver coin; being the eighth part of the piaſter, or piece of eight, and of equal value to $5\frac{3}{8}$ d. ſterling. See *Coin*.

The ſilver rial is equal to 34 ſilver maravedis, and the copper rial to 44 copper maravedis, which only amount to 18 ſilver maravedis.

There are alſo rials of eight, rials of four, rials of two, and half rials. The rials of eight are the piaſters; those of four, half piaſters, &c. Great quantities of rials, or rials of eight, are carried into the Eaſt Indies, where they are divided into three claſſes, and received on different footings; the old rial, known by the chaplet around it, whereof a hundred are current for 215 rupees, or 26 l. 12 s. 6 d. ſterling; the ſecond, known by the largeneſs of its head, current at $212\frac{1}{4}$ rupees for 100; and the new at $208\frac{1}{4}$ rupees for 100 rials. See *Rupee*.

RIAL, or *Royal*, is alſo the name of a piece of gold, formerly current in England for 10 s.

In 1ſt Henry VI. by indenture of the mint, a pound weight of gold of the old ſtandard was coined into 45 rials, going for 10 s. a piece; or a proportional number of half rials, going at 5 s. a piece; or rial farthings, which went at 2 s. 2 d.

In 1ſt Henry VIII. the gold rial was ordered to go at 11 s. 3 d. In 2d of Elizabeth gold rials were coined at 15 s. a piece, when a pound weight of old ſtandard gold was to be coined into 48 rials. In 3d James I. roſe rials of gold were coined at 30 s. a piece, and ſpur rials at 15 s. See *Money*.

RIBBAND, *Ribbon*, or *Ribbond*. A narrow ſort of ſtuff ſometimes interwoven with gold and ſilver, chiefly uſed for head-ornaments. See *Silk*.

The moſt eſteemed of this manufacture are the English, Italian, and French; of which great quantities are ſent to other countries; but thoſe of England, ſince the treaty of Utrecht, are reputed a contraband merchandiſe in France.

RIBBLE. A river which riſes in the Weſt-riding of Yorkſhire, runs S. W. croſs Lancaſhire, and falls into the Iriſh channel below Preſton.

TBS *of a ſhip*, are the timbers of the futtocks, when the planks are off; ſo called becauſe they are bent like the ribs of a carcaſe or ſkeleton.

ICE. A grain or ſeed of a leguminous plant of the ſame name, frequent in the Eaſt Indies, in Greece, and Italy; the grains of which grow in cluſters; and, being terminated with a ſpica or beard, are incloſed ſeverally in yellow rough capſulæ or caſes; but, when ſtript of their ſkin, they appear oval, of a ſhining white colour, and in a manner tranſparent.

Rice grows in moiſt marſhy places; being throughout the Eaſt, and a great part of the Levant, the principal food, as it ſerves for bread. In the Indies the women threſh and dreſs all their rice, which is a very painful office that the men leave to them, either out of idleneſs or diſreſpect.

Rice is a great food in the Roman catholic countries in time of lent. The ordinary preparation is by firſt ſteeping it in water, then boiling it in milk. Some make it into a ſort of farina, or flour, by pounding it in a mortar, after having firſt put it in hot water, and again waſhed it out in cold.

Rice is of ſome uſe in medicine, being eſteemed proper to ſoften and thicken ſharp humours, and to moderate fluxes of the belly. The northern nations eat their fowls and other meats with rice and ſaffron. The Chineſe make a wine of rice, which is of an amber colour, taſtes like Spaniſh wine, and ſerves them for their common drink. In the Eaſt Indies they make arrac of rice, and in ſome parts of Europe they alſo draw a very ſtrong ſpirit from it. See *Brandy*, and *Arrac*.

Rice is now the ſtaple commodity of South Carolina, which ſends, one year with another, 50,000 barrels into Europe, each weighing about 4000 lb. and worth from 50 to 60 s. a barrel: ſo that, at only 50 s. a barrel, there is the ſum of 125,000 l. ſterling paid to Carolina for rice; the greateſt part of which is re-exported from England to foreigners, and employs a great number of ſhips. The origin of rice-plantations in Carolina was accidental; for a ſhip, on its return from the Eaſt Indies, happened to be wrecked on the coaſt of this colony; when ſome bags of rice were taken out of the ſhip, and a trial was made of ſowing them; which ſucceeded beyond expectation. For the firſt encouragement of this commerce, the Britiſh government laid a heavy duty on foreign rice, exempting that of Carolina: but the cultivation of rice coming to be thoroughly eſtabliſhed, a duty was impoſed upon it, which included only the rice for home-conſumption; the tranſportation of it from the colonies all over the Mediterranean, Spain, and Portugal, being permitted, on condition that the ſhips ſhould return directly to England; whereby the Engliſh traders have been enabled to ſell their rice cheaper than that brought from the Levant.

RICH. A kind of lynx, met with in Poland; whoſe ſkin is very rich, fine, and beautiful. Some of theſe animals are found alſo in Perſia and Sweden; but they all differ in colour. Thoſe of Perſia are white, ſpotted with black; thoſe of Sweden reddiſh; and thoſe of Poland of a beautiful iron grey.

They all reſemble each other in figure and ferocity; having the head of a cat, and the cruelty of a tyger. This is one of the moſt beautiful furs the northern people trade in; being ſold at ſuch a high price, that a quantity ſufficient for robing a gown ſometimes coſts 70 l. ſterling.

RIDE, in the ſea-language, is a term variouſly applied: thus, the ſhip is ſaid to ride, when her anchors hold her faſt, ſo that ſhe does not drive away by the force of the wind or tide.

A ſhip is ſaid to ride well, when ſhe is built ſo as not to overbeat herſelf into an head ſea; as that the waves overrake her, that is, waſh over her, from ſtem to ſtern.

A ſhip rides acroſs, when ſhe rides with her main-yards and fore-yards hoiſted up to the hounds, and both yards and arms topped alike. She is ſaid to ride apeek, when one end of the yard is peeked up, and the other hangs down. This is alſo ſaid of a ſhip, when in weighing ſhe is brought directly over her anchor.

She is ſaid to ride athwart, when her ſide is to the tide; and to ride betwixt wind and tide, when the wind hath equal force over her one way, and the tide another. If the wind has more power over her than the tide, ſhe is ſaid to ride wind road. She is ſaid to ride hawſeful, when in a ſtreſs of weather ſhe falls ſo deep, that the water runs in at her hawſes. She is ſaid to ride portoiſe, when her yards are ſtruck down upon the deck, or when they are down a-port-laſt.

RIDE, called otherwiſe *philippus*. A gold coin of ſome currency in Flanders, ſtruck in the times of the earls of Flanders, weighing 2 pennyweights and 12 grains.

RIDERS, in a ſhip, are great timbers, both in the hold and aloft, which are bolted on to other timbers to ſtrengthen them, when the ſhip is diſcovered to be too ſlightly built.

RIFFY. A ſort of cotton, brought from Alexandria in Egypt, and ſold for about 50 s. the hundred.

RIGA. A city and port-town of Livonia, in the diviſion of Lettenland, ſituated near the mouth of the river Dwina, on a bay of the Baltic ſea, in 24 deg. of E. lon. and 57 deg. of N. lat. being one of the beſt harbours and trading towns in the Baltic. See *Ruſſia*.

RIGGING *of a ſhip*, includes her whole cordage, or all the ropes belonging to her maſts, yards, &c. A ſhip is ſaid to be well rigged, when all her ropes are of their fit ſize, in proportion to her burden. She is over-rigged, when her ropes are too big for her; which wrongs her much in her ſailing, and is apt to make her heel.

RIGHT *Sailing*, is when a voyage is performed on ſome one of the four cardinal points. See *Sailing*.

If a ſhip ſail under the meridian, that is, on the north or ſouth points, ſhe varies not in longitude at all; but only changes the latitude, and that juſt ſo much as the number of degrees ſhe has run. See *Latitude*.

If a ſhip ſail under the equinoctial upon the very eaſt or weſt points, ſhe alters not her latitude at all, but only changes the longitude, and that ſo much as the number of degrees ſhe has run. See *Longitude*.

If ſhe ſail directly eaſt or weſt under any parallel, ſhe there alſo alters not her latitude, but only her longitude; yet not according to the number of degrees of the great circle ſhe has ſailed in, as under the equinoctial, but more according as the parallel is remoter from the equinoctial towards the pole; for the leſs any parallel is, the greater is the difference of longitude. See *Rhumb*.

RIGHT *the helm*, a ſea phraſe, ordering to keep the helm even with the middle of the ſhip.

RIGID *Marble*. See *Marble*.

RIGISCH. A money of accompt uſed at Riga; where the rix-dollar, or 4 s. 6 d. ſterling, is divided into 15 rigiſches.

RIMINI. A port-town of Italy, in the Pope's territory, and province of Romania, ſituated on the gulph of Venice, in 13 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 44 deg. 8 min. of N. lat. 28 miles S. E. of Ravenna.

RING. A little moveable, put on the finger, either by way of ceremony, or of ornament.

RING, is alſo the name of an inſtrument, uſed in navigation, for taking the altitudes of the ſun.

It is uſually of braſs, about nine inches diameter, ſuſpended by a little ſwivel, 45 degrees from the point whereof is a perforation, which is the center of a quadrant of 90 degrees, divided in the inner concave ſurface. To uſe it, they hold it up by the ſwivel, and turn it to the ſun, till the ſun-beams falling through the hole, make a ſpot among the degrees, which is the altitude required. This inſtrument is preferred to the aſtrolabe, becauſe the diviſions are here larger than on the aſtrolabe.

RING-*Bolts*, in a ſhip. Thoſe iron pins, which are uſed to bring the timbers to.

RINGKOPPING. A town of North Jutland, ſubject to Denmark. See *Denmark*.

RIO-GRANDE. A river of Terra Firma, in South America, which riſes almoſt under the equator, runs N. through Terra Firma, and falls into the North ſea between Carthagena and St. Martha.

RIO-GRANDE, is alſo a river of Africa, which runs from E. to

E. to W. through Negroland, and falls into the Atlantic ocean in 11 deg. of N. lat. ſuppoſed to be a branch of the river Niger.

RIO-JANEIRO. A river of South America, which riſes in the mountains of Brazil, runs E. croſs that province, and falls into the Atlantic ocean almoſt under the tropic of Capricorn. This river gives name to one of the chief provinces ſubject to the Portugueſe in Brazil, from whence they import a great deal of gold, ſilver, diamonds, and other precious ſtones, annually. See *Portugueſe* America.

RIPEN. A city and port-town of North Jutland, capital of the province of Ripen, ſituated in 9 deg. of E. lon. and 55 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 60 miles S. of Wiburg, ſubject to Denmark.

RIPPON. A borough-town of Yorkſhire, ſituated 21 miles N. W. of York; conſiderable for its manufactures of hard-ware, eſpecially ſpurs.

RISK, or *Riſque*. The hazard or chance of a loſs or damage; as, there is a great riſk run in letting goods go upon credit to ſome perſons, as to wives not authoriſed by their huſbands, and to young people not yet arrived at the age of majority.

To prevent any riſk in invoices of merchandiſes at ſea, it is uſual to inſure them.

The riſk of merchandiſes commences from the time they are carried on board. In matters of inſurance it is a maxim, that all is never to be riſqued on one bottom, or in the ſame veſſel; to denote, that aſſurers muſt act with diſcretion in the ſigning of policies, and not hazard too much on each veſſel, there being more to be expected from ſeveral than from one.

RIVADEC. A city and port town of Spain, in the province of Galicia, ſituated on a bay of the ſea, in 7 deg. 10 min. of W. lon. and 33 deg. 36 min. of N. lat. 37 miles N. W. of Oviedo.

RIVAGE. A toll antiently paid to the King in ſome rivers, for the paſſage of boats, or veſſels therein.

RIVER, in geography. A ſtream or current of freſh water, flowing in a bed or channel, from a ſource or ſpring into the ſea.

If the ſtream be not large enough to bear boats, or ſmall veſſels loaden, it is properly called in Engliſh by the diminutive rivulet or brook. If it be conſiderable enough to carry larger veſſels, it is called by the general name river: in all which the difference is only as to great and leſs.

Some will have none to be properly rivers, except thoſe which bear the ſame name from their ſource to their mouth; others, none but thoſe which empty themſelves immediately into the ſea, and not into any other river.

Rivulets have their riſe ſometimes from great rains, or great quantities of thawed ſnow, eſpecially in mountainous places; as in the long ridges in Africa, India, and Sumatra: but the generality of rivulets ariſe from ſprings. Rivers themſelves all ariſe, either from the confluence of the ſeveral rivulets, or from lakes; nor is there any great river, ſuch as the Rhine, Elbe, and the like, known to flow from a ſingle ſpring. The Volga conſiſts of above 200 rivulets, all flowing into it, before it reaches the Caſpian; and the Danube receives as many. Pliny, indeed, and Cardan, ſay, that the Nile receives none; but the later travellers into Abyſſinia aſſure us of the contrary. The Rhine, Rhone, Danube, Boryſthenes, and many more, ariſe originally from ſprings in the mountains; the Nile, Volga, and the great river of St. Laurence, from lakes.

Phænomina and variation of RIVERS. Rivers are found ſubject to great alterations, at different ſeaſons of the year and day, by frequent rains and melted ſnow: thus, in Peru and Chili, many of the rivers are almoſt inſenſible in the night-time, and only flow by day, as being then augmented by the diſſolution of the ſnow on the mountains Andes: thus, the Volga abounds in ſo much water in May and June, as to cover the ſand-banks, which all the reſt of the year lie bare, ſo as ſcarce to allow a paſſage to the loaden ſhips: thus alſo, the Nile, Ganges, and Indus, are frequently ſo increaſed as to overflow; and that either in the winter from rain, or in the ſummer from the melting of the ſnow. Some rivers bury themſelves under ground in the middle of their courſe, and break out again in other places like new rivers. Thus the Niger, which ſome coſmographers derive by a ſubterraneous channel from the Nile, becauſe it ſwells at the ſame time with the Nile, without any other apparent cauſe of its ſwelling, the Niger itſelf meeting the mountains of Arabia, is hid under them, and riſes again on the weſtern ſide of the mountains: thus alſo the Tygris is loſt in the mountain Taurus.

The water of moſt rivers flows impregnated with particles of metals, minerals, ſands, and oily and fat bodies: thus, ſome rivers bring ſands intermixed with grains of gold; of which kind is, 1. A river in Japan. 2. Another in the iſland Lequeo, near Japan. 3. A river in Africa called Arroe, breaking out of the roots of the mountains of the Moon, wherein are gold mines. 4. A river in Guinea, where the negroes ſeparate the gold duſt from the ſand, and ſell it to the Europeans, who traffic hither for that very purpoſe. 5. In ſome rivulets near the city of Mexico are grains of gold taken up, eſpecially after rain: which is to be underſtood of all the other rivers; none of which yield any thing conſiderable, except in rainy ſeaſons. 6. In Peru, Sumatra, Cuba, Hiſpaniola, and Guiana. Laſtly, there are ſeveral brooks in the countries about the Alps, eſpecially Tirol; out of whoſe waters gold is drawn, though there are no grains conſpicuous therein. Add to this, that the Rhine in many places affords a golden mud.

As to rivers that bring grains of ſilver, iron, copper, and lead, we find no mention of them in authors; though doubtleſs there are great numbers of each, and many of the medicinal effects of mineral waters are doubtleſs owing thereto. We muſt not here omit a river in Germany, which is ordinarily ſuppoſed to change iron into copper. The truth is, there is no real converſion of the metal; all that is done is, that the cuprine and vitriolic particles in the water corrode the iron, and detaching parts thereof by means of the motion of the water, ſucceed in their room.

From this variety in the mixture of the river-water reſults various qualities, different ſpecific gravities, and different colours. See Mineral *Water*.

Some rivers, at certain ſeaſons of the year, ſwell ſo as to overflow their banks, and drown the neighbouring lands. Of thoſe the moſt eminent is the Nile, which riſes ſo as to cover all Egypt, except the hills. The inundation begins about the 17th day of June, and increaſes for the ſpace of 40 days, decreaſing for as many; during which period the cities of Egypt, which are all built on hills, appear as ſo many iſlands: but it is to theſe inundations that Egypt owes all its fertility; the heavens there affording no rain, or at leaſt none in any reſpect conſiderable: hence, as the inundation is great or ſmall, Egypt for that year is fruitful or barren.

The other rivers having any notable ſtated inundations are the Niger or Gambia, which overflow at the ſame time with the Nile. Leo Africanus ſays it begins on the 15th day of June, increaſes for 40 days, and decreaſes as long. The Zaire, a river of Congo, proceeding from the ſame lake with the Nile, and therefore affected in the ſame manner. The Rio de la Plata in Brazil, which Maffeus obſerves overflows at the ſame time with the Nile. The Ganges and the Indus; both which laſt overflow in June, July, and Auguſt; at which times the natives ſave great quantities of water, in ponds, to ſerve them the reſt of the year. Several rivers flowing out of the lake Chiamay into the bay of Bengal; which overflow in September, October, and November; all which bring a very great fertility with them to the ground. The river Macoa in Camboia. The river Parana, or Paranguaſa, which ſome will have the ſame with the Silver river. Several rivers in Coromandel, a part of India, which overflow in the rainy months, from the great quantity of water iſſuing from the mountain Gatis. The Euphrates, which overflows Meſopotamia certain days in the year. Laſtly, the river Jus in Numidia.

The rivers moſt celebrated for their length, breadth, and ſwiftneſs of current, are the Nile, which runs almoſt in a ſtraight courſe 1520 geographical miles. The Niger,

which

which runs 2400 miles. The Ganges, 1200 miles. The Ob, 1600 miles. The Jeniſca in Aſia, about the ſame length with the Ob. The river Orellana, in America, 60 miles broad at its mouth, and 5000 miles long. The Rio de la Plata, 80 miles broad at the mouth. The Omarannan, another river of Brazil; and the great river of St. Laurence, near 2500 miles long.

Navigable rivers are of great ſervice to trade, as they ſave the greater expence of land-carriage. The Chineſe in Aſia, and the Dutch in Europe, are the moſt remarkable people for river-navigation; and other nations have followed their example. Almoſt all the interior trade of China is carried on by natural rivers, or artificial canals; and the Dutch employ above 50,000 men on their rivers and canals: France is alſo well ſupplied with rivers and canals; particularly the canal of Languedoc, by means of which a communication is made between Bourdeaux and Marſeilles, that is, between the ocean and Mediterranean; as alſo the canals of Orleans and Briare, which open a communication between the countries watered by the Seine and Loire. The Spaniards have been adviſed to make the river Elbe more navigable. The Ruſſians have made a canal, 93 miles long, between the Don and the Volga, to make a communication between the Caſpian and the Euxine ſeas; as alſo another, called the Ladoga canal, deſigned for the uſe of Peterſburg, 460 miles long. The Iriſh have improved their inland navigation by canals; and a ſcheme has been propoſed for cutting a canal to unite the Thames and Severn in England, as alſo another for uniting the Severn and the Trent.

The Britiſh legiſlature has taken particular care of the preſervation of navigable rivers; as alſo in rendering others fit for navigation, eſpecially the Dee, Air, and Calder.

Three RIVERS. A town of Canada, in North America, ſubject to France. See *French* America.

RIXDOLLAR. A ſilver coin, ſtruck in ſeveral ſtates and free cities of Germany; as alſo in Flanders, Poland, Denmark, and Sweden. But there is little difference between the rixdollar and the dollar, another ſilver coin ſtruck in Germany; each being nearly equal to the French crown of three livres, the Spaniſh piece of eight, or 4 s. 6 d. ſterling. See *Exchange*.

The rixdollars of Francfort, Lunenburg, Magdeburg, Hamburg, and Poland, are worth 4 s. 6 d. ſterling; of Brandenburg, Hanover, Mentz, Nuremberg, and Lubec, 4 s. 7 d. ſterling; of Baſil 4 s. 8 d.; of Cologne 4 s. 4 d.; of Dantzic or Thorn 4 s. 5 d.; and of Zuric 4 s. 2 d. ſterling.

The rixdollar is one of the moſt current and univerſal coins in the world; being uſed equally in the commerce of the Levant, the North, Muſcovy, and the Eaſt Indies.

All ſorts of rixdollars are not received in the Eaſt Indies upon the ſame footing, and for the ſame value; upon which account they are weighed there: but if they are not weighed, he who ſells them ſhould make good the weight. Upon this footing 214 rupees are given for 100 Flemiſh rixdollars, and 216¼ for thoſe of Germany, Sweden, and Poland.

RIXDOLLAR, is alſo a money of accompt, uſed in Germany, Poland, and Denmark, of the ſame value as the coin.

RIX-MARK. A Daniſh ſilver coin; being 20 Danſk ſchillings, 10 ſchillings Lubs, or 11¼ d. ſterling.

RIX-OORT. Another ſilver coin of Denmark, worth 24 Danſk ſchillings, or 1 s. 1½ d. ſterling.

RIZE, in the Grand Signior's territories, is a purſe of 15,000 ducats, or 6937 l. ſterling; which may paſs for a money of accompt, like the Dutch ton of gold, and the French million.

ROAD, in navigation, denotes a place of anchorage, at ſome diſtance from ſhore, and ſheltered from the winds, where veſſels uſually moor, to wait for a wind or tide to carry them into harbour, or to ſet ſail.

When the bottom is clear of rocks, the hold firm, and the place well covered from the wind, the road is ſaid to be good: and an open road is one that has but little land on any ſide.

The roads in the Britiſh dominions are free to all merchant-veſſels, either of Britiſh ſubjects or allies. Captains and maſters of ſhips, who are forced by ſtorms to cut their cables, and leave their anchors in the roads, are obliged to fix up marks or buoys, on pain of forfeiting their anchor.

The maſters of ſhips coming to moor in a road, muſt caſt anchor at ſuch diſtance, as that the cables may not mix, on pain of anſwering the damages. When there are ſeveral veſſels in the ſame road, the outermoſt to the ſeaward is obliged to keep a light in his lanthorn in the night time, to appriſe veſſels coming in from ſea. See *Port*.

ROADS, or *Highways*, ſhould be kept in good repair, for the facility of travelling, and conveying goods from one place to another. The Romans were eminent for their great roads, which they paved in a particular manner; and ſince the erection of turnpikes in England, the roads have received ſuch improvement as to abate the price of land-carriage generally 30 *per cent.* for the carriage between Birmingham and London was formerly 7 s. a hundred, and now only from 3 to 4 s. a hundred; the carriage from Portſmouth to London, which was 7 s. a hundred, is now reduced to 4 or 5 ſhilllings; the carriage from Exeter, Briſtol, and Glouceſter, is now only 8 s. a hundred, which was formerly 12 s.; and the carriage from other places has found an equal reduction. Beſides, a team of ſix horſes can now draw 50 or 60 hundred with more eaſe than 30 hundred was drawn before the eſtabliſhing of turnpikes. See *Carriage*.

ROADER, among ſailors. A ſhip that lies at anchor in a road.

ROANOAK. An iſland of North America, near the coaſt of Albemarle county in North Carolina, ſituated in 75 deg. of W. lon. and 35 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. where the Engliſh ſettled one of their firſt colonies in America in 1585; but were obliged to abandon it, as the colony was not ſupplied and reinforced in due time.

ROB, in pharmacy. A preparation antiently much uſed, conſiſting of the juice of fruits, purified, and boiled to a conſumption of two-thirds of their moiſture.

ROBE. A liquid meaſure uſed in Spain, weighing 28 pounds.

ROBE. Any long gown, or garment, that covers the whole body; particularly ſuch as are worn by the Britiſh kings and peers in parliament; as alſo by judges in the courts of judicature, and magiſtrates on public occaſions.

ROBEMAKERS. Are perſons whoſe buſineſs is to make robes.

ROBBINS. Small ropes, reeved or put through the oilet-holes of a ſail, under the head ropes, which ſerve to make faſt the ſails to the yard.

ROCHE, or *Roch alum*. See *Alum*.

ROCHELLE. A city and port-town of France, in the province of Orleanois, and territory of Aunis, ſituated on the bay of Biſcay, oppoſite to the iſle of Ree, in 1 deg. 5 min. of W. lon. and 46 deg. 7 min. of N. lat. 70 miles S. W. of Poictiers. See *France*.

ROCHFORT. A port-town of France, in the province of Guienne, and territory of Saintonge, ſituated near the mouth of the river Charente, in 1 deg. of W. lon. and 46 deg. of N. lat. 23 miles S. of Rochelle; being a fine large town, built by the late King Louis XIV. and made one of the ſtations of the royal navy of France; having a commodious harbour, well ſecured by forts and batteries of guns. See *France*.

ROCK *Alum*. See *Alum*.

ROCKBO. A great river, which riſes in the province of Yuncan in China in Aſia; and running ſouth through the kingdom of Tonquin, falls into the bay of Cochin-China, in 21 deg. of N. lat.

ROCK-*Chryſtal*, or *Chryſtal of the Rock*, is that ſuppoſed to be formed by a congelation of the lapidific juice which trinkles down in rocks and caverns. See *Chryſtal*.

ROCK *Salt*. See *Salt*.

ROCK *of Liſbon*. See *Cintra* Cape.

ROCOU, called by the Braſilians *achiotl*, or *urucu*, and by the Dutch *orlean*, is a drug which ſerves for dying and painting.

The tree which bears the ſeed whereof the rocou is compoſed, grows in the Leeward iſlands, and on the continent of America. It is not much higher than a ſmall orange-tree: its leaves, pointed at one end, are in the form of a heart; and its flowers, mixed with a white and carnation colour, are compoſed of five leaves, in the form of ſtars, growing on the extremities of the branches. Theſe flowers are followed by little *ſiliquæ*, or pods, which encloſe ſeveral grains of the bigneſs of a pea, covered when ripe with as lively a vermilion colour as poſſible.

For extracting this precious colour, theſe grains are ſhook in an earthen veſſel, and waſhed therein with warm water, till they have quitted their vermilion; afterwards, when the water has been left to ſettle, the ſediment is taken, and formed into ſmall round balls, or ſquare cakes, much eſteemed when pure and without mixture, which ſeldom happens. Some alſo make uſe of fire for boiling this drug, and giving it a conſiſtence.

Rocou ſhould be choſen of a violet ſmell, as dry and as high in colour as poſſible, ſoft to the touch, eaſily extended, and, when broken, the inſide of a more lively colour than the outſide.

Sometimes it is ſophiſticated with red earth, brick powder, or other ingredients: but the fraud is diſcovered by diſſolving a little of it in a glaſs of water; for, if pure, it diſſolves entirely; but, if mixed, the earth or brick will fall to the bottom.

Rocou is uſed for giving a colour to chocolate, and yellow wax, and is alſo thought to be of ſome uſe in medicine.

Rocou is ſold at Amſterdam for about 6½ d. the pound.

ROD. A meaſure for land, and bricklayers work, conſiſting of 16 feet and a half in length, and as much in breadth, or 272¼ ſquare feet.

ROE-NEUG. The largeſt of meaſures for diſtances and lengths uſed in the kingdom of Siam, making the Siameſe league; 20 jods make the roe-neug, 4 ſens the jod, 20 vouas the ſen, and 2 kens the voua; the ken being the Siameſe ell of 3 feet wanting half an inch; the voua, or Siameſe fathom, amounting to 5 feet 11 inches. See *Ken*.

ROLL, in the manufactories, ſomething round, and folded up in a cylindrical form.

Few ſtuffs are made up in rolls, except ſatins, gawſes, and crapes, which are apt to break, and take plaits not eaſy to be got out if folded otherwiſe. However, ribbons, laces, galloons, and paduas, of all kinds, are thus rolled.

ROLL *of Tobacco*, is tobacco in the leaf, twiſted on the mill, and wound twiſt over twiſt about a ſtick or roller. The generality of tobacco in America is ſold there in rolls, of various weights; for it is not cut till after its arrival in England, Spain, France, and Holland; this roll-tobacco being what is chiefly uſed both for chewing and raſping. See *Tobacco*.

ROLL *of parchment*, denotes the quantity of 60 ſkins. See *Parchment*.

ROMALS. Painted cotton handkerchiefs, manufactured in the Mogul's territories, and brought from Surat; the piece containing 6 or 7 handkerchiefs.

ROME, the capital of the Pope's territories, and of Italy, is ſituated in 13 deg. of E. lon. and 41 deg. 55 min. of N. lat. 140 miles N. W. of Naples, and 140 S. of Florence, ſtanding on the river Tiber, about 16 miles N. E. of the Tuſcan ſea. See *Italy*.

ROMSDALE. A port-town of Norway. See *Denmark*.

RONAS. A root, which ſpreads in the ground much like liquorice; being of the ſame thickneſs, and growing abundantly at Aſtahat, a city of Armenia, a league from the river Araxes. Its principal uſe is for dying red; it being with the juice of this root that all Indian and Perſian cloths are painted; whereby they imbibe a very deep and lively dye.

It is not ſurpriſing to ſee caravans arrive at Ormus entirely laden with this root, to be ſent from thence to the Indies in the ſhips which return there.

ROOD. A quantity of land, equal to the fourth part of an acre, and containing 40 ſquare perches or poles.

ROOF *trees*, or *Ruff trees*, are the timbers in a ſhip, which go from the half deck to the fore-caſtle.

ROOMER, in the ſea-language. A ſhip is ſaid to be a roomer, when ſhe is larger than ordinary.

ROOT, in botany. That part of a plant which imbibes the juices of the earth, and tranſmits them to other parts for nutrition; conſiſting of woody fibres, covered with bark more or leſs thick, and ariſing from a little point in the ſeed called the radicle. It is no ſmall difficulty to conceive how the root ſhould always point downwards, and turn up the ſtem perpendicularly, conſidering that in the ſowing of plants the radicle muſt frequently happen to be upwards, and the plumulæ downwards.

The root is always found in the ground in terreſtrial plants, except in very few caſes; the ivy and cuſcuta being perhaps the only plants where part of the root lies bare.

The root in plants has been obſerved to do the office of the ſtomach in animals; that is, to make the firſt and principal digeſtion of the alimentary matter. M. Reneaume ſhews, that the root does the office of all the parts in the belly of animals deſtined for nutrition; being the root that receives the nouriſhment, that prepares it, digeſts it, alters it, and turns it into ſap, to be afterwards diſtributed to all the parts.

The ſmell, colour, and even taſte, ſhew what a conſiderable alteration the juices undergo in the root; ſo that the root may be laid down as the principle of vegetation.

Plants growing at the bottom of the ſea have this peculiar to them, that they have no roots; at leaſt the parts performing the office of roots have nothing of the uſual figure of other roots; theſe plants being uſually faſtened to ſome ſolid body; adhering to it by a very ſmooth poliſhed lamina, which does not ſend forth any fibre. Add to this, that the body to which they adhere being frequently a rock or flint, appears very unfit to feed them, in caſe they had roots. Mr. Tournefort therefore conjectures, that they are fed by a juice afforded them by the thick oily mud at the bottom of the ſea, which they receive by the pores of the exterior ſurface of this lamina.

Boerhaave obſerves, that the root may have any ſituation at pleaſure, with reſpect to the body of the plant, nor need there to be loweſt or higheſt: accordingly, in the aloe, coral, moſſes, funguſes, and the like, the root is frequently uppermoſt, and its growth downwards.

Roots are divided by botaniſts into, 1ſt, Fibrous, which ſend out only ſmall ſtrings from the bottom of the plant diſtinct from each other; ſuch are thoſe of moſt ſpecies of graſs: 2dly, More thick and groſs; which either branch out into ſubdiviſions, or elſe ſend out fibres from them horizontally.

Theſe laſt are either carnous; which again are either broad and ſwelling, or long and ſlender, and commonly harder and more woody.

Broad and ſwelling roots are either bulbous, which conſiſt but of one globe or head, and ſend out fibres from the bottom, and are either ſquammoſe and ſcaly, as lilies, martagon, and the like; or coated, and involved in ſkins and coats, as cepa, hyacinthus, allium, and the reſt.

Tuberous are of a carnous ſolid, and continued conſiſtence; either ſimple, but with one globe, as rapa, crocus, and ſuch like; or manifold, as aſphodelus and pœonia, with many others.

Long roots are either ſarmentous, that is, twiggy, branching, which ſhoot or creep out tranſverſe; of these ſome are geniculated, knotty, or jointy, as couch-grass and mint, with the like ſpecies. Others are cauliform, that is, ſtemmy, or ſtalky, which ſhoot down directly, though often ſending out fibres and ſtrings from the great ſtem, which alſo itſelf is ſometimes divided and branching.

ROOTS, in medicine, are principally rhubarb, ipecacanha, jalap, gentian, liquorice, madder, and many others.

ROPE. An aſſemblage of ſeveral twiſts, or ſtrings of hemp,

hemp, twiſted together by means of a wheel; of various uſes, as in binding, ſtaying, drawing, and ſuſpending. See *Hemp*, and *Cordage*.

When the rope is made very thick, it is called a cable; and when very ſmall, a cord. See *Cable*, and *Cord*.

The greateſt conſumption of ropes is in navigation, for the tackling of ſhips; where though ropes include the whole cordage, yet there are ſeveral ropes particularly ſo denominated; as the entering rope, hung at the ladder to help people up; the top rope; a bolt rope, wherein the ſail is ſewed; buoy rope, to which the buoy of the anchor hangs; gueſt rope, to tow the long boat; the keel rope; the bucket rope; rudder rope, to ſave the rudder if it ſhould chance to be beat off; preventer rope, to ſave the yard in caſe any part of the ties ſhould be broke; breaſt rope, to laſh the pannels to the maſts; guy rope, to keep the foremaſts forwards directly over the hatch way; boat rope, by which the boat hangs, or is faſtened a ſtern of the ſhip; and port ropes. See *Stores*.

ROPE *yarn*, is the yarn of any rope untwiſted; commonly conſiſting of cable ends, which are worn out, called junks of the cables, and ſerves for many purpoſes among the ſailors.

ROSADE. A kind of liquor, prepared of pounded almonds and milk, mixed with clarified ſugar.

ROSA *Solis*. See *Ros* Solis.

ROSE. A medicinal flower, which gives the denomination to ſeveral preparations in pharmacy.

ROSE-*water*. A water drawn by diſtillation from red or damaſk roſes; being a good cordial, and formerly highly eſteemed in Enrope; but is ſince fallen from its reputation, and little uſed, except in diſeaſes of the eyes, in perfumes and waſhes. It is, however, in great eſteem throughout the Eaſt; particularly in China and Perſia, where the trade thereof is very conſiderable. The roſe-leaves remaining at the bottom of the ſtill have the natural cathartic quality, and are alſo kept for a perfume.

ROSE-*copper*. See *Copper*.

ROSE-*wood*. See *Aſpalath*.

ROSE-*diamond*. See *Diamond*.

ROSE-*noble*. An antient Engliſh coin, firſt ſtruck in the reign of Edward III. then called the penny of gold, and ſince called roſe-noble, becauſe ſtamped with a roſe, being current at 6 s. 8 d. See *Noble*.

ROSE *noble*, is alſo a gold coin ſtruck in Holland, and current for 11 florins, or 19 s. 3 d. ſterling.

There are alſo roſe-nobles of Denmark, worth 24 Daniſh marks, or 18 s. ſterling.

ROSEE. See *Chabnam*.

ROSEMARY. A medicinal plant, whoſe flower, called anthos, is of conſiderable uſe, being the baſis of the celebrated Hungary water; with a ſmall quantity of which, diluted in common water, the confectioners make conſerve of roſemary flowers, and eſſence of roſemary water. See Hungary *Water*.

ROSES. A city and port town of Spain, in the province of Catalonia, ſituated on a bay of the Mediterranean, in 2 deg. 45 min. of E. lon. and 42 deg. 22 min. of N. lat. 60 miles N. E. of Barcelona. See *Spain*.

ROSETTO. A port-town of Egypt, in Africa, ſituated near the mouth of the weſtern channel of the river Nile, in 31 deg. of E. lon. and 31 deg. of N. lat. being upwards of 100 miles N. W. of Grand Cairo, 100 miles W. of Damietta, and 30 E. of Alexandria. See *Egypt*.

ROSIN, is particularly uſed for a reſinous matter, prepared from the juice of the pine-tree, in ordinary uſe for the making of wax. See *Reſin*.

The manner of preparing this coarſe drug, in the ſouthern parts of France, is ſaid to be thus: the bark being pared off the pine, to make the ſap run down into a hole made at the bottom to receive it; as the juice runs, it leaves a cream, or cruſt, a-top; which being tempered with water, is fraudulently ſold for white bees wax. See *Wax*.

When they have got a quantity of the juice, they ſtrain it through a baſket, and what runs through is the common turpentine. See *Turpentine*.

What ſtays behind, they mix with water; and, diſtilling it in an alembic, the matter that riſes is the oil of turpentine, the calx that remains being the common roſin.

ROS *Solis*, popularly *Roſa ſolis*, or *Sun dew*, is an agreeable ſpirituous liquor, chiefly taken after meals, by way of dram, to aid digeſtion; being compoſed of burnt brandy, ſugar, cinnamon, and milk water, and ſometimes perfumed with a little muſk. It had its name, becauſe antiently prepared wholly of the juice of the plant ros ſolis; but that plant is no longer any ingredient therein. The beſt is that of Turin; but the French have a particular kind not called ros ſolis, but *du roy*, becauſe uſed with good effect by the late King Lewis XIV. being compoſed of Spaniſh wine, wherein are infuſed aniſe, fennel, aneth, and coriander, for three weeks.

ROSSANO. A city and port-town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, and province of Calabria, ſituated on the gulph of Taranto, in 17 deg. 5 min. of E. lon. and 39 deg. 35 min. of N. lat. 80 miles S. W. of Taranto.

ROSSE. A port-town of Ireland, in the county of Cork, ſituated on a bay of the ſea, in 8 deg. 50 min. of W. lon. and 51 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. being 22 miles weſt of Kinſale.

ROTHER-*beaſts*. A word uſed in old ſtatutes, and ſtill in the northern parts of England, for horned beaſts, as oxen, cows, ſteers, and heifers; whence rother-ſoil, in Herefordſhire, is taken for the dung or ſoil of ſuch cattle.

ROTHERHITHE *Waterworks*. See *Waterworks*.

ROTHER-NAILS, are ſuch as have a very full head, and are uſed to faſten the rudder irons in ſhips.

ROTOLO, or *Rotoli*. A weight uſed in Sicily, and in ſome other parts of Italy, as alſo in Portugal, at Goa in the Eaſt Indies, and in ſeveral port-towns of the Levant, particularly at Cairo, and in the maritime towns of Egypt: but though the rotolo has the ſame name in all theſe places, it is very different in weight.

At Genoa, and in other parts of Italy where it is uſed, it is of two ſorts; one called the heavy rotolo, weighing 17 ounces 6 drams, and ſomething more, avoirdupois weight; the other, the common rotolo, being 16 ounces avoirdupois.

In Sicily the rotolo weighs ſomewhat more than a pound and half.

In Portugal, and at Goa, the rotolo weighs 13 ounces 1 dram avoirdupois weight.

At Cairo, and in the other maritime towns of Egypt, the rotolo is of 144 drams, which make ſomewhat leſs than a pound avoirdupois.

ROTOLO, or *Rotoli*, is alſo a liquid meaſure, uſed in ſome ſtates and towns of the coaſt of Barbary.

ROTT, or *Rotton*. A weight uſed in the Levant; being more or leſs heavy, according to the places where it is uſed.

100 of Conſtantinople and Smyrna make 14 lb. avoirdupois weight.

At Sidon, the rott is of 600 drams, or 4 lb. 13 oz. The acre is alſo another rott of this town, making about 6 lb. avoirdupois.

At Aleppo there are three ſorts of rotts; the firſt of which make 5 lb. 10 oz. avoirdupois weight; the ſecond of 680 drams, which make 5 lb. 5 oz. and the third of 700 drams, that is, of 5 lb. 7 oz. and a half.

ROTTERDAM. A city of the United Provinces, in the province of Holland, ſituated on the north bank of the river Maes, in 4 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. of N. lat. 30 miles ſouth of Amſterdam, and 13 miles S. E. of the Hague. See *United* Provinces.

ROTTUM. A Daniſh town on the iſland of Bornholm. See *Denmark*.

ROUEN. A city of France, capital of the province of Normandy, ſituated on the north-ſide of the river Seine, in 1 deg. 6 min. of E. lon. and 49 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 65 miles N. W. of Paris, and 45 S. E. of Havre-de-Grace, and the Britiſh channel. See *France*.

ROUGH *diamond*. See *Diamond*.

ROUND-*houſe*, in a ſhip, is the uppermoſt room or cabin on the ſtern of a ſhip, where the maſter lies. See *Stern*.

ROUND-*top*, in a ſhip. A floor, or frame of boards laid upon the croſs-trees near the head of the ſhip's maſt, for the men to ſtand upon to furl and looſe the ſails.

ROUNDINGS. A ſort of tanned hides. See *Hide*.

ROUP. A ſilver coin of Poland, worth about 1¼ d. ſterling.

ROUP, is alſo a ſilver coin, ſtruck and current in ſome ſtates of the Grand Signior, particularly at Erzerum in Armenia, being worth about 10 d. ſterling.

ROUPIA, or *Roupee*. See *Rupee*.

To ROUSE *a hawſer* or *cable*, in the ſea-phraſe, is to hale in part of the hawſer or cable which lies ſlack in the water.

ROUT, in navigation. See *Courſe*.

ROW. To carry or convey a perſon in a veſſel, or boat, upon the water with the help of oars.

ROXENT *Cape*, or *Rock of Liſbon*. See *Cintra* Cape.

ROYAL *Exchange*. The burſe or meeting-place of the merchants in London. See Royal *Exchange*.

ROYAL *fiſhes*, are whales and ſturgeons, and ſome add porpoiſes; which the King, by his prerogative, is to have whenever caſt on ſhore, or wrecked, in all places of the realm, unleſs granted to ſubjects by expreſs words. See *Fiſhery*.

ROYAL *Society*. The ſureſt increaſe remaining to be made in manual arts, is to be performed by the conduct of experimental philoſophy. This will appear undeniable, when it ſhall be conſidered that all other cauſes are defective; and that for this very reaſon, becauſe the trials of art have been ſo little united with the plain labour of mens hands. And this was the origin of that moſt uſeful and glorious inſtitution of the Royal ſociety of London, in the reign of King Charles II. from whence all others of the like kind in Europe have taken their riſe, to the wonderful improvement of the mechanic arts and manufactures, and indeed of univerſal commerce.

ROYAL *ſugar*. See *Sugar*.

RUATAN, or *Rattan*. An iſland in the gulph of Honduras, in North America, ſituated in 89 deg. of W. lon. and 16 deg. of N. lat. 75 miles N. W. of Truxillo, in the province of Honduras in Mexico. This iſland was planted and fortified by Admiral Vernon in the year 1742, as a check upon the Spaniards; having a good harbour, where the ſhips that reſort to this gulph or bay for logwood may be protected againſt the Spaniſh guarda coſtas: but though the Britiſh government granted ſeveral ſums of money for its ſupport, they have abandoned it ſince the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.

RUBIA *Tinctorum*. The root of a plant called madder. See *Madder*.

RUBIA, is alſo a gold coin, current in Algiers and Congo, worth 2 s. 10 d. ſterling; having the name of the dey of Algiers, and ſome Arabian letters for the legend.

RUBLE. A ſilver coin, and money of accompt, in Ruſſia; being 100 copeacs, or 4 s. 6 d. ſterling.

RUBY. A red coloured ſparkling gem, of the firſt rank among precious ſtones: but there are only two places in the Eaſt where the ruby is found, the kingdom of Pegu, and the iſle of Ceylon. The mine in Pegu, where it is found in great plenty, is in the mountain Capelan, 12 days journey from Siren, the reſidence of the king of that country; but the fineſt rubies brought from hence ſeldom exceed three or four carats, the king reſerving all the larger to himſelf. In Ceylon the rubies are found in a river which deſcends from the mountains towards the middle of the iſland; ſome few are alſo found in the ground; theſe rubies being uſually brighter, and more beautiful, than thoſe of Pegu: but they are rare, the King of Ceylon prohibiting his people to gather them, or traffic with them. There are rubies alſo found in Europe, particularly in Bohemia and Hungary; eſpecially the former, wherein is a mine of flints of ſeveral ſizes, which, upon breaking, are ſometimes found to contain rubies, as fine and hard as any of the eaſtern ones. The antients, out of their credulity and ſuperſtition, attributed many virtues to the ruby; as, that it expells poiſon, cures the plague, abates luxury and incontinence, and baniſhes ſorrow.

Lapidaries uſually diſtinguiſh three kinds of rubies, the rocky, barlaſs, and ſpinell; ſome add a fourth kind, called the rubacelle.

It is the different degree of colour which makes their different value and beauty; the barlaſs ruby being a crimſon colour, with a caſt of purple; and the Spinell ruby of a bright roſy red.

It is ſaid the inhabitants of Pegu have the art of heightening the redneſs and brilliancy of rubies, by laying them in the fire, and giving them a proper degree of heat.

The ruby is formed in a ſtony ſubſtance, or marcaſite of a roſe colour, called mother of ruby; it has not all its colour and luſtre at once, but comes to it by degrees. At firſt it grows whitiſh; and, as it approaches to maturity, becomes red. Hence there are white rubies; others half white, half red; and others blue and red, called ſapphire rubies. When a ruby exceeds 20 carats, it may be called a carbuncle, the name of an imaginary ſtone, whereof the antients and moderns have given ſo many deſcriptions. See *Carbuncle*.

They have ſeveral ways of counterfeiting rubies; and have carried the invention to that length, that the moſt able lapidaries are ſometimes overſeen.

Furetiere aſſures us, though the thing ſurpaſſes all belief, that there have been rubies in France of 240 carats. Tavernier tells us, he ſaw one in the Indies of 50 carats, which he had a mind to have bought: he adds, that the King of France has finer and larger rubies than any in the poſſeſſion of the Great Mogul.

The value of rubies, from one carat to four grains:

	l.	s.	d.
A ruby of one carat is worth	1	15	0
two	9	0	0
three	22	10	0
four	33	15	0
five	45	0	0
ſix	67	10	0
ſeven	84	0	0
eight	116	0	0
nine	150	0	0
ten	216	0	0

Sapphire RUBY. See *Sapphire*.

RUBY, in chemiſtry, is a name given to ſeveral preparations of natural bodies, becauſe of their red colour; as ruby of arſenic, and the like.

RUCH. A meaſure uſed in the ſalt marſhes of Normandy, being a kind of buſhel which weighs about 50 lb.

RUDDER, in navigation. A piece of timber turning on hinges in the ſtern of a ſhip; which by oppoſing, ſometimes one ſide of the water, and ſometimes another, turns and directs the veſſel this way or that; the rudder being faſtened on the ſtern-poſts, by four or five iron hooks called pintles; and ſerving, as it were, for the bridle of a ſhip, to turn her about at the pleaſure of the ſteerſman, its power being reducible to that of the lever.

The rudder being perpendicular, and without-ſide the ſhip, another piece of timber is fitted into at right angles which comes into the ſhip; whereby the rudder is managed and directed: but this latter is properly called the helm, or tiller; and ſometimes, though improperly, the rudder itſelf.

As to the angle the rudder ſhould make with the keel, the author of a late book on the working of ſhips ſhews that, in order to ſtay, or bear up the ſooneſt poſſible, the tiller of the rudder ought to make an angle of near 55 deg. with the keel.

A narrow rudder is beſt for a ſhip's ſailing, provided ſhe can feel it, that is, be guided and turned by it; for a broad rudder will hold much water when the helm is put over to any ſide: yet if a ſhip has a fat quarter, ſo that the water cannot come quick and ſtrong to her rudder, ſhe will require a broad rudder; the aftmoſt part of which is called the rake of the rudder.

RUDDLE. A ſort of duſky red chalk, or earth, found in ſeveral parts of England, chiefly in iron mines; of which mineral it has a copious mixture. See *Reddle*.

RUDKOPPING. A Daniſh town, on the iſland of Langland. See *Denmark*.

RUE. A garden herb, very uſeful in phyſic.

UG. A warm woollen coverlid for a bed; alſo a ſhaggy ſort of cloth for great coats, to wear in cold and wet weather.

UGEN. An iſland of the Baltic ſea, on the coaſt of Germany; being part of the duchy of Swediſh Pomerania, ſeparated from the continent by a narrow channel, not three miles over. The iſland is 30 miles long, and near as many broad, being a plentiful country, abounding in corn and cattle: the chief town is Bergen; which has no wall any more than the other towns, and conſiſts of about 400 houſes. See *Sweden*.

UGGI. A corn-meaſure uſed at Leghorn, 11 and 1-3d of which make the laſt.

ULE, in arithmetic, denotes a certain operation with figures, to find ſums or numbers unknown, and to facilitate computations, mercantile, aſtronomical, and the like.

Each rule in arithmetic hath its particular name, according to the uſe for which it is intended. The four firſt, which ſerve for the foundation of the whole art, are called addition, ſubtraction, multiplication, and diviſion. From theſe ariſe ſeveral other rules; as the rule of three, or of proportion, called alſo the golden rule, and diſtinguiſhed into direct and inverſe, ſimple and compound: alſo the rule of five numbers; rule of fellowſhip, ſimple, and with time; rule of alligation, mediate and alternate; rule of exchange; rule of falſe poſition, ſingle and double; to which may be added, approximation, barter, combination, equation, exchange, extraction, involution, progreſſion, rebate, reduction, &c.

UM. A ſpirituous liquor, drawn by diſtillation from ſugar-canes. See *Sugar*, *Diſtillation*, and *Spirituous* Liquors.

Rum, in general, is of a ſtronger body than brandy, that is, it contains a larger quantity of oil, and leſs phlegm and ſalt. That rum is beſt, which is of a browniſh tranſparent colour; of a ſmooth, oily, grateful taſte; of a ſtrong body and conſiſtence; of a good age, and well kept; that of a clear, limpid colour, and a hot pungent taſte, being either too new, or daſhed with ſpirits.

UMB, *Rum*, or *Rhumb*, in navigation. See *Rhumb-line*.

UMMAGE, in the ſea-language, ſignifies to clear a ſhip's hold, or to remove goods or luggage from one place to another, in order to ſtow them more handſomely or conveniently; and ſometimes means only the inſpecting, or narrowly ſearching into or after any thing, as goods in the hold, to ſee if no prohibited goods are on board.

UN *of a ſhip*, is ſo much of her hull as is always under water, growing thinner and lanker by degrees, from the floor-timber to the ſtern-poſts. A ſhip is ſaid to have a good run, when it is long, and the water paſſes freely to her rudder, her tuck not lying too low, which is of great importance to her ſailing. If the water does not come ſtrongly to her rudder, by reaſon of her being built too broad below, ſhe cannot ſteer well; and a ſhip that cannot ſteer well, cannot keep a good wind, nor will have any freſh way through the ſea, but will be falling to leeward; and yet a ſhip with a large and good run, loſes much ſtowage, becauſe made narrow below. See *Ship*, and *Rudder*.

UN *of a ſailor from a ſhip of war*, is when he has deſerted the ſervice, whereby he forfeits all his wages.

UNDLET, *Runlet*, or *Roundlet*. A ſmall veſſel, containing an uncertain quantity of any liquor, from three to twenty gallons.

UNNER, in the ſea-language. A rope belonging to the garnet, and to the two bolt-tackles, which is reeved in a ſingle block, ſeized with a pennant; and has at one end a nooſe to hitch into any thing, and at the other end a double block, into which is reeved the fall of the tackle, or the garnet, whereby it purchaſes more than the tackle or garnet could allow.

o overhale the RUNNER, is to pull down the hooked end, and hitch it into the ſling.

UNNING *of goods*, is a clandeſtine landing of goods, without paying the legal cuſtoms or duties for the ſame. See *Smuggler*.

RUNSTUC. A ſmall copper coin, and money of accompt, in Sweden; being the 7-36ths of a penny; 32 of them make the copper dollar, or $6\frac{2}{3}$ d. ſterling, and 288 make the rix-dollar, or 4 s. 8 d. ſterling.

RUNT. Any thing very ſmall, or low of ſtature; eſpecially ſpoken of cows, oxen, &c. either of the breed of Wales or Scotland.

RUPEE, *Roupia*, or *Roupias*. A coin very current in the territories of the Great Mogul, and ſeveral other parts of the Eaſt Indies.

Rupees are ſtruck both of gold and ſilver; both the one and the other having their diminutions, as half rupees, and quarter rupees. The gold rupee is worth 1 l. 6 s. ſterling: the value of the ſilver rupee is various, according to its quality, and the place where it was coined. A general obſervation is, that the rupees are always current for more at the place where they are ſtruck than elſewhere, and the new rupees for more than the old ones. The reaſon of this laſt difference is, that the Indians being very fond of ſilver, as ſoon as they have got a few rupees together, they hide them under ground; to prevent which inconvenience, tending to drain the ſtate of current monies, the princes and rajas ſtrike new rupees every year, ſtill augmenting the value thereof, without any augmentation of the weight.

Beſides this difference of new and old rupees, the Indians make three other claſſes; the firſt called rupees ſiceas, which at Bengal are worth 2 s. 11 d. ſterling; the ſecond, rupees of Surat, worth 2 s. 6 d. ſterling; the third, rupees of Madras, worth 2 s. 5 d. ſterling; all which is to be underſtood of the new rupees. As to the old ones, thoſe of Madras are only current at 1 s. 11 d. ſterling, thoſe of Surat at 2 s. and the ſiceas at 2 s. 4 d. Yet in other places the order and prices vary; at Surat thoſe ſtruck there have the firſt place, the ſiceas the ſecond, and thoſe of Madras the third. Along the coaſt of Coromandel the Madras have the firſt place, the Siceas the ſecond, and thoſe of Surat the third.

RUPERT *Fort*. A ſettlement belonging to the Engliſh Hudſon's bay company, ſituated at the bottom of Hudſon's bay, in 80 deg. of W. lon. and 51 deg. of N. lat. 600 miles S. E. of Fort Nelſon, and 300 miles N. E. of Quebec.

RUPIEDSIE. A kind of drug, for dying black, found in China, and making a part of the Chineſe commerce to Tonquin, whereby they gain *cent. per cent.*

RUSH. A plant, or tall graſs, uſed for many purpoſes, eſpecially for the weaving of mats for floors, and the ſeats of chairs.

RUSMA. A kind of mineral, not unlike the droſs of iron, both in figure and colour, brought from the Levant, and uſed by the Turks as the beſt depilatory.

RUSSE. A river of Ruſſia, compoſed of the united ſtreams of the Wilia and Berizina, which runs from eaſt to weſt, and falls into a bay of the Baltic ſea, near Memel.

RUSSET. A dark brown colour, uſed for ordinary coarſe cloth, to make cloaths for countrymen.

RUSSIA, or *Muſcovy*. The Empire of Ruſſia, taken in its largeſt extent, and including the late conqueſts on the ſide of Sweden, is bounded by the Frozen ocean towards the north; by Chineſian Tartary on the eaſt; by the Calmucks, the Caſpian ſea, Coban, Tartary, Georgia, the Palus Mæotis, and the Leſſer Tartary towards the ſouth; and by Poland, the Baltic ſea, and Bothnick gulph, towards the weſt. Muſcovy in Europe extends then from the 44th degree of north latitude to the 70th, and perhaps higher, tho' it is nearer the pole; and from the 1ſt degree of N. latitude to the 17th, being 49 degrees of latitude: to which if we add 36 degrees more, which the Aſiatic provinces take up, this empire will be found to take up 85 degrees of longitude, and conſequently is by much the largeſt tract of territory on our continent, ſubject to one monarch.

The province of Moſcow communicates its name to the whole empire, which 100 years ago was included in much narrower bounds: the kingdoms of Caſan, Aſtracan, the Coſſacks, Circaſſians, and the large country which goes under the name of Siberia, being all late acquiſitions, as well as Livonia and Finland.

The Ruſſian territories in Europe are bounded by the Frozen ocean, or Içe-ſea, on the north; by Aſiatic Ruſſia on the eaſt; by little Tartary and Turky on the ſouth; by Poland, the Baltic ſea, and Sweden, on the weſt; being 1500 miles in length, 1100 in breadth, and containing thirty provinces. The northern provinces are Lapland, Samoieda, Bellamoreſkoy, Meſeen, Dwina, Syrianes, Permia, Rubeninſki, and Belaiſeda. The middle provinces are Rezan, or Pereſlaf, Belozero, Wologda, Jereſlaf, Tweer, Moſcow, and Belgerod. The eaſtern provinces are Bulgar, Kaſan, Czeremiſſi, Little Novogorod, the territory of the Don Coſſacs, Great Novogorod, Ruſſian Finland, Kexholm, Carelia, Ingria, Livonia, Smolenſko, Zernigof, and the Ukrain.

The Aſiatic territories belonging to Ruſſia comprehend all the north of Aſiatic Tartary, and Aſtracan; with the countries inhabited by the Calmuc, Oſtiac, and Bratſki Tartars; being of an uncertain extent.

The ſeas of European Ruſſia are the Ice-ſea, or Frozen ocean; the ſea of Weygats, or Nova Zembla; the White ſea, and the Baltic, of which the gulph of Finland is part, upon the north and weſt; with the Palus Mæotis, or ſea of Azoph, on the ſouth. Until the laſt war with Turky, the Ruſſians were alſo maſters of the north coaſt of the Euxine ſea; and ſtill the old Coſſacs of Ruſſia have a communication with the Euxine ſea, by the river Nieper, or Boriſthenes, from whence they frequently iſſue in great numbers, in their wicker-boats, and invade the Turkiſh territories, bringing home thouſands of unhappy wretches, of whom they make ſlaves.

The moſt conſiderable lakes are, the Ladoga, the lake Onega, the White lake, the Ilmen lake, the Worſero, and the lake Pepus.

The rivers are the Tobol, which joins the Irtis, and forms the great river Oby, that divides European Ruſſia from Aſiatic Ruſſia, and falls into the Frozen ocean, oppoſite Nova Zembla; the Manganſea, and the Pezara, or Petzora, which likewiſe fall into the Frozen ocean. The Dwina, which falls into the White ſea, below Archangel. The Wolga, or Rha, which receives the Mologo, Moſco, Kiſma, Ocka, and Kamar; and falls into the Caſpian ſea a little below Aſtracan. The Don, or Tanais, which receives the Woronetz, and Donets; falling into the ſea of Azoph. The Nieper, or Boriſthenes, which falls into the Euxine ſea, at Oczakow. And the Dwina, which falls into the Baltic below Riga.

Ruſſia is generally a level country, except on the north, where are the mountains of Stolp: but it lies in ſo many different climates, that the air muſt of courſe be as different. The north is covered with ſnow nine months in the year; the middle of the country is temperate, and the ſouthern provinces warm. The ſoil is alſo very different: in the north there are foreſts, moraſſes, bogs, and barren ſands; with few inhabitants, and not many animals: the middle of Ruſſia, and the ſouth, are fruitful countries, which ſupply the north with all manner of proviſions by their navigable rivers, lakes, and canals; but the middle is covered with ſnow ſix months of the year. They have continued froſts in winter; but, as ſoon as the ſnow melts, graſs, and all manner of vegetables, ſpring up and thrive amazingly.

In the northern provinces are produced tar in a prodigious quantity, honey, and bees-wax; Ruſſia leather, deer, bear, and elk-ſkins; pot-aſhes, timber, and plank; iron, and ſome copper; hemp, and flax; linen, and linen-yarn; furs, ſuch as ſable, black-fox, ermine, rain-deer, and martins; raw ſilk, by the Wolga, from Perſia; with Perſian, Indian, and China goods, the laſt by land-carriage. From the new conqueſts, and Lower Ruſſia, timber, deals, are alſo brought tar and pitch; maſts, fir- and pot-aſhes; iron and copper; hemp, flax, and excellent linſeed; linen-yarn, linen cloth of ſeveral ſorts, and Ruſſia linen properly ſo called; diaper; ſail-cloth, canvas, and duck; with corn, ſturgeon, and caveari.

Muſcovite Lapland, bounded by the ocean towards the north; by the White ſea towards the eaſt and ſouth; and by Swediſh Lapland on the weſt, is generally divided into three parts. Mourmanskoy Leporie, towards the north-weſt; the chief town whereof is Kola, a port ſituated 350 miles N. W. of Archangel, in 32 deg. 35 min. of E. lon. and 69 deg. of N. lat. upon a river of the ſame name that falls into the northern ocean, and is ſometimes reſorted to by the Engliſh and Dutch ſhips, in their paſſage to and from Archangel. Bellamoreskoy, the moſt ſoutherly part of Lapland, in which is the town of Kandalaſ ſituated on the White ſea; and Freskoy, the moſt eaſterly part of this country, the chief town being Warſeg ſituated towards the ſouth corner of it, near the White ſea. But this country is very ill provided with towns or villages; two or three poor huts being frequently denominated a town by our ſailors. This ſoil does not produce any kind of corn or grain, and but very little fruit. Their animals are deer, elks, foxes, ermins, martens, bears, wolfs, and other beaſts, which they hunt for their ſkins and furs, being the ſtaple commodities of the country.

The province of *Finland*, one of the conqueſts of the late Czar, is bounded by Lapland on the north; by the lakes of Ladoga and Onega, which divide it from other provinces of Muſcovy, on the eaſt; by the gulph of Finland on the ſouth; and by the Bothnick bay towards the weſt. The country is generally divided into 7 parts, namely, Eaſt Bothnia, Savo-Laxia, Kexholm, Carelia, Newland, Finland proper, and Taveſtia. The Finlanders in the North differ very little from the Lappomans; but in the South, being mixed with the Swedes, and trading with other nations of Europe, they are ſomething better poliſhed.

Wyburg, is a city and port-town of Ruſſian Finland, in the territory of Carelia, ſituated on the gulph of Finland, 70 miles N. W. of Peterſburg, in 29 deg. of E. lon. and 61 deg. of N. lat.

We come next to *Ingria*, or *Ingermanland*, divided from Carelia in Finland, only by the river Nieva, or Nye, of which territory Peterſburg is the chief town.

Peterſburg, or *St. Peterſburgh*, is ſituated partly on ſome iſlands in the mouth of the river Nieva, and partly on the ſeveral continents of Ingria and Carelia, in 31 deg. of E. lon. and 60 deg. of N. lat. The late Czar Peter Alexowitz being engaged in a war with Sweden, and having taken the city of Netteburg in the year 1702, as alſo the fortreſs of Nyeſchants, lower down in the river Nieva; and obſerving ſeveral iſlands in the mouth of the river, by the poſſeſſion of which he might open a communication with the Baltic, he ordered a fort to be built on one of them, and commanded a detachment of his troops to make themſelves maſters alſo of the iſland of Retuſari, in the gulph of Finland, near which all ſhipping are obliged to paſs, bound for the river Nieva; and here he built the fortreſs of Cronſlot, finding it capable of being made a commodious harbour for his men of war. The Czar, pleaſed with the neighbouring country of Ingria, which, making allowances for the coldneſs of the climate, is not the moſt diſagreeable; apprehending that if he ſhould fix the ſeat of his empire here, it might be a means to keep the Swedes in awe; and propoſing alſo to eſtabliſh a trade with the reſt of the nations of Europe, with far greater advantage from hence, than he could at Archangel, he ordered labourers and artificers to be ſummoned from all parts of Ruſſia, to erect a royal city, which might deſerve to be the capital of ſo large an empire. The Czar giving proper encouragement to merchants, ſeafaring men, and gentlemen, to ſettle in this new city, the place on a ſudden became extremely populous; and no leſs than 60,000 houſes were erected in a few years. It is now of a very large extent, appearing rather like ſeveral diſtinct towns, than a ſimple city. The river Nieva, which runs thro' it, is very deep all along till it opens into the bay where the ſands render it ſhallow; but about a league further it comes to a good depth again, which is the reaſon that large ſhips are unloaden before they come to the city. The country adjacent to Peterſburg is great part of it a moraſs, covered with buſhes and ſhrubs; the ſoil being ſo moiſt, that it produces but little corn, eſpecially in a wet year, when ſcarce any thing comes to maturity. Turneps, cabbages, and cucumbers are almoſt their only plants. The city and country about it would be ſtarved, were it not for the ſupplies they receive from Novogorod, Pleskow, Moſcow, and even from

from Caſan, which is above 1200 miles diſtant from Peterſburg: but, as all proviſions are plentiful in the heart of Muſcovy, thouſands of ſledges are perpetually trading from thence to Peterſburg, loaden with corn, flour, fruits, and the produce of their reſpective countries; which is in ſummer conveyed to the city by the rivers and lakes; and if at any time the boats happen to meet with any accident in their paſſage, every thing immediately grows exceſſive dear in the city and country about it; for it is obſerved that Peterſburg, inſtead of being ſupplied with proviſions from the neighbouring towns, furniſhes them with all manner of neceſſaries; for, the ground not being cleared of wood, or the moraſſes drained, their land yields but very little grain.

As to the iſland of Cronſlot, it lies about 12 or 15 miles to the weſtward of Peterſburg, at the bottom of the gulph of Finland, and forms a large bay, which reaches as far as the mouth of the river Nieva. To the ſouthward of this iſland is the only paſſage for ſhips up to Peterſburg, the channel being upwards of 2000 paces broad, and very deep.

The late Czar eſtabliſhed at Peterſburg an academy marine, to which he obliged every conſiderable family to ſend one or more of their ſons or kinſmen, above ten, and under eighteen years of age, where they were inſtructed in navigation. Here alſo they learnt the languages, and were taught to ride and fence, with other exerciſes proper for gentlemen, and kept under a very ſtrict diſcipline. Woollen and linen manufactures were alſo ſet up, of which the latter is brought to great perfection, as may be obſerved by the linnen of late imported from thence: and ſeveral regulations are made for improving their plantations of flax and hemp. Paper mills and powder mills have alſo been erected, with laboratories for gunnery and fire-works; and other places for preparing ſalt-petre and brimſtone, of both which they have plenty in Ruſſia.

Rope yards, like thoſe of England and Holland, for the making of cables and tackling for the navy, are alſo ſet up here; and they have a foundery, in which they are perpetually caſting great guns, mortars, and ſmall guns, vaſt quantities of iron ore being found at Alonitz, near the lake of Ladoga, which may be brought to ſuch a temper, it is ſaid, as to be as durable as braſs. The great forge at Peterſburg furniſhes anchors, and ſupplies all iron-work for building ſhips, and houſes; they alſo begin to burn bricks, and uſe them in their buildings inſtead of wood. All foreign architects, mechanicks, and artificers are invited to ſettle here, and allowed ſeveral privileges and immunities beyond other citizens; but hitherto they have not been able to bring either their ſilk or woollen manufactures to any great perfection.

According to Mr. Hanway, the ordinary annual computation of the Ruſſian general export from St. Peterſburg is three millions of rubles, or 675,000 l. ſterling, of which the Britiſh ſubjects in Ruſſia take off 2 millions, or 450,000 l. ſterling, conſiſting chiefly in hemp, flax, iron, hogs briſtles, hare-skins, hempen and flaxen manufactures, Ruſſia leather, and other articles. The ordinary imports of the Ruſſians were two millions of rubles, or 450,000 l. ſterling, conſiſting in indigo, cochineal, lead, pewter, tin, wrought ſilks, gold and ſilver lace, toys, cotton and linen manufactures, woollens and wines. The Ruſſians receive the balance in their favour in ſilver and gold, of which part is a ſum of above 500,000 ſilver rixdollars, of the coin of the United Provinces; theſe do not however paſs current in Ruſſia, but the duties on goods muſt be paid in them at a certain rate, according to weight. The conſumption of the Ruſſians is ſo far increaſed with their acquiſitions by commerce, that they import now more than uſual; but the Engliſh have ſtill above a million of rubles, or 225,000 l. ſterling balance againſt them. The Britiſh factors in St. Peterſburg are generally well eſteemed by the natives of Ruſſia, and acquire fortunes which ſome of them of late years have been wiſe enough to preſerve. They inhabit the beſt houſes on the banks of the Nieva, and are hoſpitable, not to ſay magnificent in their way of life, keeping pace with the luxury of men of ſuperior fortunes at home: but it ſhould be obſerved, that the Britiſh factories in general, make a better figure than thoſe of any other nation in all parts of the world; which may be conſidered as a ſort of compenſation for the voluntary baniſhment which they ſuffer from the beſt of countries in the world: and this generous way of life gives them an influence and aſcendency in the countries where they reſide, at the ſame time that it helps to ſupport the national intereſt and honour.

South-weſt of Ingria lies *Livonia*, another of the late Czar's conqueſts from the crown of Sweden. This country is bounded by the gulph of Finland on the north; by Ingria and great Novogorod towards the eaſt; by the river Dwina, which ſeparates it from Courland, and other provinces of Poland, on the ſouth; and by the Baltic ſea on the weſt; extending about 160 miles in length from north to ſouth, and 120 in breadth from eaſt to weſt. It is uſually divided into two parts; Eſthonia on the north; and Letten on the ſouth: the chief towns being Narva, Revel, Riga, and Parnow.

The poſſeſſion of this vaſt province had for a conſiderable time been diſputed between the Ruſſians, Poles, and Swedes; but at laſt, by the treaty of Oliva, in 1660, it was divided between the two laſt.

The peace concluded between Muſcovy and Sweden, after the death of Charles XII. adjudged finally Livonia to the Czar, and made him in ſome reſpects maſter of all the commerce of the Baltic, by opening to him all the ports of Riga, Revel, Nerva, and Parnow, four famous towns for their great trade, particularly with the Engliſh, Dutch, and French; beſides with the Muſcovites and Poles in ſummer, by the rivers on which three of theſe towns are ſituated; and in winter by ſledges.

Riga. The capital of the province, is ſituated in 24 deg. of E. lon. and 57 deg. of N. lat. near the mouth of the river Dwina, and a bay of the Baltic ſea, being one of the beſt harbours in the Baltic. The ſhips which draw but about twelve feet of water, may proceed as far as Riga, where the river is near two leagues broad; but others are obliged to diſburden a little lower.

The moſt proper time for trading is during the two fairs, which are held there every year, one in the month of May, and the other in the month of September. Purchaſes are carried on there moſtly in rix-dollars, and the reſt in exchange for the merchandiſes brought there; but this traffic is ſomewhat troubleſome to ſtrangers, who cannot unload their ſhips till they have made a ſale to the burghers: however, ſome are found who let their names, and content themſelves with a fee for commiſſion.

The merchandiſes proper for Riga conſiſt in Rheniſh and French wines, but the former ſells beſt; ſpice and ſalt, two of the beſt commodities that can be brought there; ſugar, tobacco, vinegar, paper, ſome fruits, and haberdaſhery ware; but all theſe in ſmall quantities.

The chief commodities of Riga are hemp, flax, maſts, and timber. The quantity of the hemp is generally about 40,000 ſchiponds, or 6400 tons; which is brought down in ſtruzes, or flat-bottom'd boats. The Polanders bring a large proportion of theſe commodities, chiefly from the Poliſh Ukraine. The flax is brought from Druana and Lithuania, a great part of which they call Druana Ragitzer, and Lithuania Ragitzer. The timber is from thoſe parts of Poland which border on Turky; great part of that which is fit for maſts being two ſummers in its paſſage to Riga. This place formerly exported vaſt quantities of corn for Sweden and other countries: but, the ſyſtem of politics in that country having been for ſome time repugnant to that of Ruſſia, the town has ſuffered the inconvenience of a prohibition. Riga has ſometimes loaded 500 ſhips annually, of which above 300 were from the United Provinces: but, as the trade of that country in general has been for ſome years on the decay, the number of Dutch ſhips at this port has decreaſed; nor indeed has the timber, in which great part of the trade conſiſted, been ſo eſſential to thoſe provinces, ſince the Dutch have found that ſtones will make a more laſting fence againſt the inroads of the ſea.

Revel, is ſituated in 24 deg. of E. lon. and 59 deg. of N. lat. at the ſouth entrance of the gulph of Finland, 140 miles N. of Riga, and 110 miles W. of Narva. It had been for ſome time one of the Hanſe-towns, but renounced

nounced their alliance in 1550: tho' it is now a large city, and commodious harbour, where part of the royal navy of Ruſſia is uſually laid up. Its commerce is always very conſiderable; but not in the flouriſhing condition it was in, before the Engliſh diſcovered the port of Archangel; at which time it was the magazine for the greater part of the Ruſſian merchandiſe.

The merchandiſe imported to, and exported from it, are much of the ſame nature with thoſe either brought to or from Riga.

Narva, is ſituated upon a river of the ſame name, in 27 deg. 35 min. of E. lon. and 59 deg. of N. lat. 100 miles S. W. of Peterſburg. It once enjoyed the privileges of the Hanſe towns; but having been almoſt ruined, and its commerce quite decayed for near a century, it only began to recover its reputation towards the middle of the ſeventeenth; for, in 1654, as Olearius obſerves, there arrived at Narva not leſs than 60 Dutch ſhips, which bought to the value of upwards of five hundred thouſand crowns in merchandiſe. Since this time it has diſputed the precedency of commerce with Riga, and ſurpaſſed Revel.

The proximity of the towns of Novogorod, and Pleſkow, the latter of which is not above 120 miles from it, facilitates its trade with all this vaſt empire; being the paſſage for almoſt all the merchandiſes which are ſent to Moſcow.

The trade of Narva conſiſts moſtly of flax and timber: of the firſt about 220,000 poeds, or 3500 tons, are generally brought to market: but, the exportation of the latter is limited by the Ruſſian government to 120,000 bulks of firs, which are of twenty to 40 feet long, and 10 to 15 inches ſquare; the Engliſh generally demand the largeſt, and the Dutch the ſmalleſt kind; every ton of ſhipping in meaſurement will take a load of timber, 50 ſolid feet being reckoned to a load.

Parnow, or *Pernow*, is a ſmall port-town, ſituated upon a river of the ſame name, in 24 deg. of E. lon. and 58 deg. of N. lat. on a bay of the Baltic, 80 miles N. of of Riga. It had formerly only a corn trade, which brought to it ſome foreign ſhips; but ſince the inhabitants diſcovered the method of bringing down the river a great number of maſts, not leſs eſteemed than thoſe of Norway, and a great quantity of fir-timber, its trade is vaſtly increaſed; and ſince the year 1680, the Dutch have ſent there yearly upwards of 60 ſhips, inſtead of only 5 or 6 which they ſent there before.

But few merchandiſe are required for Pernow; and almoſt all its trade is carried on by the means of old rix-dollars.

Dorpat, is a town ſituated in 27 deg. 25 min. of E. lon: and 58 deg. of N. lat. on the river Embec, between the lakes of Worſero and Pepus, 50 miles S. of Narva.

The province of great *Novogorod*, is bounded by the provinces of Ingria and Belozero on the north; by Jeriſlaf towards the eaſt; by the province of Smolenſko on the ſouth; and by Livonia towards the weſt. The chief town is Novogorod, one of the moſt populous trading places in this part of the world, independent of any foreign prince, till the year 1477, when the great Duke of Muſcovy compelled them to receive a governor from him; and afterwards plundered the place, carrying away an immenſe treaſure. This city was formerly comprehended in the league of the Hans towns. It is ſituated in 34 deg. of E. lon. and 58 deg. of N. lat. on the river Wolcoff, near the lake of Ilmen, 130 miles S. of Peterſburgh, having 180 churches and monaſteries. The country about Novogorod abounds in grain, flax, hemp, honey, wax, and the beſt Ruſſia leather is manufactured here.

The province of *Belozero* has the lake of Onega on the north; the province of Wologda on the eaſt; and the province of Novogorod towards the ſouth and weſt: its principal town being of the ſame name, ſituated on the S. E. ſhore of the White lake, 150 miles E. of Peterſburg, and 100 miles N. E. of Novogorod.

The province of *Wologda* has Rubeneſka on the north; Jeriſlaf on the ſouth; and Belozero on the weſt. The chief town is Wologda, being ſituated in 42 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 59 deg. of N. lat. on the river Dwina, 235 miles N. of Moſcow. It is a large city, and ſurrounded with a ſtone wall, which is common in Ruſſia; being a place of very good trade; and when the late Czar propoſed the removing the mechanics and handicraft trades from hence to his favorite city of Peterſburg, it was repreſented to him, that there were three German merchants only ſettled at Wologda, who employed upwards of 20,000 perſons in dreſſing of hemp, and flax, which were annually exported to foreign countries, by the way of Archangel; and that if they were obliged to keep the ſame number at Peterſburg, where every thing was five times as dear, trade would be ſo far from turning to account, that they would be loſers by it. That the greater part of the goods exported from Archangel were of the growth of the province of Wologda, from whence they were eaſily carried to that port by water; whereas if they were ordered for Peterſburg, they muſt go a great way over land, and at a far greater expence. That the air about Peterſburg was too moiſt for the keeping hemp; and the navigation of the gulph of Finland ſo hazardous that the inſurance on ſhips was very extravagant; which were all found ſubſtantial reaſons againſt their removing to Peterſburg, and gave ſome ſtop to his project at the time.

Jeriſlaf, or *Jeriſlaw*, is the capital of the province of the ſame name, ſituated in 57 deg. of N. lat. on the river Wolga, in a plentiful country; the principal trade being in linen and leather.

Between great Novogorod and Jeriſlaf, lies the diſtrict of *Tweer*, the chief town whereof is called Tweer, in which the governor reſides. It is ſituated in 30 deg. 37 min. of E. lon. and 57 deg. 25 min. of N. lat. on the Wolga, 90 miles N. of Moſcow. A great many thouſand loads of wheat are brought up hither annually from Kaſan, and ſent from hence to Peterſburg in ſleds.

The province of *Smolensko* has alſo a capital town of the ſame name, ſituated in 33 deg. of E. lon. and 56 deg. of N. lat. on the confines of Poland, 200 miles W. of Moſcow; but of no conſiderable trade.

In the province of *Zernigof*, there are large markets of wooden ware, where hundreds of wooden houſes ready framed are daily expoſed to ſale: and when they meet with a purchaſer, they are ſoon taken to pieces, and ſet up in any part of the town where the buyer deſires. Were it not for this convenience, the inhabitants would often be reduced to very great diſtreſs by the fires which frequently happen and deſtroy many thouſands of their wooden tenements in a few hours; for as the ſtreets are laid with fir-timber, and the partitions of their yards and gardens are of the ſame combuſtible matter, if a fire happens in dry weather, and there is any wind, it is almoſt impoſſible to ſtop it.

The province of *Moſcow* has its capital of the ſame name, ſituated in 38 deg. of E. lon. and 55 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. on the river Moſcowa, 360 miles S. E. of Peterſburg, 800 E. of Stockholm, 1000 N. E. of Conſtantinople, 900 N. E. of Vienna, and 1400 N. of London; being very populous, and the capital of the empire before the building of Peterſburg.

There is nothing material in the province of *Nize*, or *Little Novogorod*, which has its capital of the ſame name, ſituated on the river Ocka, 200 miles E. of Moſcow.

The chief town in the province of *Caſan*, or *Kaſan*, is Caſan, near which, upon the Wolga, the ſhips of war and gallies are built, which are deſigned for the Caſpian ſea.

The province of *Bulgar* has a capital of the ſame name, ſituated on the Wolga, in 51 deg. of E. lon. and 54 deg. of N. lat. 120 miles S. E. of Caſan, and 450 E. of Moſcow.

Reſanskoi, or *Rezan*, is the capital of the province of Rezan, ſituated in 41 deg. of E. lon. and 55 deg. of N. lat. on the river Ocka, 85 miles S. E. of Moſcow.

The province of *Belgerod* has its capital town of the ſame name, ſituated upon the river Donets, in 37 deg. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. 130 miles S. W. of Woronets, and 220 E. of Kiof. The city of Woronets, or Veroneſe, is ſituated on the river Veroneſe, in 40 deg. of E. lon. and 52 deg. of N. lat. 120 miles S. of Moſcow

and it was at Woronets that the late Czar Peter built large men of war, cutting deep canals between the Voneſe and Wolga, to ſend ſhips down that river to the Caſpian ſea; as he did others by the river Don to the Euxine ſea.

f, or *Kiow*, is the capital of the Ruſſian Ukraine, being ituated on the river Nieper, and on the confines of Poland, in 30 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. of N. lat.

The province of *Dwina* has the White ſea on the north; and the province of Rubeninſki on the ſouth. Archangel is the capital of this province, which is ſituated in 40 deg. 12 min. of E. lon. and 64 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the river Dwina, 4 miles from the White ſea, and 400 N. E. of Peterſburg; being the only port-town of Ruſſia for many years, and firſt reſorted to by the Engliſh in 1553: though the Ruſſians now build ſome of their own men of war here; and it ſtill continues a town of good trade.

The commerce of Archangel comprehends alſo that which may be carried on in ſeveral parts of Muſcovy, and even as far as Moſcow, by the means of the Dwina, on which Archangel is ſituated.

It is not above a century and a half, that the more ſouthern nations of Europe had a knowledge of this famous port of the White ſea, which was firſt reſorted to by the Engliſh, and afterwards by the Dutch, who now trade there more than all other nations.

The time of the fair, commencing the 20th of Auguſt, and continuing ten days, is that of the greateſt trade; tho' pretty good markets may be made 15 days before and after the fair.

This trade is tranſacted three ways; firſt, by the exchange of merchandiſe, which is the moſt uſual; ſecondly, partly by merchandiſe, and partly by ready money, which is the moſt advantageous; and thirdly, entirely by ready money, which foreign merchants pay for ſuch merchandiſe as they purchaſe from the Ruſſians.

The Engliſh and Dutch; as alſo the French, Swedes, Danes, Hamburgers, and Bremeners, who have their ware-houſes, and correſpondents at Archangel, ſend there ſeveral ſorts of merchandiſe, not for ſale on the ſpot, but to be tranſported to Moſcow.

The duties of importation and exportation for theſe ſorts of goods are 10 *per cent.* tho' but 5 *per cent.* for thoſe ſold at Archangel.

The principal building in this city is the palace, which is altogether built of free ſtone, and divided into three parts, whereof the firſt is occupied by foreign merchants, who keep their merchandiſe there, and have alſo lodgings. The merchants who reſort it yearly from Moſcow have likewiſe their apartments and magazines; but continue only till the departure of the ſhips, after which they lodge elſe where, or wait for the winter ſeaſon to return in ſledges.

In the ſecond part of the palace are the Czarina's ware-houſes, which ſtrangers alſo make uſe of ſometimes; and in the third part are the Ruſſian merchants.

Before the palace is a pretty large ſquare, which extends as far as the river; and when ſhips arrive, a large wooden wooden bridge is made for the more convenient loading and unloading of merchandiſe: but when the ſhipping ſail off, this bridge is taken down. The citadel, where the governor dwells, contains a great number of ſhops, where the Ruſſians who reſort to the fair expoſe their merchandiſe to ſale.

The beer which is brewed at Archangel is very good, but none are allowed to ſell it without the imperial licence, which is purchaſed at a dear rate; tho' the inhabitants may brew it for their own uſe, by paying about 2 s. ſterling *per* hogſhead.

French brandy is much eſteemed there; but it is ſo dear, upon account of the great duties of importation it pays, that the inhabitants and ſtrangers even content themſelves with the corn ſpirit made in the country, which is very good, and ſold at a reaſonable price.

The merchants of Archangel, ſince the reign of the Czar Peter Alexiowitz, were accuſtomed to ſend themſelves their merchandiſe to Riga, Narva, Revel, and as far as Koningſberg and Dantzick; but a part of this

commerce being interrupted by the war between the Muſcovites and Swedes, foreigners took an advantage thereof, and doubled the number of the ſhips which they before freighted for Muſcovy; ſo that the Dutch, who ſent uſually but 30 or 35 before the rupture between theſe two nations, ſent afterwards to the amount of 60 every year, which the Engliſh, Hamburgers, Danes, and Bremeners did alſo in proportion. In 1703, there arrived at Archangel 68 Engliſh ſhips, 50 Dutch, 18 from Hamburg, and 3 from Denmark, beſides the convoy of nine men of war.

Things have altered ſince the peace between the Muſcovites and the Swedes; Livonia having been ceded to the Czar, and his ſubjects having now almoſt the whole trade in their hands.

It is computed that the revenues of the Archangel cuſtom-houſe, with regard to foreign merchandiſe, amount one year with another to 58,000 l. ſterling.

There comes yearly to Archangel a grand cuſtom-houſe officer, when foreign ſhips arrive there, who has the inſpection of all the duties due to the government, and who purchaſes the merchandiſe the court has an occaſion for. He has under him four aſſiſtants, and a great number of other clerks, to hinder a contraband trade, or any fraud in the duties.

All the merchandiſes imported to Archangel pay 5 *per cent.* importation, except thoſe to be ſent farther; which, as it has been already intimated, pay 10 *per cent.* Wines and brandy are alſo excepted; whoſe duties are paid purſuant to the eſtimation made by the imperial farmers.

Several bills of exchange are drawn from Archangel upon Amſterdam, during the months of September and October, being the time of the greateſt commerce; and they are uſually payable at one month's ſight, or on the laſt of December. The bills of exchange drawn on Archangel have no privilege, and paſs only for ſimple obligations; having even no days of grace, which occaſions ſtrangers to draw but ſeldom on this town.

The other provinces of European Ruſſia are no ways remarkable for trade.

The ſeas of *Aſiatic Ruſſia* are the Frozen ſea, and the Caſpian ſea. The lakes are thoſe of Baikal, Kiſan, and Kologol.

The rivers are the Wolga, which runs a courſe of 2000 miles, and diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian ſea, below Aſtracan: the Oby; the Geneſa, or Jeniſca; and the Lena, which fall into the Frozen ocean. The Argun which divides the Ruſſian and Chineſian empires, diſcharging itſelf into the river Yamour.

The air in the north of Tartary is exceſſive cold; the earth being covered with ſnow 9 months in the year. The ſouthern provinces lie in a temperate climate, and would produce moſt kinds of corn and vegetables, if there were hands to cultivate the ſoil: but the people who inhabit it lead a rambling life, driving great herds of cattle before them to ſuch parts of the country where they can meet with the beſt paſture, and ſeldom remain long enough in a place to reap a crop of corn, if they ſhould plough and ſow the lands where they pitch their camps.

The countries of Aſtracan and Siberia are the moſt remarkable. In the former is the city of Aſtracan, the capital of the kingdom, ſituated in 52 deg. of E. lon. and 47 deg. of N. lat. on the eaſtern ſhore of the river Wolga, 80 miles N. of the Caſpian ſea, 800 S. W. of Moſcow, and 450 N. of Aſtrabadt.

Aſtracan is about 2 ½ miles round; but, including the ſuburbs, near 5 miles. It contains about 70,000 inhabitants, among whom are many Armenians and Tartars of various denominations, with a few Perſians and Indians, whoſe manners and cuſtoms exhibit an epitome of Aſia.

The commerce of this city is very conſiderable, though much diminiſhed by the troubles in Perſia, and the frequent revolts and inſolent behaviour of the Tartars. Not long ago they traded to Kheeva and Bockhara; but at preſent their commerce is confined to Ruſſia and Perſia.

The inhabitants have about 38 veſſels, from 60 to 100 laſts, of 2 tons Engliſh, for the Perſian trade; of which ſome belong to the government, and mount a few ſmall pieces of cannon. The trading ſhips carry proviſions to

the frontier towns of Terkie and Kiſlar, ſituated on the Caſpian ſea, and likewiſe merchandiſe to the ſeveral parts of Perſia, at certain ſtated rates. They are alſo occaſionally employed by the Perſians, to carry proviſions from Ghilan to Baku, Derbend, and other places.

Their foreign trade conſiſts in red leather, linens, woollen cloths, and European manufactures, which they export to Perſia, the greateſt part for the account of the Armenians. In return, they import ſeveral manufactures of Perſia, particularly thoſe of Caſan, as ſilk ſaſhes intermixed with gold, for the conſumption of the Polanders; wrought ſilks and ſtuffs mixed with cotton; rice, cotton, raw ſilk, and a ſmall quantity of drugs: they alſo bring rhubarb; but, as the government has engroſſed this article, private perſons are forbid to deal in it on penalty of death. The officers of the admiralty and cuſtom-houſe of Aſtracan have very ſmall ſalaries, which is the caſe in all other places of Ruſſia; ſo that, inſtead of doing their duty to diſpatch buſineſs, they often ſeek pretences to protract it, in order to obtain more conſiderable preſents; upon which occaſions, French brandy, white wine, hats, ſtockings, ribbons, and ſuch like, are acceptable.

About ten miles below Aſtracan is a ſmall iſland, called Boſmakoff, remarkable for its large ſtore-houſes of ſalt, which is made about 12 miles to the eaſtward of it; and being brought thither in boats, is conveyed in large flat-bottomed veſſels up the Wolga, with which all the country is ſupplied as far as Moſcow and Twere. They dig annually ſome millions of pounds, the excluſive property of which is in the crown, and brings in a conſiderable revenue; for the common food of the ſoldiery, and the bulk of the people, is bread and ſalt. In this place alſo are large fiſheries, to which the neighbourhood of the ſalt-works is of great advantage; for from theſe fiſheries all the country is ſupplied as far as St. Peterſburg: the veſſels are loaded with ſalt-fiſh, and ſent away in the ſpring; but as freſh fiſh keeps good ſo long as it is frozen, the winter is no ſooner ſet in, than it is tranſported by land as far as Moſcow and St. Peterſburg; the principal ſorts being ſturgeon, ſtarlett, belluga a large white fiſh, and aſſotra reſembling ſturgeon; as alſo cavear, the roes of ſturgeon and belluga. The firſt eſtabliſher of theſe fiſheries was Tikon Demedoff a carrier, who ſettled here about 50 or 60 years ago: his whole fortune then conſiſted of two horſes; but, through his induſtry and abilities, he became the greateſt merchant in that country.

The country about Aſtracan is conſiderably improved by ſome French refugees, and other mechanics and huſbandmen, which the court of Ruſſia ſent there; who have planted vineyards, and made ſeveral ſorts of wine: beſides, they have begun to plant mulberry trees for raiſing ſilk.

Siberia, formerly denominated Great Tartary, or the ancient Scythia, is ſituated between 60 and 130 deg. of E. lon. and 47 and 72 deg. of N. lat. being bounded by the Frozen ocean on the north; by the Pacific ocean, China, and Chineſian Tartary on the eaſt; by the Mogul's, and Uſbec Tartars on the ſouth; and by the rivers Oby and Irtis, which ſeparate Aſiatic from European Turky, on the weſt; being upwards of 2000 miles long from eaſt to weſt, and 1500 broad from north to ſouth.

There have been ſeveral rich mines of iron, copper, and ſilver, diſcovered in the north; where their iron manufactures are very conſiderable.

The principal places are Tobolſki, Surgut, Tumeen, and Jappantrin.

Tobolſki is ſituated in 63 deg. of E. lon. and 57 deg. of N. lat. at the confluence of the rivers Tobol and Irtis, 800 miles E. of Moſcow, and 1000 E. of Peterſburg. It ſtands upon a hill, being ſurrounded by a wall, and other modern works: but it is not ſo remarkable for trade, as it is for being the uſual place of baniſhment for ſtate priſoners; for here the princes Menzikoff and Dalgorucki, the Duke of Courland, and the great Count Munich were ſent; as alſo the Swediſh priſoners taken at the battle of Pultowa, who have ſet up ſeveral manufactures, and contributed a great deal towards poliſhing the ignorant natives.

It is at Surgut, eſpecially up the country towards Narum, by aſcending the Oby, that the moſt beautiful furs of Siberia are met with; which conſiſt in ſables of a pa brown, others perfectly black, beſides ermins, and bla foxes extremely beautiful.

Theſe black foxes are almoſt all preſerved for the Czarina and are computed to be worth upwards of 60 l. ſterlin a piece. There are abundance of others half black, a mixed with grey; beſides otters, and beavers, of an e traordinary ſize.

The inhabitants of Tumeen, who are chiefly Ruſſian drive on a pretty good trade; particularly with the Ka muck and Bulgarian Tartars.

But few furs are found there, thoſe of bears and r foxes excepted. However, there is a foreſt at ſom leagues from the town, called Hetkoilwolloc, filled wi an abundance of theſe animals, which afford grey fur ſo much eſteemed among the Ruſſian nobility, that the exportation is prohibited under ſevere penalties. The colour does not change in winter; and their leather very ſtrong. The grey furs of Samaroſkoi-jam, anoth town of Siberia, are next in eſteem to thoſe of Tume Jappantrin is a ſmall town ſituated upon the river Tur and conſiderable only for its beautiful furs, which a brought there every year from divers parts; being moſt deſtined for the imperial ware-houſes.

The Oſtiacks are ancient inhabitants of Siberia, and at pr ſent ſubject to the Czarina. The remains of this peop are very poor, and for the moſt part reduced to the e tremeſt miſery: however, they carry on a trade wi ſtrangers, to find ſome ſuccour, and to ſupply their want but as they cannot give ſecurity to thoſe who advan them any merchandiſe; and as their ignorance, as well poverty, puts them out of a condition of giving not to their creditors; they have found out a new and ve ſtrange way of remedying this double inconveniency.

They make for this purpoſe certain marks on their hand as the figures of birds, cyphers, and ſuch other repr ſentations; which they ſhew to thoſe who lend them an thing, that they may thereby be again known. F want of theſe artificial marks, if nature, or ſome acc dent, has made on their face, or elſewhere, any wart moles, ſcars, &c. they ſhew them alſo to the merchan with whom they treat; engaging themſelves by the marks, as by a kind of contract, to pay them in the l mited time, which they never fail to do; and when the have acquitted themſelves, they ſhew again the mark t annul the obligation.

The merchandiſes they give in payment for thoſe the have borrowed, are fiſh, fur, and ſometimes money.

This part of the north furniſhes the ſame furs as La land, except ſables, which are reſerved for the Czarina and which would cauſe the confiſcation of all other me chandiſe, unleſs ſold by the clerks of the imperial war houſes, and bore the imperial ſtamp.

Vitzora, and *Portzora*, are two ſmall towns where there a Ruſſian garriſon; and a more commodious trade, bu dearer, than that carried on by going in ſledges drawn b rain-deer.

Pepinogorod is almoſt wholly peopled by Muſcovites, an the greateſt warehouſe for furs which the Czarina has o that ſide: and the Danes, who hazard themſelves t bring there their merchandiſes thro' Borandai, acquir ſome advantage.

The Burates are people of Ruſſian Tartary, who dwe along the river Angara, and the lake Bekal.

They are very rich in cattle, particularly in oxen an camels; it being uſually by them that the Ruſſian car vans which go to, or return from China, furniſh them ſelves with theſe ſorts of animals, which are paid for i merchandiſe, and not in ready money, which they hav no regard for.

The merchandiſe proper for them are pale ſables, tin c copper baſons, red cloths of Hamburg, otter ſkins, Per ſian ſilks of all colours, and gold and ſilver ingots.

The largeſt ox may be bought for about 20 s. ſterling and the ſtrongeſt camel for about 2 l. ſterling.

Tomskoi, is a town ſituated upon the river Tom, and famou for its commerce to China by the ſubjects of the Chan of Buſuchtu, and by the Bochares, among whom ar

ſome Ruſſian merchants. This journey conſiſts of three months in going, and three months in returning; but with inexpreſſible trouble; becauſe every particular, even wood and water, muſt be tranſported in ſome places on camels; and it would be impoſſible for the Ruſſians alone, or other foreign nations, to perform this journey; becauſe the country abounds with robbers, who pillage all paſſengers unleſs they are well eſcorted.

The principal commerce of Tomſkoi conſiſts in fiſh, corn, lead, iron, and copper, which are found in the neighbouring mountains; but what makes it moſt famous, is the trade of the white furs called Telarskibielki, which are hard to be met with elſewhere.

There is alſo rock cryſtal in its neighbourhood, and upon the banks of the river divers ſtones of different colours; but ſcarce more beautiful than the factitious ſtones made in Europe.

Aſoph, or *Azach*, a city of Coban Tartary, is now ſubject to Ruſſia; being ſituated upon the Don, or Tanais, not far from the place where this great river empties itſelf into the Palus Meotis. This part of Aſia was ſcarce known in Europe before the year 1695; but the famous Czar Peter Alexiowitz having taken this fortreſs from the Turks, with the deſign of eſtabliſhing a fleet there, which ſhould not only acquire for him the whole commerce of the Black ſea, but alſo be capable of making the Grand Signior tremble in his capital, Aſoph attracted very ſoon the attention of all people; but by the treaty of 1739, between Ruſſia and Turky, it was agreed, that the fortifications ſhould be demoliſhed, and the town remain ſubject to Ruſſia; which has prevented the Ruſſians from eſtabliſhing a maritime force at Aſoph.

It is from Aſoph that a part of the cavear ſold at Conſtantinople comes; where, one year with another, there arrive to the amount of 10,000 butts, the butt weighing 7 quintals and a half.

Two or three ſaiks laden with ſturgeons, come alſo yearly from Aſoph to Conſtantinople; but theſe fiſh are not ſo good as thoſe caught at Kily.

To this trade of Aſoph may be added the ſlave trade, which is very conſiderable; being carried on by the Turks and Greeks, who purchaſe them from the Crim-Tartars.

Two hundred years ago, Ruſſia having no communication with any other ſea than the White ſea, and the Frozen ocean at that time unfrequented, had then but a very ſlender ſhare of foreign trade. Their furs, and other merchandiſe, came to us from Livonia, which was under another ſovereign; and were embarked at the ports of Narva, Revel, Pernaw, or Riga; but in the laſt year of the reign of Edward VI. a ſociety of Engliſh merchants being incorporated by the name of "The merchant adventurers for the diſcovery of lands unknown, &c." of whom Sebaſtian Cabot was the firſt governor, they fitted out three ſhips, the admiral called the Bona Eſperance, of 120 ton, commanded by Sir Hugh Willoughby; the ſecond called the Edward Bonadventure, of 160 ton, commanded by Captain Richard Chancellor; and the third called the Bona Confidentia, of 90 ton, commanded by Captain Cornelius Duforth.

In this voyage, Sir Hugh Willoughby and Captain Duforth, ſailing too far northward, were found in a creek near Kegor, on the coaſt of Lapland; Sir Hugh, and all his company, conſiſting of 70 perſons, being frozen to death. Captain Chancellor, being ſeparated from the other two by a ſtorm on the coaſt of Norway, ſteered for Wardhouſe, the moſt northerly part of Norway, as had been agreed upon in caſe of an accident, and afterwards went to Archangel. Here he learnt that this country was called Muſcovy, or Ruſſia, and that John Baſiliowitz was the ſovereign of it: the governor immediately diſpatched an expreſs to Moſcow, with intelligence that the Engliſh had found the way into the bay of Archangel, and deſired to eſtabliſh a trade there; whereupon the ſovereign of Ruſſia ordered, that proper conveniencies ſhould be prepared to attend the captain and his company to Moſcow; when the captain preſented to him a general letter from Edward VI. In anſwer to which his Ruſſian majeſty declared, that he was deſirous the Engliſh ſhould reſort to his country and traffic there.

Soon after, the company's agents, and the Ruſſian commiſſaries, had ſeveral conferences upon the ſubject of trade; and his Ruſſian majeſty granted to Sebaſtian Cabot the governor, Sir George Barnes conſul, and Sir John Greſham and aſſiſtants, and to the commonalty of the aforeſaid fellowſhip, and their ſucceſſors for ever, among others the privileges and immunities following:

1. That the ſaid company, their agents and factors, with their ſhips, goods and merchandiſe, might enter into any of the cities or territories of Ruſſia, by ſea, land, or freſh water, and there remain and traffic with the merchants and people of any nation whatſoever, and with the ſame, or any other goods and merchandiſe, depart into any other country at pleaſure, without any reſtraint, or paying any toll, cuſtom, or impoſition whatſoever, for their ſhips, merchandiſes, or other effects, without ſtanding in need of any other ſafe conduct, or licence general or ſpecial from the government, than this preſent grant.

2. That the Engliſh ſhould be ſubject to, and governed only by ſuch perſons as the company ſhould appoint; and thoſe who fled from juſtice ſhould be delivered up to the Engliſh company by the Ruſſians.

Thus were the Engliſh eſtabliſhed in the Ruſſian trade, and enjoyed the ſole benefit of it for 25 or 30 years, without interruption; when the Dutch began to put in for it. It was not long before that the Spaniards and Portugueſe had forced into America and the Eaſt Indies, whereby they engroſſed moſt of the trade of all the world, and amaſſed a prodigious treaſure: this incited the Engliſh to attempts of the like nature, who hoped a ſhorter paſſage to the Indies, by the N. E. or N. W. and thereby to partake of thoſe beneficial trades, or rather to diſcover ſome countries equally rich to the northward, which neither the Spaniards nor Portugueſe had yet frequented: for all Europe ſeemed to acquieſce at firſt in the propoſition the Pope had made of the new diſcovered countries in the eaſt to the Portugueſe, and thoſe in the weſt to the Spaniards. It was 80 years at leaſt before the Engliſh, or any other nation in Europe, attempted to trade, or ſend colonies to the Eaſt or Weſt Indies after they were diſcovered; the Engliſh ſtill continued to neglect the beaten road thither, and threw away their men and money in attempting an impracticable paſſage thither by the N. E. and N. W. for near 50 years ſucceſſively, in which attempt the Dutch followed their ſteps; however, the Engliſh by this means happened to eſtabliſh a trade to Ruſſia in the manner abovementioned, and fell into the whale-fiſhery on the coaſt of Greenland. But tho' the Engliſh privileges in Ruſſia were ſeveral times confirmed by their emperors, the Dutch at this day have an equal ſhare in that trade; and the Engliſh pay the ſame duties of import and export as other nations.

The Dutch no ſooner found the way to Ruſſia, than, according to their conſtant cuſtom all the world over, they began to magnify the power of their ſtate, to vilify the Engliſh, and endeavour to ſupplant them in their trade; which occaſioned often an abridgment of the privileges of the Engliſh, and hardſhips to their merchants and factors: but they were not entirely deprived of the advantages granted them by the crown of Ruſſia, until the murder of King Charles I. when the Dutch, tho' themſelves enemies to monarchy by principle, repreſented the Engliſh as the moſt abandoned race of men, advocates of anarchy, and deſtroyers of their princes, who deſerved to be extirpated by all foreign nations; which had ſuch an influence upon the Ruſſians, that the Dutch gained their ends. Since that unhappy æra, the Engliſh have been obliged to pay ſuch cuſtoms as the Ruſſians were pleaſed to demand, which they raiſe and fall according to the caprice of their princes, and are ſeldom leſs than 5 *per cent.* on merchandiſe.

As the ſovereign is the moſt conſiderable merchant in Ruſſia, their ſhips at preſent ſerve indifferently for men of war and merchantmen: but the Ruſſians have not made any attempt towards a foreign trade in their own bottoms till within a few years.

By the treaty of commerce concluded between Great Britain and Ruſſia, in December 1734, it was agreed, that the ſubjects of Great Britain might bring into Ruſſia all

ſorts of goods and merchandiſe, and carry them through the dominions of Ruſſia, by the ſhorteſt and moſt convenient way to Perſia, paying 3 *per cent. ad valorem*, in rix-dollars, from the duty and tranſit of the ſaid goods, and no more under any pretence whatſoever; the ſame duty being to be paid for all goods brought from Perſia into Ruſſia.

The opening of a trade over the Caſpian ſea to Perſia, has, ever ſince the diſcovery of Archangel by the Engliſh, been conſidered as capable of producing ſo many advantages to Great Britain, that attempts were made towards obtaining a ſhare in it ſo early as the very eſtabliſhment of the Ruſſian company. King Edward VI. in 1553 ſent out Sir Hugh Willoughby and Capt. Chancellor, who diſcovered Archangel; after which a trade was ſettled in Ruſſia, and extended to Perſia over the Caſpian in 1581, when the war which broke out between the Turks and Perſians hindered the Engliſh from puſhing on their diſcoveries, and defeated their moſt ſanguine expectations.

The French formed a deſign of opening a trade from Archangel over the Caſpian ſea, in the beginning of the laſt century, as well as in this; but it does not appear that they carried either into execution: though it is certain that they chiefly ſupply Turky with woollen goods, and gain upon the Engliſh in that trade every day; beſides they probably do and may through them ſupply a great part of Perſia.

Peter the Great, a few months before his death, requeſted in a particular manner of Mr. Richard Mainwaring, an Engliſh merchant, then on his departure for England, to treat with the merchants in London, about opening a trade through his country to Perſia: but this was neglected, till the year 1738, when Mr. John Elton made a propoſal to ſome of the Britiſh factors to carry on a trade through Ruſſia into Perſia, by way of the Caſpian ſea; which was encouraged by an act of parliament. Britiſh factors were ſent into the north of Perſia; and the trade was carried on with ſome ſucceſs, till the Ruſſian miniſtry put an end to it in 1746, by prohibiting it from being carried on through their country; which was owing to a jealouſy of Capt. Elton, who had been formerly in the Ruſſian ſervice, and was employed as a factor for the Engliſh Ruſſian company for eſtabliſhing this trade in Perſia, where he entered into the ſervice of Nadir Shah, and built ſhips for him in the European manner on the Caſpian, which gave the Ruſſians great offence, as they dreaded that this would give the Perſians the command of that ſea.

The tranſit duty in Ruſſia is 3 *per cent.* on the value of Engliſh goods, with an agio of 150 *per cent.* which, with other petty charges, make it about 8 *per cent.* only in the cuſtom-houſe: and in Perſia the duty on European goods is 5 *per cent.* on the value.

But, however advantageous this trade appeared, and notwithſtanding the encouragement it received from the Britiſh parliament, it has fell to nothing. See *Perſia*, and *Silk*.

The revenues of the Czarina are ſaid to amount only to 3,000,000 l. ſterling a year. Never any nation received ſo entire a change, as this did in the reign of Peter the Great, who died on the 8th of February 1725. Before this great Prince aſcended the throne, the Ruſſians deſpiſed all arts and ſciences; and looked on every other nation with the utmoſt contempt; never imitating any of their improvements, or travelling among them. Their armies were a confuſed multitude, and they had not a ſingle ſhip on their coaſts; when Peter I. after travelling through all the polite nations in Europe, obliged his principal ſubjects to do the ſame, and be inſtructed in every art and ſcience. He new modelled their army, and created them a navy: he refined them into the manners of the beſt civilized people, taught them the utility of trade, and made them the moſt flouriſhing and formidable people in the north.

The Greek church is the eſtabliſhed religion; and it is an arbitrary government.

The goods of the Ruſſian produce which are moſt eſteemed, are the leather and hides of Jeriſlaf; the wax and honey of Pleskow; the tallow of Wologda; the oil of the neighbourhood of the Wolga; the hemp and flax of Novogorod; the pitch of Dwina; and the ſables and other furs of Siberia. The court monopoliſe the fur trade; as alſo that of China, and all ſtrong liquors, whether beer, mead, or ſpirits, which muſt be purchaſed of the agents of the government. A kind of land tax is laid on all eſtates, and other poſſeſſions; nor are the clergy excuſed from taxes.

The Ruſſian navy is now become very formidable; tho' when Peter I. came to the throne, he had not one warlike ſhip in his dominions: but now there are from 60 to 80 ſail of capital men of war to be ſeen before Peterſburgh; beſides leſſer men of war, prahmes, frigates, ſloops, and gallies, amounting to above 300 more; which employ a great body of ſeamen, and give Ruſſia the maritime balance over Sweden and Denmark.

The Ruſſians have nothing to fear on the ſide of China and Perſia: but the Turks and the Crim Tartars may give them ſome diſturbance. Ruſſia has no enemies to dread in Europe, where ſhe can rely on the friendſhip of Great Britain. The Ruſſians know very well that the Engliſh were the firſt who diſcovered Archangel; that they had an excluſive privilege to trade in Ruſſia in the reign of Queen Elizabeth; and that Peter the Great, whoſe maxims of government are juſtly dear to them, always ſhewed a diſtinguiſhed regard to the Britiſh merchants. The Ruſſians are alſo ſenſible of the political, as well as the commercial intereſt of the two nations, and conſider Great Britain as their hereditary friend.

Mr. Hanway, a very judicious merchant, who reſided ſeveral years in the Britiſh factory of St. Peterſburg, obſerves, that the Britiſh houſes in that city have not only a trade to Great Britain and Ireland, but to Holland, Pruſſia, Sweden, Holſtein, and ſeveral parts of Germany; as alſo to Portugal, Spain, and Italy. Beſides ſome particular favours in the cuſtoms, the ſame gentleman remarks, that the Britiſh factors in St. Peterſburgh eſteem it a valuable privilege, that in all caſes where they are defendants, particularly bankruptcy, their affairs are cognizable by the college of trade, and their books ſacred to the inſpection of reputable merchants appointed by that college. In many caſes alſo where they are plaintiffs they apply to the college of trade: but their common ſuits and demands for money of the Ruſſian merchants have been for ſome years transferred to the magiſtracy; which Mr. Hanway ſays, was a moſt ignorant and corrupt tribunal in his time; but if it ſhould continue the ſame it is in the power of the factors to repreſent this grievance.

With regard to quartering of ſoldiers in Ruſſia, the Britiſh ſubjects are indulged in a peculiar manner; and no doubt it ought to be deemed a favour, under a military government, to be exempt from it: but the Ruſſians are ſo cautious of being laviſh of any eſſential part of the treaty with Great Britain, that, in order to aſcertain the legality of property, when a Britiſh ſubject firſt appears in the cuſtom-houſe of St. Peterſburg, the officers demand a certificate of the Britiſh conſul, that the perſon is really what he pretends to be; and, without it, they will not clear his goods.

But Mr. Hanway further obſerves, that this Britiſh factory has been for ſome time blended with foreigners, who in conſequence of their naturalization, have enjoyed a participation of the privileges and immunities of the company. This the Britiſh factors ſaw with impatience, and at length ſent their remonſtrances to their principals in London; in conſequence of which, in 1752, an oppoſition was made to a bill then depending before the parliament in behalf of a foreigner.

It was pretended, in favour of ſuch a naturalization, that the trade carried on by the Ruſſian company was a monopoly againſt foreigners. But it was made evident, that there cannot be a greater trade, where a greater liberty is open to the natives of the country than this in queſtion. The Ruſſian markets are always well ſupplied, each trader purſuing his own inclination to import, and his own opinion concerning the riſe and fall of markets, and the opportunities of ſale. Some Britiſh houſes in Petersburg have for ſeveral years had from 40 to 100 bales of cloth remaining over the annual demand. The credit given

the Ruſſians is never leſs than 12 months, unleſs in ſmall articles, and it is often extended to 15 and 18 months; and the price of goods are as low as poſſible, for the merchant to receive a living profit. There are no monopolies, or excluſive privileges, aſſumed by the Ruſſia company; nor any rule of conduct eſtabliſhed, which has the leaſt appearance of being injurious to Great Britain: for any natural-born proteſtant ſubject may, for 5 l. take his freedom of the company, go into Ruſſia, and eſtabliſh a houſe of buſineſs, under the protection of the Britiſh crown. The Engliſh merchant may alſo conſign goods to any perſon who is a native of Ruſſia, or a ſubject of Great Britain; remembering, that the advantage in favour of the Britiſh ſubjects, in Ruſſia, is about one third part in the cuſtoms of ſoldiers cloths, Yorkſhire, and flannels. Nor is there any reſtraint with regard to the markets of Great Britain; for any Ruſſian, as well as freeman of the company, may ſend Ruſſian goods into England; being only to pay the aliens duty, as eſtabliſhed by law, which amounts to 3 s. 4d. on a ton of hemp, or about 3-4ths *per cent.* on the preſent value of hemp, at 23 l. *per* ton. The law of nations, the right of reciprocal protection, beſides the articles of the treaty, make the Ruſſians free to trade to Great Britain; where ſome Ruſſian merchants have actually come; but, finding they could not diſpoſe of their goods in a ſatisfactory manner, nor live near ſo cheap as at home, they returned to their own country.

The Britiſh trade to Ruſſia has ariſen from the connections of the extenſive commerce of the Britiſh factors, entirely independent of Britiſh naturalized ſubjects in Ruſſia: but this is not the caſe with naturalized ſubjects. There long has been, and it is to be hoped ever will be, an honourable diſtinction abroad between Britons and other foreigners, both as Britons and as merchants; not in the eſteem of the Ruſſians only, but of all other nations. Whether it is worthy of national obſervation or not, can be determined only by the nature of the ſubject: but it is apparent, continues Mr. Hanway, that the naturalization of foreigners to reſide in Ruſſia creates ill blood in the breaſts of the Britiſh natural-born ſubjects who are in that country: it would have created much more, but that there are few of the naturalized factors who have not failed: had they conducted their trade with moderation and prudence, it is probable the Britiſh commerce might have been entirely in their hands, and Great Britain nothing the better for the commiſſion on the ſale of Britiſh commodities, or on the purchaſe of thoſe of Ruſſia. Beſides, is it not highly reaſonable to think, that ſuch naturalized ſubjects would be leſs tender than the Britiſh factors, in regard to the prices Great Britain might pay for naval ſtores?

RUSSIA *Company.* See *North* Companies.

Red RUSSIA, or *Little Ruſſia*, is a province of Poland. See *Poland.*

RUYNAS. A root for dying, called by the Indians ſoliman-doſtyn, and found in ſome provinces of Perſia, particularly in the neighbourhood of Tauris.

There is a conſiderable trade of it in the Indies, where are ſent one year with another 300 bales, each bale containing 150 or 160 lb. and 12 lb. of this root uſually coſt 12 mamoudis, or 8 s. 9 d. ſterling.

RYAL. See *Rial.*

RYE. The name of an inferior ſort of bread corn, too well known to require a deſcription.. It is uſually ſold at the corn exchange in London, from 17 to 18 s. the quarter. See *Corn.*

RYE, or *Ry.* A ſhore, ſtrand, or bank of the ſea.

RYE. A borough and port-town of Suſſex, ſituated on a bay of the Engliſh channel, 60 miles S. E. of London, and 30 miles E. of Lewes.

RYPEN. A city and port-town of Denmark, in the province of Jutland, capital of the territory of Rypen, ſituated on a bay of the German ocean, in 9 deg. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 60 miles N. W. of Sleſwic.

S.

SAC

S. IN books of navigation, ſignifies ſouth; *S. E.* ſouth-eaſt; *S. W.* ſouth-weſt; *S. S. E.* ſouth-ſouth-eaſt.

S. ſometimes alſo ſtands for *ſocius*, fellow, member; and ſometimes for *ſocietas*, as *R. S. S. regiæ ſocietatis ſocius*, fellow of the royal ſociety.

S. A. in medicinal preſcriptions, is an abbreviature of *ſecundum artem*, according to the rules of art, chiefly uſed where ſome uncommon care or dexterity is required.

SABA. One of the Caribbee iſlands in the Atlantic or American ocean, ſituated in 63 deg. of W. lon. and 18 deg. of N. lat. a little W. of St. Chriſtopher's, ſubject to the Dutch. See *Dutch* America.

SABLE. A kind of a wild pole-cat, whoſe ſkin is furniſhed with pretty long hair, ſoft, and gloſſy, bordering upon a black colour, and ranked among the moſt precious furs.

The ſables, called by ſome ermins, are found commonly in Lapland and Siberia, two provinces of Muſcovy; and the privilege of hunting them, together with other animals that furniſh ſuch like beautiful furs, makes a conſiderable part of the Ruſſian revenues.

They are either hunted by criminals who are condemned to live there; or by ſoldiers, who reſide there often 7 or 8 years together.

Both are obliged to bring every week into the imperial warehouſes a certain number of ſkins, at which they are taxed; and as they are to take care, under very ſevere penalties, that theſe ſkins are not perforated, or daubed with blood, they diſcharge only one ball at the animal, and take aim at the head, at which they are very expert.

The ſables are uſually brought from Ruſſia by the way of Archangel, and are purchaſed in cheſts ſorted from No. 1. to No. 10. which diminiſh in beauty from the firſt to the laſt.

A cheſt of the deareſt ſort coſts uſually about 440 l. ſterling; which amounts to about 20 s. *per* ſkin, one with another. A cheſt of the inferior ſort is ſold for about 264 l. ſterling; which amounts to about 13 s. a ſkin, one with another.

The greateſt conſumption of theſe ſkins is in Turky, or in Ruſſia: however, great parcels of them are bought up by the Engliſh, Dutch and Hamburghers, and diſtributed in other countries. See *Fur*, and *Ruſſia*.

The ſables ſleep in the winter for a conſiderable time, in very ſecret places; and, if they are diſcovered, they roll themſelves in a round form, like the hedge-hog. They live upon mice, cedar-kernels, red berries, fiſh, and other things. There are ſables as white as ſnow, but ſeldom to be met with. The moſt beautiful ſable-ſkins have generally the worſt tails, and the worſt ſkins the fineſt tails.

SABLE *Cape*, or *Cape Sable*. The moſt ſoutherly point or promontory of Nova Scotia, ſituated in 65 deg. of W. lon. and 43 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. near which is a fine cod-fiſhery.

SACARE. A ſmall weight uſed by the inhabitants of Madagaſcar for gold and ſilver, weighing as much as the European ſcruple. Above the ſacare are the ſompi and vari; under it the nanqui and nanque.

SACCAI. A city and port-town of Japan, ſituated on the bay of Meaco, in 135 deg. of E. lon. and 36 deg. of N. lat. 300 miles S. W. of Jeddo.

SACCHI. A corn-meaſure uſed at Leghorn, 40 of which make 10¼ quarters of London.

SACK *of wool*, is a determinate quantity, containing juſt two weys, or 13 tod, or 26 ſtone, and every ſtone 14 pounds; ſo that the ſack is 364 lb. See *Wool*.

In Scotland a ſack is 24 ſtone, each ſtone containing 16 lb. A ſack of cotton wool is a quantity from one hundred and half to 400 weight.

SACK *of coals*, is the the 12th part of a chaldron, and three buſhels make the ſack. See *Meaſure*.

SAF

SACK, is alſo a certain meaſure uſed in ſeveral parts of Europe for corn, legumes, and other things; or rather a eſtimation to which ſeveral other meaſures are referred thus, at Amſterdam the ſack is uſed for meaſuring corn 4 ſchepels make the ſack, and 36 ſacks the laſt, or about 10¼ quarters of London.

SACQUIERS, is a term at Leghorn for the ſalt meaſurers because they furniſh ſacks for the exportation of ſalt.

SACRIFICE. An iſland in the gulph of Mexico in America, ſituated in 99 deg. of W. lon. and 18 deg. of N. lat. 45 miles eaſt of La Vera Cruz, ſubject to Spain.

SADDLE. A kind of ſtuffed ſeat, laid on the back of a horſe, for the conveniency of the rider.

The origin of the ſaddle is not well known. Goropius Becanus attributes its invention to the Salii, a people among the antient Franks; and hence, ſays he, came the Latin *ſella*, ſaddle. It is certain the antient Romans were unacquainted with the uſe either of the ſaddle or ſtirrups; whence Galen obſerves, in many places, that the Roman cavalry, in his time, were ſubject to ſeveral diſeaſes of the hips and legs, for want of having their feet ſuſtained on horſeback: and, long before him, Hippocrates had noted, that the Scythians, who were much on horſeback, were troubled with defluxions in their legs, becauſe of their hanging down.

The firſt time we hear of ſaddles among the Romans was in the year 340; when Conſtantine, endeavouring to deprive his brother of the empire, made head againſt his army; and entering the ſquadron where he himſelf was, threw him off his ſaddle, as we are informed by the hiſtorian Zonaras. Before, they made uſe of ſquare panels, ſuch as is ſeen in the ſtatue of Antoninus in the capitol. The uſe of ſaddles was firſt eſtabliſhed in England by a law of Henry VIII. whereby the nobility were obliged to ride on ſaddles: though it is but very lately that the Iriſh have taken to it. There are various kinds of ſaddles, as the

Running SADDLE. A very ſmall one, with round ſkirts.

Burford SADDLE, which has the ſeat and ſkirts plain.

Pad SADDLE. Of which there are two kinds; the one made with burs before the ſeat, the other with bolſters under the thighs.

French Pad SADDLE, the burs whereof come all round the ſeat.

Portmantua SADDLE, furniſhed with a cantle behind the ſeat, to keep a carriage off the rider's back.

Side SADDLE, and *Pillions*, are for women.

War SADDLE, furniſhed with a cantle, and a holſter both behind and before.

SADLER. An artificer, who makes ſaddles, and provides all manner of furniture for riding-horſes and horſemen as houſings, holſter-caſes, bridles, capariſons, girths, ſurſingles, bruſhes, ſpunges, and curry-combs.

SADLERS *company of London*, appears to be a fraternity of great antiquity, by a convention agreed upon between them and the dean and chapter of St. Martins le Grand about the reign of Richard I. at which time it is imagined to have been an adulterine guild, as it was only incorporated by letters-patent of Edward I. by the appellation of The wardens and keepers of the commonalty of the myſtery or art of ſadlers, London.

This company is governed by a prime, and 3 other wardens, with 18 aſſiſtants: they have a livery of 7 members, whoſe fine of admiſſion is 10 l. and a beautiful hall in Cheapſide, wherein they diſpatch their affairs.

SADERASAPATAN. A port-town on the coaſt of Coromandel, in the Eaſt Indies, ſituated in 80 deg. of E. lon. and 12 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 40 miles ſouth of fort St. George; where the Dutch have a factory.

SAFE *Conduct*. A ſecurity given by the prince, under his great ſeal to a ſtranger, for his quiet coming in and paſſing out of the realm; the ſafe conduct being granted to enemies, and the paſſport to friends. See *Paſſport*.

Judg

Judges ſometimes give ſafe-conducts to delinquents or priſoners, to enable them to act in their affairs.

SAFE-*Guard*, at ſea, denotes a rope, which ſaves and ſecures any thing: for inſtance, that whereby perſons walk ſecurely over the bolt-ſprit.

SAFE-*Guard of the helm*, is a rope which goes through the helm, and is faſtened to the ſuttocks of the ſhip.

SAFFRON. A plant which produces a flower of the ſame name; whence alſo a drug called ſaffron, or crocus, is gathered.

The root which produces the ſaffron is a kind of bulb, or onion, covered with ſeveral bulbous cartilages. Its graſſy leaves are long, narrow, thick, and ſoft to the touch: its flower, which appears ſometimes before the leaves, and ſometimes after them, is a pale purple, ſtreaked with whitiſh lines; but towards the bottom of the petala the purple is deeper: from the middle of the flower ariſe three long flame-coloured ſtamina or chives, crowned with their apices. Under theſe is the ovary, or vaſculum ſeminale, by ſome called the piſtil of the plant. It is divided into three capſulæ, wherein the ſeeds are formed. From the upper part of the ovarium ariſes the ſtylus, a long, ſlender tube, incloſed with the fiſtular part of the flower; where it is of a whitiſh colour, but changes into a yellow before its diviſion, which is into three parts, oppoſite to the tops of the ſtamina. It is theſe three parts only that make the true ſaffron of the ſhops, for the ſake of which alone the plant is cultivated. They are of a yellow colour juſt at the beginning from the ſtylus, but afterwards are all of a deep red colour; only their jagged extremities tipped with white inclining to yellow.

As ſoon as the flower is gathered, they ſeparate the ſtylets, and lay them on hurdles, or in large ſieves, or on a little kiln for that purpoſe, with a little coal-fire underneath to dry them. When dry, the ſaffron is in its perfection, and fit for uſe. It is obſerved, that five pounds of freſh ſtyles, which ſome, by miſtake, call the chives, only make one pound of dry ſaffron. The good qualities of ſaffron are, that its ſtyles be long and broad, that they be velveted over with a fine red, of an agreeable ſmell, free of yellow threads, and very dry. The beſt ſaffron in Europe is that of England, chiefly about Walden in Eſſex: that brought from Spain is good for nothing, becauſe of the oil the Spaniards mix with it to make it keep.

The ſaffron of Perſia is in great eſteem, and grows with little culture in ſeveral parts of that country. The beſt is found on the coaſts of the Caſpian ſea, and in the neighbourhood of Amadan, the antient Suza; however, the latter yields in goodneſs to the former.

The ſaffron of Smyrna is of a pretty good quality, and one year with another about 20 quintals are gathered of it. There is alſo a baſtard kind of ſaffron in the Levant, called *ſaffranum*.

Saffron of Malabar and Babylon is the root called commonly terramerita. See *Terramerita*.

The ſaffron-grounds in England lie between Saffron-Walden in Eſſex, and Cambridge, which is an open level country, with few incloſures; and the ſaffron is always planted upon fallow ground, that which has borne barley the year before being moſt preferred. The crop is for two years, and the land lies fallow the third: but the ſaffron grounds are ſeldom above three acres, or leſs than one; the ſoil being a temperate dry mould, ſuch as commonly lies upon chalk, and is of a hazel colour. The time of planting is commonly in July, which is done by ſetting the roots with a narrow ſpade, called a ſpit-ſhovel; the quantity of roots planted in an acre being generally about 16 quarters, or 128 buſhels, amounting to about 400,000 roots. In September the ſaffron-flowers appear, and are gathered early in the morning; but, about the Midſummer after the third crop is gathered, the roots are taken up and tranſplanted.

The cultivation of one acre for ſaffron may coſt about 24 l. for three years: it may produce 26 lb. of neat ſaffron in that time, which is worth about 30 s. a pound; ſo that the neat profits are 15 l. 13 s. though, in plentiful years, ſaffron is ſold for 20 s. a pound, and at other times from 3 to 4 l.

Saffron is uſed both in food and medicine, to chear, fortify, and reſolve. It is the greateſt cordial in medicine, and a ſure promoter of a diaphoreſis: it is alſo uſed by illuminors to make a golden yellow colour.

SAFFRON, is alſo a name given to ſeveral chemical preparations, from the reſemblance of their colour to that of vegetable ſaffron, but more uſually called croci. Such are

SAFFRON *of Venus*;

SAFFRON *of Mars*; and

SAFFRON *of Gold*.

SAFRE, or *Zafre*. A mineral, uſed for giving a blue colour to glaſs and earthen ware; which is brought from Surat in the Eaſt Indies, particularly by the Engliſh and Dutch.

The ſafre ſerves alſo for colouring ſome enamelled works; and the falſe lapis is only tin calcined, coloured with this mineral. The factitious ſapphires have alſo their colour from ſafre.

SAGAPENUM. A medicinal gum, whoſe ſmell comes very near that of the pine, from whence it has its name. It flows by inciſion from the trunk of a ferulaceous plant growing in Perſia. The beſt is in bright tranſparent tears, of a ſtrong, pungent, porraceous ſmell, and the whiter and freer from dirt the better. Sometimes it is found as white, both within and without ſide, as milk; though this is very rare. It is eſteemed aperitive and purgative; proper in the epilepſy, aſthma, and palſy; and is alſo uſed externally, to aſſuage pains, and reſolve tumours.

SAGATHEE, in commerce. A ſlight woollen ſtuff, being a kind of ſerge or ratteen, ſometimes mixed with a little ſilk; manufactured chiefly at Amiens in France, as alſo in ſome parts of England.

SAGE. A medicinal herb, of an agreeable, aromatic taſte, eſteemed an excellent cephalic of the detergent kind, and on that account likewiſe uſed as a vulnerary and diuretic. There are ſeveral kinds of ſage; thoſe uſed and cultivated in England are the tea-ſage, or ſage of virtue, the red ſage, and the common or wormwood ſage: the firſt has the moſt agreeable flower; on which account it is cut when young, and full of ſap, dried, and kept for tea.

The Dutch dry and prepare their ſage like other teas, and carry it to the Eaſt Indies as a very precious thing; where they get a good market for it, the Chineſe preferring it to the beſt of their Indian teas; and for every pound of ſage-tea, giving in exchange two of theirs, which they ſell again very dear in Europe. See *Tea*.

The common, or wormwood ſage, is eſteemed the beſt in medicine; and it is that alone which is uſed in ſhops. It makes an excellent gargariſm, eſpecially if ſharpened with a little acid. Its decoction is very grateful and cooling, with the addition of a little lemon juice. It is both detergent and abſorbent, and as ſuch finds place in diet-drinks, and medicated ales, intended for cleanſers and ſweeteners of the blood.

Sage, when viewed with a microſcope, appears covered all over with little ſpiders, which are ſeen to walk about. It yields, by diſtillation, a very agreeable, aromatic oil, of ſome uſe in the ſhops.

SAGGIO. A ſmall weight uſed at Venice, being the 6th part of an ounce. The pound contains 11 ounces, each ounce 6 ſaggios, and each ſaggio 20 carats.

SAGO, *Sagu*, or *Sagdu*. A medicinal ſimple, brought from the Eaſt Indies; of conſiderable uſe in diet, as a nouriſher, and reſtorative. Sago is a ſort of bread procured from a tree called landan, growing in the Moluccas. When the tree is felled, they cleave it into two in the middle, and dig out the pith, which is even eatable when it comes freſh out of the tree. They pound it very ſmall in a mortar, till ſuch time as it is reduced into a kind of powder, ſomewhat like meal: this done, they put it in a ſearce made of the bark of the ſame tree, and place the ſearce over a ciſtern made of its leaves, pouring water upon it; by which means they ſeparate the pure part of the powder, from the veins of wood wherewith the pith abounds. The flour thus filtrated they call ſago; which they make into paſte, and bake it in earthen furnaces: this they do with ſo much expedition, that in three

three or four hours a man makes as much bread as will feed a hundred perſons a day. From the ſame tree they alſo draw a liquor, as agreeable to drink as European wines. The leaves, when they are young, are covered with a kind of cotton, whereof they make their cloth; and as they grow older, they ſerve them to thatch their houſes. The larger veins of theſe leaves ſerve them for ſtakes in building; and of the ſmaller they make a kind of hemp, wherewith they make very good ropes.

SAH-CHERAY. A Perſian weight of 1170 derhems, each derhem being the 50th part of the pound of 16 oz. avoirdupois. See *Batman*.

SAICK, *Sayque*, or *Saique*. A Turkiſh veſſel, very proper for the carriage of merchandiſes. It has ſquare ſails on the middle maſt, without either mizzen, top-gallant, or ſhrouds; only a main-maſt, with a main-top-maſt, both very high, with a bolt-ſprit, and a little mizzen-maſt. The height of the main-maſt makes the ſaicks viſible at a great diſtance. Their make renders it impoſſible for them to go with a ſide-wind: but when they have the wind behind them, nothing can outgo them; and the generality of them carry no guns.

SAIL, in navigation. An aſſemblage of ſeveral breadths of canvas, or ſtrong hempen cloth, ſewed together by the liſts, and edged around with a cord, faſtened to the yards and ſtays of a veſſel, to make it drive before the wind which bears thereupon.

There are two kinds of ſails; the one ſquare, generally uſed in high-bottomed veſſels: this has various names, according to the various maſts it is faſtened to; as the main-ſail, mizzen-ſail, ſprit-ſail, and the like.

The others are triangular, called ſmack-ſails, and by ſome Latin-ſails, becauſe chiefly uſed in Italy, and in flat-bottomed veſſels; though they are alſo uſed on the mizzen-maſts and ſtays of other veſſels: they need but few ropes, and little wind; but are dangerous, and not to be uſed in foul weather.

There are ordinarily ten ſails in large veſſels; which number is increaſed at bottom, by the addition of bonnets, and at the ſides by caſe-ſails. A veſſel is ſaid to ſet ſail, to go with full ſail, to make all her ſail, that is, to open all her ſail. To be under ſail, is to be ready to ſet ſail.

SAILS, alſo denote the vanes of windmills, or the arms or flights whereby the wind has its effect on windmills, which are either horizontal or perpendicular.

SAIL-*cloth*, is a particular ſort of cloth, or canvas, made of hemp. See *Sail*.

By the ſtatute of the firſt of James I. it was enacted, that no perſon ſhould make any cloth for ſails, called mildernix and powledavies, but ſuch as ſhould be apprentices in the trade of making the ſaid cloth for ſeven years, upon pain of forfeiting 20 s. for every month: and that no perſon ſhould make the ſaid cloths of any other ſtuff than of good hemp, nor of leſs length than 33 yards, nor of leſs breadth than three quarters; nor ſhould ſell, or offer to ſell, the ſaid cloths, before the ſtuff was well beaten, ſcoured, bleached, and the cloth well driven with a brazen or iron ſhuttle, upon pain to forfeit for every piece 5 s.

By the ſtatute of the 7th and 8th of William III. it was enacted, That ſo much Engliſh made ſail-cloth as ſhould be fit for the ſervice of his Majeſty's navy, ſhould have the preference of foreign ſail-cloth. And the commiſſioners of the navy were required, to contract for ſuch Engliſh ſail-cloth, and to allow the makers 2 d. *per* yard above what they paid for of equal goodneſs; and that Engliſh made ſail-cloth, upon proof upon oath of its being made in this kingdom, ſhould be exported free of cuſtom.

By the ſtatute of the 9th of George II. it was enacted, That all ſail-cloth made in Great Britain, ſhould be made in manner hereafter mentioned, namely, every bolt of Britiſh ſail-cloth, 24 inches in breadth, and 38 yards in length, ſhould weigh according to the following numbers and weights:

No. 1.	44	lb. each bolt.	No. 6.	29	lb. each bolt:
2.	41		7.	24	
3.	38		8.	21	
4.	35		9.	18	
5.	32		10.	15	

In caſe any bolt of Britiſh ſail-cloth ſhould be made of a different breadth or length, ſuch bolt ſhould be in weight in proportion, and ſhould be marked with ſuch number as ſhould be agreeable to the weight, and the warp or chain of the firſt ſix numbers ſhould be wholly of double yarn, and ſhould contain in every bolt that ſhould be 24 inches in breadth, 360 double threads; and in every bolt 30 inches in breadth, 700 double threads, and in every other breadth in proportion; and the warp, or ſhoot-yarn, in every bolt of the four firſt numbers, ſhould be of long flax, without any mixture of ſhort or bar-flax, or of long flax, or Italian hemp, or Braack hemp; and all the flax and hemp that ſhould be uſed in making the warp and ſhoot-yarn of ſuch ſail-cloth of the ſaid four numbers, ſhould be of a ſtrong ſtaple, good in its kind, and well dreſſed; and the yarn ſhould be well cleanſed, even ſpun, and well twiſted; and all the ſhoot-yarn of each bolt of the ſaid four numbers ſhould be as ſtrong as the warp-yarn, and cloſe ſtruck, with four ſhoots of double threads at the diſtance of every two feet; and both the warp and ſhoot-yarn ſhould be as ſtrong as the warp and ſhoot-yarn that are uſually wrought in the ſail-cloth of thoſe four numbers that are made for his Majeſty's navy; and that no flax-yarn wrought in Britiſh ſail-cloth ſhould be whitened with lime, on forfeiture of 6 d. *per* yard, or be worked up in new ſails in Great Britain, any ways eſſentially different or inferior to the aforeſaid directions. And that every maker ſhould cauſe this act, or an abſtract thereof, to be put in ſome public part of the loft, or work-room, where his trade is carried, under the penalty of 40 s.

By acts paſſed in the 12th Anne, 5th and 10th Geo. I. 8th, 15th, and 16th George II. ſail-cloth Britiſh made, for which bounty has been given on exportation, afterwards relanded, is forfeited; and every perſon concerned in bringing back, or relanding the ſame, forfeits 2 s. for every ell.

By an act in the 9th George II. ſail-cloth, Britiſh made or canvas foreign, uſually entered as Hollands duck, or Vitery canvas, uſed in making ſails, muſt at importation be ſtamped with a ſtamp, to be provided by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, denoting the place from whence the ſame was brought.

For counterfeiting the ſaid ſtamp, or knowingly expoſing to ſale any foreign ſail-cloth, or canvas, with a counterfeit ſtamp thereon, the forfeiture is 50 l.

No perſon to work up any ſuch foreign ſail-cloth, or canvas, without the ſtamp, upon forfeiture thereof, and 20 l.

Every ſhip or veſſel built in Great Britain, or his Majeſty's plantations in America, is on her firſt ſetting out to be furniſhed with a compleat ſett of ſails of Britiſh ſail-cloth, upon penalty of 50 l. to be paid by the maſter thereof.

Every manufacturer muſt affix, or impreſs a ſtamp, containing his name and place of abode on every piece of ſail-cloth made by him.

If any perſon ſhall ſell, or expoſe to ſale, or work up into ſails any piece of Britiſh ſail-cloth, without being ſtamped, and be convicted thereof by the oath of a credible witneſs, before one or more juſtices of the peace of the county, &c. where the offence is committed, he ſhall forfeit to 10 l. for every piece.

Any perſon wilfully cutting off or obliterating ſuch ſtamp, or uſing a ſtamp containing the name and place of abode of any other perſon, is upon conviction to forfeit 5 l. for every offence, to be recovered by diſtreſs, and ſale of the offenders goods, by warrant from two or more juſtices, to be applied to the uſe of the informer.

The bounty on Britiſh made ſail-cloth exported was granted by the ſtatute of the 12th of Queen Anne, and by the 24th of George II. continued to 1757.

Britiſh made ſail-cloth, or canvas, fit for or made into ſails, upon the exporter's oath of its being made in Great Britain, that it is exported without intention of relanding in Great Britain, and that no former allowance for this duty was made for the ſame, is to be allowed for every ell ſo exported 1 s.

And by the 4th George II. was granted, without

mitation, a further allowance for every ell ſo exported 1 d. To be paid out of the new duty on foreign ſail-cloth 2 d. See Naval *Stores*.

SAIL-*cloth-maker*, is a perſon who makes ſail-cloth of dreſſed hemp, ſpun in the ſame manner as rope-yarn, both by men and women, and wove like other linen cloth; but the Dutch ſail-cloth-makers are reputed the beſt.

SAIL-*maker*, is a perſon who ſews and ſhapes all the ſails.

SAILING, in a general ſenſe, is uſed for the art or act of navigating, or of determining all the caſes of a ſhip's motion by means of ſea-charts. See *Navigation*.

Of this there are three kinds, plain, Mercator's, and circulating.

Plain SAILING, is that performed by means of rhumbs drawn on a plain chart.

Mercator's SAILING, is that performed by rhumbs drawn on a Mercator's chart.

Circular SAILING, is that performed by the arch of a great circle, which, of all others, where practicable, is the ſhorteſt.

Doctrine of plain and Mercator's ſailing. I. The longitude and latitude of two places given, to find the departure or miles of longitude.

In plain ſailing, 1. If both places be more eaſterly than the firſt meridian, ſubtract the leſs longitude from the greater, the remainder is the difference of meridians. If one of the places be more eaſterly, and the other more weſterly than the firſt meridian, and the longitude of the more eaſterly to the compliment of the longitude of the more weſterly to a whole circle, the ſum is the difference of meridians. 2. Divide the difference of meridians into ſo many parts as there are degrees in the difference of latitude; or if the difference of latitude be greater than that of the meridians, into ſo many fewer. 3. Reduce the minutes of longitude anſwering to one part, into miles of the ſeveral parallels, in the former caſe; or into miles of the parallel, which is an arithmetically mean proportional between the two, in the latter caſe. 4. The aggregates of theſe parts collected into one ſum, exhibit the departure, or miles of longitude. Suppoſe the longitude of one place 35 deg. and that of the other 47 deg. the difference of meridians is 12. Suppoſe the latitude of the firſt 4 deg. and that of the latter 8 deg. the difference will be 4 deg. conſequently we have ſailed from the 4th to the 8th parallel. Therefore divide 12 by 4, and reduce the quotient 30 into miles in the ſeveral parallels 4, 5, 6, and 7, the ſeveral quotients will be 43 deg. 71 min. 43 deg. 8 min. 43 deg. 65 min. and 43 deg. 59 min. the ſum of which is 174, the departure or miles of longitude required.

In Mercator's ſailing, the reduction is much more commodiouſly performed; wherein the arch intercepted between the two meridians, is applied to an arch of the meridian intercepted between the two parallels; and the diſtance it there meaſures, gives the departure or miles of longitude required. See *Departure*, and *Longitude*.

II. The longitnde and latitude of two places, to and from which a ſhip is to ſail, being given, to find the rhumb to be ſailed on, and the diſtance to be run.

In plain ſailing: 1. Find the departure by the laſt caſe. 2. From the departure, and difference of latitudes, find the loxodromic angle, or rhumb-line; which is done by this proportion: as the difference of latitude is to the departure, ſo is the whole ſine to the tangent of the angle of the rhumb-line. The diſtance then to be run on this rhumb, is to the departure, as the whole ſine to the ſine of the angle of the rhumb.

In Mercator's ſailing, 1. Apply the center of the mariners compaſs on the place ſailed from on the Mercator's chart, and ſo as the north and ſouth line thereof be parallel to ſome of the meridians. 2. Mark the rhumb of the compaſs, wherein the place ſailed to is placed; for this is the rhumb to be ſailed on. 3. The ſame rhumb is likewiſe found by drawing a right line with a protractor, finding the angle the rhumb makes with any meridian it cuts. The ſame may alſo be found by loxodromic tables. Thus, 1. Chuſe a rhumb at pleaſure, and under the ſame, in the tables, find the longitudes correſponding with the given latitudes: the difference whereof, if it coincide with the difference of the given longitudes, the rhumb is well choſen; otherwiſe another muſt be pitched on, either more or leſs oblique, till the tabular difference agree with the given difference. 2. The rhumb thus found, the diſtances anſwering the given latitude, muſt be taken from the tables, and the leſs ſubtracted from the greater, when the remainder is the diſtance ſought.

III. The rhumb and diſtance ſailed being given, to find the longitude and latitude of the place arrived at.

In plain ſailing, 1. From the data, find the difference of latitude of the two places, by the proportion delivered under the article *Rhumb-line*. This difference added to the latitude of the place ſailed from, or ſubtracted from the ſame, the ſum, or the remainder, leaves the latitude of the place ſailed to. 2. From the ſame, find the departure, and thence the latitudes of the place ſailed to, as directed under *Rhumb-line*.

By the loxodromic tables, 1. Under the given rhumb, ſeek the diſtance anſwering to the latitude of the place ſailed from; and either add it to, or ſubtract it from the given diſtance, as the latitude of the place ſailed to is greater, or leſs than that ſailed from. 2. Under the ſame rhumb, aſcend or deſcend further till you meet with the diſtance corrected. 3. The latitude anſwering thereto in the firſt column, is the latitude of the place ſailed to. 4. From the ſecond column of the table take the longitudes correſponding to the latitudes of the places ſailed to and from; their difference is the difference of longitudes of the places ſailed to and from.

IV. The latitude of the places ſailed to and from, together with the rhumb ſailed in, being given; to find the diſtance and difference of latitude.

In plain ſailing: from the difference of latitude, and the rhumb given, find the diſtance, and from the ſame data the departure; this converted into degrees of a great circle, exhibits the difference of longitudes ſought.

By the tables: take both the longitudes and the diſtances anſwering to the latitudes of the given places, out of the tables; then ſubtract both the longitudes and differences from each other; the firſt remainder is the difference of longitude, the latter the diſtance of the places.

V. The latitudes of the places ſailed from and to, with the diſtance given; to find the rhumb, and the difference of longitude.

In plain ſailing: from the difference of latitude, and the diſtance, find the rhumb, and from the ſame data find the departure; which may be alſo determined from the rhumb now found, and the difference of latitude, or from the rhumb and the diſtance run. Laſtly, from the departure find the difference of the longitude.

By the tables: ſubtract the given latitudes from each other; and in the tables ſeek the rhumb, under which the diſtance run anſwers to the given difference of latitude. Subtract the longitude under the rhumb, anſwering to the latitude of the place ſailed to; and that under the ſame rhumb, againſt the latitude of the term ſailed to, from each other, the remainder is the difference of longitude ſought.

VI. The difference of longitudes of the places ſailed to and from, with the latitude of one of the places, and the diſtance run, being given; to find the rhumb, and the latitude of the other.

In plain ſailing: convert the difference of longitude into miles of longitude for the departure; from the given departure, and diſtance run, ſeek the rhumb; and from the ſame, and the rhumb, ſeek the difference of latitude; which, and the latitude of one place being had, the latitude of the other readily follows.

By the tables: take a rhumb at pleaſure, and under the ſame in the tables find the longitude, and the diſtance anſwering the given latitude. Add the given diſtance to the diſtance found in the tables, if the veſſel ſailed from the equator; or ſubtract it therefrom, if it ſailed towards the ſame. With the ſame ſum, or the difference, enter the tables; and the longitude found againſt it ſubtract or add from that juſt found. If the remainder be found the given diſtance of longitudes, the rhumb is well taken; otherwiſe it muſt be changed for a more or

leſs oblique one, till the ſame operation being repeated, the remainder be found the difference of longitudes; then the latitude in the firſt column, correſponding to the diſtance, will be the latitude of the other place.

VII. The difference of longitude, and the latitude of one of the places, being given, together with the rhumb; to find the diſtance, and the latitude of the other place run.

In plain ſailing: reduce the difference of longitude into miles of longitude, or departure, as in the firſt caſe: from the departure and the rhumb find the difference run; and from theſe, or from the rhumb, and the diſtance run, find the diſtance of latitude. This done, as the latitude of one is already had, that of the other is ſo too.

By the tables: under the given rhumb ſeek the diſtance run, and the difference of longitude anſwering to the given latitude. If the veſſel has ſailed towards the pole, the difference of longitude is to be added to the given difference of longitude; if towards the equator, it is to be ſubtracted from the ſame. In the former caſe, deſcend in the table, and in the latter aſcend; till in the firſt the aggregate, in the latter the difference, be ſeen in the column of longitude. The latitude anſwering hereto in the firſt column is that ſought; and from the diſtance anſwering to this latitude in the firſt column, the tabular diſtance is to be ſubtracted; or, in the latter caſe, the diſtance to be ſubtracted from the tabular diſtance. What remains, is the diſtance run.

From the ſolution of theſe caſes in ſailing, it is evident, that ſome are more eaſily performed by the charts than the tables, and that the Mercator's charts are preferable to the plain ones; ſince in the latter the diſtance is not reduced by the map, but by a particular ſcale for that purpoſe.

SAILING, in a more confined ſenſe, is the art of conducting a veſſel from place to place, by the working or handling of her ſails and rudder; though, what is done by the means of this latter, is more properly called ſteering.

To bring ſailing to certain rules, M. Renau computes the force of the water, againſt the ſhip's rudder, ſtern, and ſide, and that of the wind againſt her ſails. In order to this, he, 1. conſiders all fluid bodies, as air, water, &c. as compoſed of little particles, which, when they act upon, or move againſtany ſurface, all move parallel to one another, or ſtrike againſt the ſurface after the ſame manner. 2. That the motion of any body, with regard to a ſurface on which it is to ſtrike, muſt be either perpendicular, parallel, or oblique.

If the different degrees of velocities be conſidered, it will be found, that the forces will then be the ſquares of the velocities of the moving air or water; that is, a wind that blows thrice as ſtrong, or moves thrice as ſwift as another, will have nine times the force upon the ſail. And it being alſo indifferent, whether you conſider the motion of a ſolid in a fluid whoſe particles are at reſt, or of thoſe particles moving all parallel againſt a ſolid that is at reſt, the reciprocal impreſſions being always the ſame; if a ſolid be moved with different velocities in the ſame fluid matter, as ſuppoſe water, the different reſiſtances which it will receive from that water will be in the ſame proportion as the ſquares of the velocities of that body.

SAILORS. The elder ſeamen, who are employed in working and managing the ſails, the tackle, and ſteering. See *Seamen*.

SAIN. A ſilver coin current in Aſiatic Georgia, worth about 2½ d. ſterling.

SAKER. A ſmall ſort of cannon; whereof there are three ſpecies, extraordinary, ordinary, and leaſt ſized.

SAKER *extraordinary*, is about 4 inches diameter at the bore, 1800 lb. weight, 10 feet long, its load 5 lb. ſhot 3 inches and a half diameter, and ſomething more than 7¼ lb. weight, its level is 163 paces.

SAKER *ordinary*, is 3 inches 3 quarters bore, 9 feet long, and 1500 lb. weight: its charge 4 lb. of powder, bullets diameter 3 inches and a half, weight 6 lb. its level range 160 paces.

SAKER *of the leaſt ſize*, is 3 inches and a half diameter at the bore, 1400 pounds weight, 8 feet long, its load near 3 pounds and a half, ſhot 4 pounds 3 quarters weigh and 3 inches and a quarter diameter.

SAL, in chemiſtry, ſalt.

SAL *prunella*. See *Chryſtal* Mineral.

SAL *volatile oleoſum*, is the name of an aromatic volati ſalt, firſt prepared by Sylvius de la Boe, and found a ver good medicine, chiefly as a cephalic, and cordial.

SALAMIS, or *Colouri*. An iſland in the gulph of Engi in European Turky, ſituated in 24 deg. of E. lon. a 37 deg. 32 min. of N. lat. oppoſite to Athens, or S tines, and a little S. W. of it; being 50 miles in circum ference.

SALAMPOURIS. A linen cloth manufactured in ſeve parts of the Coromandel coaſt of India, being eith white or blue; of which the Engliſh of Madras fe great quantities to the Manilles.

SALARY. A ſtipend or wages allowed any perſon, conſideration of his pains, induſtry, or ſervice, in other man's buſineſs.

SALE. A making over of any property, alienation, c vention, or contract; whereby one of the contracti parties engages to deliver a certain thing to another, a put him in poſſeſſion thereof in conſequence of a cert price.

There are two ſorts of ſales; one regarding merchand and other moveable effects; and the other immoveab as houſes, lands, &c.

The ſale of moveable effects is voluntary by deliveranc or forcibly by auction, in a public place authoriſed juſtice.

The ſale of immoveable is alſo forcible, or volunta The forcible are judicially tranſacted by a decree, and voluntary by contracts before notaries. There is anot ſort of voluntary ſale of immoveables made by a dec *ad libitum*, for clearing mortgages, and rendering the quirer certain of his acquiſition.

A merchandiſe, or commodity of good ſale, is that wh is in good condition, and may be eaſily ſold to adv tage.

The ſale of a merchandiſe is ſaid to be high, when product thereof has been conſiderable, and that there much to be gained; and the ſale is ſaid to be over wh all is ſold.

Bill of SALE. See *Bill* of Sale.

SALE *by inch of candle*. See *Candle*.

SALE *by the baſon*, is a term at Amſterdam for all pub ſales, either diſcretionary, or ordered by juſtice; be ſo called, becauſe a copper baſon is uſually ſtruck, wi ſome merchandiſes are adjudged and delivered to laſt bidder.

SALE *out of hand*, is ſaid alſo, in the ſame city, of particu ones from hand to hand, either by the interpoſition brokers, or only by the purchaſer and vender.

SALE, is alſo ſaid of the time of diſpoſing of certain m chandiſes; thus the Eaſt India company is to begin a day the ſale of their ſtuffs, muſlins, &c.

SALEM. A port-town of New England in America, tuated in 70 deg. of W. lon. and 42 deg. 20 min. of lat. a little north of Boſton; ſaid to be the firſt ſettlem the Engliſh had in New England.

SALESMAN. One who keeps a ſhop, and ſells all ſo of cloaths ready made; alſo one who is employed to other mens cattle in Smithfield, or other markets.

SALERNO. A city and port-town of Italy, in the ki dom of Naples, in the Hither Principat, ſituated o bay of the Tuſcan ſea, in 15 deg. 20 min. of E. l and 40 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. 27 miles ſouth Naples.

SALINA, or *Salamis*. A port-town of the iſland of C prus, ſituated in the Levant, on the ſouth-ſide of iſland, 100 miles weſt of Tripoli in Syria.

SALLEE. A port-town of the empire of Morocco, the kingdom of Fez, ſituated on the coaſt of the lantic ocean, in 7 deg. of W. lon. and 34 deg. of lat. 150 miles ſouth of Gibraltar; where there is ge rally a ſmall ſquadron of rovers, or pirates, that m prizes of chriſtian ſhips.

SALMA. A liquid meaſure uſed in Calabria and Apu two provinces of the kingdom of Naples in Italy.

The ſalma is of 10 ſtars, and the ſtar of 32 pignatolis or pots, which make much about a pint.

SALMA, is alſo a weight of 25 lb.

SALMA, is likewiſe a corn-meaſure uſed at Palermo in Sicily, containing 16 tomolis, and the tomoli 4 mondels; $10\frac{2}{7}$ ſalmas make the laſt of Amſterdam, or $10\frac{1}{4}$ quarters of London.

SALMON. A fiſh, which, according to ſome, breeds in the ſea; but the opinion of others ſeems better warranted, that they breed in the clear ſandy parts of rivers, not far from the mouths thereof. They commonly ſpawn in October, and the young becomes a ſamblet the following year, and in a few months a large ſalmon. The milter and ſpawner having performed their office, betake themſelves to the ſea; and if their return be prevented by wears, or the like, they become ſick, lean, and pine away, and die in two years time. If they ſpawn in the mean time, their produce is a diminutive ſalmon, called ſhegger, which will never arrive at the natural bulk; it being the ſea that makes them grow big, and the rivers fat. The female is diſtinguiſhed from the male, in that its noſe is longer and more crooked, its ſcales not ſo bright, and its body ſpeckled over with dark brown ſpots; its belly flatter, and its fleſh not ſo red; more dry, and leſs delicious to the taſte. In ſpawning time, when they repair from the ſea up to the rivers, ſcarce any thing can ſtop their progreſs, for they have been ſeen to leap up cataracts and precipices ſome yards high. See Salmon *Fiſhery*.

SALONA. A port-town of Dalmatia, ſituated on a bay of the gulph of Venice, in 18 deg. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. a little eaſt of Spalatto, 58 miles N. W. of Raguſa, ſubject to Venice.

SALONICHI, or *Theſſalonica*. A city and port-town of European Turky, capital of the province of Macedon, ſituated on a bay of the Archipelago, or Egean ſea, 260 miles weſt of Conſtantinople, in 24 deg. of E. lon. and 41 deg. of N. lat.

SALSAPARILLA. See *Sarſaparilla*.

SALSETTE, or *Canorin*. An iſland on the weſt-coaſt of the Hither India, in Aſia, ſituated in 72 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 19 deg. of N. lat. being ſeparated from the iſland of Bombay by a narrow channel, half a mile over, and fordable at low water; it is 20 miles long, 17 broad, and in the poſſeſſion of the Portugueſe.

SALT, in chemiſtry. A ſimple, acid ſubſtance, which enters the compoſition of all bodies, and is held one of the five principles or elements thereof, only to be extracted by fire.

M. Homberg obſerves, that ſalt is an ingredient in all animal, vegetable, and mineral bodies, excepting perhaps ſome metals and ſtones. In vegetables, and mineral bodies, that have undergone a fermentation, the ſalt riſes firſt in the alembic, then the phlegm.

Salts are diſtinguiſhed, with regard to the manner of extracting them, into volatile, fixed, and eſſential.

Volatile SALTS, are thoſe light, ſubtile ones, which riſe eaſily upon diſtillation, or are even exhaled by the noſe, and rendered ſenſible to the ſmell.

Fixed SALTS, are ſuch as, being more groſs and material, reſiſt and ſuſtain the fire; and are not raiſed by it, but remain after calcination or diſtillation, in the earthy part, at the bottom.

Eſſential SALTS, are thoſe drawn from vegetables, without the uſe of fire; as by chryſtallization, and other eaſy natural means.

Volatile SALTS, become diſtinguiſhable to the noſe, tongue, and brain, by their tenuity and briſkneſs; fixed ſalts, by their bitterneſs and heat in the mouth. To theſe may be added an intermediate kind of ſalt, under the title of

Mixed SALTS, which are thoſe reſulting from a mixture of a volatile with a fixed ſalt.

SALTS, again, are of different kinds, according to the different matters wherewith they are found mixed; ſome are mixed bodies themſelves, and their mixture ſeparable by fire and lixiviation. Such are all eſſential ſalts of plants, and all foſſile ſalts; but theſe are no proper chemical principles.

There are others which we are ſenſible are mixed, and whoſe mixture we pretty well know, though we are not yet able to decompound them. It is theſe make the chemical principle ſalt; for our analogies will not render them more ſimple, which is the character of a principle. And, in this ſenſe, ſalt is defined, a matter diſſoluble by water, and unchangeable by fire; to which ſome add, of a pungent taſte. There are three kinds or claſſes of ſalts, which come under this definition; two whereof are volatile, and the third fixed. The volatile ones, are acid ſalts, and urinous ſalts. The fixed are thoſe drawn by a lixivium after calcination, and called lixivious ſalts. Nature produces none of theſe ſalts ſimple and unmixed; but we eaſily extract them by art, from the mixts wherein ſhe has placed them.

The principal natural ſalts may be reduced to ſaltpetre, ſea-ſalt, and vitriol; each of which has its different kinds; of the various combination whereof, with different oily matters, all the natural ſalts we know of are compounded.

Theſe ſalts are found, by chemical analyſes, to conſiſt of aqueous, earthy, oily, ſulphurous, and acid particles. The acid matter is the pure ſalt, or ſaline principle, and is the baſe of all the reſt. This, M. Homberg obſerves, is pretty uniform, and nearly the ſame in all ſalts, before the particular determination to form this or that ſalt, by the particular admixture of the ſulphur.

SALT-*petre*, *Sea-ſalt*, and the reſt, therefore are not principles; but the acid ſalts diſtilled from them are; and the water wherein theſe ſalts ſwim, and the earth, or fixed ſalt remaining in the retort after diſtillation, are other chemical principles.

M. Homberg ranges all the kinds of acid ſpirits under three different claſſes, according to the different ſulphurous matters which accompany them. The firſt claſs is of thoſe which contain animal or vegetable ſulphur; under which come all acids, diſtilled from plants, fruits, or woods, as alſo ſpirit of nitre.

It is eaſy to conceive, that the acids of plants may have retained a part of the oil of the plant, which is the ſulphur; ſince, in reducing theſe acids into ſalts, we always find a little oil therein; which can be nothing elſe but that of the plant themſelves. And for ſalt-petre, as this is always drawn from earths moiſtened with the excrements of animals, or from old walls, plaſter, and the like, full of the ſulphurous matters of the animals that lived within them, the ſoot, &c. it is thence doubtleſs ſalt-petre borrows its ſulphur.

The ſecond claſs is of thoſe which contain a bituminous ſulphur; under which come the acids of vitriol, common ſulphur, and alum: for theſe are uſually drawn from the ſame mineral ſtone, wherein the bituminous matter, which makes one of the principal parts of common ſulphur, predominates. See *Sulphur*.

The third claſs is of thoſe which contain a more fixed mineral, ſulphurous matter, approaching nearer the properties of a metaline ſulphur; under which claſs come the acids drawn from ſeveral kinds of ſea-ſalts, rock-ſalts, and the like. For the rock-ſalt, or ſal gemmæ, is always found in places near metalic mines; and ſea-ſalt, in all appearance, is nothing but rock-ſalt; the quarries whereof have been penetrated by the ſea-water, which has extracted all the ſaltneſs therefrom.

Acids joined to fixed ſalts, compoſe mixed ſalts: thus, ſpirit of nitre, with ſalt of tartar, make ſalt-petre; ſpirit of ſalt, with ſalt of tartar, make a true common ſalt; and ſpirit of vitriol, with ſalt of tartar, a true vitriol.

However, the two ingredient ſalts ſtill remain, the one fixed, the other volatile; and acids joined with urinous ſalts, compoſe another kind of ſalts, called *ſales ammoniaci*, which are always volatile.

Lixivious and urinous ſalts are called alcalies; the firſt a fixed alcali, the ſecond volatile.

Theſe alcalies are uſually eſteemed antagoniſts to the acid ſalts, becauſe their mixtures always occaſion a ſudden ebullition.

The principal chemical ſalts of uſe in medicine, are ſalt of urine, of lavender, of viper, of human blood, of wormwood, of guaiac, of quinquina, of tobacco, of

rhubarb, of roſemary, of ſage, of vitriol, of amber, and of ſaffron.

SALT, in its popular ſenſe, denotes a kind of ſaline chryſtallization; or a ſharp, pungent, detergent, and aſtringent ſubſtance, uſed to ſeaſon fleſh, fiſh, butter, hides, and other things that are to be kept; as alſo to give a reliſh to meats. This we uſually call common ſalt, in contradiſtinction to the chemical ſalt.

M. Guglielmini, in an expreſs diſſertation *de ſalibus*, lays it down as a fundamental, that the firſt principles of common ſalt, ſalt-petre, and vitriol, had their figures unalterably fixed at their creation, and are indiviſible as to any created force.

Common SALT is of three kinds, as ſea-ſalt, foſſile or rock ſalt, and ſalt drawn from briny ſprings and wells. For ſea-ſalt, the greateſt and beſt part is made in France, but little in England. Foſſile or rock ſalts are chiefly found in Poland, Hungary, and Catalonia. For ſalt ſprings, they are conſiderable in Cheſhire, Worceſterſhire, Hampſhire, and Northumberland, in England; in Franche Compte, and Lorrain, in France; and in Tirol, and ſome other places of Italy.

The great property of ſalt is, that it is incapable of corruption, and that it even preſerves meats ſeaſoned therewith, or ſteeped in ſolutions thereof. It endures the fire, and even comes purer out of it, as being thereby freed of its humidity. In very hot fires it fuſes, and is converted into corroſive waters.

It gives fertility to lands, and promotes the fuſion of all metals; yet we read of princes, who, as a mark of their indignation, ſowed grounds with ſalt to render them barren. Plutarch obſerves, that the Egyptians believed ſalt to be the ſpittle or foam of the giant Typhon, the great enemy of their gods; and hence, adds he, they held it in the greateſt horror.

The uſe of ſalt is ſo univerſal, and the traffic thereof ſo very important, in the places where nature has produced the different ſalts, and ſo neceſſary for thoſe which have not that advantage, that a detail of the preparation, commerce, and of the ſeveral kinds, cannot fail of being acceptable.

Sea-SALT, is made of the ſea-water, thickened by frequent evaporations, and at length chryſtallized. Of ſea-ſalt there are two kinds; that which requires the ſun's rays to give it its conſiſtence, called, from its brown colour, bay ſalt; and that which receives its conſiſtence from the heat of a fire, called white ſalt. They uſe either this or that manner of preparation, according to the diſpoſition of the coaſts where it is made. If the coaſts be down, or hills of ſand, the ſalt is made by fire, in copper or leaden veſſels. If the coaſts be flat and low, eſpecially if the bottom be a little clayiſh, the ſalt is chryſtallized by the action of the ſun. There is nothing very conſiderable of either kind in England; ſome indeed we have of the latter, as at Shields in Northumberland, and of the former in the iſle of May. France is the principal place for theſe ſalts; more being made there than in all Europe, perhaps in all the world beſide; and it is from thence other nations are chiefly furniſhed therewith: therefore it is proper to deliver the method of making it, as it is practiſed there.

The chief coaſts for bay-ſalt are thoſe of Bretagne, Saintonge, and the pays d'Aunis. The principal ſalt-works in the two latter places, are Brouage, Maran, and the iſle of Rhe. Thoſe in Bretagne are in the bay of Borneuf, Guerand, and Croiſil. For white ſalt, it is chiefly made on the coaſts of Normandy. But in the bay of Borneuf alone are computed above 20,000 conſiderable ſalt-works.

Manner of making bay SALT. Low, marſhy grounds, diſpoſed by nature for the reception of the ſea-water when the tide ſwells, and provided with banks and ſluices to retain the ſame, are called a ſalt-marſh. Theſe ſalt-marſhes, the bottoms whereof they ram with a deal of care, are divided into ſeveral pits or baſons, ſome greater, others leſs, ſeparated by little dikes 13 or 14 inches broad; and into theſe baſons, when the ſeaſon is at hand, they let in the ſea-water.

The ſalt-ſeaſon is from the middle of May to the end of Auguſt; in which time the days being long, and the ſun's rays ſtrongeſt, the ſalt is raiſed and chryſtallized better than in any other ſeaſon. Before they let in the water, they take care the baſons be well cleared of what had been left in them during the winter to keep them in order. The water is admitted to the height of about 6 inches, after firſt having let it reſt and warm two or three days in large reſervoirs without the works, that it may come in lukewarm. The water admitted, the ſluices are ſhut, and the reſt of the work left to the wind and the ſun. The ſurface of the water being ſtruck and agitated by the direct rays of the luminary, thickens at firſt imperceptibly, and becomes at length covered over with a ſlight cruſt; which, hardening by the continuance of the heat, is wholly converted into ſalt. The water, in this condition, is ſo hot, that the hand cannot be put into it without ſcalding it. When the ſalt has received its full coction, they break it with a pole, upon which it ſinks to the bottom; whence being dragged out again, they leave it ſome time in little heaps, about the edge of the pit, to complete the drying; and at length in greater heaps, containing ſeveral thouſand muids, which they cover over with ſtraw or ruſhes, to ſecure them from rain.

Eight, ten, or at moſt fifteen days, having thus perfected the chryſtallization of the ſalt, they open the ſluices, when the tide is riſing, for a freſh ſtock of water, and gather the ſalt, till the ſeaſon is over. Rainy weather is very pernicious to the work; for rain-water mixing in any quantity with the ſea-water, renders it uſeleſs; ſo that new water muſt be called in. The ſalt is brown when taken out of the pits, and is uſually thus ſold, without farther preparation: indeed in ſome places they make it into white ſalt by refining, or boiling it in large flat caldrons; which not only takes away its acrimony, but is found to increaſe the quantity.

Bay ſalt is alſo made in Portugal, the Cape de Verd iſlands, and other places; particularly the iſland of Tortuga, near the coaſt of Terra Firma in America, which ſupplies the American colonies.

Method of making white ſalt. The white ſalt of Normandy is made by refining the bay ſalt, but has this colour naturally when taken out of the pits. To make it, they gather a muddy ſand on the flats of the ſhore, which the riſing tide has covered and impregnated with its waters for ſeven days. This ſand being removed into pits for the purpoſe, diſcharges itſelf by degrees of all the water, which filtrates through ſome ſtraw wherewith the bottom of the pit is filled, and trickles into veſſels ſet on purpoſe to receive it; of which water they make the ſalt.

Their furnaces are of earth, and their boilers of lead; each furnace boiling 4 leads. When the water wherewith they have filled the leads begins to boil, they take off the ſkim, which riſes in abundance; and in proportion as it diminiſhes, throw in freſh water, which they continue to ſkim as before. When it thickens, they keep it continually ſtirring, with a crooked ſtick or ladle; and when the grain is formed, take it off the fire to purify it. The purifying is performed by letting it ſtand in large oſier baſkets, where it drains itſelf of certain humidities that remained: when dry, it is laid in heaps, and then carried to the magazines.

The commerce of white ſalt brings an immenſe profit to France, though more to the King than the makers and ſellers; the duty being 1-4th part of the price it is ſold at. The Engliſh and Dutch; as alſo, when they are at war with France, the Swedes and Danes, take moſt of the ſalts of the comte Nantois, paying for it, one year with another, from 18 s. to 28 s. ſterling *per* load. That of Guerande is preferred by the Engliſh and Iriſh to all the reſt, as the beſt and whiteſt. Yet that of Borneuf, though browner and heavier, is moſt uſed in France, as alſo throughout the Baltic; particularly in Poland, where, beſides the ordinary uſes, it ſerves in tilling the ground, being found to warm it, and to prevent little vermin from gnawing the grain.

The Engliſh and Dutch have frequently drove hard, in time of war, to do without the French ſalt, and to that end have endeavoured to take ſalts from the Spaniſh and Portugueſe; but there is a diſagreeable ſharpneſs and ſe-

rosity natural to them, which renders them very unfit for the salting of fish and flesh. To remove this, they boil them with sea-water, and a little French salt, procured by means of neutral nations, which not only softens, but increases their quantity by one third. But it should seem their refining does not succeed to their w sh, by the eagerness wherewith they return to the salts of Bretagne, as soon as any treaty has opened the commerce.

Sile, or *Rock* SALT, is also called *sal gemmæ*, from a certain brightness it has, which gives it some resemblance to gems. Indeed it should have something of the gem in its nature, if there be nothing exaggerated in the account Dr. Edward Brown, who went down into the salt-mines in Hungary, gives us thereof in his travels.

This salt was entirely unknown to the antients. Pliny, however, gives some curious things about salts, in Nat. Hist. lib. 30. c. 7. But we shall here content ourselves with what well warranted relations could be got of the salt-mines of Wiliska in Poland, those in the Upper Hungary, and those in the mountains of Catalonia, which make a considerable article of commerce in those states; salt being transported thence to the several neighbouring nations, who cannot be conveniently supplied with sea-salt.

LT-*mines of Poland*. The Polish mines, in the village of Wiliska, five leagues from Cracow, were first discovered in 1251. Their depth and capacity are surprising. Within them is found a kind of subterraneous republic, which has its polity, laws, and families, and even public roads and carriages; horses being kept here to draw the salt to the mouth of the quarry, where it is taken up by engines. These horses, when once they are down, never see light again; but the men take frequent occasions of breathing the village-air. When a traveller is arrived at the bottom of this strange abyss, where so many people are interred alive, and where so many are even born, and have never stirred out, he is surprised with a long series of lofty vaults, sustained by huge pilasters cut with the chissel, and which, being themselves rock-salt, appear, by the light of flambeaux, which are incessantly burning, as so many chrystals, or precious stones of various colours, casting a lustre which the eye has much ado to bear.

The rocks of salt are hewn in form of great cylinders; the workmen using hammers, pickaxes, and chissels, as in stone-quarries, to separate the several banks of stone. As soon as the massive pieces are got out of the quarry, they break them into fragments fit to be thrown into the mill, where they are ground, and reduced into a coarse farina, or flour, which serves all the uses of sea-salt.

In the mines of Wiliska there are two kinds of sal gemmæ; the one harder and more transparent, and the chrystallization whereof appears more perfect than that of the other. This is the real sal gemmæ of the druggists and dyers. It cuts like chrystal, and is frequently used for toys, chaplets, and little vases. The other is less compact, and only fit for kitchen-uses. One of the chief wonders of the place is, that through these mountains of salt, and along the middle of the mine, there runs a rivulet of fresh water sufficient to supply the inhabitants.

SALT-*mines of Upper Hungary*, are equally extraordinary. They are found in the mountains, two miles from Eperies, a city in the county of Sarax, on the river Tarhz. The depth is 180 fathoms. The mineral runs in large veins, so that pieces are sometimes dug not less than a hundred thousand pounds weight; which however are afterwards reduced into pieces two feet long, and a foot thick, for the convenience of drawing them out of the mine. When out, they are broke further, and put to the mill to be ground. The colour of the stone is a little browniſh; and yet, when ground, becomes as white as if it had been refined. Some of the stones are found as hard and transparent as chrystal; some white, yellow, and blue, fit for various works, whereon they engrave as on precious stones. The mine is cold and moist, whence there arises some difficulty in reducing the salt into powder. Of the water drawn out of it and boiled, is made a blackish salt, which fattens cattle.

The SALT-*mines of Catalonia*, in Spain, are found in the mountains of the duchy of Cardonna, and belong to the grandees of that name. It is the opinion of the country people, that the salt grows again, and is reproduced after several years, in the places whence it had been dug: but the naturalists will scarce allow of such a reproduction. There is no doubt, however, but it vegetates, or grows sometimes; which M. Tournefort proved by the specimens he had of it in his cabinet.

The salt is of four kinds; white, bay, red, and brilliant. The first is almost like common salt, only that it is not granulated. The second, of an iron and slate colour, has most of the qualities of the white. The third, of a conserve-rose colour, only differing from the rest by the mixture of some bole, or earth, which gives it this colour. The fourth is a brilliant salt, yet transparent as chrystal, which is the proper sal gemmæ of the druggists. Of this kind there is some blue, others green, orange, and red; but they all become white by grinding. These four kinds of salt are found over each other in distinct strata or beds; the commerce whereof is very considerable; and the English, when trade is prohibited with France, furnish themselves from hence.

Sal gemmæ is to be chosen in large, bright, transparent pieces, easy to break, and dividing into little square grains. It grows red hot in the fire, like iron, but dissolves easily in the air; yet the druggists wash it, to give it the greater lustre; but they take care to wipe it dry again speedily,

SALT *drawn from springs*. The method in England is thus: near the spring, or place of the brine, is built a saltern, or boiling-house, with a convenience of conveying the brine into it. The saltern is usually several great flat pans, or boilers, each furnished with its grate and furnace. At Shields, and in other places on the eastern coast, where brine springs are wanting, they use sea-water instead thereof; which at spring-tides is let into their ponds, called *sumps*, and from thence pumped into the pans. The brine being in the pan, the fire is kindled; and, after two hours time, the liquor begins to granulate, which is known by a thin skin rising at the top: this they skim off into brine-tubs, that the brine which goes with it may not be lost: and whereas all brines contain or yield sand, which is supposed to petrify in boiling; for that if the liquor have been strained beforehand through brown paper, yet upon boiling it sand will arise; and the parts boiling violently in the middle, the sand is cast towards the corners, where it falls to the bottom of the pan before the salt precipitates; therefore they rake it to the corner of the pan with a broad rake, and then take it with ladles, and put it into wooden vessels, open at one end, placed on stands. The sand being removed, that the salt floating in the liquor may precipitate, they shut up the vent-holes and door, and let the fire go out; and, in twelve hours time, the salt falls to the bottom, and grows hard; a liquor called the *bittern* remaining at top; which being again boiled away, yields more salt. To make the salt precipitate more readily, after the liquor is scummed, they frequently use some beef-suet and wine-lees, of each a like weight, melting and mixing them together, and putting an ounce of this mixture on the end of a slice, turn it round in the liquor till it be spent: then, after two hours at most, open the vent-holes and door, quicken the fire, and lade away the liquor in a good measure, and so the salt is found lying at the bottom fit to be removed. It is now raked upon one side, taken out, and put into cribs, or vessels, like hay-racks, with loose ribs on each side, so close to one another, that an half-crown will scarce go between. Here, after eight hours draining, it is found a hard granulatad salt, and may be taken away, but yet continues dripping three weeks; and afterwards, if not often moved, will become rocky. The liquor in the pan, called *bittern*, is to be all taken out, except a little to keep the pan from burning, drained from the salt, or cast away, or reserved for saltpetre-makers, and the pan immediately filled with fresh brine for another boiling. A pan of brine, of moderate strength, in eight hours time, will be compleatly made into salt, with the expence of

a buſhel and a half of coals, which will make a pan of ſalt, from two buſhels and a half to four buſhels, or more, according as the liquor is in ſtrength. This ſalt they ſometimes mould into the form of ſugar-loaves, in which ſtate it will keep dry without fire, and that for a long time. At Nantwich they bake the loaves twice or thrice in an oven, and keep them in a ſtove, or the chimney-corner.

SALT *from brine raiſed by the ſun.* In ſome parts of England, as at Limington, Port-ſea, and a few other places, they uſe water, raiſed by the ſun, and then boiled; which they find preferable to the natural brines of ſprings, thoſe being always found either too weak or too ſtrong. To this end they have ſeveral ponds or ciſterns, called *ſun-ponds*, built with mud, and well expoſed to the ſun, with little channels to convey the brine from them all to a large ſhallow reſervoir, called the *common ſun pan*, not exceeding 7 or 8 inches in height. Here the liquor is left to mellow, from 12 to 24 hours, or till it will bear a hen's egg new laid; and when it has attained a ſufficient ſtrength, it is from thence derived by channels into the ciſterns, where the rain and ſun breed red worms, that cleanſe and purify the liquor, which ripens by age, and is rendered fitter for boiling, which is performed in the ſame manner as has been already deſcribed.

SALT *upon ſalt*, is bay ſalt diſſolved in ſea-water, or any other ſalt water, and with it boiled into white ſalt; which is the beſt kind of ſalt for curing fiſh, and keeping fleſh. See *Duty*, and *Exciſe*.

Several proviſions have been made by the ſtatutes relative to the commerce and duty of ſalt; whereby ſhips hovering on the coaſts, and not proceeding directly to ſome port, may be compelled to come into port; and in 20 days, either to enter the ſalt, or proceed on their voyage; on forfeiture of the ſalt, and double the value, to be recovered of the maſter.

Veſſels with ſalt from foreign parts, lying in any port, or riding on the ſea-coaſts, may be viſited and ſearched by the officers; and if any ſalt, not duly entered, be found on board any veſſel in which it was not imported, it is forfeited, or the value; and the maſter is ſubject to the ſame penalties and forfeitures, as if it had been landed without entry.

If not entered, or unladen within 20 days after the ſhip's coming into port, or the ſhip not proceeding on her voyage to ſome other port; forfeited, and double the value, to be recovered of the maſter.

If imported in ſhips under 40 tons, or otherwiſe than in bulk, except for the ſhip's proviſions, forfeited, and double the value.

If of the produce or manufacture of Great Britain or Ireland, or other ſalt coming from Ireland or the Iſle of Man, may not be imported, or brought into any port or place of Great Britain, nor taken out of any ſhip or veſſel, nor put on ſhore within any of the ſaid ports or places; upon forfeiture thereof, together with the veſſel, and all her tackle and apparel.

Such ſalt may be ſeized within two months; and, if not claimed within 20 days, and ſecurity given for the value, the ſalt and ſhip are to be ſold to the beſt advantage: except taken in for curing fiſh, or for the ſhip's proviſions, from any foreign parts; the duty whereof muſt be paid within 10 days, upon forfeiture, and double the value: alſo except ſhips forced in by ſtreſs of weather, &c. provided the duty be repaid within 20 days after arrival, and before relanding: likewiſe if carried coaſtwiſe by certificate; or taken in by fiſhermen to cure fiſh at ſea; upon oath before the ſalt-officer, that it was taken on board from ſome port of Great Britain, mentioning the place, and not out of any veſſel at ſea.

Salt imported from Jerſey, Guernſey, Sark, and Alderney, is liable to the ſame duties as any other foreign ſalt.

If taken in only for the ſhip's uſe, or for curing of fiſh, not entered within 10 days after coming into port, and before the landing, &c. is forfeited, with double the value, by the maſter of the ſhip, or the owner of the ſalt.

Foreign ſalt, landed before entry, and the exciſe-duty be ſatisfied, or without a warrant from the collector, or officer appointed for the duty on ſalt, is forfeited, or the value thereof, and 10 s. *per* buſhel; and every perſon concerned is to forfeit 100 l.

The perſons in whoſe cuſtody ſuch ſalt is found, are liable to the ſame penalties as if they had been the importers, unleſs they make it appear from whom they had it.

If embezzled after importation, and before warehouſing, the forfeiture is 20 s. for every buſhel of 84 lb.

If cellared and locked up, may not be removed without a warrant or permit for the conveyance; upon forfeiture thereof, beſides 10 s. *per* buſhel, and 20 l. for every ſuch offence; to be recovered of the importer, and of every perſon concerned in the removal.

Importers to be charged with the full quantity of ſalt cellared; though, upon clearing ſuch cellar or warehouſe, there may appear to be a deficiency.

At the end of every fiſhing-ſeaſon, the officer is to take an account of the ſalt remaining, which muſt be forthwith locked up as before; and the proprietors are to deliver them an account upon oath of the quantity of fiſh exported, confirmed by a certificate of the officers of the port of exportation, or of the red or white herrings entered for home-conſumption, on which the ſaid ſalt had been uſed. But if delivered over by the proprietors to any other perſons for the curing of fiſh, it muſt be ſo expreſſed in their accompts, and made by oath or otherwiſe, that it was ſo uſed, upon forfeiture of 50 l. And the perſons to whom delivered, muſt upon oath likewiſe give an account of the ſalt by them uſed in the curing of fiſh exported, confirmed by the certificate of the officers of the port of exportation.

Such ſalt not ſo accounted for within three months, after the expiration of each year, the forfeiture is 10 s. *per* buſhel.

Such ſalt as cannot be accounted for having been ſold, given away, or uſed for any other purpoſe; the proprietor, or the perſon to whom delivered, and the buyer, are each of them to forfeit 20 s. *per* buſhel; one-third to the uſe of his Majeſty, and the remainder to the informer or ſuer.

In default of payment within 14 days, if ſufficient effects cannot be found, the offenders muſt be ſent to the houſe of correction, for any time not exceeding three months.

Salt-fiſh cured with ſalt, delivered out of warehouſe, not exported while good and merchantable, may be deſtroyed in the preſence of an officer, and his certificate thereof accepted inſtead of that for exportation.

Foreign ſalt from Scotland into England, and all ſalt brought coaſtwiſe, may not be delivered, nor a warrant granted for the landing, till a certificate of the true quantity on board, ſigned by the cuſtom and ſalt-officers of the loading-port, be produced to the ſalt-officer of the delivering-port; and oath be made before the ſalt-officer by the maſter, mate, or boatſwain, that to his knowledge there has not been taken on board any ſalt ſince it came from ſuch port; upon forfeiture of double the value, and 10 s. *per* buſhel.

Part only of ſuch ſalt landed, and the ſhip proceeding with the remainder, the quantity delivered muſt be certified by the officers, on the back of the cocket, tranſire or other warrant; or elſe by a ſeparate certificate under the hand and ſeal of the officers.

Officers at the delivering-port may demand a ſight of the permit and cocket, and are to weigh the ſalt upon unlading; and if found to be more in weight than expreſſed in ſuch permit and cocket, the ſurpluſage is forfeited.

Maſters refuſing to ſhew the permit and cocket, the ſalt may be ſeized and demanded; and, if not produced within four days, the ſalt is forfeited.

Salt for which the duties have been drawn back, fraudulently relanded, without entry and repayment of the duties, the offender is to forfeit double the value thereof and 10 s. *per* buſhel, and to be ſubject to ſuch other penalties and forfeitures as in caſe of foreign ſalt illegally landed.

Salt landed in Ireland, not to have any drawback, unleſs entered outwards for ſome port in Ireland.

Salt ſhipped for Ireland, debentures not to be made out nor drawback allowed, till a certificate, under the ha

of the collector of ſome port in Ireland, of the particular quantity there landed, be produced; the drawback may not be allowed for any more than ſuch quantity: except the allowance for waſte, being 4 buſhels for every 40 buſhels of white ſalt, and 2 buſhels for every 40 buſhels of rock-ſalt.

Salt ſhipped for Ireland, and loſt at ſea by ſinking of the ſhip, or taken by enemies, upon due proof made within ſix months, by the oaths of two credible witneſſes, before the juſtices of the peace at the general quarter-ſeſſions, and their certificate thereof produced, the drawback may be allowed, or the ſecurity vacated.

After put on board any boat, barge, &c. in order to be exported to foreign parts, may not be taken out, unleſs to be put into the ſhip wherein it is to be exported; nor landed in Great Britain, except in the preſence of a ſalt-officer; upon forfeiture of the boat, &c. goods, and 20 l. by every perſon concerned, or 6 months impriſonment.

Ships laden with ſalt to be exported, drove into port by ſtreſs of weather, or other unavoidable neceſſity, ſalt-officers may go and remain on board till the ſalt be re-entered, or the ſhips proceed on their voyages.

Such ſalt may be relanded within 20 days, upon due entry, and repayment of the duty for the whole quantity entered outwards.

Refuſing officers to come on board, penalty 20 l.

If unladen before due entry, or repayment of duty, forfeited; with the whole cargo remaining on board.

Salt ſhipped for exportation, or to be carried coaſtwiſe, the particular quantity muſt be expreſſed in the cocket, which muſt be ſigned by the ſalt-officer, and given without fee or delay; and if the ſhip puts into a port of Great Britain, the officers of the cuſtoms and ſalt-duty may demand a ſight thereof; and upon oath made before the collector or cuſtomer, that they have juſt cauſe to ſuſpect that there is leſs on board than expreſſed in ſuch cocket, the ſalt may be weighed.

If, upon weighing, a deficiency be found, after a reaſonable allowance made for waſte, &c. the remainder is forfeited.

Salt ſhipped for exportation, or to be carried coaſtwiſe, periſhed by the ſinking of the ſhip before gone out of port, and before the exporter is entitled to the drawback; upon proof of ſuch loſs before the juſtices of the peace at the general quarter-ſeſſions, they are to grant the exporter or proprietor a certificate thereof; which being produced to the officers, they are to permit the like quantity therein mentioned to be brought without payment of any duty of exciſe.

Not to be ſhipped in order to be ſent coaſtwiſe by a retailer or ſhopkeeper, till it be made appear by oath or otherwiſe, before the officers, that the duty has been paid, or ſecured to be paid; or that it was bought of ſome other retailer, or ſhop-keeper, that had paid the duty.

Upon reſhipping from any boat, &c. on board any ſhip to be carried coaſtwiſe; the maſter of the boat, &c. muſt, before any diſpatches be granted, make oath before the ſalt-officer, that it is truly reſhipped, and not augmented or diminiſhed; upon forfeiture of double the value, and 10 s. *per* buſhel.

Salt belonging to Britiſh ſubjects, that has paid the duty, periſhed or loſt in any port of Great Britain, or ſhipped coaſtwiſe, and loſt at ſea, by ſtorms, &c. upon proof of ſuch loſs, and that it was not occaſioned by leakage, or negligence, made by the oaths of two or more credible witneſſes, whereof the maſter or mate to be one, before the juſtices of the peace at the general quarter-ſeſſions; they are to grant a certificate of ſuch proof being made; which being produced to any of the officers appointed to collect the duty upon ſalt, he is to permit the like quantity to be bought free of exciſe.

If imported not of the product of Great Britain, to be deemed foreign, and charged accordingly.

If exported to the iſle of Man, Jerſey, or Guernſey, entitled to the drawback.

Any ſalt-maker, importer of ſalt, or any refiner or proprietor of rock-ſalt, refuſing, upon due requeſt or demand made by the ſalt-officer, in the day-time; or in the night in the preſence of a conſtable or other lawful officer of the peace, to permit ſuch officer to enter his works, warehouſes, or other places by him made uſe of for making, laying, refining, or keeping of ſalt, is to forfeit 40 l. for every ſuch offence.

Rock-ſalt, ſalt rock, or refined ſalt, exported to parts beyond the ſeas; the exporter to be paid by the ſalt-officer, for every buſhel of rock-ſalt, or ſalt rock, after the rate of 65 lb. to the buſhel, and refined ſalt after the rate of 56 lb. to the buſhel, all the duties which have been paid for the ſame, within two days after demand, on a debenture, to be prepared by the collector of the cuſtoms, verified by the ſearcher as to the quantity ſhipped; the oath of the exporter being firſt taken that the duties were paid, and that it is to be exported beyond the ſeas, and not relanded in Great Britain; which debenture is to be given without fee or reward.

Rock or white ſalt not to be ſhipped on board any veſſel for exportation, or to be carried coaſtwiſe, without being firſt weighed by the officers appointed by the commiſſioners of exciſe, and a permit or certificate of the quantity obtained, upon penalty of forfeiture of the ſalt, and 10 s. *per* buſhel; unleſs the officer refuſes, or does not attend to weigh it, or refuſes a permit or certificate when weighed.

The officer refuſing ſuch permit, which is to be given *gratis*, is to forfeit 5 l. to the perſon grieved.

If carried coaſtwiſe, an allowance to be made for waſte; 3 buſhels for every 40 buſhels of white ſalt, and 1 buſhel and an half for every 40 buſhels of rock-ſalt.

The allowance to be made but once, though the ſalt ſhould be carried coaſtwiſe from ſeveral ports or members of ports.

Foreign or Engliſh rock or refined ſalt; the exporter to have no greater allowance on prompt payment, and for waſte, and upon exportation of the ſame, than what was paid or ſecured for the duty at firſt.

Engliſh ſalt to have 9 months, and rock-ſalt 12 months, for payment of exciſe.

SALT-*fiſh*. See Cod-*Fiſhery*.

SALTED *hide*. See *Hide*.

SALT *iſland*. One of the Cape Verd iſlands. See Cape *Verd* iſlands.

SALTER. A perſon who deals in ſalt, and furniſhes people with that article in trade, to ſalt meat, fiſh, and the like; without which foreign commerce would be at an end.

Dry SALTER, is a perſon who deals in logwood, cochineel, potaſhes, and ſuch goods; chiefly, like merchants, in the wholeſale way.

SALTERS, or *dry ſalters*, *company of London*, is of conſiderable antiquity, as appears by the grant of a livery by Richard II. in 1394; but they were not incorporated before the 1ſt of Elizabeth, on the 20th of July 1558; when, by letters-patent, they were incorporated by the title of The maſter, wardens, and commonalty, of the art or myſtery of ſalters of London; the fraternity conſiſting of a maſter, 2 wardens, 27 aſſiſtants, and a livery of 190 members; who have a beautiful hall in St. Swithen's lane, and whoſe fine is 20 l. upon admiſſion; the company having a conſiderable eſtate, out of which they pay to charitable uſes about 500 l. a year.

SALTPETRE. A bitter, ſulphurous, or inflammable kind of ſalt, of great uſe in chemical preparation, the compoſition of gun-powder, dying, the glaſs-manufacture, and making aqua fortis. All the ſaltpetre we have, M. Homberg obſerves, is drawn either from earths moiſtened, and manured with the excrements of animals; or from old walls, and the plaiſter of ruined buildings, which have been filled with ſulphurous matters, as well from the animals which inhabited them, as the ſoot penetrating them, and the air incompaſſing them.

However, there is uſually a diviſion made of ſalt-petre into natural and factitious. Of native ſaltpetre there are two kinds; the firſt formed by a natural chryſtalliſation of ſaline ſulphurous juices diſtilling in caverns, or along old walls. This is what they call ſaltpetre of the rocks, and the ſame with the aphronitre of the antients.

The ſecond is furniſhed by the water of a dead lake in the territory of Terrana in Egypt, called the Nitrian waters, exhaled and concocted by the heat of the ſun, much after the manner of our bay ſalt. This is the natrum, or anatrum, of the antients; which our druggiſts call natron, now little uſed but in the bleaching of linen.

Artificial, or *factitious* SALTPETRE, is alſo of two kinds; the firſt, called by ſome mineral ſaltpetre, is procured in ſeveral places in the kingdom of Pegu, Agra, and other parts of India, in villages antiently populous, but now deſart; alſo in ſome places along the banks of the Wolga, that famous river, which, after watering a good part of Muſcovy, empties itſelf into the Caſpian ſea. The ſaltpetre is here drawn from three different kinds of mineral earths, black, yellow, and white. The beſt is that procured from the black, as being freeſt from common ſalt, and needing no purifying after it comes to us, to fit it for making gun-powder, as the reſt do.

The method of working it is thus: two flat pits are dug; one of which they fill up with the mineral earth, turning water upon it for ſome time, and then tread it with their feet into the conſiſtence of pap, letting it ſtand two days for the water to imbibe and extract all the ſalt therein. They then paſs the water into another pit, which ſtanding ſome time, it ſhoots and chryſtallizes into ſaltpetre. This they boil once or twice, as they would have it more or leſs pure, ſcumming it continually, and filling it out into pots, holding 25 or 30 lb. each, and expoſing theſe to the air in clear nights; by which means, if there be any impurity, it ſinks to the bottom; they then break the pots, and dry the ſalt in the ſun.

The ſecond kind of artificial or factitious ſaltpetre is that prepared from nitrous matters collected in old buildings, dove-houſes, and the middle of antient ruins, by means of lixiviums, or lees made of wood-aſhes, and ſometimes of thoſe of herbs. Of this there are great quantities made in France, particularly in the arſenal at Paris, where there is a corporation of ſaltpetre-makers appointed for that purpoſe. The ſaltpetre grained thus, they refine, by boiling it three or four times, and paſſing it ſucceſſively through ſeveral lees.

The Engliſh Eaſt India company import conſiderable quantities of ſaltpetre from Bahar and Bengal, where it is bought for about 10 s. a hundred, and ſold in Europe for 50 s.

Some naturaliſts pretend, that the earths, which have already ſerved for ſaltpetre, may be re-animated, and made fit to ſerve again, by keeping them covered for 12 or 14 years, and watering them with the ſcum of the ſaltpetre, or even with brine. Good common ſaltpetre ſhould be well cleanſed, white, dry, and as free from common ſalt as poſſible. The beſt refined ſaltpetre is that whoſe chryſtals are the longeſt, largeſt, and fineſt.

Philoſophers generally allow the air to be impregnated with a volatile nitre, or ſaltpetre, which is thence communicated to plaiſter and mortar. It is probable it may derive it from ſoot and ſmoak, which are actually found to abound with volatile ſalt, of a nitrous nature. Dew and rain are ſuppoſed to fertilize the ground principally by their bringing down this nitre.

Saltpetre has a property of rarifying, or expanding itſelf to a prodigious degree. It is hence gun-powder derives its force, whereof ſaltpetre is the principal ingredient; for it is computed, that, when inflamed, it takes up above 10,000 times the ſpace it poſſeſſed before. See *Gun-powder*.

There is abundance of chemical preparations made with ſaltpetre, as ſpirit of nitre, aqua regalis, aqua fortis, chryſtal mineral, ſal polychreſt, butter of nitre, and others.

SALTSBURG. Capital of the archbiſhoprick of Saltſburg, in the circle of Bavaria, in Germany, is ſituated on the river Saltza, in 13 deg. of E. lon. and 47 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. 70 miles eaſt of Munich; being eſteemed one of the fineſt cities in Germany, having a very good trade, eſpecially for ſalt, the produce of the ſalt-pits in that neighbourhood.

SALT-WORT. See *Kali*.

SALTZBURG. A town of Norway. See *Denmark*.

St. SALVADOR. The capital of Brazil. See *Portugueſe America*.

SALVAGE *money*, is a recompence allowed, both by the ſtatute and civil law, to ſuch perſons as have aſſiſted in ſaving merchandiſes and ſhips, periſhing in wrecks, or by pirates, or enemies.

By the naval laws of Oleron, if a ſhip departing with her lading to any place abroad, happens in the courſe of her voyage to be rendered unfit to proceed therein, and the ſeamen ſave as much of the lading as poſſibly they can; if the merchants require their goods of the maſter, he may deliver them if he pleaſes, they paying the freight in proportion to the part of the voyage that is performed, and the coſts of the ſalvage: but if the maſter can readily refit his veſſel, he may do it; and though he has promiſed the people who helped him to ſave the ſhip the third or the half part of the goods ſaved, for the danger they ran therein; yet if ſuch a cauſe come before any judicature, it ſhall be conſidered the pains and trouble they have been at, and the reward be accordingly, without any regard to the promiſes made them by the parties concerned, in the time of their diſtreſs.

If a ſhip puts to ſea with merchants goods, and there ſhe is diſabled, or periſhes by the fault of the maſter or his men, the goods that are ſaved ſhall be ſecured in a certain place free from danger. But if it be proved by witneſſes, that the misfortune was occaſioned by tempeſt, what remains of the ſhip and goods ſhall be brought to a contribution; and the maſter ſhall retain half the value of the freight, by the laws of Rhodes. And the ſame laws have ordained, that if a ſhip be ſurpriſed at ſea with whirlwinds, or wrecked at ſea, any perſon ſaving any part of the wreck, ſhall have one-fifth of what he ſaves. And for the charges of ſalvage, very great allowances have been made: as to the divers and ſalvers, the half, third, or the tenth, of the things ſaved, according to the depth of the water out of which they were fiſhed, whether fifteen, eight, or one fathom; alſo a tenth part for ſalvage on the coaſt; and the fifth to him, that, ſaving himſelf, carries ſomething with him. If the ſhip only periſh, and the goods be ſaved, then the goods ſhall pay the tenth or fifth, as the difficulty of the ſaving thereof ſhall require; and gold, ſilver, and the like, being of eaſy tranſportation, ſhall pay leſs than goods of greater weight, and more burthenſome for carriage, which are in greater danger.

Where things are caſt up by ſhipwreck, or left through caſting in ſtorms, the laws of Rhodes allow to the finder a fifth part for the ſaving; and in France they allow one third part for ſalvage. But, by the common cuſtom of countries, every perſon of quality, or lord of a manor, &c. claims all his own, if it comes upon his land; contrary to ſome ſea-laws, which give it to the finder. Though, by the opinion of lawyers, the finders thereof ſhould do therewith as with other goods found upon land, they ought to proclaim the things to be forthcoming to the true owner or loſer; and if no man claim the ſame, then the finder to keep them to himſelf.

By the ſtatute 12th Anne, c. 11. all perſons required by conſtables, &c. who ſhall act in the ſaving and preſerving any ſhip in diſtreſs on our ſea-coaſts, or the cargoes thereof, ſhall within thirty days after be paid a reaſonable reward for the ſame, by the maſter of the ſhip or merchant; in default whereof, the ſhip or goods ſo ſaved ſhall remain in the cuſtody of the officers of the cuſtoms till payment be made: and if any difference ariſe about the ſalvage, three juſtices of peace ſhall adjuſt the quantum to be paid to the perſons acting therein, which ſhall be binding to all parties, and recoverable in an action at law.

And if goods thus ſaved are not claimed in twelve months, they ſhall be ſold; the juſtices taking an account thereof in writing, ſigned by the officer of the cuſtoms, into whoſe hands they are ſafely put; and if they be periſhable goods, are to be forthwith ſold; and after charges deducted, the money ariſing by ſuch ſale ſhall be tranſmitted into the Exchequer, with a fair account of the whole, for the benefit of the owner, who, on proof of

of his property before one of the barons of the Exchequer, ſhall upon his order receive the ſame.

If any perſons ſhall moleſt any one in ſaving the ſhip or goods, or when ſaved ſhall deface the marks of any goods before the ſame be entered in a book for that purpoſe; ſuch perſons ſhall in 20 days make double ſatisfaction to the party grieved, at the diſcretion of the two next juſtices, or in default thereof ſhall be ſent to the houſe of correction for twelve months. See *Wrecks*.

SALIM. A river of Africa, on the coaſt of Cape Verd.

SALVER. A flat diſh, commonly of ſilver, or other precious metal, uſed to ſet glaſſes on to ſerve wines, and other liquors.

SALUTATION. A ceremony of ſaluting, greeting, or paying reſpect or reverence to any one.

At ſea they ſalute by a diſcharge of cannon, which is greater or leſs, with ball, or without, according to the degree of reſpect they would ſhow.

Ships always ſalute with an odd number of guns, gallies with an even number; and a veſſel under the wind of another is always obliged to ſalute firſt.

To ſalute with muskets, is to fire one, two, or three volleys; which is a method of ſalutation that ſometimes precedes that of the cannon, and is chiefly uſed on occaſion of feaſts.

After the cannon, they alſo ſometimes ſalute or hale with the voice, that is, a joint ſhout of all the ſhip's company three times; which ſalutation alſo occaſionally obtains where they carry no guns, or do not care to diſcharge any.

Saluting with the flag, is performed two ways, either by holding it cloſe to the ſtaff, ſo as it cannot flutter; or by ſtriking it ſo that it cannot be ſeen at all, which is the moſt reſpectful ſalutation.

Saluting with ſails, is performed by hovering the top-ſails half way of the maſts: but only thoſe veſſels which carry no guns, ſalute with the ſails.

When there are ſeveral ſhips of war together, the commander alone ſalutes.

SALZ, *Saltz*, or *Sultz*. A ſort of brine, or pickle made of ſalt, diſſolved by the coldneſs or moiſture of a cellar.

SAMACHI. A city of Perſia, conſiderable for its cloth-trade. See *Perſia*.

SAMBALLAS, or *Samblas iſlands*, are ſituated in the American ocean, or North ſea, near the coaſt of Darien, in 81 deg. of E. lon. and 10 deg. of N. lat. 80 miles E. of Porto-Bello, none of them inhabited, but claimed by the Spaniards, as belonging to the neighbouring continent of Darien.

SAMBOUC. An odoriferous wood, brought by ſuch European nations as trade to the Guinea coaſt, by way of a preſent to the negro kings, who eſteem it greatly. The iris of Florence is uſually joined thereto, that the preſent may be better received.

SAMBRE. A river of the Netherlands, which riſes on the confines of Picardy; and running for the moſt part N. E. through Hainault, paſſes by Maubeuge and Charleroy, falling into the Maes by Namur.

SAMGAEL. A town of Perſia, having a good cotton-trade. See *Perſia*.

SAMIAN *earth*. A kind of bole, or aſtringent earth brought from the iſland of Samos, in the Ægean ſea.

The beſt is called by Dioſcorides collyrium, becauſe uſed in medicines of that name: it is white, very light, ſoft, friable, well-taſted, and a little glutinous on the tongue. There is another kind harder, fouler, and more glutinous, called *after ſamias*; becauſe little ſhining ſtraws are frequently found in it, diſpoſed like little ſtars. Each kind is eſteemed very aſtringent, proper to dry, and draw wounds; having much the ſame qualities as the Armenian bole.

There is alſo an Armenian ſtone, taken out of the mines in the ſame iſland; which is white, and ſticks to the tongue when applied to it: it is held aſtringent and cooling; being alſo uſed by the goldſmiths to burniſh their gold, and give it a luſtre.

SAMIS, or *Samalis*. An exceeding rich Venetian ſtuff, worked with leaves of gold, but little known at preſent; though ſome pieces are ſtill ſent to Conſtantinople.

SAMOS. An iſland in the Turkiſh Archipelago, ſituated in 27 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 37 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 30 miles ſouth of Smyrna, in the Leſſer Aſia, ſubject to the Turks; but inhabited by Greek chriſtians, of whom there are about 12,000 on the iſland.

SAMOTHRACIA. A ſmall iſland in the Ægean ſea, near the coaſt of Thrace or Romania.

SAMSOE. One of the Daniſh iſlands. See *Denmark*.

SANAS. White and blue cotton cloths, brought from the Eaſt Indies, particularly from Bengal. The pieces of the white are 9 ells 1-3d in length, and 5-6ths in breadth; the blue being 11 ells 1-4th in length, and 7-8ths in breadth.

SAND. A fine, hard, gravelly ſort of earth, or rather ſtones, divided into ſmall grains; of great uſe in building, and many other arts and manufactures, as glaſs-making, plumbery, foundery, and building.

There are three kinds of ſands, diſtinguiſhed by the places whence they are drawn; as pit-ſand, river-ſand, and ſea-ſand.

The uſe of ſand in building, is as an ingredient in mortar; for which purpoſe pit-ſand is of all others the beſt, and of pit-ſand the whiteſt is always the worſt: of river-ſand, that found in the fall of waters is the beſt, becauſe moſt purged: but ſea-ſand is the worſt.

Pit-ſand, as being fat and tough, is moſt uſed in walls and vaults: river ſand ſerves for rough caſting.

All ſand is good in its kind, if, when ſqueezed and handled, it crackles; and if, being put on a white cloth, it neither ſtains nor makes it foul. That ſand is bad, which, mixed with water, makes it dirty and muddy, or which has been long in the air, for ſuch will retain much earth and rotten humour; therefore ſome maſons waſh their ſand before they uſe it.

Some diſtinguiſh a male ſand, which is of a deeper colour than another ſort in the ſame bank or bed, called female ſand.

The ſand whereof glaſs is made, is white and gritty, full of little ſparkling grains. See *Glaſs*.

The ſand uſed by founders is foſſile; being properly a yellow fat earth, whereof they make their moulds, for the caſting of ſmall work; whence it is they ſay *caſting in ſand*. See *Foundery*.

The plumbers alſo uſe ſand to mould ſeveral of their works, particularly large ſheets. To prepare the ſand for theſe ſheets, they wet it lightly, ſtir and work it with a ſtick, then beat and plain it. See *Plumbery*.

Sands may be divided into ſharp and ſoft. Sharp or rag ſand is that compoſed of tranſparent pebbles naturally found in the mountains; of this again there is ſome fine and white; or grey, reddiſh, or brown; others coarſe, either of a grieſly or brown colour.

Soft or ſmooth ſand, is that mixed with flat particles from lime-ſtone, with micæ of glittering particles, either ſilver-like, as the ſea-ſand about the Scilly iſlands; or gold-like, as in Cleveland.

SAND, in agriculture, denotes one of the three uſual kinds of ſoil, which are ſand, clay and earth, or loam.

M. de la Quintinie attributes all the difference we find in ſoils to the different quality of the ſands mixed in them. Soft ſands, according to him, make a ſoft, gentle earth; unctuous ſand, a fat earth; and coarſe ſands, a rough untractable earth.

SAND, is alſo applied to dry crumbling earths; which, wanting fatneſs to bind them together, the wind eaſily breaks into duſt, and carries them away.

SANDARAC, or *Sandaracha*, in natural hiſtory and chemiſtry. A preparation of orpiment, made by fuſing it by a cloſe fire into a red friable maſs. See *Orpiment*.

SANDARACH, is the ſame with what is called red arſenic and realgar. See *Arſenic*, and *Realgar*.

It is alſo called *ſandaracha Græcorum*, in oppoſition to the gum ſandarach. Some diſtinguiſh two ſorts of Grecian ſandarach; the natural, which is that above deſcribed; and the factitious, which is only ceruſs exalted by the fire, and burnt into a kind of minium: but both of them are poiſon. See *Lead*, *Ceruſs*, and *Sandyx*.

Gum SANDARACH, is a white gum, oozing out of the trunk and thick branches of the great juniper-tree, by inciſions made in the heat of the ſummer. The ſmall or common juniper yields very little ſandarach; but its fruit

yields oils, waters, ſalts, ſpirits, and extracts of ſome repute in medicine.

The gum ſandarach is an ingredient in varniſh; with which, melted in oil of turpentine, is made the fictitious varniſh now uſed by painters and cabinet-makers.

It is alſo reduced into an impalpable powder, and uſed to prevent paper from imbibing ink. The beſt is in fine white tears, free of duſt, with which the Engliſh and Swedes drive a conſiderable trade. Some will have it, that the gum of the juniper is not the right ſandarach, but that of the oxycedrus, or leſſer cedar.

SANDERS. An Indian wood, very much valued; of a red, yellow, and white colour. See *Santalum*.

SANDEVER, or *Sandiver*. The droſs of glaſs, or the ſcum that ariſes from the aſhes of the herb kali, uſed in the making of glaſs. See *Glaſs*.

SANDWICH. A port-town of Kent, ſituated 10 miles eaſt of Canterbury, being one of the cinque ports.

SANDYX. A kind of minium, made of ceruſs, or rather lead, calcined and rubified, called alſo factitious ſandarach. See *Lead*, and *Sandarach*.

It is of little uſe in painting; the real minium, or vermilion, to which it is ſubſtituted, making a much better, brighter, and more durable colour.

SANEQUIN. A ſort of cotton, brought from Smyrna.

SANGLARGAN. A medicinal drug for ſtopping blood, brought from China: but, in all probability, this drug is only the dragon's blood. See *Dragon*'s blood.

SANGUINE *ſtone*. A kind of jaſper, brought from New Spain, of a dark brown colour, marked with ſpots of blood red. See *Jaſper*.

The Indians cut it in form of a heart, and uſe it in hæmorrhages, immoderate menſes, and other fluxes of blood. The patient applies it, by graſping it in his right hand, having firſt dipt it in water; but they ſometimes alſo hang it on the part whence the blood flows.

SANGUIS *draconis*, in pharmacy. See *Dragon*'s blood.

SANTA. A money of accompt; being a term at Bantam, and in all parts of the iſland of Java, as alſo in ſome neighbouring iſlands, for a certain number of caxas, ſtrung together upon a ſtraw.

The ſanta is of 200 caxas; and 5 ſantas make the ſapocou, worth about $3\frac{1}{2}$ d. ſterling.

SANTA *Clara*. An iſland in the Pacific ocean, ſituated in the bay of Guyaquil, near the coaſt of Peru, in 80 deg. of W. lon. and 5 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. 80 miles S. W. of the city of Guyaquil.

SANTA *Cruz*. A port-town of the iſland of Cuba, in North America, ſituated on the north-ſide of the iſland, in 85 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 22 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 60 miles eaſt of Havannah.

SANTA *Fe*. The capital of New Mexico, in North America, ſituated in 109 deg. of W. lon. and 36 deg. of N. lat. 100 miles N. of the city of Old Mexico, and 700 miles weſt of the river Miſſiſſippi.

SANTA *Fe de Bagotta*. The capital of Terra Firma, in South America, ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the river Magdalena, in 74 deg. of W. lon. and 4 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 360 miles ſouth of Carthagena.

SANTA *Maria*. A town of America, in the province of Darien, or Terra Firma Proper, ſituated on the river Santa Maria, a little eaſt of the bay of Panama, 100 miles S. E. of the city of Panama.

SANTALUM, *Santal*, or *Sanders*. A hard, heavy, odoriferous, medicinal wood, brought from the Eaſt Indies; of ſome repute as a drier, abſorbent, and ſweetener. There are ſantals of three different colours, citrine, white, and red. The trees whence they are taken are all of the ſame kind; and it is ſuppoſed their different colours only ariſe from the difference of climates where they grow; ſome ſay, from the different parts of the tree they are taken from. They are all held to be a little aſtringent, to ſtrengthen the heart and brain, and to ſtop vomiting; being frequently uſed in diet-drinks, and medicated ales, againſt ſcorbutic complaints. The tree is about the height of the European walnut-tree; its leaves reſemble thoſe of the lentiſcus; its flowers are blue, bordering on black; its fruit of the ſize of the cherry, green at firſt, but blackening as it ripens, and of a faint taſte. The citrine ſantal is eſteemed the beſt: it is brought from China and Siam; being yellow, heavy, and of a good ſmell; uſed in medicine, and alſo by the perfumers. The white ſantal is leſs odoriferous, and is brought from the iſle of Timor. The red has the leaſt ſmell of the three, but is the moſt aſtringent; being brought from Tanaſſarim, and the coaſt of Coromandel.

SANTILLANA. A city and port-town of Spain, in the province of Aſturias, ſituated on the bay of Biſcay, in 5 deg. of W. lon. and 43 deg. 35 min. of N. lat. 90 miles weſt of Bilboa.

SANTORINI. An iſland of the Turkiſh Archipelago, ſituated 40 miles S. E. of Melos, and 20 miles S. W. of Morgo, being 35 miles in circumference. The whole iſland ſeems to be a pumice-ſtone rock, covered over with a foot of vegetable earth, and was raiſed out of the ſea by a volcano, as were two or three other ſmall iſlands near it.

SAONE. A river of France, which riſes in Lorrain, and runs ſouth through Burgundy; then paſſing by Gray, Chalons, and Maſcon, falls into the Rhine at Lyons.

SAPAN. A name given by the Dutch to the Brazil wood brought from Japan; of which there are two ſorts, the large and the ſmall; which latter is alſo called ſapanbimaes. See *Brazil* wood.

SAPIENZA. An iſland and cape in the Mediterranean ſea, on the S. W. point of the Morea, in European Turky, ſituated 60 miles ſouth of the iſland of Zante, in 21 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 36 deg. 45 min. of N. lat.

SAPOCOU. A money of accompt in the iſland of Java, and ſome neighbouring iſlands, compoſed of 5 ſantas, and each ſanta of 200 caxas. See *Santa*, and *Caxa*.

SAPPHIRE. A precious ſtone, of a beautiful azure or ſky-blue colour; tranſparent, yet exceedingly hard, ſo as ſcarce to bear being engraven.

Different colours conſtitute different kinds thereof; the deepeſt blues being eſteemed males, and the whiteſt females. The ſapphires of Pegu are moſt eſteemed, which are found in the ſame mines as the rubies. There are ſome alſo brought from Calicut, Cananor, and Ceylon; from which laſt place Europeans might be furniſhed with abundance, if the king of the iſland did not prohibit all commerce thereof with foreigners. The ſoft water ſapphires of Bohemia and Sileſia are of ſome account, though far inferior to the oriental ones, both in the brightneſs of their blue, and the firmneſs of their texture. Many people value the ſapphire beyond the ruby, and give it the ſecond place among precious ſtones, as that next the diamond; though others give that place to the ruby. Some authors affirm, that a ſapphire, being heated to a certain degree, between two crucibles luted together, loſes all its colour, and becomes perfectly white; ſo as to deceive even the jewellers themſelves, and make it paſs for a diamond.

Druggiſts ſell two kinds of ſapphires, uſed in the confection of hyacinth, the one red, the other blackiſh: the laſt, by reaſon of the deep tincture they give that medicine, are very improperly uſed there: the former are little reddiſh ſtones, of the ſize of pin-heads, very hard, and difficult to pulveriſe.

Some rank the cat's-eye in the number of ſapphires, which is a gem remarkable for a fine diverſity of colours, as well as for its hardneſs, and bears a poliſh equal with that of the true ſapphire.

The chemiſts make ſeveral preparations of ſapphire, as a ſalt, a tincture, an eſſence, a water, and an oil; there being few diſeaſes but they pretend themſelves able to cure by remedies compoſed thereof. The ſuperſtitious attribute ſtill more ſtrange virtues to this ſtone; as that it grows foul, and loſes its beauty, when wore by a perſon that is of a lecherous nature.

SAPPHIRE *rubies*, are certain precious ſtones, between blue and red; which, in effect, are nothing but rubies whoſe colour is not perfectly formed. See *Ruby*.

SAQUEM. A port-town, lying on the Red ſea, in the province of Abex in Africa, ſituated in 38 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 19 deg. of N. lat. 250 miles weſt of Mecca, and ſubject to Turky.

SAR. A river of Germany, which riſes in Alſace, and running north enters Lorrain; it then paſſes by Sarabert

Sarbruck, and Sarburg, falling into the Moſelle a little above Triers.

ARAIS, is a term in the Mogul's territories for large buildings in the greater part of the towns, much of the nature of European inns, but leſs than the caravanſeras; merchants being received there with their merchandiſe, on paying a certain duty.

ARCOCOLLA. A gum oozing out of a thorny tree, either with or without inciſions. Neither authors nor merchants are agreed as to the place where it grows; ſome ſaying it is in Perſia, others in Arabia Deſerta. It comes to Europe in grains, or in tears of different colours; ſometimes white, ſometimes yellow, and ſometimes red; but all equally good, provided they are very dry: their taſte is bitter, accompanied with ſomewhat of a diſagreeable ſweetneſs. It is eſteemed warm and drying, very good to conſolidate and heal wounds, from whence it has its name. It is ſometimes alſo uſed in collyria to ſtop defluxions, and take off ſpecks in the eye.

ARDAM. A port-town of Holland, ſituated on the north-ſide of the Wye, in 4 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 38 min. of N. lat. 7 miles N. W. of Amſterdam, where are the greateſt magazines of ſhip-timber and naval ſtores in the world; and ſuch number of ſhipwrights, that it is ſaid they could formerly build a man of war every day of the year, if there was a neceſſity for it.

ARDIAN. A precious ſtone, of a blood colour, half tranſparent; being the ſame with what is otherwiſe called a cornelian. See *Cornelian*.

The moſt beautiful ſardians, are thoſe brought from about Babylon; thoſe of Sardinia, from whence they take their name, are in the ſecond claſs. There are others, and thoſe no contemptible ones, found near St. Mauro in Albania in Turky; and other very ſmall ones about the Rhine, as alſo in Bohemia and Sileſia. To give them the greater luſtre, it is uſual, in ſetting them, to lay ſilver-leaf underneath. The ſardian is moſt uſed for ſeals, as graving eaſily, yet taking a fine poliſh.

ARDINIA. An iſland of the Mediterranean, ſituated between 8 and 10 deg. of E. lon. and between 39 and 41 deg. of N. lat. bounded by the ſtrait which divides it from Corſica, on the north; by the Tuſcan ſea, which blows betwixt this iſland and Italy, on the eaſt; and by other parts of the Mediterranean ſea on the ſouth and weſt; being about 140 miles long, and 60 broad; a warm country, but not eſteemed very healthful, ſubject to the King of Sardinia, Duke of Savoy. See *Italy*.

ARDONYX. A kind of precious ſtone, partaking partly of the Sardian, and partly of the onyx; being ſemitranſparent, and reddiſh, bordering on white, ſomewhat like the nail of the hand: but in ſome the red inclines to yellow. It is brought from the Eaſt Indies, Arabia, and Bohemia; and was anciently much uſed for fine veſſels. See *Agate* and *Sardian*.

ARK. A little iſland between Guernſey and Jerſey, and the coaſt of Normandy in France, ſubject to Great Britain. See *Britiſh* Iſlands.

ARPLAR *of wool*, otherwiſe called *Pocket*, is half a ſack. See *Sack*.

ARRASIN. Black, or French corn. See *Corn*.

ARSAPARILLA. A medicinal plant, growing in New Spain, chiefly uſed in decoctions, and potions for the venereal diſeaſe; being eſteemed a great abſorbent and ſweetener, and on that account ſometimes taken as tea. Its root, which is the part in uſe, divides itſelf into a great number of filaments, 6 or 7 feet long, of the thickneſs of a quill: it is browniſh without ſide, and white within, only marked with two red ſtreaks. The branches creep on the earth, or along the trunks of other trees, in the ſame manner as ivy does.

To be good, it muſt be very dry, its filaments long, eaſy to cleave, and in cleaving muſt not yield any duſt: when boiled in water it muſt give it a red tincture. Some phyſicians much doubt the medicinal virtues of this root, as it does not diſcover much, either in taſte, ſmell, or tincture. There is another kind of ſarſaparilla, the filaments of whoſe root are thicker, growing in the iſland of Marignan, on the coaſt of Brazil; but not eſteemed ſo good as the former. A third kind is brought from Ruſſia, whoſe roots are ſtill bigger, and good for nothing but to burn.

SASSAFRAS. A yellow odoriferous wood, of a briſk aromatic ſcent, ſomewhat reſembling fennel; being the produce of a tree of which there are whole foreſts growing in Florida, and Virginia. The natives call it pavama; the Spaniards and French cinnamon-wood; becauſe, at the conqueſt of that country, under Ferdinand Soto in 1558, they imagined this to have been the true cinnamon tree. The principal virtue of the lignum ſaſſafras lies in its bark, which was formerly ſold at an incredible price, to be uſed with ſarſaparilla and eſquilina, in the cure of the venereal diſeaſe. It is very dry and hot, tho' not quite ſo much as the guaiacum.

It is uſed in ſome families as a common tea, which the ſhavings of it make agreeably enough; but the ſcandal of being a medicine in venereal caſes, prevents a deal of good being done by it. It is eſteemed in the gout, ſciatica, and green-ſickneſs. The beſt is that covered with a thick bark, reddiſh and rough; of a ſharp taſte, and a ſtrong aromatic ſmell.

SASSE, in ſome of the Engliſh ſtatutes, denotes a kind of wear with flood-gates, commonly uſed in navigable rivers for the damming and looſing the ſtream of water as occaſion requires, for the better paſſing of boats and barges.

SAT. A meaſure uſed at Siam for grain, and dry fruits: 40 of which make the ſeſt, and 40 ſeſts the cohi. Some think the ſeſt contains 100 catis, and by eſtimating 100 catis at 126 lb. avoirdupoiſe, the ſat would be about 3 lb. and the cohi 5000 lb.

SATALIA. A port-town of Pamphylia, in Leſſer Aſia. See *Turkey*.

SATTIN. A kind of ſilken ſtuff, very ſmooth and ſhining; the warp of which is very fine, and ſtands out; the woof coarſer, and hid underneath; whereon depends that gloſs and beauty which gives its price. There are ſome ſattins quite plain; others flowered with gold or ſilk; ſome wrought, and others ſtriped: all the varieties in the fabric of ſattins being made by uſing new warps or woofs. The fineſt ſattins are thoſe of Florence and Genoa; yet the French will not allow thoſe of Lyons to be any thing inferior thereto. The ſattins of Bruges have their warp of ſilk, and their woof of thread.

India ſattins, or ſattins of China, are ſilken ſtuffs, much like thoſe manufactured in Europe. Of theſe ſome are plain, either white, or of other colours; others worked, either with gold or ſilk, flowered, damaſked, or ſtriped. They are moſtly valued becauſe of their cleaning and bleaching eaſily, without loſing any thing of their luſtre: but in all other reſpects they are inferior to thoſe of Europe. F. le Comte obſerves, that the Chineſe prepare their ſattins in oil, to give them the greater luſtre; but this makes the duſt liable to hang to them. See *Silk*.

SATTINET, or *Sattinade*, a very ſlight thin ſort of ſattin, chiefly uſed by the ladies for ſummer night-gowns, and commonly ſtriped.

SATURDAY-*Stop*. A ſpace of time, in which formerly it was not lawful to take ſalmons, in the north, from Saturday evening till ſun riſing on Monday.

SATURN. See *Lead*.

SAVANNA. A town of Georgia in North America, ſituated in 81 deg. 20 min. of W. lon. and 32 deg. of N. lat. on the river Savanna, 10 miles W. of the mouth of it, lately built by the truſtees of Georgia, and ſubject to Great Britain.

SAVE. A river of Germany, which riſes in Carinthia, and runs E. through Carniola and Croatia; then continuing its courſe S. E. forms the boundary between Sclavonia and Turky, diſcharging itſelf into the Danube at Belgrade.

SAVONA. A port-town of the territory of Genoa, ſituated in 9 deg. of E. lon. and 44 deg. 25 min. of N. lat. on the bay of Genoa, 26 miles S. W. of that city.

SAVOY. A Dutchy ſubject to the King of Sardinia, ſituated between France and Italy, on the weſt ſide of the Alps. See *Italy*.

SAUSAGE, or *Saucidge*. A term of ſome ſignificancy in commerce, denoting a popular food prepared of crude meat,

meat, uſually either pork, beef, or veal, ſhred ſmall, ſeaſoned, and put up in a ſkin, in manner of a pudding. The moſt eſteemed is the Bologna ſauſage, which is much thicker than the common one; and is made with moſt ſucceſs in ſome cities in Italy, particularly in Bologna and Venice, from whence great quantities are exported to other places. They are made of raw pork well beaten in a mortar, with a quantity of garlic, pepper in the grain, and other ſpices: the Italians are furniſhed with a great part of the ſkins or guts for their ſauſages from England; and the quantities of that commodity yearly exported are greater than may be commonly imagined.

SAUK-BUND. The fifth ſort of ſilk gathered in the Mogul's territories.

SAUVAGAGI. A white cotton cloth brought from the Eaſt Indies, particularly from Surat; the pieces of which are 13 ells 1 half in length, and 5-8ths in breadth.

SAUVAGUZEES. White cotton cloths brought from the Eaſt Indies: ſome are called balazees, manufactured at Surat; and others called ſauvaguzees-dontis. Their length being 13 ells and a half, and 2-3ds breadth.

SAW. An inſtrument ſerving to divide into pieces divers ſolid matters; as wood, ſtone, ivory, and marble. See *Sawing*.

The ſaw is one of the moſt uſeful machines, in the mechanic arts, ever invented. The fable, which is perhaps founded upon ſome ſurer tradition, attributes the invention thereof to Icarus, who, vying with his father Dædalus, enriched the riſing arts with ſeveral diſcoveries. It is added, that he took the firſt hint from the ſpine or back-bone of a flat fiſh, ſuch as the ſoal. The ſaw is made of ſteel, with teeth; but thoſe differently filed, and turned, according to the uſe it is deſigned for. There are alſo a kind of ſaws without teeth, uſed in the ſawing of marbles and other ſtones.

The beſt ſaws are of tempered ſteel, ground bright and ſmooth; thoſe of iron are only hammer-hardened: hence, the firſt, beſides their being ſtiffer, are likewiſe found ſmoother than the laſt. They are known to be well hammered by the ſtiff bending of the blade; and well or evenly ground, by bending equally into a bow. The edge wherein the teeth are ſet, is always thicker than the back; in regard the back is to follow the edge; and the teeth are cut and ſharpened by a triangular file; firſt fitting the blade of the ſaw in a whetting-block. When filed, the teeth are to be ſet, that is, to be turned a-ſkew, or out of the right line to make the wider kerf or fiſſure, that the back may follow the better. This is done by putting an inſtrument, called a ſaw-wriſt, between every other two teeth, and giving it a little wrench, which turns one of the teeth a little towards you, and the other a little from you. The teeth are always ſet ranker for coarſe cheap ſtuff, than for hard and fine; in regard the ranker the tooth is ſet, the more ſtuff is loſt in the kerf; and if the ſtuff be hard, the greater is the labour of ſawing it.

The workmen who make the greateſt uſe of the ſaw, are the ſawyers, carpenters, joiners, eboniſts, ſtone-cutters, carvers, and ſculptors. The lapidaries too have their ſaw, as well as the workers in moſaic; but theſe bear little reſemblance to the common ſaws.

Of all mechanicks, there are none have ſo many ſaws as the joiners, nor of ſo many different kinds. The chief are as follow: 1. the pit-ſaw, a large two-handed ſaw, uſed to ſaw timber in pits; which is ſet rank for coarſe ſtuff, ſo as to make a kerf or fiſſure of almoſt a quarter of an inch; but for finer ſtuff finer. 2. The whip-ſaw, which is likewiſe two-handed, and uſed to ſaw ſuch large pieces of ſtuff as the hand-ſaw will not eaſily reach. 3. The hand-ſaw, which is made for a ſingle man's uſe, and is of various kinds; as the bow or frame ſaw, furniſhed with cheeks, by the twiſted cord and tongue in the middle thereof; the upper ends are occaſionally drawn cloſe together, and the lower ſet the further apart. Tennon ſaw, which being very thin, has a back to keep it from bending. Compaſs-ſaw, which is very ſmall, and its teeth uſually not ſet; its uſe is to cut a round, or any other compaſs-kerf: hence the edge is made broad, and the back thin, that it may have a compaſs to turn in. The chirurgeons likewiſe uſe a ſaw to cut off bones, which is very ſmall and light, that it may be managed with the more eaſe and freedom; the blade exceeding fine, and the teeth exquiſitely ſharpened, to make its way more gently, and yet with more expedition, in amputations of legs and arms.

SAWING, is the application of the ſaw, in the diviſion of timber and ſtone into pieces, and ſlabs. There are wind-mills and water-mills, which do the office of ſawing wood, with infinitely more expedition and eaſe than is performed by the hand.

They conſiſt of ſeveral parallel ſaws, which are made to riſe and fall perpendicularly, by means of one of the grand principles of motion. A very few hands are required only to puſh forwards the pieces of timber, which are laid on rollers, or ſuſpended by ropes, in proportion as the ſawing advances. Theſe mills are frequently found abroad, and were lately begun to be introduced in England; but the parliament, in conſideration that they would ſpoil the ſawyers trade, and ruin great numbers of families, thought fit to ſuppreſs them.

SAWING-*Mill*. See *Mill*.

SAXIFRAGE. A plant, ſuppoſed to be ſovereign for diſſolving the ſtone in the bladder.

The ſaxifrage ſhoots forth leaves almoſt round, indented, thickiſh, and gloſſy, not unlike thoſe of ground-ivy. In the midſt of the leaves ariſe ſtalks of about a foot high, which bear on their ſummits ſmall white-leaved flowers diſpoſed in form of a roſe. Its ſeed, which is very ſmall, is encloſed within almoſt round capſulas. Its root is divided into ſeveral fibres, towards the lower part of which are formed ſmall grains reſembling coriander; and it is theſe grains, properly called ſeed of ſaxifrage, which are uſed in medicine. The beſt manner of uſing them is to take them infuſed in white wine, or in a decoction of common water.

SAXONY, comprehends the northern diviſion of Germany; containing the upper and lower circles of Saxony. See *Germany*.

SAY, or *Saye*, in commerce, a kind of ſerge, or a very light croſſed ſtuff, all wool; much uſed abroad for linings, and by the religious for ſhirts; as alſo in England by the quakers for aprons, for which purpoſe it is uſually green. There are very conſiderable manufactures thereof at Sudbury, near Colcheſter; alſo at Ypres and Houdſcot, in Flanders. Thoſe made in England are chiefly exported to Portugal and Leghorn.

SAY, or *Aſſay*. See *Aſſay*.

SAYBROOK. A port-town of New England, in North America, in the province of Connecticut, ſituated at the mouth of the river Connecticut, in 72 deg. of W. lon. and 41 deg. of N. lat. 85 miles S. W. of Boſton.

SAYCOCK, or *Bongo*. One of the iſlands of Japan, ſituated in 130 deg. of E. lon. and 32 deg. of N. lat. being divided from the great iſland of Japan by a narrow channel on the north; and from the iſland of Tonſa by another channel on the N. E. See *Japan*.

SCABBARD. An inſtrument or ſheath to contain a ſword in.

SCABIOUS. A medicinal plant, very common in the fields, which has a great character among diſpenſatory writers, though it ſeems to grow much out of uſe. However, it paſſes for a great pectoral, and does great things in aſthmas and pleuriſies; Etmuller giving it the pre-eminence in inward abſceſſes. It has a place alſo among alexipharmicks, and there is ſcarce any thing in better eſteem for the itch, or other cutaneous foulneſſes, when it has its name, and upon which account it is often mixed with in decoctions, and ſometimes in a ſyrup, among ſuch as are called ſweeteners.

SCAGEN. A port-town of N. Jutland, ſubject to Denmark, which gives name to a promontory, or cape, at the entrance of the Scaggerac ſea, or paſſage out of the ocean into the Baltic; ſituated in 10 deg. of E. lon. and 58 of N. lat. Here was a ſand hill, upon which a fire was kept conſtantly burning in the night-time, for the direction

direction of ſhips ſailing through the Categate; but, this being almoſt waſted away by the ſea, there is now erected, inſtead of the ſaid waſting ſand hill, a tower of 64 feet high, ſtanding farther within the land, at the diſtance of 800 feet from the ſand hill, and 400 more towards the north; upon which tower, the fire has been kept, ſince the firſt of February 1752, of which the King of Denmark gave public notice; to the end that mariners, being duly apprized of the alteration beforehand, might regulate their courſe to the Categate accordingly. See *Denmark*.

SCAGGERAC *Sea*. See *Categate*.

SCALE. A mathematical inſtrument, conſiſting of one or more lines drawn on wood, metal, or other matter, divided into equal or unequal parts; of great uſe in laying down diſtances in proportion, or in meaſuring diſtances already laid down. There are ſcales of ſeveral kinds, accommodated to the ſeveral uſes; the principal are, the plain-ſcale, the diagonal ſcale, Gunter's ſcale, and the plotting-ſcale.

SCALE, in geography and architecture, is a line divided into equal parts, placed at the bottom of a map or draught, to ſerve as a common meaſure, to all the parts of the building, or all the diſtances and places of the map.

In maps of large tracts, as kingdoms and provinces, the ſcale uſually conſiſts of miles, whence it becomes denominated a ſcale of miles. In more particular maps, as thoſe of fields and manors, the ſcale is uſually of chains, ſubdivided into poles or links. The ſcales uſed in draughts of buildings, uſually conſiſt of modules, feet, inches, palms, fathoms, or the like. To find the diſtance between two towns in a map, the interval is taken in the compaſſes, and ſet off in the ſcale, and the number of diviſions it includes gives the diſtance. The ſame method ſerves to find the height of a ſtory in a deſign.

SCALIN, or *Eſcalin*. A ſmall ſilver coin current in Flanders and Holland, worth about 3½ d. ſterling. There are are alſo half, double, and triple ſcalins, all uſed in the Dutch commerce on the coaſts of Africa.

SCALLOWAY. A town on the weſt ſide of Mainland, one of the iſlands of Shetland, in the county of Orkney in Scotland, ſituated in 1 deg. 5 min. of W. lon. and 61 deg. of N. lat. 130 miles N. E. of Cathneſs, ſubject to Great Britain.

SCAMITE. A cotton cloth manufactured in ſome of the iſlands of the Turkiſh Archipelago, particularly at Siphanto; it is plain, and not ſo ſtrong as the dimitty, which is another ſort manufactured in the ſame place.

SCAMMONY, in pharmacy, an inſpiſſated juice, of the root of a plant of the ſame name, growing in the Levant, particularly about Aleppo, and St. John de Acre. The juice flows from an inciſion made in the root, and is afterwards thickened by the ſun, as it is pretended; but in reality by the fire. The tree is much like an ivy, its leaves in form of hearts, its flowers white, and it creeps on the ground, or climbs on other trees and walls. The good and genuine ſcammony of Aleppo, is to be grey, tender, friable, and reſinous; the taſte bitter, and the ſmell faintiſh and diſagreeable. The ſcammony of Smyrna, and that of the Eaſt Indies, are leſs valued; the firſt as being more heavy, hard, and black; the latter, though light and friable, is in reality nothing but a compoſition of common roſin, with ſome other violent purgatives. Pomet aſſerts, that both theſe kinds are rather poiſons than remedies.

The true ſcammony is one of the ſureſt purgatives; but one of the moſt violent we have: hence it is ſeldom uſed without correcting it by ſome preparation with ſulphur, quince, or the like. From the juice is drawn a reſin, of more virtue than the ſcammony itſelf. They alſo make a ſyrup of it, which is found a gentle purgative. The ſcammony now in uſe muſt be very different from that of the ancients, at leaſt in the preparation, by reaſon the ancients gave it in much larger doſes: hence Fallopius conjectures the modern ſcammony to be adulterated with ſpurge. Some give the name of American ſcammony to mechoacan. See *Mechoacan*.

SCANDEROON. A port-town of Aſiatic Turky, ſituated on the coaſt of the Leſſer Aſia, in 37 deg. of E. lon. and 36 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. 50 miles N. E. of the iſland of Cyprus; being the port-town to Aleppo, with which the Engliſh and other European merchants have a conſiderable trade. See *Turky*.

SCANTLING. A meaſure, ſize, or ſtandard, whereby the dimenſions of things are to be determined.

SCARBOROUGH, under the meridian of London, a borough and port-town of Yorkſhire, ſituated on the German ocean, 37 miles N. E. of York; reſorted to in the ſummer by great numbers of nobility and gentry, on account of its excellent mineral waters.

SCARDONNA. A port-town of Dalmatia, ſituated on a bay of the gulph of Venice, in 17 deg. 25 min. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 55 min. of N. lat. 45 miles N. of Spalatto, ſubject to Venice.

SCARLET, in dying, one of the ſeven kinds of good reds. See *Red*.

There are two kinds of ſcarlets; the one given with kermes, or ſcarlet grain; the other with cochineel. See *Cochineel*.

SCARLET-*Grain*, is a dyer's drug, uſed for giving a ſcarlet colour, and commonly taken for the grain of a plant. This imaginary grain, called by the Arabs kermes, is found on a kind of ilex, growing in great plenty in the uncultivated parts of Provence, and Languedoc in France; as alſo in Spain and Portugal. That of Languedoc paſſes for the beſt, being large, and of a very bright red: that of Spain is the worſt, being very ſmall, and of a blackiſh red. It is to be gathered when ripe, and is only good while new; that is, within the compaſs of the year; after which time a kind of inſect is found in it that eats out the heart thereof.

F. Plumier has made ſeveral diſcoveries on the ſubject of ſcarlet-grain. The Arabic term kermes, which ſignifies little worms, he obſerves, agrees perfectly with the nature of this drug; which is the work of a worm, and not the grain or ſeed of a tree, as is generally ſuppoſed. The ſhrub it is found on, is the ilex aculeata cocci-glandifera; on the leaves and little ſhoots whereof appear in the ſpring time, a kind of little veſiculæ, at firſt no bigger than grains of millet, occaſioned by the puncture of an inſect, which depoſite its eggs therein. In proportion as theſe grow, they become covered with a kind of aſh-coloured down, which hides the red colour underneath; and when arrived at maturity, which thoſe who gather them know very well, they are taken from the tree in form of little galls. The huſk or ſkin of theſe galls, is very light and brittle, covered with a fine membranous pellicle all round, except at the place where it grows to the leaf: a ſecond ſkin under the firſt, is full of a duſt, partly red, and partly white. As ſoon as the galls are gathered, the juice or pulp is preſſed from them, and they are waſhed in vinegar, to deſtroy the little inſects within ſide, which, without ſuch precaution, would grow, feed on the duſt, and at laſt be hatched, leaving only empty ſhells.

The ſcarlet-grain is alſo of conſiderable uſe in medicine, where it is better known under its Arabic name of kermes. See *Kermes*.

SCARPANTO. An iſland in the Mediterranean, ſituated in 27 deg. of E. lon. and 36 deg. of N. lat. 20 miles S. W. of Rhodes, and 40 miles N. E. of Candia.

SCARPE. A river of the Netherlands, which riſes in the province of Artois, and running N. E. paſſes by Arras, Douay, and St. Amand, falling into the river Scheld a little below Mortaigne.

SCAVAGE, *Schevage*, *Schewage*, or *Shewage*, in the antient Engliſh cuſtoms, a kind of toll exacted by mayors and ſheriffs, of merchant-ſtrangers, for wares ſhewed, or offered to ſale within their liberties: but this cuſtom was prohibited by the ſtatute of the 19th of Henry VII. except to the city of London, which ſtill retains the benefit of it.

The duties of ſcavage, package, balliage, and portage, payable to the city of London for all the goods and merchandiſes of aliens, or denizens born within the allegiance of the Britiſh crown, being the ſons of aliens, born under foreign allegiance, imported into, or exported out of the ſaid city: granted to the mayor and commonalty, and citizens, by their charter dated the 5th day of Sep-

tember, in the 16th year of the reign of King Charles the ſecond, confirmed by the 20th rule of the book of rates, and by 2 Will. and Mary, cap. 8.

Which ſaid duty of ſcavage is by the act of navigation paſſed *anno* 12th Car. II. cap. 18 § 9. and the act of frauds paſſed *anno* 13th and 14th Car. II. cap. 11 § 6. alſo payable for ſeveral commodities, though of Britiſh property, when imported in any other than ſhips belonging to the people of Great Britain or Ireland, and whereof the maſter, and at leaſt three fourths of the mariners are Britiſh, or in foreign-built ſhips, altho' owned or manned by Britiſh, unleſs ſuch as are taken as prize, and for currants and Turkey commodities imported in any other than Britiſh-built ſhipping, and navigated as aforeſaid; the particular ſpecies whereof are thus marked * in the following table; being the ſame that are chargeable with petty cuſtom in the like caſe.

1. *The ſcavage table of rates inwards*, for the ſurveying of all goods and merchandiſes imported from parts beyond the ſeas; although the mayor and commonalty, or their officers, do not ſurvey or deliver the ſaid goods when they are ready, and upon reaſonable requeſt and notice given. By the 22 Hen. VIII cap. 8. § 2, 4. it is directed, that tables thereof be ſet up in the city of London, approved and ſubſcribed by the chancellor and treaſurer of England, the preſident of the King's council, lord privy-ſeal, lord ſteward of the houſhold, and the two chief juſtices of the King's-Bench and Common Pleas, or four of them at the leaſt.

SCAVAGE.

	s.	d.
A		
Alum, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb.	0	2
Andirons. See *Braſs*.		
Annotto, the hundred weight containing 5 ſcore	0	4
Apples and pears, the little barrel -	0	1¼
* Aqua vitæ, the hogſhead - -	0	6
Argol, white or red, the hundred weight containing 112 lb. - - -	0	1½
* Aſhes, vocat. potaſhes, for every 20 s. of the rate - - -	0	1
B.		
Babies heads, the dozen - - -	0	0½
Bacon, the hundred weight containing 112 lb.	0	3
Bandſtrings, the dozen knots - -	0	0¼
* Balks great, the hundred containing 6 ſcore	1	6
middle, the hundred containing 6 ſcore	0	9
ſmall, the hundred containing 6 ſcore	0	4
* Barlings, the hundred containing 6 ſcore	0	4
* Barley, the quarter containing 8 buſhels	0	0½
Barillia, or ſaphora, the barrel cont. 200 wt.	0	4
Baſket-rods, the dozen bundles - -	0	4
Baſt-ropes, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb	0	0½
Battery, baſhrones, or kettles, the hundred wt. containing 112 lb. - -	0	6
* Beans, the quarter - - - -	0	0½
Beef, the barrel - - - -	0	1
Bell metal, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	2
Bermilians. See *Fuſtians*.		
Blacking, or lamp-black, the hundred weight containing 112 lb. - - -	0	3
Bottles of all ſorts, the dozen - - -	0	0½
* Boards, barrel boards, the thouſand -	0	4
Clap-boards, the hundred cont. 6 ſcore -	0	1
Pipe-boards, the hundred cont. 6 ſcore -	0	1
Boratoes, or bombaſines,—narrow, the ſingle piece not above 15 yards, - -	0	2
Broad, the ſingle piece not above 15 yards	0	3
Books unbound, the baſket or maund -	0	8
* Bow ſtaves, the hundred cont. ſix ſcore -	0	2
Braſs andirons, laver-cocks, chaffing-diſhes, and all other braſs or latten wrought, the hundred pound containing five ſcore - -	0	3
Brimſtone, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	0½
Briſtles, the dozen pounds - -	0	0½
Buckrams of Germany, the dozen pieces	0	3
Of France, the dozen pieces - -	0	2
Buffins, liles, or mocadoes narrow, the ſingle piece not above 15 yards - -	0	1
Broad, the ſingle piece not above 15 yards	0	2
Bulruſhes, the load - - -	0	1
Burs for milſtones, the hundred cont. five ſcore	0	3
Butter, the hundred weight containing 112 lb.	0	1
C		
Cable ropes for cordage, the hundred weight containing 112 lb. - -	0	1
Cabinets great, the piece - -	0	2
ſmall, the piece - -	0	1
Caddas, or cruel ribbon, the dozen pieces, each piece containing 36 yards - -	0	1
Candlewick, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	1
Candles of tallow, the dozen pound -	0	0½
Capers, the hundred lb. cont. five ſcore -	0	2
* Capravens, the hundred containing ſix ſcore	0	3
Cards—Playing-cards, the ſmall groſs containing 12 dozen pair - - -	0	2
Wooll cards, the dozen pair -	0	0½
Carpets—Turky, Perſia, Eaſt India and Venice, long, the piece - -	0	6
Of the ſame, or like ſort, ſhort, the piece -	0	4
Carpets of all other ſorts, the piece -	0	0½
Caſes—For looking-glaſſes, gilt, from No. 3. to No. 10. the dozen - -	0	1½
For looking glaſſes ungilt, the dozen -	0	0½
Catlings. See *Luteſtrings*.		
Chamlets, mohairs, and Turkey grograms, each 15 yards - - - -	0	1½
Cheeſe, the hundred weight containing 112. lb.	0	1
Cherries, the hundred weight containing 112 lb.	0	1½
Cloth—French woollen, each 20 yards -	0	8½
Scarlet, the yard - -	0	1
Cochineal—Silveſter, or Campechea, the pound	0	0½
Of all other ſorts, the pound	0	1
Combs of box or light-wood, the groſs containing 12 dozen - - -	0	0½
Copper bricks, or plates, round or ſquare, the hundred weight containing 112 lb - -	0	4
Copperas, the hundred weight containing 112 lb.	0	1
Coral, rough or poliſhed, the maſt containing two pounds and a half - -	0	2
Cordage. See *Cable Ropes*.		
Cork—The hundred weight containing 112 lb.	0	1
The dozen pieces, for ſhoemakers -	0	0½
Corn—Barley, ſee in *B*.		
Beans, ſee in *B*.		
Malt, ſee in *M*.		
Oats, ſee in *O*.		
Peaſe, ſee in *P*.		
Rye, ſee in *R*.		
Wheat, ſee in *W*.		
D.		
* Deal boards of all ſorts, the hund. cont. 6 ſcore	1	0
Dogs of earth, the ſmall groce cont. 12 dozen	0	1½
Durance, or duretties, with thread, each 15 yards	0	1½
With ſilk, each 15 yards - -	0	2
Drugs.—Amber-greaſe, the ounce -	0	1½
Aloes cicotrina, the pound - -	0	0½
Barley hulled, the hundred wt. cont. 112. lb.	0	1
Carraway and cummin-ſeeds, the hundred wt.	0	1½
China roots, the hundred pounds cont. 5 ſcore	1	6
Civet the ounce - - - -	0	1
Coral, ſee in *C*.		
Frankincenſe, ſee in *F*.		
Gum arabick, ſee in *G*.		
Gum armoniack, the hundred cont. 5 ſcore	0	6
Muſk, the ounce - -	0	1
Cods, the dozen - - -	0	1
Quickſilver, ſee in *Q*.		
Saunders, white or red, the hundr. cont. 5 ſcore	0	6
Treacle, common, the hundred cont. 5 ſcore.	0	2
Turpentine, common, the hundred wt. containing 112. lb. - -	0	1
E.		
Earthen wares, vocat. tiles, ſee in *T*.		

F.

Feathers for beds, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	2
Fiſh—Cod-fiſh, the hundred containing ſix ſcore	0	4
Cole-fiſh, the hundred containing ſix ſcore -	0	1
Eels the barrel - - -	0	1
Quick, the ſhip's lading - -	10	0
Herrings, white or red, the laſt -	0	6
Lings, the hundred containing ſix ſcore	0	6
Lub fiſh, the hundred containing ſix ſcore	0	2
Croplings, the hundred containing ſix ſcore	0	1
Titling, the hundred containing ſix ſcore	0	0½
Sturgeon, the firkin - -	0	1
The keg - -	0	0½
Salmon, the Barrel - -	0	1½
*Flax undreſs'd, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	1½
Dreſſed or wrought, the hundred weight containing 112 lb. - -	0	4
Flox, the hundred weight containing 112 lb.	0	2
Frankincenſe, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	1½
Fuſtian bermillians, the piece, or two half pieces containing 15 yards each half piece	0	2
Naples fuſtian, tripe, or velure, the piece containing 15 yards - -	0	2
Furs—Beaver-ſkins, the piece - -	0	0½
Beaver-bellies or wombs, the dozen	0	4
Budge, tawed or untawed, the hundred containing five ſcore - -	0	2
Fox-ſkins, the hundred cont. five ſcore	0	4
Foyns, without tails, the dozen -	0	1½

G.

Galley diſhes, each 12 dozen - -	0	1
Galls, the hundred containing 112 lb.	0	2
Glaſs, for windows, the cheſt or caſe	0	3
Called Venice drinking-glaſſes, the dozen	0	0½
Looking-glaſſes, halfpenny ware, the groce cont. 12 dozen - - -	0	0¼
Penny ware, the groce cont. 12 dozen -	0	0½
Looking-glaſſes of ſteel, ſmall, the dozen	0	0½
large, the dozen	0	1
Ditto, of cryſtal, ſmall, the dozen under No. 6.	0	1
the doz. No. 7, 8, 9, 10 -	0	4
middle ſort, the dozen, No. 6.	0	2
the dozen, No. 11 and 12 -	1	6
Glaſs ſtone plates for ſpectacles, rough, the dozen	0	0½
Glaſs-plates, or ſights for looking-glaſſes unfoyled of cryſtal, ſmall, under No. 6. the dozen	0	0½
Ditto, No. 6. the dozen - -	0	1
No. 7, 8, 9, 10. -	0	2
No. 11, 12, the dozen -	1	0
Gloves of Spaniſh leather, the dozen pair	0	0½
Goats hair, the hundred pound cont. five ſcore	0	6
Grain for dyers of ſcarlet powder, the pound	0	0½
Of Sevil in berries, and grains of Portugal, or Rotta, the pound - -	0	0¼

Grocery.

Almonds, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb	0	3
Aniſeeds, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	2
Cinnamon, the hundred cont. five ſcore	1	0
Cloves, the hundred containing five ſcore	1	6
* Currants, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	2
Dates, the hundred wt. containing 112 lb.	0	4
* Figs, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb. -	0	1
Fuſſes of cloves, the hundred lb cont. five ſcore	0	8
Ginger, the hundred lb. containing five ſcore	1	0
Liquorice, the hundred containing 112 lb.	0	1½
Mace, the hundred containing five ſcore	2	0
Nutmegs, the hundred containing five ſcore	1	6
Pepper, the hundred containing five ſcore	0	6
*Prunes, the hundred containing 112 lb.	0	1
*Raiſins great, or Malaga, the hund. cont. 112 lb.	0	1
Of the ſun, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	2
* Sugar refined, the hundred containing 112 lb.	0	10
Candy-brown, or white, the hundred wt.	0	8
Muſcovadoes, and white, the hund. wt.	0	4
St. Thome and Panellis, the hundred wt.	0	2
Grograms, ſee *Chamlets*.		
Gunpowder, the barrel containing 112 lb.	0	3
Gum arabick, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	2

H.

Hawks of all ſorts, the hawk -	0	2
*Hats—Baſt or ſtraw hats knotted, the dozen	0	0¼
Baſt or ſtraw hats plain, the groce containing 12 dozen - -	0	1½
Wooll-felts, the dozen - -	0	1
Demi-caſtors, the piece - -	0	0½
Beaver-hats, the piece - -	0	2
* Headings for pipes, hogſheads, or barrels, the thouſand - - - -	0	2
Heath for bruſhes, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	1
* Hemp undreſs'd the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	1
Dreſs'd, the hundred wt. containing 112 lb.	0	2
Hides—Buff hides, the piece - -	0	0½
Cow hides, or horſe hides, the dozen hides	0	3
Honey, the barrel - - -	0	1½
Horſes and mares, each horſe or mare -	0	6
Hops, the hundred weight - -	0	2

I

Indico, the hundred pound cont. five ſcore	2	0
Indico duſt, the hundred pound cont. five ſcore	0	8
Incle wrought, the dozen pound - -	0	1½
Rolls, the dozen pieces, containing 36 yards each piece - -	0	1
Unwrought, the hundred lb. cont. five ſcore	0	4
Iron wrought, the hundred containing 112 lb.	0	1
Iron unwrought, the ton - -	0	6
Iron pots, the dozen - -	0	1½
Juice of lemons, ſee *Lemons*.		

L.

Lamp black, ſee *Blacking*.		
Latten, ſhaven latten, the hundr. wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	6
Black latten, the hundred weight containing 112 lb. - - -	0	3
Lace,—Bone-lace of thread, the dozen yards	0	0½
Silk bone-lace, the pound cont. 16 ounces -	0	2
Silk lace of all other ſorts, the pound containing 16 ounces - - -	0	1
Lemons, the thouſand - -	0	1
Juice of lemons, the pipe - -	0	6
Pickled lemons, the pipe - -	0	3
Linſeed, the quarter - - -	0	1
Leaves of gold, the hundred leaves cont. five ſcore	0	0½
Lewers for hawks, the dozen - -	0	0½
Leather.—Bazel leather, the dozen skins -	0	0¼
Hangings, gilt, the piece - -	0	3
Leather for masks, the dozen pound -	0	2
Lutes, the dozen - - -	0	4
Lute-ſtrings, called catlings, the great groce containing 12 ſmall groce of knots -	0	1
Minikins, the great groce containing 12 dozen knots - - -	0	0½

Linen, Brabant, Flemiſh, Embden.

Britiſh cloth, the hundred ells cont. five ſcore	0	2
Frieze cloth, Ghentiſh Holland, Iſinghams, Overiſſels cloth, Rowes, Cowſfeld, or Plats cloth, each 30 ells - - -	0	2
Callicoes, or dutties, the piece - -	0	0½
Cambricks, the whole piece containing 13 ells	0	2
Damask for tabling, of Holland-making the dozen yards - - -	0	4
Of Sileſia making, the dozen yards -	0	2
For towelling and napkining of Holland-making, the dozen yards - -	0	2
Of Sileſia making, the dozen yards -	0	1
Diaper for tabling, of Holland-making, the dozen yards - - -	0	2
Of Sileſia-making, the dozen yards -	0	1
For towelling and napkining of Holland-making the dozen yards - -	0	1
Of Sileſia-making, the dozen yards -	0	0½
French, or Normandy canvas, and line narrow vandales, or vitry canvas, Dutch barras, and Heſſens canvas, the hundred ells cont. ſix ſcore	0	2
Gutting and Spruce canvas, Drillings, Pack-duck, Hinderlins, middle good, Headlake, Muſcovia, Line Narrow, Hamburg cloth, narrow Iriſh cloth, the hundred ells containing ſix ſcore	0	1
Hamburg and Sileſia cloth, broad, the hundred ells containing ſix ſcore - -	0	3

Pole-

SCA

Poledavies, the bolt - -	0	1
French canvas and line, ell and half quarter broad, or upwards, the ſix ſcore ells - -	0	3
Lawns, the whole piece containing 13 ells	0	2
Callicoe lawns, the piece - - -	0	0½
French lawns, the piece - -	0	0½
Lockrams, the piece of all ſorts, cont. 106 ells	0	1½
Soultwich, the hundred ells containing ſix ſcore	0	1½
Straſbrough linen, each 30 ells - -	0	1
Striped or tufted canvas with thread, the piece containing 15 yards - -	0	1
Striped, tufted, or quilted canvas with ſilk, the piece containing 15 yards - -	0	1
Litmus, the hundred weight containing 112 lb.	0	1

M.

* Malt, the quarter - -	0	0½
Magnus, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	1
Masks of velvet, or ſatin, the dozen	0	1
* Maſts great, the maſt - -	0	2
middle, the maſt - -	0	1
ſmall, the maſt - -	0	0½
Maps, printed, the ream - -	0	1
Madder—Crop madder, and all other bale madder, the hundred weight containing 112 lb.	0	2
Fat madder, the hundr. wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	1½
Mull madder, the hundred weight containing 112 lb. - -	0	0½
* Meal, the laſt containing 12 barrels	0	4
Minikins, ſee Luteſtrings.		
Mocado ends, the dozen pound - -	0	1½
Mohairs, ſee *Chamlets*.		

O.

* Oars, the hundred containing ſix ſcore -	0	4
* Oats, the quarter - - -	0	0½
Oils---* Sevil oil, Majorca oil, Minorca oil, Provence, Portugal oil, and ſallet oil, the ton	2	8
Rape and linſeed oil, the ton - -	2	6
Train oil of Greenland or Newfoundland, the ton - - -	1	4
Olives, the hogſhead - -	0	4
Onions, the hundred bunches -	0	1
Seed, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb. -	0	3
Oranges, the thouſand - -	0	1
Orchal, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	1½

P

Packthread, the hundred lb. cont. five ſcore	0	1½
Pans, called dripping or frying pans, the hundred containing 112 lb.	0	1½
Warming-pans the dozen - -	0	1½
Paper, brown, the hundred bundles	0	6
of all other ſorts, each five ſcore reams	1	8
Pears, ſee *Apples*.		
* Peaſe, the quarter - - -	0	0½
* Pitch, or tar, the laſt - - -	0	3
Plates ſingle, white or black, the hundred plates	0	1
Double, white or black, the hundred plates	0	2
Pomegranates, the thouſand - -	0	2
Pork, the barrel - - -	0	1½
Pots of earth or ſtone, covered, the hundred containing five ſcore - -	0	1
Of earth or ſtone uncovered, the hundred caſt, containing a gallon to every caſt, whether in one pot or no - - -	0	2

Q.

Quails, the dozen - - -	0	0¼
Quickſilver, the hundred, containing five ſcore	0	10
Quinces, the hundred containing five ſcore -	0	0½

R.

Rape-ſeed, the quarter - - -	0	1
* Roſin, the ton - - -	0	8
Rice, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb.	0	1
* Rye, the quarter - -	0	0½
Rims for ſieves, the groce cont. 12 dozen	0	0½
* Ruſſia goods, for every 20 s. of their rates, or values on oath - -	0	1

S.

Saffron, the pound - - -	0	0½
Safflower, the hundred pound containing five ſcore	0	4
* Salt, the wey - - - -	0	2
Salt-petre, the hundred containing 112 lb.	0	2
Says—Double Says, or Flanders ſerges, the piece	0	1½
Haunſcot, and mild ſays, the piece	0	3
Shumack, the hundred containing 112 lb.	0	2
Silk—Bruges, Granadoes, Naples, Organzine, Pole, and Spaniſh ſatten ſilk, ſleeve ſilk, fine and thrown ſilk, the pound cont. 16 ounces	0	1½
Raw China ſilk, the pound cont. 24 ounces	0	1
Ferret or floret ſilk, fillozel, ſleeve ſilk coarſe, the pound containing 16 ounces -	0	1
Raw long ſilk, the pound containing 24 ounces	0	0½
Raw ſhort ſilk, and raw Morea ſilk, the pound containing 24 ounces -	0	0½
Silk ſtockings, the pair - -	0	0½
Silks wrought—Boratoes of ſilk, catalopher, China, damaſk, ſilk chamlet, China grograms, tabby grograms, philoſelloes, narrow tabbies of ſilk, towers taffety, the dozen yards	0	0½
Silk grograms narrow, ſilk ſay, calimancoes and philoſelloes broad, the dozen yards	0	2
Silk grograms broad, caffa or damaſk, the dozen yards - - - -	0	3
Sattens of Bolonia, Lukes, Jeans, and other of like making, the dozen yards -	0	4
Bruges, China, and Turkey ſatten, the dozen yards - - - -	0	6
Sarcenets, of Bolonia or Florence, the dozen ells - - -	0	1
Of China, the dozen ells -	0	1½
Syphers of ſilk, broad, the dozen yards	0	1
Of ſilk, narrow, each 24 yards	0	0½
Taffety ell broad, each dozen -	0	0½
China and Levant, each dozen yards	0	2
Velvets—China velvets each dozen yards	0	1
All other velvets or pluſhes, each dozen yards - -	0	6
Skins—Cordivant ſkins, the dozen -	0	2
Goats-ſkins, in the hair, the dozen	0	1
Kid skins of all ſorts, the hundr. cont. fiveſcore	0	2
Smalts, the hundred containing five ſcore	0	4
* Spars--Bombſpars, the hundred cont. ſix ſcore	0	3
Cantſpars, the hundred cont. ſix ſcore -	0	2
Small ſpars, the hundred cont. ſix ſcore	0	1
* Spirits, as brandy, rum, &c. for every 20 s. of their rates or values on oath -	0	1
Stockings of ſilk, ſee *Silk*.		
Stones—Dog-ſtones, the laſt -	0	6
Marble-ſtones, the ton - -	0	8
Mill-ſtones, the piece - - -	0	6
Quern-ſtones, the laſt - -	0	3
Sword-blades, the dozen - -	0	1
* Staves—Pipe or hogſhead ſtaves, the thouſand	0	6
Barrel-ſtaves, the thouſand -	0	3
Firkin-ſtaves, the thouſand -	0	1
Steel—Long-ſteel, whiſp-ſteel, and ſuch like, the hundred weight containing 112 lb. -	0	2
Gad ſteel, the half barrel - -	0	4
Sturgeon, ſee *Fiſh*.		
Succad, wet or dry, the hundred cont. five ſcore	0	1
* Syder, the ton - - -	0	4

T.

Tallow, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	1
Tapiſtry with hair, the hundred Flemiſh ells containing five ſcore - - -	0	4
With wooll, the hundred Flemiſh ells containing five ſcore - - -	0	6
With caddas, the hundred Flemiſh ells containing five ſcore - - -	1	0
With ſilk, the dozen Flemiſh ells -	2	0
Tarras, the barrel - - -	0	0
Teazels, the thouſand - -	0	0
Tykes of all ſorts, the tyke - -	0	0
Thread—Bruges thread, the dozen pound	0	1
Outnal thread, the dozen pound -	White	

Whited brown, or piecing thread, the dozen pound	0	1½
Sifters thread, the pound	0	0½
Lyons, or Paris thread, the bale containing an hundred bolts	0	8
Tobacco—Spaniſh, Verinus, Brazil tobacco, the hundred containing five ſcore	2	0
St. Chriſtopher's tobacco, or the like, the hundred pound cont. five ſcore	0	6
Tiles, called pan-tiles, or Flanders tiles the thouſand	0	2
* Timbers, for every 20 s. of their rates, or values upon oath	0	1
Tow, the hundred containing 112 lb.	0	0½
Tripe, ſee *Fuſtians.*		
* Turkey goods, for every 20 s. of their rates, or values upon oath	0	1

V.

Vellure, ſee *Fuſtians.*
Vinegar, ſee *Wine-eager.*

W.

Wax, the hundred containing 112 lb.	0	4
* Wainſcots, the hundred containing five ſcore	0	6
Whale-fins, the dozen fins	0	1
* Wheat, the quarter containing eight buſhels	0	1
* Wine-eager, the ton	0	6
Gaſcoign, French wines, and all other wines of the growth of the French King's dominions, the ton	2	0
Rheniſh wine, the awm	0	6
Muſcadel, and all other wines of the growth of the Levant, the butt	1	0
Sacks, Canaries, Malagas, Maderas, Romneys, baſtards, tents, and Alicants, the butt or pipe	1	0
Wire, called latten-wire, and all other wire, the hundred weight containing 112 lb.	0	4
Woad.—Iſland woad, the ton	1	0
Tholoſe woad, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	1
Wood.—*Boxwood, the thouſand pieces	0	2
Brazil, or Farnambuck-wood, the hundred wt. containing 112 lb.	0	3
Braziletto, or Jamaica-wood, the hundred weight containing 112 lb.	0	1
Fuſtick, the hundred containing 112 lb.	0	0½
Red, or Guinea-wood, the hundred weight containing 112 lb.	0	2
Sweet-wood of Weſt India, the hundred wt. containing 112 lb.	0	1
Of all other ſorts, for every 20 s. of the rate, or value on oath	0	1
Wool.—Beaver-wool, the pound	0	1½
Cotton-wool, the hundred pound containing five ſcore	0	3
Iriſh combed, the hundred containing five ſcore	0	4
Uncombed, the hundred cont. 112 lb.	0	2
Eſtridge-wool, the hundred weight containing 112 lb.	0	2
Polonia-wool, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	3
French wool, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	2
Lambs-wool, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	3
Spaniſh-wool, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	4
Red-wool, the pound	0	0½

Y.

Yarn.—Cable-yarn, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	1
Camel, grogram, or mohair-yarn, the hundred cont. five ſcore	1	6
Cotton-yarn, the hundred containing five ſcore	0	4
Iriſh yarn, the packet containing four hundred weight, at ſix ſcore pounds to the hundred	0	6
Raw linen yarn, Dutch or French, the hundred containing five ſcore	0	4
Spruce or Muſcovia yarn, the hundred weight containing 112 lb.	0	2

All other goods not mentioned in this table, ſhall pay for ſeavage duties inwards, after the rate of one penny in the

pound, according as they are expreſſed or valued in his majeſty's book of rates; and all other not expreſſed therein, ſhall pay the ſame rates, according to the true value.

All merchants aliens and denizens, are to make and deliver to the proper collector of this duty, true and perfects bills of entry of all the goods and merchandiſe by them imported.

II. *The package table of rates outwards*, for all goods and merchandiſes, to be packed, casked, piped, barrelled, or any other ways veſſelled, in order to be tranſported to parts beyond the ſeas; altho' the mayor and commonalty, or their officers, do not pack the ſaid goods when they are ready, and upon requeſt and notice given.

PACKAGE.

A.

	s.	d.
Annotto, the hundred cont. five ſcore pound	0	3
Aqua-vitæ, the hogſhead	0	4
Argol, white or red, the hundred weight containing 112 lb	0	1½
Aſhes—Pot-aſhes, the barrel containing two hundred weight	0	2
Soap-aſhes, the laſt	1	0
Awl-blades for ſhoemakers, the thouſand	0	0½

B.

Barilla or Saphora, the barrel cont. a hundred wt.	0	4
Beer, the ton	0	6
Birding ſhot-lead, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	2
Books, the maund	1	0
Bottles of glaſs covered with leather, the dozen	0	1
Brimſtone, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	1
Bruſhes, the dozen	0	0½
Broken glaſs, the barrel	0	0¼
Buttons, called Braſs, ſteel, copper, or latten-buttons, the great groce cont. 12 ſmall groce	0	1
Hair buttons, the great groce	0	1
Silk buttons, the great groce	0	0½
Thread buttons, the great groce	0	0¼
Buckweed, the quarter	0	1
Buckrams of all ſorts, the dozen pieces	0	2

C.

Caps for ſailors, Monmouth, and others, the dozen	0	1
Canary-ſeed, the buſhel	0	0½
Cloaks, old, the piece	0	0½
Cloths, ſee *Woollen-drapery.*		
Coals, ſee *Sea-coals in S.*		
Cobweb lawns, each 12 yards	0	1
Cochineal ſilveſter, or Campechia, the pound	0	0½
Of all other ſorts, the pound	0	1
Combs ivory, ſee *Ivory.*		
Copperas, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	1

D.

Drugs called aſſafœtida, gum-armoniack, gum-lac, olibanum, and ſaſſafras-wood, the hundred containing five ſcore pounds	0	6
Caſſia fiſtula, the hundred containing five ſcore	0	8
Lignea, the hundred pound cont. five ſcore	0	8
Cubebs, the hundred cont. five ſcore	0	6
Frankincenſe, ſee in *F.*		
Quickſilver, ſee in *S.*		
Red-lead, ſee in *R.*		
Rhubarb, the pound	0	1
Scammony, the pound	0	1
Wormſeeds, ſee in W.		

E.

Elephants teeth, the hundred cont. five ſcore lb.	0	4
Eſtridge feathers, undreſs'd, the pound	0	0½

F.

Feathers called eſtridge feathers, ſee in *E.*		
Filing of iron, called ſwarf, the barrel	0	2
Fiſh—Herrings full or ſhotten, the laſt	0	6
Stock-fiſh of all ſorts, the laſt	0	6
Flasks of horn, the dozen	0	1
Flax dreſs'd, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	4

SCA

Poledavies, the bolt - -	0	1
French canvas and line, ell and half quarter broad, or upwards, the ſix ſcore ells - -	0	3
Lawns, the whole piece containing 13 ells	0	2
Callicoe lawns, the piece - - -	0	0½
French lawns, the piece - -	0	0½
Lockrams, the piece of all ſorts, cont. 106 ells	0	1½
Soultwich, the hundred ells containing ſix ſcore	0	1½
Straſbrough linen, each 30 ells - -	0	1
Striped or tufted canvas with thread, the piece containing 15 yards - -	0	1
Striped, tufted, or quilted canvas with ſilk, the piece containing 15 yards - -	0	1
Litmus, the hundred weight containing 112 lb.	0	1

M.

* Malt, the quarter - -	0	0½
Magnus, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	1
Masks of velvet, or ſatin, the dozen	0	1
* Maſts great, the maſt - -	0	2
middle, the maſt - -	0	1
ſmall, the maſt - -	0	0½
Maps, printed, the ream - -	0	1
Madder—Crop madder, and all other bale madder, the hundred weight containing 112 lb.	0	2
Fat madder, the hundr. wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	1½
Mull madder, the hundred weight containing 112 lb. - -	0	0½
* Meal, the laſt containing 12 barrels	0	4
Minikins, ſee Luteſtrings.		
Mocado ends, the dozen pound - -	0	1½
Mohairs, ſee *Chamlets*.		

O.

* Oars, the hundred containing ſix ſcore -	0	4
* Oats, the quarter - - -	0	0½
Oils---* Sevil oil, Majorca oil, Minorca oil, Provence, Portugal oil, and ſallet oil, the ton	2	8
Rape and linſeed oil, the ton - -	2	6
Train oil of Greenland or Newfoundland, the ton - - -	1	4
Olives, the hogſhead - -	0	4
Onions, the hundred bunches -	0	1
Seed, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb. -	0	3
Oranges, the thouſand - -	0	1
Orchal, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	1½

P

Packthread, the hundred lb. cont. five ſcore	0	1½
Pans, called dripping or frying pans, the hundred containing 112 lb.	0	1½
Warming-pans the dozen - -	0	1½
Paper, brown, the hundred bundles	0	6
of all other ſorts, each five ſcore reams	1	8
Pears, ſee *Apples*.		
* Peaſe, the quarter - - -	0	0½
* Pitch, or tar, the laſt - - -	0	3
Plates ſingle, white or black, the hundred plates	0	1
Double, white or black, the hundred plates	0	2
Pomegranates, the thouſand - -	0	2
Pork, the barrel - - -	0	1½
Pots of earth or ſtone, covered, the hundred containing five ſcore - -	0	1
Of earth or ſtone uncovered, the hundred caſt, containing a gallon to every caſt, whether in one pot or no - - -	0	2

Q.

Quails, the dozen - - -	0	0¼
Quickſilver, the hundred, containing five ſcore	0	10
Quinces, the hundred containing five ſcore -	0	0½

R.

Rape-ſeed, the quarter - - -	0	1
* Roſin, the ton - - -	0	8
Rice, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb.	0	1
* Rye, the quarter - -	0	0½
Rims for ſieves, the groce cont. 12 dozen	0	0½
* Ruſſia goods, for every 20 s. of their rates, or values on oath - -	0	1

S.

Saffron, the pound - - -	0	0
Safflower, the hundred pound containing five ſcore	0	0
* Salt, the wey - - - -	0	4
Salt-petre, the hundred containing 112 lb.	0	2
Says—Double Says, or Flanders ſerges, the piece	0	1
Haunſcot, and mild ſays, the piece	0	3
Shumack, the hundred containing 112 lb.	0	2
Silk—Bruges, Granadoes, Naples, Organzine, Pole, and Spaniſh ſatten ſilk, ſleeve ſilk, fine and thrown ſilk, the pound cont. 16 ounces	0	1
Raw China ſilk, the pound cont. 24 ounces	0	1
Ferret or floret ſilk, fillozel, ſleeve ſilk coarſe, the pound containing 16 ounces -	0	0
Raw long ſilk, the pound containing 24 ounces	0	0
Raw ſhort ſilk, and raw Morea ſilk, the pound containing 24 ounces -	0	0
Silk ſtockings, the pair - -	0	0
Silks wrought—Boratoes of ſilk, catalopher, China, damaſk, ſilk chamlet, China grograms, tabby grograms, philoſelloes, narrow tabbies of ſilk, towers taffety, the dozen yards	0	2
Silk grograms narrow, ſilk ſay, calmancoes and philoſelloes broad, the dozen yards	0	3
Silk grograms broad, caffa or damaſk, the dozen yards - - - -	0	4
Sattens of Bolonia, Lukes, Jeans, and other of like making, the dozen yards -	0	6
Bruges, China, and Turkey ſatten, the dozen yards - - - -	0	8
Sarcenets, of Bolonia or Florence, the dozen ells - - -	0	4
Of China, the dozen ells -	0	3
Syphers of ſilk, broad, the dozen yards	0	2
Of ſilk, narrow, each 24 yards	0	1
Taffety ell broad, each dozen -	0	4
China and Levant, each dozen yards	0	6
Velvets—China velvets each dozen yards	0	8
All other velvets or pluſhes, each dozen yards - -	0	12
Skins—Cordivant ſkins, the dozen -	0	2
Goats-ſkins, in the hair, the dozen	0	0
Kid skins of all ſorts, the hundr. cont. fiveſcore	0	4
Smalts, the hundred containing five ſcore	0	4
* Spars--Bombſpars, the hundred cont. ſix ſcore	0	4
Cantſpars, the hundred cont. ſix ſcore -	0	2
Small ſpars, the hundred cont. ſix ſcore	0	1
* Spirits, as brandy, rum, &c. for every 20 s. of their rates or values on oath -	0	1
Stockings of ſilk, ſee *Silk*.		
Stones—Dog-ſtones, the laſt -	0	1
Marble-ſtones, the ton - -	0	0
Mill-ſtones, the piece - - -	0	4
Quern-ſtones, the laſt - -	0	1
Sword-blades, the dozen - -	0	0
* Staves—Pipe or hogſhead ſtaves, the thouſand	0	0
Barrel-ſtaves, the thouſand -	0	0
Firkin-ſtaves, the thouſand -	0	0
Steel—Long-ſteel, whiſp-ſteel, and ſuch like, the hundred weight containing 112 lb. -	0	0
Gad ſteel, the half barrel - -	0	0
Sturgeon, ſee *Fiſh*.		
Succad, wet or dry, the hundred cont. five ſcore	0	0
* Syder, the ton - - -	0	0

T.

Tallow, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	0
Tapiſtry with hair, the hundred Flemiſh ells containing five ſcore - - -	0	0
With wooll, the hundred Flemiſh ells containing five ſcore - -	0	0
With caddas, the hundred Flemiſh ells containing five ſcore - - -	1	2
With ſilk, the dozen Flemiſh ells -	0	0
Tarras, the barrel - -	0	0
Teazels, the thouſand - -	0	0
Tykes of all ſorts, the tyke - -	0	0
Thread—Bruges thread, the dozen pound	0	0
Outnal thread, the dozen pound -	0	0

Whited brown, or piecing thread, the dozen pound	0	1½
Siſters thread, the pound	0	0½
Lyons, or Paris thread, the bale containing an hundred bolts	0	8
Tobacco—Spaniſh, Verinus, Brazil tobacco, the hundred containing five ſcore	2	0
St. Chriſtopher's tobacco, or the like, the hundred pound cont. five ſcore	0	6
Tiles, called pan-tiles, or Flanders tiles the thouſand	0	2
Timbers, for every 20 s. of their rates, or values upon oath	0	1
Tow, the hundred containing 112 lb.	0	0½
Tripe, ſee *Fuſtians*.		
Turkey goods, for every 20 s. of their rates, or values upon oath	0	1

V.

Vellure, ſee *Fuſtians*.
Vinegar, ſee *Wine-eager*.

W.

Wax, the hundred containing 112 lb.	0	4
Wainſcots, the hundred containing five ſcore	0	6
Whale-fins, the dozen fins	0	1
Wheat, the quarter containing eight buſhels	0	1
Wine-eager, the ton	0	6
Gaſcoign, French wines, and all other wines of the growth of the French King's dominions, the ton	2	0
Rheniſh wine, the awm	0	6
Muſcadel, and all other wines of the growth of the Levant, the butt	1	0
Sacks, Canaries, Malagas, Maderas, Romneys, baſtards, tents, and Alicants, the butt or pipe	1	0
Wire, called latten-wire, and all other wire, the hundred weight containing 112 lb.	0	4
Woad.—Iſland woad, the ton	1	0
Tholoſe woad, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	1
Wood.—*Boxwood, the thouſand pieces	0	2
Brazil, or Farnambuck-wood, the hundred wt. containing 112 lb.	0	3
Braziletto, or Jamaica-wood, the hundred weight containing 112 lb.	0	1
Fuſtick, the hundred containing 112 lb.	0	0½
Red, or Guinea-wood, the hundred weight containing 112 lb.	0	2
Sweet-wood of Weſt India, the hundred wt. containing 112 lb.	0	1
Of all other ſorts, for every 20 s. of the rate, or value on oath	0	1
Wool.—Beaver-wool, the pound	0	1½
Cotton-wool, the hundred pound containing five ſcore	0	3
Iriſh combed, the hundred containing five ſcore	0	4
Uncombed, the hundred cont. 112 lb.	0	2
Eſtridge-wool, the hundred weight containing 112 lb.	0	2
Polonia-wool, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	3
French wool, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	2
Lambs-wool, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	3
Spaniſh-wool, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	4
Red-wool, the pound	0	0½

Y.

Yarn.—Cable-yarn, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	1
Camel, grogram, or mohair-yarn, the hundred cont. five ſcore	1	6
Cotton-yarn, the hundred containing five ſcore	0	4
Iriſh yarn, the packet containing four hundred weight, at ſix ſcore pounds to the hundred	0	6
Raw linen yarn, Dutch or French, the hundred containing five ſcore	0	4
Spruce or Muſcovia yarn, the hundred weight containing 112 lb.	0	2

All other goods not mentioned in this table, ſhall pay for ſavage duties inwards, after the rate of one penny in the

pound, according as they are expreſſed or valued in his majeſty's book of rates; and all other not expreſſed therein, ſhall pay the ſame rates, according to the true value.

All merchants aliens and denizens, are to make and deliver to the proper collector of this duty, true and perfects bills of entry of all the goods and merchandiſe by them imported.

II. *The package table of rates outwards*, for all goods and merchandiſes, to be packed, casked, piped, barrelled, or any other ways veſſelled, in order to be tranſported to parts beyond the ſeas; altho' the mayor and commonalty, or their officers, do not pack the ſaid goods when they are ready, and upon requeſt and notice given.

PACKAGE.

A.	s.	d.
Annotto, the hundred cont. five ſcore pound	0	3
Aqua-vitæ, the hogſhead	0	4
Argol, white or red, the hundred weight containing 112 lb	0	1½
Aſhes—Pot-aſhes, the barrel containing two hundred weight	0	2
Soap-aſhes, the laſt	1	0
Awl-blades for ſhoemakers, the thouſand	0	0½

B.

Barilla or Saphora, the barrel cont. a hundred wt.	0	4
Beer, the ton	0	6
Birding ſhot-lead, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	2
Books, the maund	1	0
Bottles of glaſs covered with leather, the dozen	0	1
Brimſtone, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	1
Bruſhes, the dozen	0	0½
Broken glaſs, the barrel	0	0¼
Buttons, called Braſs, ſteel, copper, or latten-buttons, the great groce cont. 12 ſmall groce	0	1
Hair buttons, the great groce	0	1
Silk buttons, the great groce	0	0½
Thread buttons, the great groce	0	0¼
Buckweed, the quarter	0	1
Buckrams of all ſorts, the dozen pieces	0	2

C.

Caps for ſailors, Monmouth, and others, the dozen	0	1
Canary-ſeed, the buſhel	0	0½
Cloaks, old, the piece	0	0½
Cloths, ſee *Woollen-drapery*.		
Coals, ſee *Sea-coals in S.*		
Cobweb lawns, each 12 yards	0	1
Cochineal ſilveſter, or Campechia, the pound	0	0½
Of all other ſorts, the pound	0	1
Combs ivory, ſee *Ivory*.		
Copperas, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	1

D.

Drugs called aſſafœtida, gum-armoniack, gum-lac, olibanum, and ſaſſafras-wood, the hundred containing five ſcore pounds	0	6
Caſſia fiſtula, the hundred containing five ſcore	0	8
Lignea, the hundred pound cont. five ſcore	0	8
Cubebs, the hundred cont. five ſcore	0	6
Frankincenſe, ſee in *F.*		
Quickſilver, ſee in *S.*		
Red-lead, ſee in *R.*		
Rhubarb, the pound	0	1
Scammony, the pound	0	1
Wormſeeds, ſee in W.		

E.

Elephants teeth, the hundred cont. five ſcore lb.	0	4
Eſtridge feathers, undreſs'd, the pound	0	0½

F.

Feathers called eſtridge feathers, ſee in *E.*		
Filing of iron, called ſwarf, the barrel	0	2
Fiſh—Herrings full or ſhotten, the laſt	0	6
Stock-fiſh of all ſorts, the laſt	0	6
Flasks of horn, the dozen	0	1
Flax dreſs'd, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	4

S C A

Flax undreſs'd, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb. o 2
Frankincenſe, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb. o 1½
Furs, ſee *Skins*.
Fuſtians.—Engliſh millain, the piece containing two half pieces of 15 yards the piece - o 1
Venetian, Engliſh make, each 15 yards o 1

G.

Galls, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb. o 2
Garble of almonds, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb. o 1
Of cloves, the hundred pound cont. five ſcore o 4
Of ginger, the hundred pound cont. five ſcore o 1
Of mace, the hundred pound cont. five ſcore o 9
Of pepper, the hundred pound cont. five ſcore o 3
Glaſs, broken, ſee in *B*.
Glew, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb. o 1
Glovers clippings, the maund or basket - o 1½
Gloves—Buck leather, the dozen pair - o 1
Gloves with ſilk fringe, and faced with taffaty, the dozen pair - - - o 1
Gloves lined with coney or lamb-skin, or plain, the dozen pair - - o 0½
Grains—Scarlet powder, and of Sevil in berries, and grain of Portugal, or Rotta, the hundred pound - - - - 2 6
Grain, French, or Guinea, the hundred pound o 4
Grocery—Almonds, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb. o 2
Almonds-garble, ſee *Garble*.
Anniſeed, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb. o 2
Cinnamon, the hundred pound cont. five ſcore 1 0
Cloves, the hundred pound cont. five ſcore 1 0
Cloves-garble, ſee *Garble*.
Currants, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb. o 3
Dates, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb. o 4
Figs, the hundred weight containing 112 lb. o 0½
Ginger, the hundred pound cont. five ſcore o 9
Ginger-garble, ſee *Garble*.
Liquorice, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb. o 1½
Mace, the hundred pound containing five ſcore 1 6
Mace-garble, ſee *Garble*.
Nutmegs, the hundred containing five ſcore 1 0
Pepper, the hundred containing five ſcore o 6
Pepper-garble, ſee *Garble*.
Prunes, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb. o 0½
Raiſins great, and Malaga, the hundred weight containing 112 lb. - - o 1
Raiſins of the ſun, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb. o 2
Sugar-candy, the hundred containing 112 lb. o 8
Sugar of St. Thome, and Panellis, the hundred weight containing 112 lb. - o 3
Sugar of all ſorts, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb. o 6

H.

Hemp, the hundred weight containing 112 lb. o 1½
Hats.—Beaver hats, the piece - o 2
Demy-caſtors, the piece - - o 1
Felt-hats, plain, the dozen - o 1½
Felt-hats, lined or faced, the dozen - o 2
Hair.—Coney hair, the hundred pound containing five ſcore - - - o 4
Of goats or kids, the hundred cont. five ſcore o 4
Ox or cow-tail hair, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb. - - - o 0½
Hides, India, ſee *India*.
Horns—Ink-horns, the ſmall groce cont. 12 doz. o 0½
Horns of lanthorns, the thouſand leaves o 2
Tips of horns, the thouſand - - o 1
Hops, the hundred weight containing 112 lb. o 2

I.

Indico of all ſorts, the hundred pound containing five ſcore - - - 1 0
Indico-duſt, the hundred pound cont. five ſcore o 6
India hides, the hundred containing five ſcore o 6
Iriſh rugs, the piece - - o 1
Iron the ton, unwrought - - o 6
Wrought, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb. o 1
Spurs, the dozen pair - - - o 1
Ivory combs, the dozen pound - o 2

K.

Knives, called London knives, ordinary, the ſmall groce - - -
Sheffield knives, the ſmall groce - - 0 3
Shoemakers paring knives, the ſmall groce 0 1
0 0

L.

Lace—Bone-lace of thread, the dozen yards
Silklace, the pound containing 16 ounces 0 0
Lamperns, the thouſand - - 0 1
Lead, the fother - - 0 1
Lead, ſee *Birding-ſhot*. - 0 8
Lemons pickled, the pipe - -
Lemon juice, the pipe - - 0 3
Linſeed, the quarter - - - 0 6
Linen, called callico, the piece - - 0 1
Cambricks, two half pieces cont. 13 ells 0 0
Damaſk, for tabling, of all ſorts, the doz. yards 0 0
Damask, for towelling and napkening, of all ſorts, the dozen yards - - 0 2
Diaper for tabling of all ſorts, the doz. yards 0 1
Diaper for towelling and napkening of all ſorts, the dozen yards - - - 0 1
Lawns, the piece containing 13 ells - 0 0
Linen-cloth, called Brabant, Embden, Flemiſh, Freeze, Ghentiſh, Holland, Iſinghams, Overyſſels, and Rouſe cloth, each thirty ells 0 1
French and Normandy canvas, the hundred ells containing ſix ſcore - 0 2
Dutch barras, Heſſens, Vitry canvas, the hundred ells ſix ſcore - - 0 3
Canvas tufted, or quilted with copper, ſilk, or thread, or the like, the piece containing 15 yards - - 0 3
Linen ſhreds, the maund - - 0 1
0 2

M.

Madder, all but mull madder, the hundred wt. containing 112 lb. - - 0 2
Moloſſes, the hogſhead - - - 0 4
Muſtard-ſeed, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb. 0 0½

N.

Nails.—Chair nails, braſs or copper, the thouſand 0 0
Copper nails, roſe nails, and ſaddlers nails, the ſum containing 10,000 - 0 0

O.

Oaker, red or yellow, the hundred weight containing 112 lb. - - 0 1
Onion-ſeed, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb. 0 4
Orchal, the hundred weight containing 112 lb. 0 1
Ox bones, the thouſand - - - 0 1
Ox-guts the barrel - - 0 2
Oil—Sevil, Majorca, Minorca oil, Provence, Portugal, linſeed, or rape-oil, the ton - 1 4
Train or whale-oil, the ton - - 0 8

P.

Paper, printing and copy-paper, the hundred reams containing five ſcore - - 1 6
Pewter, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb. - 0 4
Points of thread, ſee in *T*.

R.

0 1
Rape-ſeed, the quarter - - - 0 0
Rape cakes, the thouſand - - 0 1
Red-lead, the hundred containing 112 lb. 0 0
Red-earth, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb. 0 1
Rice, the hundred weight containing 112 lb. 0 6
Roſin, the ton - -
Rugs, Iriſh, ſee *Iriſh*.

S.

0 1
Saffron, the pound - - - 0 1
Salt, the wey - - - 0 1
Salt-petre, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb. 0 10
Sea-morſe teeth, the hundred lb. cont. five ſcore 0 4
Sea-coals, the chalder - - Sea-

Shot, see *Birding-shot-lead.*		
Shumack, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	2
Silk—Raw of all sorts, the pound cont. 16 ounces	0	1
Nubs or husks of silk, the hundred cont. 21 ounces to the pound	0	4
Britiſh thrown, the pound cont. 16 ounces	0	1
Silver, called quickſilver, the hundred cont. five ſcore	0	8
Skins and furs.—Badger-skins, the hundred containing five ſcore	0	6
Beaver-skins, the hundred cont. five ſcore	2	6
Cat-skins, the hundred cont. five ſcore	0	4
Calve-skins, the hundred cont. five ſcore	0	8
Coney-skins grey, tawed, ſeaſoned, or ſtag, the hundred containing ſix ſcore	0	2
Coney-skins black, the hundred cont. ſix ſcore	0	2
Elk-skins, the piece	0	0½
Fitches, the timber	0	1
Fox-skins, the hundred cont. five ſcore	0	8
Jennet-skins, black, ſeaſoned or raw, the skin	0	0½
Kid-skins, the hundred containing five ſcore	0	2
Lambs-skins, tawed, or in oil, the hundred cont. ſix ſcore	0	6
Morkins, tawed or raw, the hundred cont. ſix ſcore	0	4
Otter-skins, the hundred cont. five ſcore	0	8
Rabbet-skins, the hundred cont. five ſcore	0	1
Sheep-skins, the hundred cont. ſix ſcore	0	6
Sheep-pelts, the hundred cont. five ſcore	0	3
Squirrel-skins, the thouſand	0	3
Slip, the barrel	0	1
Soap.—Hard caſtle, the hundr. wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	2
The barrel	0	3
Spectacles without caſes, the 12 dozen	0	0½
Stockings.—Childrens ſtockings, the dozen pair	0	0½
Kerſey or leather, the dozen pair	0	1
Silk ſtockings, the pair	0	0½
Worſted ſtockings, the dozen pair	0	2
Woollen-knit ſtockings, the dozen pair	0	1½
Stuffs, called buffins, the piece broad cont. 14 yds.	0	2
The piece narrow, containing 14 yards	0	1
Bridgewater, the piece	0	2
Carrels, the piece	0	1
Camelians, the piece containing 25 yards	0	2
Chamlets or grograms, the piece containing about 14 or 15 yards	0	2
Dammoſelloes, or damaſins, the piece	0	2
Durance, the piece	0	1
Dimity, each thirty yards	0	1
Floramedoes, the piece	0	1
Figurettos	0	2
Hangings of Briſtol, or ſtriped ſtuff, the piece	0	4
Linſey-woolſey, the piece	0	1½
Liſles, the piece broad or narrow, not above 15 yards	0	2
Mocadoes, ſingle or tufted, the piece containing 14 yards	0	1
Mocadoes, double, the piece cont. 28 yards	0	2
Mohairs, the piece not above 15 yards	0	1½
Miſcellauny, the piece containing 30 yards	0	1
Perpetuanas, yard broad, the piece	0	2
Perpetuanas, the piece, ell-broad	0	2½
Paragon, or parapus, the piece	0	2
Pyramids, or marimuff, the narrow piece	0	1
The broad piece	0	2
Raſhes of all ſorts, the piece about 24 yards	0	4
Says, called hounſcot ſays, or milled, the piece	0	3
Says of all other ſorts, the piece	0	2½
Serges the ſingle piece, yard-broad, containing 12 yards	0	2
Serges, double, the piece, yard-broad, cont. 24 yards	0	3
See alſo *Woollen-drapery.*		
Succad, wet or dry, the hundred pound containing five ſcore	0	8
Swarf, ſee *Filings of Iron.*		

T.

Tallow, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	1
Tapeſtry with hair, the hundred Flemiſh ells containing five ſcore	0	4
With wool, the hundred Flemiſh ells containing five ſcore	0	6
With caddas, the hundred Flemiſh ells containing five ſcore	1	0
With ſilk, the dozen Flemiſh ells	0	2
Taffaty ell broad, the dozen yards	0	2
Silk tuff-taffaty, broad, the dozen yards	0	4
Silk tuff-taffaty, narrow, the dozen yards	0	2
Thread, whited brown, or coloured, the doz. lb.	0	1
Tiffany, each dozen yards	0	1
Tobacco—Spaniſh, the hundred cont. five ſcore	2	0
Of all other ſorts, the hundred cont. five ſcore	0	6
Tin wrought, the hundred cont. 112 lb.	0	4
Unwrought, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	3½
Thread points, the great groce	0	0½

V.

Vellures, Britiſh, the ſingle piece	0	1
The double piece	0	2
Vinegar of wine, the ton	0	2½

W.

Waiſtcoats, of kerſey or flannel, the dozen	0	2
Of woollen, knit, the dozen	0	4
Of worſted knit, the piece	0	0½
Wrought with cruel, the piece	0	0¼
Wrought with ſilk, the piece	0	1
Wax—Britiſh wax, the hundred weight containing 112 lb.	0	4
Britiſh hard wax, the hundred cont. five ſcore	0	8
Wine—French wines of all ſorts, the ton	0	8
Muſcadel, and wines of the Levant, the butt	0	6
Sacks, Canaries, Maderas, Romneys and Hullocks, the butt or pipe	0	6
Wood.—Box-wood, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	0½
Brazil-wood, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	3
Ebony-wood, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	1½
Fuſtick-wood, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	0½
Red-wood, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	1½
Wool.—Cotton-wool, the hundred weight cont. five ſcore	0	3
Eſtridge-wool, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	2
French wool, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	2
Spaniſh-wool, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	4
Woollen drapery, called bays, the ſingle piece	0	2
The double piece	0	4
Minikins bays, the piece	0	6
Broad cloth, the ſhort piece cont. 24 yards	0	6
Broad cloth, the long piece cont. 32 yards	0	8
Cottons of all ſorts, the hundred goads	0	6
Devonſhire dozens, the piece	0	1
Frizadoes, the piece	0	3
Kerſeys of all ſorts, the piece	0	2
Liſts of cloth, the thouſand yards	0	6
Northern dozens ſingle, the piece	0	3
double, the piece	0	6
Spaniſh cloth, Britiſh making, each 20 yards	0	6
Peniſtones, the piece	0	2
Worm-ſeed, the hundred pound cont. five ſcore	0	6

Y.

Yarn, called cotton yarn, the hundred containing five ſcore	0	6
Grogram, or mohair yarn, the hundred containing five ſcore	0	6
Raw linen yarn of all ſorts, the hundred pound	0	4

All other goods not mentioned in this table, ſhall pay for package duties, after the rate of one penny in the pound, according as they are expreſſed or valued in his Majeſty's late book of rates; and all other not expreſſed therein, ſhall pay the ſame rate according to their true value.

For every entry in the packers book for writing bills to each entry outward, as uſually they have done, 12 d.

The ſtrangers ſhall pay the labouring porters for making up their goods, at their own charge, as always they have done.

The ſtrangers ſhall pay the water-ſide porters belonging to the package-office, ſuch fees and duties, for landing and

and ſhipping their goods, as they have uſually paid within theſe ten years laſt paſt.

III. *The balliage duties outwards*, for the ſurveying or delivering of all goods and merchandiſes, in order to be exported into parts beyond the ſeas, or otherwiſe.

	s.	d.
Beer, the ton	0	4
Canvas, the hundred ells containing ſix ſcore	0	2
Cloths, ſee *Drapery*.		
Coals, the chalder	0	1
Cochineal, ſee *Dying Commodities*.		
Drapery of woollen or worſted.—Broad cloth, the piece	0	1½
Kerſey of all ſorts, the piece	0	0½
Perpetuanas, the piece	0	0½
Stuffs, woollen or worſted, the ſingle piece	0	0½
Stuffs, woollen or worſted, the double piece	0	1
Dying commodities.—Cochineal, the hundr. containing five ſcore pound	1	0
Indico, the hundred containing five ſcore	0	4
Wood of all ſorts, for dyers, the hundred wt. containing 112 lb.	0	1
Furs, ſee *Skins*.		
Fuſtians, Britiſh-making, each fifteen yards	0	0½
Flax or hemp, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	1
Grocery.—Cloves, mace, nutmegs, or cinnamon, the hundred cont. five ſcore	0	6
Pepper or ginger, the hundred cont. five ſcore	0	2
Raiſins, the piece or frail	0	0½
Raiſins ſolis, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	1
Hemp, ſee *Flax*.		
Indico, ſee *Dying Commodities*.		
Iron, the ton unwrought	0	6
Wrought, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	1
Lamperns, the thouſand	0	0½
Lead, the fother	0	6
Linen, ſee *Canvas*.		
Pewter, ſee *Tin*.		
Saffron, the pound	0	0½
Salt, the wey	0	2
Salt-petre, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	1
Silk raw, or thrown ſilk, the pound cont. 16 oz.	0	0¼
Skins and furs.—Beaver-skins, the hundred cont. five ſcore	1	6
Badger-skins, the hundred cont. five ſcore	0	6
Coney-skins black, the hundred cont. ſix ſcore	0	2
Cat-skins, the hundred cont. five ſcore	0	2
Calve-skins, the hundred cont. five ſcore	0	2
Fox-skins, the hundred cont. five ſcore	0	6
Fitches, the timber	0	1
Morkins, the hundred containing five ſcore	0	2
Otter-skins, the hundred containing five ſcore	0	6
Sheep or lamb-skins, the hundred cont. ſix ſcore	0	2
Squirrel skins, the thouſand	0	1
Stuffs, ſee *Drapery*.		
Tin or pewter, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	2
Wax, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	2
Wood for dyers, ſee *Dying Commodities*.		
Wool of all ſorts, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.	0	2

Other merchandiſes, liquid or dry, that are not particularly rated in this table, ſhall pay balliage duties outwards, by their bulk, as follows.

	s.	d.
A great pacquet or fardle, containing between 15 or 20 cloths, or other goods to that proportion	1	6
An ordinary pack, truſs or fardle, containing in bigneſs about 10 or 12 cloths, twelve or fourteen bays, or to the like proportion in friezes, cottons, or other goods	1	0
A bale containing three or four cloths, four or five bays, or the like proportion in other goods	0	6
For a great maund, or great basket	0	8
For a ſmall maund, or basket, weighing three hundred weight, or under	0	4
For a hamper or coffer, weighing two hundred weight, or under	0	3
For a butt or pipe	0	8
For a hogſhead or puncheon	0	4
For a barrel	0	2
For a firkin	0	1
For a dry-fat	0	8
For a drum fat	0	4
For a bale	0	6
For a great cheſt, or great caſe	0	8
For a ſmall cheſt or caſe containing three hundred weight, or under	0	4
For a ſmall box	0	2
For a great trunk	0	6
For a ſmall trunk, not above two hundred weight	0	3
For a bag or ſack	0	4
For a ſeron	0	3

The packers water-ſide porters table of duties, for landing ſtrangers goods, and of the like duties or rates to be paid unto them for ſhipping out their goods, called portage.

	s.	d.
For a butt of currants	1	4
For a carateel of currants	0	8
For a quarterole or currants	0	4
For a bag of currants	0	4
For pieces of raiſins, the ton	1	8
For a barrel of raiſins	0	4
For all ſorts of puncheons	0	6
For a barrel of figs	0	2
For topnets and frails of figs. *per* ton	1	8
For Brazil, or other wood for dying, *per* ton	1	8
For iron, the ton	1	2
For copperas, the ton	1	2
For oil, wine, or vinegar, *per* ton	1	2
For hemp and flax, the laſt	1	8
For looſe flax and tow, the hundred weight	0	2
For a great bag of tow	0	8
For a ſmall bag of tow	0	4
For a great bag of hops	0	8
For a pacquet, or little bag of hops	0	4
For packs, truſſes, fats, or maunds, *per* piece	0	8
For a great cheſt	0	8
For a ſmall cheſt	0	4
For all caſes, barrels, or bales, *per* piece	0	4
For a bale of madder	0	8
For a bale of ginger or ſhumack containing four hundred weight	0	8
For a faggot of ſteel	0	1
For any ſerons, the piece	0	4
For a fat of pot-aſhes	0	8
For a laſt of ſope-aſhes	1	0
For a laſt of pitch or tar	1	0
For a laſt of fiſh	1	0
For wainſcots, the hundred containing ſix ſcore	5	0
For clap-boards, the hundred containing ſix ſcore	0	6
For deal-boards, the hundred cont. ſix ſcore	1	4
For a great maſt	5	0
For a middle maſt	2	6
For a ſmall maſt	1	3
For great balks, the hundred containing ſix ſcore	5	0
For middle balks, the hundred cont. ſix ſcore	2	6
For ſmall balks, the hundred cont. ſix ſcore	1	3
For a mill-ſtone	5	0
For a dog-ſtone	2	6
For a wool-ſtone	2	0
For a yard-ſtone	0	3
For a grindle-ſtone	1	0
For a ſtep-ſtone or grave-ſtone	0	8
For quern-ſtones, the laſt	1	0
For emery-ſtones, the ton	1	2
For ten hundred weight of Holland cheeſe	1	0
For roſin, the ton	1	2
For woad, the ton	1	2
For a cheſt of ſugar	0	6
For half wainſcots, the hundred cont. ſix ſcore	2	6
For raw hides, the hundred cont. five ſcore	5	0
For bomſpars, the hundred cont. ſix ſcore	0	6
For ſmall ſpars, the hundred cont. ſix ſcore	0	4
For ends of bomſpars, the hundred cont. ſix ſcore	0	9
For a horſe, gelding, or mare	2	0
For alum, the ton	1	8

For heath for bruſhes, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	1
For iron pots, the dozen	0	3
For rings of wire, looſe, the ring	0	0½
For pipe-ſtaves, the thouſand	2	6
For Rheniſh wine, the awm	0	6
For burſtones, the hundred containing five ſcore	2	6
For half packs of teazels, the piece	0	4
For wicker bottles, the dozen	0	0½
For ſtone-pots, the hundred cont. five ſcore	0	1
For looſe fiſh, the hundred landing	0	3
For a barrel of ſalmon	0	2
For a barrel of ſtub-eels	0	2
For a bundle of basket rods	0	0½
For a ton of cork	1	8
For a thouſand of ox-bones	1	0
For a thouſand tips of horns	0	6
For a thouſand ſhank-bones	1	0
For brimſtone, the ton, looſe	1	3
For a fodder of lead	1	2
For rims for ſieves, the load	1	0
For a load of fans	1	0
For a load of bulruſhes	0	8
For a hundred reams of paper, looſe	1	0
For a barrel of tarras	0	2
For a barrel of lings	0	2
For a keg of ſturgeon	0	0½
For iron backs for chimneys, the piece	0	1
For one hundred weight of elephants teeth	0	1
For copper and iron plates, *per* piece	0	0,
For a hundred ſmall barrels of blacking	1	0
For a dozen of ſcales	0	1
For a hundred of oars	2	6
For every twenty ſugar flags	0	4
For a barrel of ſhot	0	4
For a bundle of canes	0	1
For a cage of quails	0	4
For a cage of pheaſants	0	4
For a cage of hawks	0	4
For a winch of cable-yarn	0	4
For a firkin of ſhot	0	2

All other goods not mentioned in this table, ſhall pay portage duties, as other goods do of like bulk, or condition, herein expreſſed.

For the more certain and better levying and collecting the aforeſaid duties of package, ſcavage, &c. the mayor and commonalty, or their proper officers, or deputies, may by all lawful ways and means, compel perſons ſuſpected of any concealments, colourings or frauds, to take their oaths upon the Holy Evangeliſts.

Note, The city of London is likewiſe intitled to the ſurvey of the meaſures, numbers, and weights, of all merchandiſes of aliens or denizens, coming into, or going out of the ſaid city, as well by land as by water: and alſo the portage and carriage of all goods of denizens, whoſe fathers are aliens, born under foreign allegiance, or of aliens born under foreign allegiance in parts beyond the ſeas, carried into London from the river of Thames, to the houſes or warehouſes of ſuch merchants, and from thence to the ſaid river.

SCAVINGERS. Two officers choſe yearly in each pariſh in London, and the adjacent ſuburbs, whoſe buſineſs it is to hire perſons, called rakers, and carts to clean the ſtreets, and carry away the dirt and filth thereof; being much the ſame with what were anciently called ſtreet-wards.

SCHEDULE. A ſcroll of paper, or parchment, annexed to a will, leaſe, or other deed; containing an inventory of goods, or ſome other matter, omitted in the body of the deed.

SCHELD. A river of the Netherlands, which riſes in the confines of Picardy, and runs N.E. by Cambray, Bouchain, Valenciennes, Conde, Tournay, and Oudenarde; and receiving the Lis at Ghent, runs E. by Dendermonde; then N. to Antwerp, below which city it divides into two branches; one called the Weſter-ſcheld, which ſeparates Flanders from Zealand, and diſcharges itſelf into the ſea near Fluſhing; the other branch is called the Eaſter-ſcheld, dividing from the Weſter-ſcheld at Sandvliet, runs N. by Bergen-op-zoom, and afterwards E. between the iſlands of Beverland and Schowen, and falls into the ſea a little below.

SCHELDAL A ſilver coin ſtruck and current in Denmark, and in ſome parts of Germany, worth 32 lubs, or 3 s. ſterling.

SCHELLING. An iſland of Holland, ſituated at the entrance of the Zuyder ſea, between Flie iſland and Ameland, in 5 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 53 deg. 34 min. of N. lat.

SCHELONGS. A copper coin, current in Poland, worth an Engliſh farthing.

SCHEMNITZ. The capital of the mine towns in Upper Hungary, ſituated in 19 deg. of E. lon. and 48 deg. 0 min. of N. lat. 60 miles N. E. of Preſburg, near which place is a rich ſilver mine.

SCHENECTIDA. A fortreſs of New York in America, ſituated in 72 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 43 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on Hudſon's river, in the province of Albany, adjoining to the country of the Iroquois, 100 miles north of New York city, ſubject to Great Britain.

SCHEPEL, or *Sheppel*. A corn meaſure uſed at Hamburg; 83 of which make 10 quarters in London.

The ſchepel is alſo uſed at Amſterdam, where 4 make the muid, and 27 muids the laſt, or 10¼ quarters of London.

SCHEREFI. A gold coin current in Perſia, worth 8 larins, or about 2 l. 17 s 4 d. ſterling.

SCHERIF, called otherwiſe *Sultahin*, and commonly *Sequin*. A gold coin ſtruck at Cairo, and current in all the Grand Signior's territories. It is the only gold coin ſtruck in Turky; and its value is ſuppoſed to be the ſame with that of the Britiſh crown.

The other gold coins met with in the Grand Signior's territories are German, Hungarian, and Venetian Ducats; which laſt are called ſequins. See *Sequins*.

SCHETLAND, or *Shetland Iſlands*, ſituated between 1 deg. E. and 2 deg. of W. lon. and between 61 and 62 deg. of N. lat. conſtitute part of the county of Orkney, or Orcades, in Scotland, 100 miles N. E. of Cathneſs, moſt valuable for the herring-fiſhery on their ſhores. See *Britiſh* Iſlands.

SCHIPPONDT. A weight, uſed in ſeveral cities of Europe.

At Antwerp the ſchippondt is of 300 lb. which make 264 lb. 5 oz. of Amſterdam; the 100 lb. weight of Amſterdam being equal to 109 lb. of London.

At Hamburgh, of 300 lb. and make 294 of Amſterdam.

At Lubeck, of 320 lb. which make 305 of Amſterdam.

At Stockholm two ſorts of ſchippondts are uſed, one for copper, and the other for merchandiſe of proviſion. The firſt is of 320 lb. which make 273 and 1-half of Amſterdam. The ſecond is of 400 lb. which makes at Amſterdam 342.

At Coningsberg the ſchippondt is of 400 lb. making at Amſterdam 307; which is to be underſtood when the purchaſe or ſale of merchandiſe is between citizen and citizen; for when a citizen purchaſes from a Pole, the latter allows to the former 4 or 5 lb. *per cent.* benefit, or good weight, ſo that a ſchippondt of merchandiſe purchaſed at the firſt hand, that is, from a Pole, ſhould yield of Amſterdam weight about 320 lb.

At Riga the ſchippondt is of 400 lb. and makes 330 of Amſterdam.

At Copenhagen of 320 lb. which make 316 of Amſterdam.

At Revel of 400, which makes 356 of Amſterdam.

At Dantzick of 340, which makes 302 lb. 9 oz. 4 drams of Amſterdam

At Bergen in Norway of 300, which make of Amſterdam 315.

At Amſterdam the ſchippondt is of 30 lb. and contains 20 lvſpondts, which weigh 15 lb. each.

SCHOE. A ſort of meaſure of accompt, uſed at Breſlaw, in the commerce of the beſt Sileſia lawns.

The ſchoe makes 60 ells of Breſlaw, which amount to 27 ells 1-half of England.

Each ſchoe is compoſed of 4 or five pieces of lawn: thoſe of 5 pieces to the ſchoe being the beſt.

SCHOWEN. One of the iſlands of Zealand, in the United Provinces, ſituated between the iſlands of Goree and Beveland, being 15 miles long and 6 broad; the chief town Zirickzee.

SCHUT. An iſland of Hungary, formed by the Danube, on the confines of Auſtria, being 30 miles long and 15 broad; which was grantd to that celebrated general Prince Eugene of Savoy, for his ſervices againſt France and Turky, by the late Emperor.

SCHWINBURG. A town on the iſland of Funen. See *Denmark*.

SCILLA, *Squilla*, or *Squill*, the ſea-onion, a medicinal plant of the onion kind, but very large; chiefly brought from Spain: uſed only in infuſion, and that generally in vinegar, which it renders emetic. There are two ſorts of ſquills, male and female; the male are whitiſh, and the female reddiſh; whence they are alſo diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of white ſquills and red ſquills. Their infuſion when boiled to the conſiſtence of a ſyrup, with honey, is called oxymel ſcilliticum in the ſhops, and retains the ſame properties.

Squills powerfully deterge and ſcour off the viſcid adheſions in the bowels, and gently irritate the ſtomach to ejection. They are alſo, as all the onion kind are, very diuretic, and therefore in great eſteem with ſome in dropſies: if their infuſion be mixed with cinnamon water, they will ſeldom vomit, but work downwards, and very forcibly by urine: in aſthmas, and all obſtructions, or infarctions of the lungs, which are to be removed by deterſives and expectoration, there is ſcarce any thing more effectual. They are alſo eſteemed alexipharmick, and upon that account have a place in the theriaca Andromachi.

SCILLY. A cluſter of iſlands and rocks, ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, 30 miles W. of Cornwal, in 7 min. of W. lon. and 50 deg. of N. lat. See *Britiſh* Iſlands.

SCIO. An iſland in the Turkiſh Archipelago. See *Chios*.

SCIRO. An iſland of Turky, in the Archipelago, ſituated W. of Negropont, from which it is ſeparated by a channel 20 miles broad. This iſland was called Skyros from the ruggedneſs of its ſurface, being full of rocks.

SCOPPER-HOLES, or *Scupper-holes*, in a ſhip, are holes made thro' the ſides cloſe to the deck, to carry off the water that comes from the pump, or any other way. Theſe holes in the lower or covered deck, have round leathers nailed over them, to keep the ſea-water from coming up into the ſhip which are called ſcopper-leathers; and the ſhort-nails, with broad heads which faſten theſe leathers down, are called ſcopper, or ſcupper nails.

SCORIA. The recrement or droſs of any metal, remaining after melting or refining the ſame. The ſcoria of iron is the ſcum taken from that metal in forges where it is melted, and conſiſts of the ſulphurous part of the iron; which, uniting with the ſulphurous part of the charcoal, makes together thoſe porous maſſes reſembling ſpunges, frequently ſeen in the ſmiths forges.

SCOTLAND, excluſive of the iſlands, is ſituated between 1 and 6 deg. of W. lon. and between 54 deg. 30 min. and 59 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. bounded by the northern or Caledonian ocean, on the north; by the German ocean on the eaſt; by England and Solway frith on the ſouth; and by the Iriſh ſea and the Atlantic ocean on the weſt; being 300 miles in length from N. to S. and from 50 to 150 in breadth from E. to W. but indented, and almoſt cut through in many places by bays of the ſea, and conſequently abounding in excellent harbours. See Great *Britain*.

SCOTLAND *New*, or *Nova Scotia*. See *Acadia*, and *Britiſh* America.

SCOURER, in London, is a ſpecies of the fuller, whoſe buſineſs is to clean mens cloaths, &c.

SCRIVAH. A port-town of the province of Darien, in South America, ſituated in 81 deg. of W. lon. and 10 deg. of N. lat. 50 miles E. of Porto Bello.

SCRIVENER. One who makes a trade of drawing up and engroſſing writings, deeds of conveyance, marriage contracts, leaſes, and the like.

SCRIVENERS *company of London*, anciently denominated The writers of the court letter of the city of London, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 14th of James I. in 1616, by the name of The maſter, wardens, and aſſiſtants of the ſociety of writers of the city of London; who are governed by a maſter, two wardens, and 24 aſſiſtants, with a livery of 53 of their members, whoſe fine upon their admiſſion is 5 l. but this company, being reduced to low circumſtances, thought proper to ſell their hall in Noble-ſtreet to the incorporation of coach-makers.

SCRUPLE. The leaſt of the weights uſed by the ancients, which among the Romans was the 24th part of an ounce. It is ſtill a weight in England, containing the third part of a dram, or 20 grains: but among goldſmiths the ſcruple is 24 grains. See *Weight*.

SCULPTURE. The art of cutting or carving wood, ſtone, or other matter, and forming various figures or repreſentations therein; as alſo of faſhioning wax, earth, and plaiſter, to ſerve as models, or moulds, for the caſting of metalline figures.

SCULPTURE, in its general ſenſe, includes both the art of working in creux, properly called engraving; and of working in relievo, which is what is ſtrictly called ſculpture. See *Engraving*.

SCUM. A light excrement, ariſing from liquors when briſkly ſtirred; called alſo ſpume, foam, or froth.

SCUM *of Lead*, is a kind of ſmalt of various colours, produced from the fumes of lead. See *Lead*.

SCUM *of Silver*, is that which is commonly called litharge of ſilver.

SCUTTLE. A fiſh caught in the Danube.

SCUTTLE-*Bone*. The bone of a ſcuttle fiſh, ſold by ſtationers, and uſed for cleaning parchment.

SCUTTLES, in a ſhip, are ſquare holes cut in the deck, big enough to let in the body of a man, ſerving to let people down into any room below, upon occaſion, or from deck to deck. They are generally before the main-maſt; before the knight in the fore-caſtle; in the gun-room, to go down to the ſtern-ſheets; or in the round-houſe, to go down into the captain's cabbin, when forced by the enemy in a fight aloft. There are alſo ſome ſmall ſcuttles which have gratings over them; all which have covers that men may not tumble through in the night.

SCUTTLE, is alſo a denomination given to thoſe little windows, and long holes, which are cut out in cabbins to let in the light.

SCYLLA. A rock in the ſtreights of Meſſina, between Naples and Sicily; which mariners were formerly in danger of being driven upon, by avoiding that of Charibdis.

SCYTHIA. The northern parts of Europe and Aſia were anciently ſo called, which afterwards obtained the name of Tartary.

SEA, in geography, is frequently uſed for that vaſt tract of water encompaſſing the whole earth, more properly called ocean. See *Ocean*.

SEA, is more properly uſed for a particular part, or diviſion of the ocean, confined by the land, and denominated from the countries it waſhes, or from other circumſtances: as the Iriſh ſea, the Mediterranean ſea, the Baltic ſea, and the Red ſea.

Till the time of the Emperor Juſtinian, the ſea was common and open to all men; whence it is that the Roman laws grant an action againſt a perſon who ſhall prevent or moleſt another in the free navigation or fiſhing therein. The Emperor Leo, in his 56th novel, firſt allowed ſuch as were in poſſeſſion of the lands the ſole fiſhing before their reſpective territories, excluſive of all others; and he even gave a particular commiſſion to certain perſons to divide the Thracian Boſphorus among them. From that time the ſovereign princes have been endeavouring to appropriate the ſea, and to withdraw it from the public uſe. The republic of Venice pretends to be ſo far miſtreſs in her gulph, that there is a formal marriage every year, between that Seignory and the Adriatic. In theſe laſt ages, the Engliſh have particularly claimed the empire of the ſea in the channel, and even that of all the ſeas encompaſſing the kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland; and that as far as the ſhores of the neighbouring ſtates. In conſequence of which pretenſion it is, that children born on theſe ſeas, are declared natural Engliſhmen, as much as if they were born on Engliſh ground; the

the juſtice of which pretenſion is ſtrenuouſly argued between Grotius and Selden, in the Mare Liberum and Mare Clauſum.

SEA-*drags*, among mariners, are ſuch things as hang over the ſhip, in the ſea; as ſhirts, coats, and even the boat, when towed.

SEA-*horſe*, or *Morſe*. See Sea-*Horſe*.

SEA-*moſs*. See *Coralline*.

SEA-*Salt*. See Sea-*Salt*.

SEA-*ſticks*. A particular kind of herrings. See *Herring*.

SEA-*water*, that briny bitteriſh fluid, which conſtitutes the ſea.

To make ſea-water ſweet or freſh, is a thing long and much wanted, for the advantage of navigation and commerce: a method of doing which has been invented by Mr. Hauton, and the ſecret publiſhed in the Philoſophical Tranſactions; which is performed by precipitating the water with oil of tartar, and then diſtilling of it. The oil of tartar he can draw very cheap, and the diſtillation he performs very compendiouſly, ſo as to gain 24 quarts of freſh water in a day; for the cooling of which, inſtead of making the worm paſs through a veſſel of water, as uſual, he makes it paſs through a hole in the ſhip into the ſea, and enter in again through another. To the precipitation and diſtillation, he adds filtration to correct entirely the malignity of the water. The filtration is performed by a peculiar earth, mixed and ſtirred with the diſtilled water, and at length ſuffered to ſettle at the bottom. The water thus managed is found perfectly wholeſome, both for man and beaſt.

Dr. Liſter obſerves, that the ſea-water is made freſh by the breath of plants growing in it. This he found by putting a quantity of ſea-weed in a veſſel; and filling the hole with a head, beak, and receiver, he diſtilled daily from the plants a ſmall quantity of freſh, ſweet, potable water: this he takes to be the moſt natural, ſafe, and ſpeedy way of having freſh water from the ſea.

Mr. Boyle relates, from ſome experiments he procured to be made of the gravity of ſea-water, in different climates, that ſtill, as you approach nearer the equator, the ſea-water is heavier and heavier, as far as within 30 degrees thereof; after which it continues much at one.

SEA-*wreck*. See *Wreck*.

SEA-*yoke*. When the ſea is ſo rough, that the helm cannot be governed by the hands, the ſeamen make a yoke to ſteer by; that is, they fix two blocks to the end of the helm; and reeving two ſmall ropes through them, which they call falls, having ſome men at each tackle, they govern the helm by direction. They have another way of making a ſea-yoke, by taking a double turn about the end of the helm with a ſingle rope; the ends being laid to the ſhip-ſides, by means whereof they guide the helm.

SEAFORD. A port-town of Suſſex, ſituated on the Engliſh channel, 7 miles ſouth of Lewes.

SEAL, or *Sea-calf*. An amphibious animal met with abundantly in ſeveral parts of the frozen ſea.

The head of this animal is much like that of a dog, with very ſhort ears. Under the muzzle it has a beard, ſome hairs in the noſtrils, and three or four over the eyes, which ſerve it for the eye-brows. Their eyes are large, hollow, and very clear; their teeth ſtrong and ſharp. The hair which covers their ſkin is very ſhort, and diverſified with ſeveral colours; their tail is ſhort, as alſo their legs and feet; whereof the talons, being five in number, are joined together by a black membrane, not unlike thoſe of aquatic birds. The largeſt are about 8 feet in length; but the uſual ſize is five or ſix. They are hunted for their ſkin and fat; each ſeal affording about a barrel of oil when fat, and about half a barrel when lean.

Their fat is about three or four inches thick between the ſkin and the fleſh; and it is ſaid to yield the beſt ſort of all the oils that go under the denomination of train-oil.

SEAL, is alſo uſed for the wax or lead, and impreſſion thereon, affixed to any thing ſealed. The manufacturer's ſeal frequently applied to their ſtuffs, is to be of lead: that of knights, by the French law, is to be of hard wax; and that of agents, of ſoft wax. Some ſeals are ſtamped on the paper or parchment itſelf, others hung by ſilken ſtrings.

SEALING *Wax*. See *Wax*.

SEAM, or *ſeme of corn*, is a meaſure of eight buſhels. Seam of glaſs, is the quantity of 120 lb. or 24 ſtone, each 5 lb. weight. Seam of wood, is a horſe load.

SEAM, in a ſhip, is the edge where the planks meet, which are drove full of oakum.

SEAMEN. A mariner, or ſeaman, is one under the command of the maſter of a ſhip, that is hired to work therein, and do all common buſineſs for the ſailing, guiding, and preſervation of the ſhip. The ſhip's crew are called mariners, and owe all obedience to the maſter; who hath the ſupreme rule on ſhipboard, and therefore his authority is much countenanced by law. See *Ship*.

By the laws of Oleron, if a mariner rebels or commits a fault, and the maſter lifts up the towel three times before him, and he does not ſubmit, the maſter at the next place of land may diſcharge him: and if he refuſes to go aſhore, he ſhall loſe half his wages, and all his goods in the ſhip; but if the mariner ſubmits, he is to receive his whole wages. And a maſter of a ſhip may juſtify his giving moderate and due correction to his men: but if a mariner aſſaults the maſter on ſhipboard, he ſhall pay five ſols, or loſe his hand; yet it is ſaid, after one ſtroke, he may defend himſelf. By the antient Rhodian laws, the maſters, mariners, &c. that ſail together were to take an oath of fidelity, or mutual engagement.

Mariners are not to depart from on ſhipboard when they are in full pay, which is always when they break ground, without the maſter's licence for ſo doing; and they may in no caſe quit the ſhip, without leaving a ſufficient number to guard her: and they muſt aſſiſt one another, both at ſea and in port; or, upon the oath of their fellows of any refuſal, ſhall loſe their wages. If mariners in a ſtrange port leave the ſhip, not having the licence of the maſter, or without faſtening her with four ropes, the loſs, if any happen, falls upon them. They are alſo to attend the ſhip until ſhe be diſcharged, and ballaſted anew; and if any mariner, during the time of her diſcharge or lading, labours not with the reſt of the company, but abſents himſelf, he ſhall pay a fine to the others *pro rata*: and the mariners are not only to diſcharge and deliver goods out of the ſhip, but likewiſe, if no porters or carriers be in thoſe parts, they muſt carry the ſame themſelves for ſuch hire as other workmen ſhould have had for it.

In a ſtrange country, the one half of the ſeamen at leaſt ought to remain on ſhipboard; and thoſe who go on land, are to keep ſobriety, and abſtain from ſuſpected places, and not abſent on pain of being puniſhed, like unto him who abſents when the ſhip is ready to ſail. If it happens otherwiſe than well with the maſter, the mariners are obliged to bring the ſhip to the port, from whence ſhe was freighted, without any delay, except it be otherwiſe provided: and a mariner ſhall forfeit his wages, if the ſhip break in any part, and he doth not help with all his diligence to ſave the goods on board.

Where a mariner is hired, and he deſerts the ſervice before the voyage is ended, by the law marine, and the common law, he ſhall loſe his wages. And it has been adjudged, that if the ſhip do not return, but periſhes at ſea, either by tempeſt, enemies, fire, &c. the mariners ſhall not have their wages; for if they were allowed to have wages in theſe caſes, it is preſumed their beſt endeavours would be wanting to preſerve the ſhip; and the mariners ſhall loſe their wages, as well as the owners their freight. If the ſhip unlade any part of the cargo, the mariners ſhall have their wages; but if, after they have unladen the veſſel at any port abroad, they demand the ſame, with an intention of leaving the ſhip, the maſter may detain a reaſonable proportion thereof as his ſecurity, till they have brought back the ſhip. It was held by Holt chief juſtice, that if a ſhip is loſt before ſhe arrives at any port of delivery, the ſeamen loſe all their wages; if ſhe be loſt after ſhe comes to a port of delivery, then they only loſe their wages from the laſt port

of

of delivery; but in caſe they run away, though after they come to any port of delivery, they loſe all their wages.

A mariner being hired for a ſimple mariner, if afterwards in the voyage he finds hiring to be a pilot, or other officer of a ſhip, by the law marine he may paſs over, reſtoring his former hire; and ſo it is if he marry abroad: but if a mariner ſhall depart the ſhip, at the maſter's command, and the maſter do not take another, if any damage happens to the ſhip or goods, the maſter muſt anſwer. Mariners may not carry out of the ſhip any drink, nor above one meal of meat; and if they embezzle the goods on board, &c. they are accountable to the maſter, the maſter to the owners, and the owners to the merchant or freighter; though, in caſe of a ſtorm, if goods are caſt overboard for lightening the ſhip, the mariners making oath that it was done for preſerving the veſſel, ſhall diſcharge the maſter: ſo if goods or merchandiſe in ſuch caſe receive damage at ſea, by the oath of the maſter and mariners they may be cleared.

If a mariner ſhall commit any fault, by reaſon of which the maſter, owners, or the ſhip, anſwers damage to the merchant, an action well lies againſt him. But when a mariner is on ſhipboard, he ought not to be arreſted by any one for debt, nor be taken away from thence; for the ſhip is compared to a man's dwelling houſe, which is as his caſtle, and a ſure refuge by law, unleſs it be for a ſworn debt, or penalty to the King, &c. The wages and goods of ſuch mariner ſhall in theſe caſes be liable; and if a mariner takes up money, or buys cloaths on credit, and the ſame is entered in the purſer's books, this will intitle a diſcount of ſo much of his wages as the ſame amounts unto.

In caſe a ſhip happens to be ſeiſed for debt, or otherwiſe become forfeited, the mariners ſhall receive their wages, except, through any act of theirs, there be a forfeiture of all. If the ſhip be laden with prohibited goods, as wool, and the like, though it ſubjects the veſſel to forfeiture; yet it deprives not the mariners of their hire, who have faithfully performed their parts, and for which the ſhip is obliged. A mariner may either keep his portage or allowance of goods in his hands, or let the ſame out to freight, by the laws of Oleron.

The act 2d George II. c. 36. for better regulation of ſeamen in the merchants ſervice, has ordained, that no maſter or commander of any ſhip or veſſel ſhall carry any ſeaman or mariner, except his apprentices, to ſea, without firſt coming to an agreement or contract for their wages; which agreement ſhall be in writing, ſigned by the maſter and mariners, on pain of forfeiting 5 l. to the uſe of Greenwich hoſpital, to be recovered by information upon the oath of one or more witneſſes, before a juſtice of peace, &c. And if any ſeaman or mariner ſhall deſert, or refuſe to proceed in the voyage on board any veſſel, after he has ſigned ſuch contract, he ſhall forfeit to the owners of the ſhip the wages due to him at the time of his deſerting or refuſing as aforeſaid: and in caſe he deſerts, or abſents from any ſuch ſhip, wherein he hath ſo contracted to ſerve, upon application to any juſtice of the peace, he may iſſue his warrant to apprehend ſuch ſeaman; and on his refuſal to proceed on the voyage, the juſtice may commit him to the houſe of correction, to be kept to hard labour not exceeding thirty days, nor leſs than fourteen.

And by the ſame ſtatute, if any ſeaman ſhall abſent himſelf from the veſſel to which he belongs, without leave of the maſter, or other chief officer having the charge of ſuch ſhip, he ſhall for every day's abſence forfeit two days pay, for the uſe of Greenwich hoſpital; and if he ſhall leave the veſſel to which he belongs, before he hath a diſcharge in writing from the maſter, he ſhall forfeit one month's pay, to the uſes aforeſaid; and the maſters or owners of ſhips are empowered to deduct out of the wages of any ſeaman the penalties and forfeitures incurred by this act; and thoſe penalties which are to be applied to the uſe of Greenwich hoſpital, ſhall be paid by the maſters of ſhips to the officer at any port, who collects the 6 d. a month, deducted out of ſeamens wages, for the uſe of the ſaid hoſpital; and neglecting to do it within three months, they ſhall forfeit treble value.

Alſo by the ſaid act, on the arriving of any ſhip in Great Britain, from parts beyond the ſeas, the maſter ſhall be obliged to pay the ſeamen their wages, within 30 days, if demanded, except the contract for ſerving be to the contrary, or at the time the ſeamen ſhall be diſcharged, which ſhall firſt happen; deducting thereout the penalties and forfeitures; and not paying the ſame, ſhall be liable to a penalty of 20 s. over and above the wages due to each ſeaman, to be recovered by the ſame ways as the ſaid wages are recoverable; and no ſeaman or mariner ſhall fail in any ſuit for recovery of his wages, for want of producing the contract with the maſter, on whom it lies, to produce the ſame if neceſſary.

This act ſhall not extend to debar any mariner or ſeaman, belonging to any merchant ſhip or veſſel, from entering into his Majeſty's ſervice, on board any of his ſhips; nor ſhall ſuch ſeaman or mariner, for his entry therein, forfeit the wages due to him during the time of his ſervice in ſuch merchant ſhip or veſſel; nor ſhall ſuch entry be judged a deſertion from the ſhip.

By the ſtatute of 1ſt George II. ſeſſ. 2. c. 14. for encouraging ſeamen voluntarily to enter into the King's ſervice, &c. the governors, miniſters and conſuls in foreign parts, or where none ſuch are reſident, any two or more Britiſh merchants there reſiding, are authoriſed and required to provide for all ſeamen, ſubjects of Great Britain, that ſhall by ſhipwreck, or other unavoidable accident, be driven or caſt away in ſuch foreign parts or places; and ſhall ſubſiſt them by an allowance after the rate of 6 d. *per diem* each, &c. and put them on board the firſt ſhip of war arriving there in convenient time; or they may be ſent by any merchant-ſhips wanting men, or others bound for any port in Great Britain.

And maſters of ſhips abroad, ſhall take on board four men for each 100 tuns of which their veſſel conſiſt, and receive from the commiſſioners of the navy 6 d. a day for the paſſage and proviſion of every ſeamen, from the day of their embarkation homewards; on producing a certificate of the mens being taken on board, and the time when, &c.

By the acts 9th Geo. II. c. 25. and 10th Geo. II. c. 14. a ſmall ſum, of ſo much *per* tun, is to be paid by all maſters of veſſels, &c. trading from any part of his Majeſty's dominions to Cadiz, and Port St. Mary's in Spain, or to the port of Leghorn, to perſons appointed by the conſuls and a majority of Britiſh merchants there; and ſuch maſters paying it ſhall be reimburſed by their freighters, or the perſons to whom the goods are conſigned, &c. and the money to be applied for relieving ſeamen ſhipwrecked, or taken in war, and other perſons being Engliſh ſubjects in diſtreſs in the ſaid ports.

Notwithſtanding the public charities in Great Britain may be more conſiderable, in proportion, than thoſe of any other country in the known world, they are even at this day too greatly defective with regard to one particular object thereof, and perhaps the moſt meritorious of any already provided for, on particular emergencies. An object of charity! which demands the inſpection, and moſt ſanguine attention, of all thoſe inhabitants within the three kingdoms, who have the welfare of commerce at heart, and wiſh well to the encouragement of the Britiſh manufactories, more peculiarly of the mercantile part of the city of London, upon which the grandeur of our moſt gracious Sovereign, the ſource of our invaluable liberties, the ſupport of our glorious fleets, and the wealth of the nation, entirely depend.

When it is conſidered, that London is firſt affected by the obſtruction of commerce; that ſhe is the fountain of life to the trade of this nation; and that, if ſhe neglects any valuable branch thereof, the conſequences, however fatal, muſt become univerſal; and if, which Heaven forbid! the glory of our trade ſhould happen to be eclipſed by ſuch miſtakes as are in our power to recal, or were in our power to prevent, our utmoſt concern for the improvement of that very part ſhould be the greater, and as carefully huſbanded as we would proviſions in caſe of a famine. But commerce is not without enthuſiaſts, who have their deity, as well as thoſe in religion, and in whoſe ſervice they think of death, as the Romans did in their

their views to monumental honour. This ſort of bigotry has been well underſtood by our neighbours the Dutch; who have ſuch a tenderneſs to their trade, as rarely, if ever, to engage in any war that would interrupt it; for, as with France in the late wars, ſo with Spain formerly, they traded and fought at the ſame time; the foundations of their trade to Africa and the Eaſt Indies being laid in the heat of their revolt from the Spaniſh tyranny.

The productions of their country being in no proportion to the number of their people, by their policy and diligence in commerce they make other nations maintain them: ſo that they, who naturally have not ſufficient for their own nececeſſities, are poſſeſſed of magazines, which furniſh to the neceſſities of others; being the natural effects, and reaſonable rewards, of ſuch a conduct. Pity it is, that the ſame beneficent ſcheme has not been put in practice, and better attended to, in Great Britain: for commerce, being a kind of univerſal charity, which extends its influence to all parties concerned in any of its branches, creates profitable employments, and adminiſters to the preſſing neceſſities our nature is every day demanding.

If the word *charity* may be defined to ſignify that compaſſion which ariſes from a juſt contemplation of the condition of human nature, in reſpect to the public utility; and the generous diſpoſition of mind, that deſpiſes luxury, inſpired with an irreſiſtible inclination to apply the ſuperfluity of fortune towards the relief of the virtuous, as well as uſeful perſons in diſtreſs; which is certainly the higheſt degree of perfection attainable in this life: it is very evident, that the moſt uſeful claſs of people in this kingdom, with regard to trade and navigation, and from whoſe ſervices we receive the greateſt benefits, have been hitherto too much diſregarded, and omitted among the liſt of thoſe who ſeemed beſt entitled to a comfortable and temporary ſubſiſtence.

The lunatic, the foundling, and the blind, are doubtleſs real objects of charity; as the firſt, by the loſs of his reaſon, is rendered uſeleſs; the ſecond, without due care, and a neceſſary education, cannot properly be ſaid to contribute for the good of the community; and the latter is but ſeldom employed. But, be this as it will, we may venture to affirm, there is no kind of affliction which requires greater attention, or ought more ſtrongly to move our compaſſion, than that of the maimed or decayed common ſailor; who has hazarded his life, loſt his limbs, and ſpent the beſt part of his days in the ſervice of the merchant.

But ſurely our gentlemen, as well as our merchants, will think of making a proviſion for the relief of thoſe poor ſeamen, who have been the ſupport of their country, and are as well entitled to charity as any part of the community.

In making proviſion for theſe unhappy ſufferers, what wealthy citizen can be too bountiful? what gentleman too liberal? Let them but conſider, that they beſtow only to reſume again at pleaſure; that they are hereby ſowing the ſeeds of induſtry, which muſt neceſſarily produce a continual race of hardy and able ſailors, uſeful to their country, their king, and themſelves, from generation to generation: for as nothing contributes more to the raiſing a new progeny, to ſupply the place of their predeceſſors in any branch of buſineſs, more eſpecially in the laborious employments of life, than proper encouragement, exemplified by making ſuitable proviſion for their decayed parents, who were employed in the ſame branch of buſineſs; ſo nothing ſo much weakens the party, and derogates therefrom, as to be ſlighted and abandoned by thoſe very perſons to whom they have devoted themſelves; whoſe fortunes they have raiſed; in whoſe ſervices they are worn out, and thereby become burthenſome to their families and pariſhes.

The ſeveral infirmaries in and about London, particularly St. Luke's hoſpital in Moorfields, and that near Hyde-park, which are at preſent ſupported by the annual ſubſcription of the merchants and gentlemen, appear to be far more productive of worldly happineſs, alſo far more meritorious, than any of the ſumptuous donations, of thoſe overgrown rich men, who at their deaths, bequeath ſplendid palaces, and lordly governors, for pretended charitable uſes; provided theſe donors acted the part of penurious haughty miſers in their lifetimes, and were moved to ſuch endowments from a principal of pride, to live in effigy; or to have their names written in golden letters, in order to render themſelves immortal.

Charity is a virtue altogether incompatible with oſtentation, or with thoſe low, and vicious appetites, which are to be found in the miſer's heart, and generally direct his conduct.

There is not any object ſo pleaſing to the eye, as the ſight of a man whom we have obliged; or any muſic ſo agreeable to the ear, as the voice of one that owns you for his high benefactor; and if the trading part of the nation thought in the ſame way, they would have continually before them a foretaſte of future bliſs, by providing for their natural ſervants, our honeſt tars, when reduced to beggary after a life of labour, and in hearing them chant forth the praiſes of their benefactors, in ſongs of gratitude and thankſgiving; which, it is hoped, ſome public-ſpirited merchants, will cauſe ſpeedily to be put in proper execution, without waiting for the aſſiſtance of the landed intereſt.

Some propoſals were publiſhed in 1744, by Mr. Griffin, for the relief and ſupport of maimed, aged, and diſabled ſeamen, in the merchants ſervice of Great Britain.

The legiſlature, ſenſible of this proviſion for ſeamen, paſſed an act of parliament in 1747, for relief and ſupport of maimed and diſabled ſeamen, and the widows and children of ſuch as ſhould be killed, ſlain, or drowned in the merchants ſervice. The preamble obſerves, that, by an act of the 7th and 8th of William III. certain encouragements were given for ſeamen to regiſter themſelves for his Majeſty's ſervice; and if any ſuch ſhould, by age, or other accidents, be diſabled for future ſervice, and ſhould not be able to maintain themſelves comfortably; and the children of ſuch diſabled ſeamen, and the widows and children of ſuch of them as ſhould be killed or drowned in ſea-ſervice, were to be provided for in the royal hoſpital of Greenwich, ſo far as the ſaid hoſpital ſhould be capable to receive them, and the revenue thereof would extend; and for the better ſupport of the ſaid hoſpital, 6 d. *per* month is by the ſaid act to be allowed out of the wages of every ſeaman in the merchants ſervice, as well as in the navy. But ſo much of the ſaid act as relates to the regiſtring of ſeamen, was repealed by an act of the 9th of Queen Anne, whereby every ſeaman in the navy, though not regiſtred, is entitled to the benefits of the ſaid hoſpital. By an act of the 10th of Anne, any ſeaman is to be conſidered as fully qualified for an admiſſion into the ſaid hoſpital, who ſhall produce a certificate of his having been hurt and diſabled for ſea-ſervice, in defending any Britiſh ſhip againſt an enemy, or in taking any ſhip from an enemy. By an act of the 8th of George I. every ſeaman on board a merchant-ſhip, who ſhall be maimed in fight againſt any pirate, is to be admitted into the ſaid hoſpital, preferable to any other ſeaman diſabled merely by age. By an act of the 8th of George II. ſeamen on board any merchant-ſhip, who ſhall be maimed in fight againſt an enemy, ſhall be admitted into the ſaid hoſpital, in like manner as any other ſeaman wounded or diſabled in the royal ſervice. But the act of 1747 recited, that whereas the ſaid hoſpital was not capable to receive, nor the income thereof ſufficient to provide for the ſeamen in the ſervice of the navy, entitled to the benefits thereof, ſo that the ſeamen in the merchants ſervice, maimed and diſabled in fight, and proper objects of charity, have ſeldom or never been admitted into the ſaid hoſpital; and as there was no proviſion made for ſuch ſeamen in the merchants ſervice, as were diſabled by accidental misfortunes, or for thoſe worn out by age, or for the widows or children of ſuch as ſhould be killed or drowned in the ſaid ſervice; and as the ſeamen in the ſaid ſervice were willing to allow 6 d. *per* month out of their wages, to be applied for the relief of ſuch as ſhould be diſabled or worn out by age, and of the widows and children of thoſe killed in the ſaid ſervice; and as they had, during the courſe of the war,

manifeſted their courage, and deſerved all due encouragement, and the eſtabliſhing the ſaid charity would tend to the honour and good of the public; it was enacted, that Alexander Hume, John Briſtow, John Bance, Harry Gough, Albert Niſbett, Nathaniel Newman junior, Joſeph Gulſton, Charles Pole, eſqs. Sir Peter Thompſon, knight; Robert Nettleton, and 108 other merchants and gentlemen, and their ſucceſſors, ſhould be one body corporate and politic, by the name of "The preſident and "governors for the relief and ſupport of ſick, maimed, "and diſabled ſeamen, and of the widows and children "of ſuch as ſhall be killed, ſlain, or drowned in the "merchants ſervice." The preſident and governors are to provide in the ſaid hoſpital for the reception of ſeamen rendered incapable of ſervice; or allow them certain penſions, or otherwiſe, as they ſhall think moſt for the advantage of the charity; and ſhall alſo relieve the widows and children of ſuch ſeamen as ſhall be killed or drowned in the ſaid ſervice, provided ſuch children are not of the age of fourteen; or if, of that age or upwards, they are incapable of getting a livelihood, by reaſon of lameneſs, blindneſs, or other infirmities, and are proper objects of charity: and ſhall make reaſonable allowances to thoſe who ſhall loſe an eye or limb, or be otherwiſe hurt in fighting, defending, or working the ſhips in which they ſerve, or in loading or unloading the cargoes, or otherwiſe howſoever in doing duty, in proportion to the damage they ſhall receive, ſo far as the revenues will extend. No ſeaman is to be entitled to any of the benefits of this act, without producing a certificate of the hurt, &c. received, to the preſident, aſſiſtants, and committees, from the maſter, mate, boatſwain, and ſurgeon, or of the maſter and two of the ſeamen, if there is no other officer; and no widow or children of any ſeaman killed or drowned in the ſaid ſervice, are to be entitled to any allowance, without a proper certificate. But no ſeaman is to be provided for by a penſion, or otherwiſe, as decrepit or worn out, unleſs he has ſerved five years in the merchants ſervice, and paid 6 d. *per* month out of his wages for that time, for the purpoſes of this act. There is to be a preſident and 21 aſſiſtants, or committees of the ſaid corporation, for the more conſtant and ordinary management of the monies to be raiſed for the purpoſes aforeſaid; and Henry Norris ſenior, eſq; was appointed the firſt preſident: but the preſident and aſſiſtants are to be elected every year, on the 24th of June, or within five days before or after. Four general courts are to be held every year, on the 24th of June, 29th September, 25th December, and 25th March, or within five days before or after any of the ſaid days; of which ten days notice is to be given in the Gazette: but the preſident and aſſiſtants may call a general court at any other time, as the affairs of the company ſhall require, or at the requeſt of 13 members. The preſident, with five or more of the aſſiſtants, are to make a full court of aſſiſtants or committees, and to meet upon Wedneſdays weekly; when they have power to apply the monies ariſing by this act for the intended relief, and to tranſact all other neceſſary matters. A receiver is to be choſen by a majority in a general court. The preſident, and 13 governors, may make bye laws; and any perſon who contributes 50 l. for the purpoſes of this act, ſhall be declared a governor of the corporation. Every ſeaman, or perſon employed in any veſſel belonging to a ſubject of England, and every maſter or owner navigating the ſame, except ſuch as are exempted from the payment of 6 d. *per* month to Greenwich hoſpital, as alſo pilots employed on board veſſels, ſhall pay 6 d. *per* month, and proportionably for a leſſer time, during their employment, for the purpoſes aforeſaid. The maſter, owner, or commander of every veſſel is to deduct out of the wages of every ſuch ſeaman the ſaid duty of 6 d. *per* month, and pay the ſame to ſuch receivers as the preſident or governors, or the truſtees of the out-ports, ſhall appoint. The preſident and governors, at a full court of aſſiſtants, are to appoint the receivers. Every maſter, or other perſon having the care of any merchant-veſſel, is to keep a book, by way of muſter-roll, of the perſons employed on board, with the uſual place of their abode when o ſhore; the time and place of each ſeaman entering in ſuch ſervice, and in what ſhip he performed his la voyage; a duplicate of which ſhall be ſigned and del vered by the maſter to the receiver or collector of the ſa duties, at the port to which the veſſel belongs. Th maſter is alſo to keep ſuch a muſter-roll during the vo age, and to enter when and where any perſon ſhall b diſcharged from, or ſhall leave or deſert ſuch veſſe and others ſhipped on board, and when and where an of them received any hurt or damage, or were kille or drowned; a duplicate whereof is alſo to be ſigned an delivered as aforeſaid at the ſhip's return to the port t which ſhe belongs, under penalty of 20 l. Every ma ſter, &c. ſhall pay all ſuch monies to the collectors ap pointed, at the port only to which ſuch veſſel belong and before ſhe is cleared inwards; and no officer of th cuſtoms ſhall clear inwards any veſſel liable to this dut or grant any warrant, cocket, tranſire, return, or di charge, or ſuffer ſuch veſſel to go out of port, until th maſter, &c. ſhall produce a certificate from the receiv of the ſaid duty being fully paid, and that he is not mor than three months in arrear, under penalty of 20 l. Th owners and maſters of veſſels in the out-ports may appoin fifteen perſons to be truſtees for ſuch out-ports, for re ceiving and applying the ſaid duty; which truſtees ar to be elected every year, on the 26th of December, o within ten days after, who are to be confirmed by th preſident and aſſiſtants; and theſe truſtees, when ſo con firmed, five of whom are to be a quorum, may make bye laws, receive and apply benefactions, and appoint officers But as, by letters-patent of the 6th of Edward VI. certai merchants of Briſtol were incorporated by the name o The maſter, wardens, and commonalty of merchant venturers of the city of Briſtol; and as this ſociety w willing to undertake the collection and application of th ſaid 6 d. *per* month payable in the port of Briſtol, and o any donations of well-diſpoſed people, they are appointe truſtees for that port. The ſame liberty is granted to th guild of maſters and pilots ſeamen of the Trinity-hou of Kingſton upon Hull, as alſo to the Eaſt India com pany. That ſeamen who have been longeſt in the ſer vice, ſhall be firſt provided for as worn out or decrepit If any ſeaman, or other perſon employed on board an veſſel, ſhall, in the diſcharge of his duty, break an limb, or be otherwiſe hurt, the preſident and governor of the port of London, and the reſpective truſtees for th out-ports, ſhall provide proper relief for ſuch perſon, unt he ſhall be ſo well recovered of ſuch hurt as to be re moved, and ſent with ſafety to the port to which ſuc veſſel belongs; and the expence thereof, not exceedin 2 d. *per* mile, is to be paid by the company. Any ſea man, or other perſon, ſerving five years or more in th merchant-ſervice, who ſhall have paid the 6 d. *per* mont for that time, and ſhall be adjudged by the preſident &c. a proper object of relief, ſhall be provided for a the port where he ſhall have paid the greateſt part of th ſaid duty, for the laſt five years of his ſervice. An any ſeamen employed in the merchant-ſervice, who ſha be ſhipwrecked, or taken by the enemy, and on their re turn may be travelling with paſſes to the place of thei abode, the preſident and governors, and the reſpective truſtees, may relieve them in ſuch manner as they ſha think proper.

This act was calculated with very noble and patriotic views, and has been put into execution; but it may re quire much time and aſſiſtance to anſwer the ſalutary purpoſes thereby intended; which ought to be promoted by every man who wiſhes well to the proſperity of Great Britain.

It is a melancholy thing to conſider how many Britiſh ſailors, perhaps the beſt in the world, have been ſold to other nations, as things at auction, to the beſt bidder when they might all be preſerved for the ſervice of their own nation, by an annual expence, and proper funds erected for that uſeful purpoſe, not exceeding the charge of what is allowed for the keeping up a ſingle regiment of ſoldiers; whereby thoſe who are obliged to go abroad, as well as the maimed and ſuperannuated, might be ſup-

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ported. The ſailor, inured to hardſhip, requires but little for his ſubſiſtence, and much leſs for his lodging and apparel. A decent habitation, little furniture, and a ſparing diet, would anſwer the expectations of the lame and decayed; while a moderate proviſion might be readily found out to keep the ſtrong and active in their own country in caſe of any emergency of ſtate, or unexpected invaſion; a conſtant ſupply of theſe people being naturally and politically our firſt and greateſt concern. For the caſe, as it ſtands with our real intereſt, is ſhort and eaſy to be underſtood. Nature calls us to commerce, and has furniſhed all the things by which it may be promoted. That which we retain of trade ſhould therefore be protected and extended by all the juſt means we are poſſeſſed of; and thoſe are only to be found in the number of ſhips; which, however well ſupported by ſtrength and art in the building, without being properly manned, will prove little more than incumbrances. Common prudence prompts us to keep up a ſuperiority at ſea, and to give all neceſſary encouragement to the ſailors, by whom our trade, as well as freedom, is ſupported; for, in this, nature, has fixed the policy of our country, and in our obedience to her dictates, by following ſuch meaſures, we ſhall have a full reward.

As the great branch of duty in our fighting ſhips is to protect trade, ſo that of our trading ſhips is to add to our ſtrength and treaſure, which protect and conſolidate the whole: but if we ſuffer our trade to be deſtroyed, or thoſe perſons to be neglected and maltreated, who are the main ſupport of it, we cannot poſſibly expect the life of one, after the death of the other; for, after the loſs of that which is to be protected, the protectors may return to perpetual reſt, and will ſoon be buried in oblivion.

The hoſpital of Greenwich, by the general concurrence of the nation, was founded and endowed, for the reception of ſuch ſailors as were either diſabled or ſuperannuated in the royal ſervice; to which laudable foundation every ſailor in the kingdom, though he never belonged to the royal navy, is obliged to contribute, by having 6d. a month deducted out of his wages for that purpoſe, although he is not entitled to be admitted as a penſioner; which contribution is extended to all ſeamen, except apprentices under 18 years of age, fiſhermen, and perſons employed in open boats.

Hence we may obſerve, that the legiſlature have always looked upon their old and maimed ſailors as real objects of charity, and well worthy of their regard; in conſequence of which, they have not only provided for them a comfortable ſubſiſtence during life, but alſo a proviſion for their wives and children; that they, who had been ſerviceable to their country, might not have the mortification and diſgrace of becoming chargeable to their reſpective pariſhes. May we not therefore reaſonably hope, that the trading part of the kingdom will take it under their immediate conſideration, to contrive and eſtabliſh a fund, to erect or purchaſe manſions, for the reception of ſuch of their faithful ſervants as they, in their wiſdom, ſhall judge to have behaved well, or to have caſually ſuffered in their employments? For the intereſt of the crown and people being naturally mutual, or rather but one, a ſeparation of their intereſts muſt be as pernicious as a ſeparation in the intereſts of a man and his wife, which ends in the ruin of the family. Therefore ſomething of this kind may be concerted, which has been ſo long wanted, neglected, or poſtponed; and perhaps purely on account of the preſs in time of war, by which our merchant-ſhips are frequently unmanned, and trade ſtagnated, for the want of hands to conduct it; which is to the body politic like a ſtagnation of blood in the body natural, often producing an apoplexy, fatal, for the moſt part, to thoſe corpulent bodies whoſe misfortune it is to be thereby affected.

If they who contribute moſt for the ſervice of the community are moſt worthy of its favour and eſteem, there cannot poſſibly be any difficulty in finding the degree of honour the merchant ought to be placed in, nor the degree of care which ſhould be taken for the preſervation of his ſubſervients; without whoſe aſſiſtance ſtocks would fall, the price of lands and houſes be reduced, our national funds grow contemptible, our public credit deſpiſed, and commerce itſelf would ſicken and die. Let no man, therefore, depend too much upon himſelf; but conſider the benefit of others, and how neceſſary it is for the ſake of his own intereſt to preſerve our ſeamen; for as preſumption is the higheſt ſin, ſo prevention is the higheſt wiſdom: and the firſt worthy man who forms the eſtabliſhment of a public hoſpital fit for the reception of our numerous poor diſabled ſeamen, ought to have his ſtatue ſet up in gold, in the middle of our Royal Exchange, to immortalize his memory.

As to the impreſſing of ſeamen, it is certainly a prerogative of the crown: but as they are the moſt valuable ſubjects, many ſchemes have been projected for giving them as much liberty as the reſt of their countrymen. Mr. Cary, p. 40. ſays, that our navigation is carried on by ſhips and ſailors; the former are the ſea-waggons, whereby we tranſport and carry commodities from one market to another; and the latter are the waggoners, who drive and manage them. Theſe are a ſort of jolly fellows, who are generally bold in their undertakings, and go through any kind of labour in their own way with a great deal of chearfulneſs; are undaunted by ſtorms and tempeſts, the ſea being as it were their element, and are allowed by all to be the beſt navigators in the world. They are our wealth in peace, our defence in war, and ought to be more encouraged than they are in both; eſpecially in the latter, which might be done, if better methods were uſed to engage them in the ſervice, and better treatment when they are there. Now, I ſhould think, if no man was forced into the king's ſhips till he had been three years at ſea; nor to ſtay there above that time, without his free conſent, and then to be permitted to take a merchants employment ſo much longer, and ſo *toties quoties*, it would encourage them to come willingly into the ſervice, which they look upon now to be a ſlavery, whereto they are bound for their lives. This, and the manner of preſſing them, hinders very much the making of ſailors; landmen not caring to put their hand to the oar, leſt the next day they ſhould be hauled away to the fleet, though they underſtand nothing of the ſea. By this means our men of war would be manned with able ſeamen, and not with ſuch who only ſtand in the way, and are uſeleſs, when moſt wanted. Nor, continues Mr. Cary, do I take embargoes to be any helps towards it; for many ſailors then lie hid, who would appear to ſerve in merchants ſhips, and might be eaſily met with at the return of their voyages. By theſe means, in a ſhort time, there would be a double ſett of mariners, enough both for the ſervice of the fleet, and of trade; the laſt of which would every year breed more. This would alſo prevent great miſchiefs, which ariſe from preſſing ſailors out of merchants ſhips, whilſt on their voyages, many of them being thereby loſt at ſea, and others have been detained in the Weſt Indies, to the diſcouragement of trade: and it would alſo prevent another miſchief, too much practiſed abroad, where captains of men of war preſs ſailors from one merchant-ſhip, only to make advantage by ſelling them to another.

In the year 1751, there was preſented to the Right Honourable George Lord Anſon, firſt lord commiſſioner of the navy, "A ſcheme how to mann the royal navy of "Great Btitain in time of war, without the impreſſing "of ſeamen, &c." for which his lordſhip returned the author the thanks of the board; and it was afterwards publiſhed, and addreſſed to his lordſhip. Several other ſchemes have alſo been projected for this purpoſe; ſome of which may be ſeen in the London magazine for the year 1741, p. 144, and 348; the ſame magazine for the year 1742, p. 210, and 214; as likewiſe in the Gentleman's magazine for the year 1744, p. 413; and in the ſame magazine for the year 1746, p. 309; to which the reader may refer, as they are too copious to be inſerted here.

SEARCHERS. Officers belonging to the cuſtoms, whoſe buſineſs it is to ſearch for prohibited goods, &c.

SEASONINGS, in the Weſt Indies. A kind of aguiſh diſtemper, which foreigners are much ſubject to at their firſt coming.

SEATON. A port-town in Scotland, in the county of Lothian, ſituated on the frith of Forth, 9 miles eaſt of Edinburgh.

SEBASTIAN, *St.* A port-town of Spain, in the province of Biſcay, and territory of Guipuſcoa, ſituated 55 miles eaſt of Bilboa, and 25 miles S. W. of Bayonne, in 1 deg. 50 min. of W. lon. and 43 deg. 35 min. of N. lat. *St.* SEBASTIAN, is alſo a town of Brazil.

SEBENICO. A port-town of Dalmatia, ſituated on a bay of the gulph of Venice, in 17 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. 40 miles north of Spalatto, ſubject to Venice.

SEBESTEN, in pharmacy. A fruit reſembling a little plumb or prune; which, when ripe, is of a deep red colour, bordering on black; very ſweet, and the fleſh or pulp very glutinous or ſticky. The Syrians make a kind of glue or birdlime of the ſebeſtens, called birdlime of Alexandria. The fruit is eſteemed pectoral, cooling, and emollient; though not much uſed in medicine. The ſtone within it is triangular. It brought its name from Arabia, whence Pliny obſerves it came in his time into Italy.

SECOND, in geometry and aſtronomy. The 60th part of a prime, or minute, either in the diviſion of circles, or in the meaſure of time. A degree, or an hour, are each divided into 60 minutes, marked thus ′; a minute is ſubdivided into 60 ſeconds, marked thus ″; a ſecond into 60 thirds, marked thus ‴. See *Degree*.

SECONDARY *circles*, in the ecliptic, are circles of longitude of the ſtars; or circles, which, paſſing through the poles of the ecliptic, are at right angles to the ecliptic. By the help of theſe all points in the heavens are referred to the ecliptic; that is, any ſtar, planet, or other phænomenon, is underſtood to be in that point of the ecliptic which is cut by the ſecondary ſemicircle, which paſſes through each ſtar or phenomena.

If two ſtars be thus referred to the ſame point of the ecliptic, they are ſaid to be in conjunction; if in oppoſite points, they are ſaid to be in oppoſition: if they be referred to two points at a quadrant's diſtance, they are ſaid to be in quartile aſpect; if the points differ a 6th part of the ecliptic, they are ſaid to be in ſextile aſpect. In the general, all circles which interſect one of the ſix greater circles of the ſphere at right angles, may be called ſecondary circles. As the azimuth or vertical circles, in reſpect of the horizon; ſo is the meridian, in reſpect of the equator.

SECRETARY. An officer, who, by order of his maſter, writes letters, diſpatches, and other inſtruments, which he renders authentic by his ſignature. Of theſe there are ſeveral kinds, as ſecretary of ſtate, ſecretary at war, ſecretary of the treaſury, ſecretary of the admiralty, and others.

SECRETARIES *of ſtate*, are officers attending the king, for the receipt and diſpatch of letters, grants, petitions, and many of the moſt important affairs of the kingdom, both foreign and domeſtick.

The king's ſecretaries were antiently called the king's clerks, and notaries, *regi a commentariis*; for the name ſecretary was at firſt applied to ſuch, as being always near the king's perſon, received his commands, and were called clerks of the ſecret; whence was afterwards formed the word ſecretary, *regi a ſecretis*: and as the great lords began to give their clerks the quality of ſecretaries, thoſe who attended the king were called, by way of diſtinction, ſecretaries of the commands, *regi a mandatis*. This continued till the reign of Henry VIII. 1559; when, at a treaty of peace between the French and Spaniards, the former obſerved, that the Spaniſh miniſters who treated for Philip II. called themſelves ſecretaries of ſtate. Upon which the French ſecretaries des commandements, out of emulation, aſſumed the ſame title, which thence paſſed into England.

Till the reign of Henry VIII. there was only one ſecretary of ſtate; but then, buſineſs increaſing, that prince appointed a ſecond ſecretary, both of equal power and authority, and both ſtyled principal ſecretaries of ſtate. Before Queen Elizabeth's time the ſecretaries did not ſit at the council-board; but that princeſs admitted them to the place of privy counſellors; which honour they have held ever ſince; and a council is never, or at leaſt ſeldom, held without one of them.

They have under their management and direction the moſt conſiderable affairs of the nation, and are obliged to a conſtant attendance on the king. They receive and diſpatch whatever comes to their hands, be it for the crown, the church, the militia, private grants, pardons, diſpenſations, and likewiſe petitions to the ſovereign, which, when read, are returned to the ſecretaries for anſwer; all which they diſpatch according to the king's commands and direction. As to foreign affairs, they are divided into two provinces, or departments, comprehending all the kingdoms and nations which have any intercourſe or buſineſs with Great Britain; each ſecretary receiving all letters and addreſſes from, and making all diſpatches to the ſeveral princes and ſtates comprehended in his province.

The ſecretaries of ſtate have the cuſtody of that ſeal properly called the ſignet, and the direction of the ſignet-office; wherein are four clerks employed, who prepare ſuch things as are to paſs the ſignet, in order to the privy or great ſeal. All grants ſigned by the king are returned hither, which, when tranſcribed, are carried to one of the principal ſecretaries of ſtate, and ſealed, and then called ſignets; which being directed to the lord privy ſeal, are his warrant.

On the ſecretaries of ſtate is likewiſe dependent another office, called the paper-office, wherein all public writings, papers, and matters of ſtate, are preſerved.

All the under ſecretaries and clerks are in the choice of the ſecretary of ſtate, without reſerve to any perſon: the under ſecretaries receive orders and directions from them, for writing diſpatches, foreign and domeſtic, which they give to the chief clerk, who diſtributes them to the under clerks.

SECRETARY *of an embaſſy*, is a perſon attending an ambaſſador, for the writing of diſpatches relating to the negotiation. There is a deal of difference between the ſecretary of the embaſſy, and the ambaſſador's ſecretary; the laſt is a domeſtic or menial of the ambaſſador, the firſt a ſervant or miniſter of the prince. See *Ambaſſador*.

SECRETON. A white cotton cloth, of a middling fineneſs, brought from the Eaſt Indies; the pieces containing 16 ells in length, and 5-6ths in breadth.

SECUNDA *aqua*, among chemiſts, denotes aqua fortis, which has been already uſed to diſſolve ſome metal. See *Aqua* fortis, and *Depart*.

SECURITY. A bail, or inſtrument drawn and ſigned, to anſwer an accuſation for the payment of a ſum of money, whether public or private; but the word is now more particularly adapted to the funds appropriated by the government as a ſecurity for payment of the public debts. See *Fund*, and National *Debt*.

SEEBY. A port-town of the Baltic, ſituated in North Jutland, and ſubject to Denmark. See *Denmark*.

SEED, in botany, is the laſt product of a plant, whereby the ſpecies is propagated.

The ſeed is generally the fruit of the plant; but ſometimes it is only a part incloſed in the fruit, in form either of grain, kernel, or berry.

The ſeed is the natural offspring of the flower, and that for whoſe production all the parts of the flower are intended; ſo that when this is once well formed, the ſeveral parts of the flower dwindle and diſappear. It is produced from the farina of the apices, let fall on the head of the piſtil, and thence forwarded to an uterus, at the bottom thereof divided into ſeveral cells, where, coming to receive the nutritious juice of the plant, it is firſt ſoftened, then ſwelled, increaſed both in matter and bulk, and at length comes to its ſtate of maturity.

That the whole plant is contained in the ſeed, is an opinion as old as Empedocles, and is ſtill the prevailing doctrine among naturaliſts. Experience, the microſcope, and the modern philoſophy, give it great countenance. In

In effect, by the uſe of good microſcopes, we diſcover in the ſeed ſeveral of the parts of the future tree, only in miniature; particularly a little root called the radicle, and the ſtem called the plumule.

The fecundity of plants, in the production of ſeeds, is very ſurpriſing. M. Dodart, in the memoirs of the French academy of ſciences, computes, that an elm living 100 years, ordinarily produces of itſelf 33,000,000 grains: and adds, that had its crown or head been cut off, it would have put forth as many branches, within half an inch of the place where it was cut, as it had before; and that at whatever height it were cut off, the effect would have been ſtill the ſame. Hence he concludes, that the whole trunk is full of little embryo's of inviſible branches, ſeparated by circular rims, half an inch high; each whereof is ready to appear, and will really appear, if the head be lopped off juſt over it: on which footing the tree may be ſaid actually to contain in itſelf 15,840,000,000 ſeeds, wherewith to multiply itſelf as many times. But what ſhall we ſay, if each ſeed or grain of a tree contains in itſelf another tree, containing the ſame number of ſeeds? and if we can never come either at a ſeed which does not contain trees, nor at a tree which does not contain ſeed? By this means we ſhall have an increaſing geometrical progreſſion; the firſt term whereof is 1, the ſecond 15,840,000,000, the third the ſquare of 15,840,000,000, the fourth its cube, and ſo on to infinity.

SEEDS, in gardening and agriculture. Mr. Bradley obſerves, that the ſeeds of plants, though exceedingly good, will degenerate from the mother-plant, if they be ſown on the ſame ground whence they were gathered; ſo that there is a great neceſſity for a yearly change of ſeeds of foreſt-trees, as acorns and maſt. If the place be too cold to ſow them, when gathered in Auguſt, they may be kept barrelled, or potted up, in moiſt ſand or earth, *ſtratum ſuper ſtratum*, during the winter; at the end of which they are found ſprouted, and, if gently ſown, will be as forward as if ſown in autumn, beſides their miſſing the vermin to which the winter-ſeed is much expoſed.

The ſeed is not to be choſen from the moſt fruitful trees, ſo much as from the moſt ſolid and fair; nor are we to covet the largeſt acorns, but the moſt weighty, clean, and bright. Porous, inſipid, mild ſorts of ſeeds are to be ſown as ſoon as ripe; hot, bitter ſeeds, to be kept a year before ſown. The ſhape and weight of ſeeds direct how they are to be ſet; moſt of them, when they fall, lie on the ſide, with the ſmall end towards the earth, which ſhews that poſture to be beſt to ſet any ſtone or nut in: if they be heavy, ſow them the deeper; but acorns, peaches, and the like, are to be ſown three inches deep.

SEEDS, in pharmacy. The medicinal ſeeds, eſpecially thoſe imported from the Indies and Levant, are ſeverally deſcribed under their reſpective articles. Among thoſe cultivated at home, the principal are the four greater hot, and the four greater cold ſeeds, as they are called. The firſt are thoſe of aniſe, fennel, cummin, and caraway; the latter, thoſe of gourd, citrul, melon, and cucumber. The chief uſe of the four cold ſeeds is for the making of emulſions, cool, refreſhing drinks, paſtes for the hands, and oils uſed by the ladies for the complexion.

SEED *of pearls*. See *Pearl*.

SEED-*ſhop-keeper*, is a perſon who ſells all manner of garden and graſs ſeeds, gardeners tools, matts, &c.: and ſome of them are nurſery-men, who furniſh gentlemen with young trees, both fruit and foreſt, with flower-roots, &c.

SEEDLINGS, among gardeners, denote ſuch roots of gilliflowers, as come from ſeed ſown; alſo the young, tender ſhoots of any plants, that are newly ſowed.

SEEL, with the ſailors, is when a ſhip rolls and tumbles about very ſuddenly and violently, by the force of the waves.

SEGNA. A port-town of Morlachia, ſituated on the eaſt-ſide of the gulph of Venice, in 16 deg. of E. lon. and 45 deg. of N. lat. 27 miles eaſt of the iſle of Cherſo; ſubject to Venice.

SEGOVIA *wool*, is Spaniſh wool, brought from Segovia, a town of the kingdom of Caſtile, or from the neighbouring parts.

SEIGNORAGE. A right or due belonging to a ſeigneur or lord.

SEIGNORAGE, is particularly uſed for a duty belonging to the prince for the coining of money, called alſo coinage. See *Coinage*.

This duty is not always the ſame; but changes according to the pleaſure of the prince, and the occaſions of ſtate. It is in ſome meaſure for the diſcharge of this duty that alloy was invented; that is, the mixture of other metals with gold and ſilver.

Under antient kings, for every pound of gold brought in the maſs to be coined, the duty was 5 s.; 1 s. and ſometimes 18 d. thereof, went to the maſter of the mint. Under Edward III. the ſeignorage of every pound weight of ſilver was 18 dwt. which was then equivalent to a a ſhilling. Under Henry V. the king's ſeignorage for every pound of ſilver was 15 d. At preſent the king claims no ſeignorage at all; but the ſubject has his money coined at the public expence; nor has the king any advantage therefrom, but what he has by the alloy.

In France, under Philip Auguſtus, the ſeignorage was 1-3d of the profit made by the coining; St. Louis fixed it at 1-15th part of the value of the money coined; King John, at 3 livres the mark of gold; Charles VII. by reaſon of the diſtreſſed ſtate of his finances, raiſed it to 3-4ths of the value; Louis XIII. fixed it at 6 livres the mark, or 8 oz. of gold, and 10 ſols the mark of ſilver; Louis XIV. took away the right of ſeignorage in 1679; though it was re-eſtabliſhed in 1689, on the foot of 7 livres 10 ſols the mark of gold, and 12 ſols 6 deniers the mark of ſilver.

It muſt be obſerved, that for the levying of this duty of ſeignorage, the juſt value of the money is augmented by the value of the duty.

SEIPOD. A Ruſſian weight, uſed at Archangel, containing 10 pouds, or 320 lb. avoirdupois.

SEIZE, *Seaze*, or *Seaſe*, in the ſea-language, is to make faſt, or bind; particularly to faſten two ropes together, with rope-yarn. The ſeazing of a boat, is a rope tied to a ring, on a little chain in the fore-ſhip of the boat, by which means it is faſtened to the ſhip.

SEIZURE, in commerce. An arreſt of ſome merchandiſe, moveable, or other, either in conſequence of ſome law, or ſome expreſs order of the ſovereign: thus contraband goods, thoſe fraudulently entered, or landed without entering at all, or landed at wrong places, are ſubject to ſeizure.

By the ſtatute of the 13th and 14th of Charles II. ſeizures of ſhips and goods as forfeited, for unlawful importation and exportation, or for non-payment of duties, may be made only by officers of the cuſtoms, or perſons authoriſed by warrant from the treaſury, or by ſpecial commiſſion under his Majeſty's great or privy ſeal; and if made by any other perſons, they are void: except in the caſes of alamodes, arrack, brandy, cattle, fiſh, goods inwards, Ireland, plantations, and wool.

By other ſtatutes, officers making colluſive ſeizures of foreign goods, in order to evade the duties, are to forfeit 500 l. and be rendered incapable of ſerving his Majeſty; and the importers or owners are to forfeit treble the value of the goods.

Officers, or proprietors, diſcovering their offences to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, within two months, ſo as to convict their accomplices, are to be acquitted.

Other perſons ſo diſcovering within three months, are to have half of his Majeſty's ſhare.

Not proſecuted to effect for the bringing of them, to trial and condemnation, by the ſeizer or informer; may be ſeized or informed againſt, or an action brought by way of *devenerunt*, by any other officer, &c. who is to be eſteemed as the true informer or ſeizer.

Officers or informers may not compound any ſeizure, for leſs than one third part of the appraiſed value, under forfeiture of office.

In all ſuits and informations upon any act concerning

the importation of goods; if the property be claimed by any perſon as the importer, the *onus probandi* is to lie on the owner or claimer.

Upon entry of claim to any prohibited or uncuſtomed goods, ſhips, veſſels, or boats, the claimer muſt give ſecurity in the penalty of 30 l. in the court where proſecuted, to pay the coſts; in default whereof, within the time limited by the courſe of ſuch court, the goods may be recovered.

Foreign goods ſeized for non-payment of duties, or any other cauſe, in diſputes, whether the duties have been paid, or the goods have been lawfully imported, or legally compounded for, or condemned, or concerning the place from whence imported; the proof is to lie on the owner or claimer.

In ſeizures or informations upon the act of navigation 12th Charles II. c. 18. the defendant may have a commiſſion out of the high court of chancery, to examine witneſſes beyond the ſeas, and a competent time allowed before trial; and ſuch examination is to be admitted for evidence, as if given *viva voce*.

In every action, ſuit, indictment, information, or proſecution commenced againſt officers of the cuſtoms, &c. for any matter or thing done by virtue, or in purſuance, or execution of this, or any other act relating to the cuſtoms and navigation; the defendants may plead the general iſſue, and give thoſe particular acts, and the ſpecial matter in evidence for their defence, in any of the courts of juſtice; and if, upon trial, a verdict paſs for the defendants, or the plaintiffs diſcontinue or forbear their actions, or become non ſuited, or judgment be given againſt them by demurrer or otherwiſe; the defendants are to have full, double, or treble coſts of ſuits awarded againſt ſuch plaintiffs, &c.

Writs of delivery may not be granted out of the exchequer for goods ſeized, but upon good ſecurity, and only for ſuch goods as are periſhable; or where the informer defers or delays coming to as ſpeedy a trial, as the courſe of that court will permit.

Forfeitures and penalties may be ſued for, proſecuted, and recovered by action of debt, bill, plaint, information, or indictment in his Majeſty's court of exchequer, or any other of his Majeſty's courts of record; wherein no eſſoign, protection, privilege, or wager of law, or any more than one imparlance, muſt be allowed or admitted.

Except in the caſes of brandy, coffee, drawbacks, goods inwards, ſalt, ſpirits, and wool.

Upon ſeizures of goods run or prohibited, and of the veſſels, carriages, horſes, &c. which may be tried before the juſtices of the peace, one or more of the ſaid juſtices may adminiſter an oath to perſons ſkilled in the nature of the goods, &c. ſeized, to view the ſame, and to return the ſpecies, quantity, quality, and value thereof to the ſaid juſtices, in a limited time; in order that informations may be exhibited for their hearing and determining ſuch ſeizures.

After condemnation, by the judgment of ſuch juſtices, the goods, &c. are to be publickly ſold to the beſt bidder; at ſuch places and times as the reſpective commiſſioners ſhall think proper.

Seizures of goods liable to duties, forfeited for being ſhipped or put into any boat, &c. with intent to be exported, or for being unſhipped to be laid on land, out of any ſhip from foreign parts, before the ſaid duties are paid, ſecured, tendered, or agreed for, and all forfeitures and penalties; one moiety of the rate or value thereof is to be for the uſe of his Majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors; and the other moiety to the perſon that ſeizes, informs, or ſues for the ſame.

Except in the caſes of alamodes, arrac, brandy, callicoes, cattle, Eaſt India, goods coaſtwiſe inwards, muſlins, plantations, South ſeas, tea, tobacco, and wool.

On all trials of ſeizures, the ſeizure, together with the method and form of making it, ſhall be taken to have been done in the manner as ſet forth in the information, without any evidence thereof; and all the judges and juſtices of the peace are to proceed to the trial of the merits of the cauſe, without inquiring into the fact, form, or manner of making the ſeizure.

The produce of the ſeizures of prohibited and uncuſtomed goods, is to be applied towards the ſupport of his Majeſty's houſhold, and of the honour and dignity of the crown.

SELENITE, *Selenites*, in natural hiſtory, *Moon-ſtone*. A ſtone ſaid to be ſtill found in China; which has this remarkable property, that it increaſes and decreaſes, as the moon waxes and wanes. There are ſome of theſe ſelenites preſerved in the palace of Pekin, valued at an incredible rate.

SELENITES, among the ancient naturaliſts, denotes a white, or tranſparent figured ſtone, thus called from its repreſenting the moon as in a glaſs; which is alſo denominated *lapis ſpecularis*.

Some give the ſame appellation to Muſcovy talc, from an opinion that it increaſes and diminiſhes with the moon. See *Talc*.

SELING. A weight and coin uſed and current in the kingdom of Siam, called mayon by the Chineſe. See *Mayon*.

SEMI-*pite*. The ſmalleſt of the French monies of accompt, being the eighth part of the denier, and the denier being 39-1280ths of a penny ſterling.

SEMPITERNAL, or *Perpetuana*. A kind of woollen ſtuff manufactured in England, particularly at Colcheſter and Exeter; their chief deſtination being for Spain and Italy. See *Perpetuana*.

SENA, or *Senna*, in medicine, is a purgative leaf, much uſed in draughts and compoſitions of that intention. The ſhrub which bears it is cultivated in ſeveral parts of the Levant, and grows five or ſix feet high; putting forth woody branches, furniſhed with leaves on one ſide: its flowers are yellow; and its fruit a greeniſh flat pod, containing ſeveral lodges or cells of ſeeds, reſembling grape-ſtones; which pods ſome phyſicians prefer to the leaves themſelves. There is alſo a kind of ſena growing about Florence in Italy; but it is inferior to that of the Levant, as is owned by the Italians themſelves. Father Plumier mentions a third kind, growing in the Antilles iſlands. M. Lemery diſtinguiſhes three ſorts of ſena of the Levant; the firſt brought from Seyda, called ſena of Apalto, that is, cuſtom-ſena, by reaſon of the cuſtom paid to the grand ſignior, for the privilege of exporting it; the ſecond comes from Tripoli; and the third is called ſena of Mocha. The beſt of theſe kinds is the firſt, which Pomet directs us to chuſe, in narrow leaves of a moderate ſize, ſhaped like the end of a pike, of a pale green colour, a pungent ſmell, and ſoft to the touch. The ſena of Tripoli holds the ſecond rank in goodneſs, and differs from that of Seyda in colour, being green, its ſmell very weak, and has a harſhneſs or roughneſs which it diſcovers upon a touch. Beſides theſe three kinds of ſena, and their pods, the druggiſts ſell the duſt found at the bottom of their bales; which is a very poor commodity, and yet much better than what they call ſmall ſena, which comes with it in the bales by way of package, and which many hold to be a plant of no virtue, put in by chance, or as beſt to increaſe the weight. The beſt ſena ordinarily found in our ſhops, Dr. Quincy obſerves, is that which is ſharpeſt leaved, and ſmells freſheſt: the brightneſs of its colour, and quickneſs of its flavour, are alſo indications of its goodneſs; for when it has loſt its ſcent, and grows duſky, it is good for little. Sena, at firſt taking, is apt to nauſeate the ſtomach; and therefore, if a little cinnamon, or a dram or two of its diſtilled water, be added, it paſſes through with leſs ſickneſs. This is exactly conformable to the ſentiments of Ludovicus, who ſays, that the purgative quality of this herb reſides in its mucilaginous or gummy juice; which the more it is divided, gripes the leſs in its operation. Rulandus imagined a ſudorific quality in ſena; and accordingly ordered it in ſome compoſitions of that intention.

SENDWICK. A Daniſh town on the iſland of Bornholm. See *Denmark*.

SENEGA. The gum ordinarily ſold by the druggiſts for gum arabic, which it nearly reſembles, both in form and virtue,

virtue; and is either white bordering upon yellow, or of a deep amber colour, and tranſparent. It oozes out of a prickly ſhrub, common enough in Africa, and is brought from ſenegal, whence it has received its name.

SENEGAL. A river of Negroland in Africa, ſuppoſed to be the north branch of the river Niger, which runs from eaſt to weſt, and diſcharges itſelf into the Atlantic ocean, in 16 deg. of N. lat. at the mouth whereof the French have ſeveral forts which command the navigation of that river; and from hence they import that valuable drug called gum ſenega.

SEPARATION, in navigation. The ſame with what is uſually called departure. See *Departure*.

SEPTIER. A French meaſure, differing according to the ſpecies of the things meaſured.

For liquors, the ſeptier is the ſame thing with the chopine, or half pint. For dry meaſure, the ſeptier is very different in different places, and different commodities; as not being any veſſel of meaſure, but only an eſtimation of ſeveral other meaſures. At Paris the ſeptier of wheat conſiſts of two mines, the mine of two minots, and the minot of three buſhels.

Twelve ſeptiers make the mine; but the ſeptier of oats is double that of wheat.

SEQUIN, *Zechin*, *Zecchino*, or *Chequeen*. A gold coin ſtruck at Venice; as alſo in ſeveral parts of the grand ſignior's ſtates, particularly at Cairo; which laſt are Turkiſh ſequins or zeriffs.

At Conſtantinople, the ducats ſtruck in ſeveral parts of Germany are called Hungarian ſequins. See *Ducat*.

The value of theſe ſequins is different; thoſe of Venice being 9 s. $1\frac{1}{4}$ d. ſterling, and thoſe of Turky 9 s. 9 d. ſterling.

SER. A weight of two ſorts uſed in the Eaſt Indies, particularly in the Mogul's territories; the firſt is employed for weighing the neceſſaries of life, being 1 lb. avoirdupois; but the ſecond is only of 12 oz. avoirdupois.

SERAPH. A Turkiſh gold coin, in value 5 s. ſterling.

SERASSES. Cotton cloths, manufactured in ſeveral parts of the Eaſt Indies, particularly at Cambay.

SERCELLI. A port-town of Algiers, on the coaſt of Barbary in Africa, a little weſt of the city of Algiers, in 4 deg. of E. lon. and 37 deg. of N. lat.

SERGE, in commerce. A woollen quilted ſtuff, manufactured on a loom with four treddles, after the manner of rateens, and other ſtuffs, that have the whale. See *Rateen*.

The goodneſs of ſerges is known by the quilting, as that of cloths by the ſpinning.

Of ſerges there are various kinds, denominated either from the different qualities thereof, or from the places where they are wrought. The moſt conſiderable is the London ſerge, now highly valued abroad, particularly in France, where the manufacture is carried on with good ſucceſs, under the title of *ſerge façon de Londres*.

SERGE *de ſoye*. A kind of ſilk ſerge, brought chiefly from Italy.

SEREGIPPE. A city and port-town of Brazil, in South America, in the province of Baia, or bay of All Saints, ſituated on the Atlantic ocean, in 39 deg. of W. lon. and 11 deg. 12 min. of S. lat. 100 miles N.E. of the city of St. Salvador, ſubject to Portugal.

SERON *of almonds*, is the quantity of 200 weight; of aniſe-ſeeds, from 3 to 400 lb.; of Caſtile ſoap, from 200 and a half to 300 and three quarters.

SERPENT. A muſical inſtrument, ſerving as a baſs to the cornet, or ſmall ſhawm, to ſuſtain a chorus of ſingers in a large edifice. It has its name ſerpent from its figure, as conſiſting of ſeveral folds or wreaths, which ſerve to reduce its length, that otherwiſe would be ſix or ſeven feet. It is uſually covered with leather; and conſiſts of three parts, a mouth-piece, a neck, and a tail; and has ſix holes, by means whereof it takes in the compaſs of two octaves.

SERPENTARIA. A medicinal plant, called by the ancients piſtolochia and dracunculus, and popularly ſnake-root, or dragon's-wort. The ancients were only acquainted with two kinds of this plant, the great and the ſmall; but, ſince the diſcovery of America, botaniſts have added others, as the ſerpentaria Virginiana, or Virginian ſnake-root, beſides that of Canada, and that of Brazil. They are all ſuppoſed to be alexipharmics, or counterpoiſons, and as ſuch are ingredients in Venice treacle. The great ſerpentaria, called by the ancients dracunculus major, has its ſtem very ſtreight, ſmooth, and marked with red ſpots, like the ſkin of a ſerpent; whence probably, as much as from its virtues, it is that it takes its name. The root is big, round, and white, covered with a thin ſkin. The ſmaller ſerpentaria has its ſtalk much like that of the larger, only its leaves are like thoſe of ivy; whereas thoſe of the larger are folded in one another, after the manner of baſtard rhubarb. Its root is round and bulbous.

The ſerpentaria of Virginia, called alſo colubrina Virginiana, aſarum Virginianum, ſerpentaria nigra, and contrayerva of Virginia, has its leaves green and large, almoſt in figure of a heart; its fruit round; and its root, which is of a very ſtrong aromatic ſmell, has at bottom an infinite number of long, ſmall filaments, repreſenting a kind of beard. It was firſt brought into Europe from Virginia by the Engliſh; where it is eſteemed a ſovereign remedy or antidote againſt the bite of the rattle-ſnake. We are told by travellers, that this root not only cures the bite of the rattle-ſnake, but that this animal flies the ſmell thereof: for which reaſon the Indian, and other travellers, always carry it with them on the end of a ſtaff, to preſent towards the ſnake, when, by chance, they meet it.

SERPENTINE *marble*, or *ſtone*. A kind of marble, called by the ancients ophites, as being ſpeckled like a ſerpent's ſkin.

The ground of the ſerpentine is blackiſh; but it is beſet with green and yelloviſh ſtains and ſtreaks; being exceeding hard, precious, and antique.

SERSUKERS. Indian ſilk and cotton ſtuffs, worked much after the manner of muſlin; their length is 7, 9, 13, and 16 ells, and 2-3ds, 3-4ths, and 7-8ths in breadth.

SESELI. A plant much of the nature and quality of fennel, growing in Candia, the Morea, and the ſouth of France. Its ſeed to be good ſhould be longiſh, weighty, greeniſh, and of an aromatic taſte.

SESTE. A corn-meaſure uſed at Siam, weighing 100 catis, or 125 lb. avoirdupois.

SESTOS. A fortreſs of European Turky, ſituated at the entrance of the Helleſpont or Dardanells, in 27 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 48 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. lying 24 miles S. W. of Gallipoli.

SETTE, or *Cette*. A port-town of France, in the province of Languedoc, ſituated on a bay of the Mediterranean, in 3 deg. 36 min. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 26 min. of N. lat. 14 min. S. W. of Montpelier.

SETTING, in ſea-language. To ſet the land, or the ſun, by the compaſs, is to obſerve how the land bears on any point of the compaſs, or on what point of the compaſs the ſun is: alſo, when two ſhips ſail in ſight of one another, to mark on what point the chaſed bears, is termed, ſetting the chaſe by the compaſs.

SEVERN. A noble river, which riſes in Montgomeryſhire, runs eaſt till it enters Shropſhire, and having paſſed by Shrewſbury, turns ſouth, paſſing by Bridgnorth, Worceſter, and Glouceſter; after which it diſcharges itſelf into the Britiſh channel. It is a very ſwift ſtream, and navigable from Welchpool in Montgomeryſhire, receiving 40 rivers in its courſe, and frequently overflowing the countries through which it runs.

SEVILLE. A city of Spain, capital of the province of Andaluſia, ſituated on the river Guadalquivir, in 6 deg. of W. lon. and 37 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. 50 miles north-eaſt of Cadiz, and 200 miles ſouth-weſt of Madrid.

SEXLING. A ſmall money at Hamburgh, 24 of which are equal to $1\frac{1}{8}$ d. ſterling.

SEXTANT. An aſtronomical inſtrument, made like a quadrant, excepting that its limb only comprehends 60 degrees; the uſe and application of this inſtrument, being the ſame with that of the quadrant. See *Quadrant*.

SEXTULA. A ſmall weight, uſed by apothecaries for their drugs, which weighs a ſcruple more than the dram.

SEYDAVI. Silk of the produce of Sidon, and ſold by the damaſquin of 600 drachms, or 4 lb. 11 oz. avoirdupois.

SEYNE. A river of France, which riſes near Dijon in Burgundy, runs N. W. through Champagne, and the iſle of France, viſiting Troyes and Paris; then continuing its courſe N. W. croſſes Normandy, paſſing by the city of Rouen, and falling into the Britiſh channel between Havre-de-Grace and Honfleur.

SHACK, in ancient cuſtoms. A liberty of winter-paſturage. In the counties of Norfolk and Suffolk the lord of the manor has ſhack, that is, a liberty of feeding his ſheep at pleaſure upon his tenants lands during the ſix winter-months.

In Norfolk, ſhack alſo extends to the common for hogs, in all mens grounds, from the end of harveſt till ſeeds time; whence, to go a ſhack, is to feed at large.

SHADWELL *water-works*. See *Water*-works.

SHAFT, of a mine, is the hollow entrance, or paſſage into it, ſunk or dug, to come at the ore. In the tin-mines, after this is ſunk about a fathom, they leave a little, long, ſquare place, which is called a ſhamble.

SHAGREEN, or *Chagreen*. A kind of grained leather, chiefly uſed in the covers of caſes and books. It is very cloſe and ſolid, covered over with little roundiſh grains, or papillæ, and brought from Conſtantinople, Tauris, Tripoli, Algiers, and ſome parts of Poland. There is a diſpute among authors, what the animal is whence the ſhagreen is prepared? Rauwolf aſſures us it is the onager; which, according to him and Bellonius, is a kind of wild aſs. It is added, that only the hard part of the ſkin is uſed for this purpoſe. Borel ſays it is a ſea-calf; others, a kind of fiſh called by the Turks ſhagrain, whoſe ſkin is covered with grains, and thoſe ſo hard that they will raſp and poliſh wood.

There is alſo a ſort of ſhagreen made of the ſkin of the ſquatina, in Engliſh the monk or angel-fiſh.

Manner of preparing SHAGREEN. The ſkin being firſt ſlead off, is ſtretched out, covered over with muſtard-ſeed, and the ſeed bruiſed on it; when it is expoſed to the weather for ſome days, and then tanned.

The beſt is that brought from Conſtantinople, of a browniſh colour; the white is the worſt. It is extremely hard, yet, when ſteeped in water, becomes very ſoft and pliable; for which reaſon it is of great uſe to caſe-makers: beſides, it will take any colour that is given it, red, green, yellow, or black, but is notwithſtanding this frequently counterfeited by marquin formed like ſhagreen; which laſt may eaſily be diſtinguiſhed by its peeling off, becauſe the firſt does not.

SHAGREEN *caſe-maker*, is a perſon who makes ſhagreen-caſes for watches, tweezers, &c. and cheſts for plate.

SHALLOP, or *Shalloop*, is a ſmall light veſſel, with only a ſmall main-maſt, fore-maſt, and lug-ſails, to hale up, and let down, on occaſion. They are commonly good ſailors, and therefore uſed as tenders upon men of war.

SHAMMY, *Chammy*, or *Chamois*. A kind of leather, dreſſed in oil or tanned, much eſteemed for its ſoftneſs and pliancy. It is prepared from the ſkin of the chamois, a kind of wild goat, called alſo iſard, inhabiting the mountains of Dauphine, Savoy, Piedmont, and the Pyreneans. Beſides the warmneſs and ſoftneſs of this leather, it has the faculty of bearing ſoap without damage, which renders it very uſeful on many accounts. In France, ſome wear the ſkin raw without any preparation. It is alſo uſed for the purifying of mercury, which is done by the paſſing it through the pores of this ſkin, which are very cloſe.

The true chamois leather is counterfeited with common goat, kid, and even ſheep ſkin; the practice of which makes a particular profeſſion, called by the French chamoiſure: the laſt, though leaſt eſteemed, is yet ſo popular, and ſuch vaſt quantities prepared, eſpecially about Orleans, Marſeilles, and Tholouſe, as may ſeem incredible.

SHANNON. The largeſt river of Ireland; which riſing in the county of Letrim, runs from north to ſouth, dividing the provinces of Leinſter and Connaught; and then turning S. W. runs through the province of Munſter, paſſing by the city of Limeric, diſcharging itſelf into the Weſtern or Atlantic ocean, between the counties of Clare and Limeric.

SHAUB, or *Baffetas*. An Indian cotton and ſilk ſtuff, of different colours; being 7 ells in length, and 3 4ths in breadth.

SHEATHING *of a ſhip*, is the caſing that part of the hull which is to be under water, with ſomething to keep the worms from eating into her plank; which is uſually done, by laying tar and hair mixed together, all over the old plank, and then nailing on thin new boards; but, as this hinders a ſhip's ſailing, of late ſome have been ſheathed with milled lead, which is much ſmoother, and conſequently better for ſailing, and alſo more cheap and durable than the other way. This method was firſt invented by Sir Philip Howard and Major Watſon.

SHEEP. The beſt ſort of ſmall cattle, both for food and cloathing to mankind. See *Wool*.

By acts paſſed in the 3d Henry VI. and 8th Elizabeth, ſheep, lambs, or rams, alive exported, for the firſt offence the exporter, his aiders or abettors, are to forfeit all their goods for ever, and to ſuffer a year's impriſonment without bail or mainpriſe, and then to have their left hands cut off in a market-town, upon a market-day, and be there publickly nailed up.

Perſons offending a ſecond time, are to be adjudged felons, and to ſuffer death accordingly.

SHEER-*hooks*, or *Shear hooks*, are large iron hooks, uſed when a ſhip deſigns to board another.

SHEER-*ſhanks*, or *Shear-ſhanks*. A kind of knots, among ſeamen, by which they tie up and ſhorten a runner when it is too long.

SHEERING, or *Shearing*, in the woollen manufactures. The cloth-worker's, or ſhearman's craft or office; or the cutting off with large ſhears the too long and ſuperfluous nap or ſhag found on the ſurface of woollen cloth, ſtuffs, fuſtians, and cottons, in order to make them more ſmooth and even. Cloth and ſtuffs are ſhorn more or fewer times, according to their quality and fineneſs.

Some uſe the phraſe ſhearing of hats, for the paſſing of hats made of wool over the flame of a clear fire made of ſtraw or ſpray, to take off the long hairs; others call this flaming, and ſome ſindging. Other hats, as caſtors, ſemi-caſtors, and ſuch like, are ſhorn, by rubbing them over with pumice-ſtone.

SHEERING, or *Shearing*, is alſo a ſea-term, for the motion of a ſhip, when ſhe goes in and out, and not right forward; either by reaſon ſhe is not ſteered ſteadily, or on account of the ſwift running of the tide; in which caſe ſhe is ſaid to ſheer, or go ſheering. When ſhe lies at anchor, or near a port, by reaſon of the ſwift running of a tide-gate, ſhe is ſaid to be in danger of ſheering home her anchor, or ſheering aſhore.

SHEERMEN, or *Shearmen*. See *Clothmakers* company.

SHEILDS. A port-town of Durham, ſituated at the mouth of the river Tyne, in 1 deg. of W. lon. and 55 deg. of N. lat. 8 miles E. of Newcaſtle, where the Newcaſtle fleets ride and take on board their coals, and where great quantities of ſalt are made.

SHELF, is what the miners, eſpecially in tin-mines, call the faſt country; by which they mean an imaginary ſurface of the earth, that, at the concuſſion of the waters at the deluge, was never moved; and to the ſhelf they think all the loads or veins at firſt lay even and parallel; though, after the flood, ſome were elevated, others depreſſed.

By ſhelf they mean that hard ſurface, or coat of the earth, which lies under the mould, uſually about a foot deep; for they ſuppoſe, that ſince the flood the earth has joined a new coat of vegetable earth, or ſuch as is made by the corruption of vegetables and animals.

SHELL, in natural hiſtory. A hard cruſt, ſerving to cover and incloſe a kind of animals, hence called teſtaceous.

Naturaliſts have been generally miſtaken as to the manner of the formation of theſe ſhells, the animal and its ſhell

ſhell having been always ſuppoſed to ariſe from the ſame egg. But Mr. Reaumur has ſhewn the ſuppoſition to be falſe; having found, by certain experiments, that the ſhells of garden-ſnails are formed of a matter which perſpires from their bodies, and hardens and condenſes in the air.

It is certain, that all animals perſpire, and are encompaſſed with a kind of cloud or atmoſphere, which exhales from them, and in all probability aſſumes pretty nearly their external figure.

SHELLS, make a conſiderable article in the cabinets of the curious. The fineſt and rareſt are theſe that follow: 1. The papal crown, which takes its name from its form, and is all ſtreaked with red on a white ground. 2. The feather, whoſe whiteneſs, with its carnation-ſtains, have an admirable effect. 3. The Hebraica, which, on a ground as white as ſnow, has ſpots as black as jet, much reſembling Hebrew characters. 4. The Chineſe ſnail, which has a green and black embroidery, on a dark, brown ground. 5. The cloth of gold, remarkable for an admirable tiſſue of yellow, brown, and black. 6. The cloth of ſilver, which does not come behind that of gold in beauty. 7. The leopard, which is all ſpeckled. 8. The tyger, whoſe ſpots exceed thoſe of the leopard. 9. The hart's horn, which has black ſtains on a white ground. 10. The purſe, thus called from its figure, which is embroidered with three or four colours. 11. The ſun-dial. 12. The caterpillar, both denominated from their forms.

SHELL-*gold*. See *Gold*.

SHELL-*ſilver*. See *Silver*.

Tortoiſe-SHELL. See *Tortoiſe*.

SHEPPEY An iſland at the mouth of the river Medway, part of the county of Kent, and ſeparated from the main land by a narrow channel, 7 miles N. W. of Canterbury; the chief town being Queenborough.

SHERBET. A pleaſant Turkiſh liquor, which in England is the lemon, water, and ſugar, that rum or brandy is intended to be put to, in order to make the liquor called punch. See *Punch*.

SHERBRO. A fort at the mouth of Sherbro river on the coaſt of Guinea in Africa, ſituated in 11 deg. of W. lon. and 6 deg. of N. lat. 100 miles S. E. of Sierra Leon, formerly in poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, but abandoned by them.

SHERENESS, or *Sheerneſs*. A fort on the N. W. point of the iſle of Sheppey in Kent, ſituated at the mouth of the river Medway, to defend the entrance of that river.

SHETLAND *iſles*. See *Britiſh* iſlands.

SHILLING. An Engliſh ſilver coin, equal to 12 d. or the 20th part of a pound. See *Pound*, and *Penny*.

It is obſerved there were no ſhillings or twelve-penny pieces coined in England till the year 1504; and theſe Stow calls groats, though Fabian mentions them under the name of ſhillings, 34th Henry VIII.

The Dutch, Flemiſh, and Germans, have likewiſe their ſhillings called ſchelin, ſchilling, and ſchelling; but theſe, not being of the ſame weight or fineneſs with the Engliſh ſhilling, are not current on the ſame foot. The Engliſh ſhilling is worth about 23 French ſols; thoſe of Holland and Germany about 11 ſols and a half. The Dutch ſhillings are alſo called ſols de gros, becauſe equal to 12 gros. The Danes have copper ſhillings, worth about 1-4th of a farthing ſterling.

SHIP. A general name for all great veſſels with ſails, fit for navigation on the ſea; excepting galleys, which go with oars and ſmack-ſails.

The Sieur Aubin defines a ſhip, a timber building, conſiſting of various parts and pieces, nailed and pinned together with iron and wood, in ſuch form as to be fit to float, and to be conducted by winds and ſails from ſea to ſea.

The invention of ſhips is very ancient, and at the ſame time very uncertain. Mythologiſts attribute it to Dedalus; and pretend, that the wings he invented to ſave himſelf from the labyrinth of Crete, were nothing but ſails, which he firſt gave to veſſels, and wherewith he eluded the vigilance and purſuit of Minos. Others give the honour to Janus, on the credit of ſome ancient Greek and Latin coins; on one ſide whereof is repreſented his double face, and on the reverſe a ſhip. Others, and thoſe who go on the ſureſt ground, look on Noah as the firſt ſhipbuilder.

Ships are uſually divided into three claſſes; ſhips of war; merchant-ſhips; and an intermediate kind, half war, half merchant; being ſuch, as though built for merchandiſe, yet take commiſſions for war.

Ships of war are again divided into ſeveral orders, called rate. See *Rate*.

Merchant-ſhips are eſtimated by their burthen, that is, by the number of tuns they bear, each tun reckoned at 2000 lb. weight; this eſtimate being made by gauging the hold, which is the proper place of loading.

The moſt celebrated ſhips of antiquity are that of Ptolemy Philopater, which was 280 cubits long, 38 broad, and 48 high, each cubit being 1 Engliſh foot 5½ inches, and carried 400 rowers, 400 ſailors, and 3000 ſoldiers. That which the ſame prince made to ſail on the Nile, we are told, was half a ſtadium long. Yet theſe were nothing compariſon with Hiero's ſhip, built under the direction of Archimedes; on the ſtructure whereof Moſchion wrote a whole volume. There was wood enough employed in it to make 50 galleys: it had all the variety of apartments of a palace; ſuch as banqueting-rooms, galleries, gardens, fiſh-ponds, ſtables, mills, baths, and a temple to Venus. It was encompaſſed with an iron rampart, eight towers, with walls and bulwarks, furniſhed with machines of war; particularly one, which threw a ſtone of 300 pounds, or a dart 12 cubits long, the ſpace of half a mile, with many other particulars related by Athenæus.

Among modern ſhips, one of the moſt conſiderable is a firſt rate ſhip, built at Woolwich in 1701; the dimenſions whereof, whence thoſe of other rates may be deduced, are as follow: the length 210 feet, number of guns 110, number of men 1250, number of tuns 2300; draught of water 22 feet; the main-ſail in length 54 yards, depth 19; main-maſt in length 39 feet, in diameter 38 inches; weight of the anchor 82 C. 1 qr. 14 lb. cable in length 200 yards, diameter of the cable 22 inches. The expence of building a common firſt rate, with guns, tackling, and rigging, is computed at 60,000 l. ſterling. See *Navigation*, *Navy*, and *Rate*.

In the year 1732, there were 1417 ſhips belonging to the city of London, whoſe burthen were 178,557 tons, and manned with 21,797 men.

As there is a great diſparity of ſeamen in ſhips of the ſame tonnage and burthen, it will be neceſſary to obſerve that all ſhips trading to the weſtern and ſouthern parts of the world, are, on account of their long voyages, obliged to carry a greater number of hands, than thoſe who trade to the eaſtern and northern parts, except ſuch as go to Greenland and Davies's ſtraits on the whale-fiſhery:

Having ſhewn the number of ſhips belonging to London, for the ſatisfaction of the curious, there is alſo ſubjoined the following account of the number of ſhips that arrived at London from all foreign parts, as well as from the ſeveral ports of Great Britain, from Chriſtmas 1727 to Chriſtmas 1728; namely, Britiſh ſhips from all ports beyond the ſea 1839, and foreign ſhips 213, togegether 2052; and from the ſeveral ports of Great Britain the numbers that appear below.

Ports.		*Ports.*	
Aberdeen	24	Briſtol	36
Aberdovey	2	Cardiff	12
Adleburgh	92	Cardigan	1
Alloa	13	Caermarthen	24
Anſtruther	3	Chepſtow	3
Arundel	43	Cheſter	73
Beaumaris	3	Chicheſter	73
Berwick	121	Clay	50
Biddiford	8	Clovelly	1
Blyth	207	Colcheſter	160
Borrowſtonneſs	5	Cowes	39
Boſton	17	Dartmouth	56
Bridgwater	1	Deal	34
Birdlington	19	Dover	65

Ports.		*Ports.*	
Dunbar	7	Newcaſtle	1525
Dundee	12	Newhaven	26
Exeter	74	Newnham	1
Falmouth	8	Penryn	5
Feverſham	359	Penzance	7
Folkſtone	10	Perth	5
Fowey	4	Plymouth	35
Glouceſter	1	Poole	144
Gweek	6	Portſmouth	69
Harwich	193	Preſton	1
Hartlepoole	19	Preſtonpans	8
Haſtings	36	Rocheſter	133
Haverford-weſt	17	Rye	31
Hull	195	Sandwich	238
Hythe	9	Scarborough	18
Inverneſs	23	Shoreham	37
Ipſwich	448	Southampton	105
Kingſton upon Hull	4	Southwold	40
Kirkaldy	12	Stockton	75
Kircudbright	1	Sunderland	2
Leigh	140	Swanzey	102
Leith	24	Tenby	5
Liverpool	24	Truro	12
Lyme	4	Wells	33
Lymington	21	Weymouth	75
Lynn	37	Whitby	44
Maldon	136	Wigton	1
Milford	43	Wiſbich	36
Milton	132	Woodbridge	168
Montroſe	12	Yarmouth	159
Neath	1		

Numbers total,	foreign ſhips	2052
	coaſters	6837
General total		8889

Though this is a prodigious number of ſhips to be imported in one year, yet the ſame is conſiderably increaſed at this time.

For unlading this vaſt number of veſſels, and carrying the amazing quantities of merchandiſe brought to London by them to and from the ſeveral wharfs of the city, ſuburbs, and vicinal parts, which are 144 in number, there are not only employed about 2000 lighters, barges, and boats, but likewiſe 420 great carts, belonging to the city and liberty thereof; beſides 120 to the coal or woodmongers, and 37 in the out-parts, together 607, which are equal in burthen to that of waggons. See *Wharf*, and *Carmen*.

Of owners and maſters of SHIPS. An owner of a ſhip, is the proprietor of the ſame by lawful title, either as the builder of it, or by purchaſe from another perſon entitled thereto. And a maſter of a ſhip, is one appointed by the owners, to have the government and charge thereof, being committed to his care and management, during the voyage to be performed. Alſo the perſons that are in a ſhip may be thus in order; the maſter, the pilot, the maſter's mate, the ſhip-carpenter, the boatſwain, the purſer, the ſurgeon, the cook, and the ſhip's boy; all the reſt being under the name of mariners.

In reſpect to owners of ſhips, where there are divers part-owners therein, if a ſhip be new built, and has never made a voyage, or is newly bought, by the law-marine, ſhe ought to be ſubject to one voyage upon the common hazard, before any of the owners ſhall be permitted to ſeparate and diſcharge their parts; but, by the laws of England, the owners may, before any ſuch voyage, convey away or aſſign over their right. And if there be ſeveral owners of a ſhip, and they happen to diſagree, the ſhip notwithſtanding may make one voyage firſt, at their common expence, before any terms of diſſolving the partnerſhip be ſo much as heard; if after that they cannot agree, the party requeſting to be diſcharged, is to make an offer of his part to the reſt at the price he would either give or take, and he ſhall be allowed to ſeparate; but in caſe he will not make ſuch an offer of ſale, the other owners and partners may forthwith rigg the ſhip a their own charge, and upon the adventure of the refuſer ſo far as his ſhare extends, without any account to be gi ven unto him of any part of the profit at her return; bu they are obliged to bring the ſhip home ſafe, or to an ſwer him the value of his part.

And where the part-owners of a ſhip, who have th greateſt ſhare or part thereof, refuſe to continue the part nerſhip, with one who has but one part, or a ſmal ſhare in the ſhip, who cannot without prejudice ſell hi part at a price ſet, nor has ſubſtance to buy the part of the reſt; in ſuch caſe, all the partners are bound t put the ſhip to an appraiſement, and either ſo to diſpoſ of her by ſale, or to ſet her forth on a voyage accord ingly: and if, for want of buyers in that place, th poor partner cannot avoid the oppreſſion of the richer then may the judge of the admiralty, or the ordinary judge, ſentence and decree the ſame. If the major par of a ſhip's owners and partners proteſt againſt a voyage and there is but one left that is for it; yet the ſame may be effected by that party, eſpecially if there be equality in partnerſhip.

If a man gets poſſeſſion of a ſhip, having no title to th ſame, by the marine law he ſhall anſwer ſuch damage to the rightful owners as the ſhip in all probability might have earned; and the reaſon of that is, becauſe the only end of ſhipping is the employment thereof. A ſhip commits piracy, by reaſon of which ſhe is forfeited; if before ſeizure ſhe be *bona fide* ſold, the property ſhall not be queſtioned, nor the owners diveſted of the ſame; and where a ſhip is freighted out, and accordingly receives in her lading purſuant to agreement, if afterwards any embargo happens, and the lading is taken as forfeited, the owners ſhall notwithſtanding receive freight; for here is no fault in them, but only in the merchant.

In caſe a ſhip be broke up, or taken in pieces, with an intent to convert the ſame to other uſes; and afterwards, upon change of mind, ſhe be rebuilt with the ſame materials; yet this is now another, and not the ſame ſhip, eſpecially if the keel be ript up or changed; and when once the whole ſhip is taken aſunder and rebuilt, there determines the partnerſhip of the owners as to that ſhip: but if a ſhip be ript in parts, taken aſunder in parts, and repaired in parts, there ſhe remains ſtill the ſame veſſel: and it is ſaid, although ſhe has been ſo often repaired, that there does not remain one ſtick of the original fabric. And if a man ſhall repair his ſhip with plank belonging to other perſons; yet the ſhip ſhall maintain and keep her firſt owners: though where a man takes plank and materials that belong to another, and prepared for the uſe of ſhipping, and with them build an entire new ſhip, the property of the veſſel follows the owner of the materials.

And concerning repairs of ſhips, where there is cauſe for it in a voyage, the maſter may take up money to do it; and though he ſpend it another way, the owners and ſhip become liable to the ſatisfaction of the creditor; for as it would be very unreaſonable, that ſuch creditor ſhould be bound to take upon him the care of repairing the ſhip, and ſupply the owners room, which muſt be ſo if it be neceſſary for him to prove that the money was laid out upon the ſame ſhip; ſo, on the other hand, it ſtands with reaſon, that he be ſure he lends his money on ſuch an occaſion, as thereby the maſter's act may oblige the owners, where he knows that the money borrowed was neceſſary for the repair of the ſhip; and therefore if a ſhip want ſome reparation, and a far greater ſum is lent than was needful, the owners ſhall not be liable for the whole.

If any ſhip be taken away from the owners, they may maintain an action of trover and converſion for any part or ſhare.

In the main ſea, or an arm of the ſea, the owners may not loſe their ſhip by any claim of deodand, to be forfeited to the king or lord of the manor, though any body be drowned out of it, or otherwiſe receive their deaths, becauſe on ſuch waters ſhips are by winds and tempeſts unavoidably ſubject to dangers: but a ſhip or veſſel being upon

upon a freſh river, as at Rotherith on the Thames, &c. where there are no ſuch hazards, may become deodand, and forfeited in ſuch caſe.

Where a ſhip is ſold, together with her tackle, furniture, apparel, and appurtenances; by theſe words the ſhip's boat is not conveyed, but that remains ſtill the owner's; and ballaſt is no part of a ſhip's furniture.

The maſter of a ſhip or veſſel is to be choſen by the part-owners in proportion to their concerns, not by the majority; and that man which is moſt able, is to be preferred. As the whole charge of the veſſel and lading are committed to the maſter, the owners ſhould be very careful who they admit to be commander of their ſhip; and he ought to be a perſon of honeſty, as well as ability and experience.

And the law looks upon a maſter as an officer, who muſt give an account for whatever he has under his care and cuſtody, and on failure to render ſatisfaction: therefore, if any misfortune happens by the negligence, wilfulneſs, or ignorance of himſelf or his mariners, he muſt be anſwerable for it. As ſoon as goods and merchandiſe are put aboard the ſhip, whether ſhe be riding in port, haven, or any other part of the ſeas, he that is maſter, or *exercitor navis*, is chargeable therewith; and if the ſame be there loſt or purloined, or ſuſtain any damage, either in the haven or port before, or upon the ſeas, after ſhe is in her voyage, he muſt anſwer the damage; for the very lading of goods on board the ſhip ſubjects the maſter to anſwer the ſame.

Where the maſter is ſubject to anſwer damage, is generally to be underſtood in all ſuch caſes where the lading was brought aboard either by his conſent or his purſer's; for any other, or ſuch goods as ſhall be ſecretly brought in not being entered in his clerk or purſer's book, or in the bills of lading, the maſter ſhall not be compelled to ſee forthcoming; unleſs it be ſuch things as the parties bring into the ſhip about them, as cloaths, money, or the like; which being ſeldom entered, yet moſt commonly are viſible, and the maſter by law is reſponſible for. So likewiſe, if a maſter forewarn a paſſenger to keep his goods, and that he will no way take care of them, and if they be loſt or purloined by the ſhip's crew, he will not be obliged to ſee them forthcoming; here the maſter is not held anſwerable in caſe of a loſs, eſpecially if there be any thing of an agreement concerning it.

But if goods ſhall be ſent aboard a ſhip, and the maſter ſhall appoint a cabin for the ſame, and deliver the key thereof to the lader, and tell him he will not be anſwerable if a loſs happens; yet if the goods are ſtole, he muſt make ſatisfaction. And if a maſter ſhall receive goods at any key, or ſend his boat for them, and they happen to be loſt, he ſhall likewiſe anſwer both by the maritime and common law.

If a maſter commits any offence wilfully, or through negligence, he ſhall be anſwerable to his owners, who may compel him to make ſatisfaction for the damage; and in ſuch caſe they may ſue ſeparately: ſo alſo, if the ſhip has earned freight, and part of the owners have received their parts, and the reſt have not, they may bring an action for their ſhare, without joining with the others.

And when goods are tranſported for hire, and no contract is made with the proprietors of the ſhip, there the maſter is chargeable for the goods in reſpect of his wages; and the owners are ſo in reſpect of their freight, that they receive for the carriage thereof.

It is ſaid, that where goods are once delivered to a maſter, the cargo is not ſubject to be attached in his hands; for they are in law as it were bailed to the ſhip, until the freight and all other charges are paid. And it has been held, that as the maſter or owners of a ſhip may have an action for the freight, either the one or the other are anſwerable, where goods are damaged in a ſhip: but in caſe there are ſeveral owners, and one diſſents from the voyage, he ſhall not be liable to any action afterwards for a miſcarriage, &c.

If goods are ſo embezzled or damnified, that the ſeamen or mariners muſt anſwer, here the owners and maſter are to deduct the amount of the damage out of their freight to the merchants, and the maſters ſhall do it out of the wages of the mariners; for though freight is the mother of wages, it is alſo the very father of damage: and before a mariner can claim his wages out of what the ſhip has earned, the ſhip muſt be acquitted from the damage that the merchant has ſuſtained, by the negligence or fault of the mariners: and the reaſon is, for that the goods being obliged to anſwer the freight, ſo the freight and ſhip are tacitly engaged to clear the damage; and when that is done, the mariners ſhall then be let into their wages.

A maſter of a ſhip has power to freight out the veſſel, take in goods and paſſengers, mend and furniſh the ſhip; and for that purpoſe, if need be, in a ſtrange country, he may borrow money, with advice of his mariners, upon ſome of the tackle, or ſell ſome of the merchandiſe; and if part of the goods ſhall be ſold in ſuch neceſſity, the higheſt price that the remainder are diſpoſed of for muſt be anſwered and paid to the merchant; after which ſuch merchant is to pay for the freight of thoſe goods, as well as for the remaining merchandiſe; but if the ſhip in the voyage happens to be caſt away, then only ſhall be tendered the price that the goods ſo ſold were firſt bought for.

Such is the duty of a maſter of a ſhip that is provident, that he ought not to make ſail, and put forth to ſea, without the conſent of his company; if he does, he ſhall anſwer the damages ariſing thereby. And he is not to ſet ſail without a ſufficient number of able mariners; nor in tempeſtuous weather; neither muſt he ſtay in port or harbour, without juſt cauſe, when a fair wind invites his departure: alſo, he muſt not proceed in his voyage with inſufficient rigging or tackle, or with other or fewer cables than is uſual and requiſite, reſpect being had to the burthen of the veſſel; and if any damage happens by the delivery of the goods into the lighter, as that the ropes break and the like, there he muſt anſwer; but if the lighter comes to the wharf, and then in taking up the goods a rope breaks, the wharfinger is liable.

If a commander of a ſhip ſhall break ground, or endeavour to ſail away, after an embargo is laid upon ſhipping by the ſtate, he ſhall be anſwerable for all damage which ſhall accrue. The reaſon is, becauſe his freight is due, and muſt be paid, though his goods be ſeiſed. He ought not to refuſe payment of the juſt and ordinary duties and port-charges, to the hazard of any of his lading; but if the officers inſiſt upon more than is due, and he offers what is juſt, and which he ought to pay, then he ſhall be excuſed. If by the maſter's default, confiſcation of goods or other damage happen, for non-payment of cuſtoms, or falſe bills of entry in the cuſtom-houſe, or for tranſporting of unlawful merchandiſe, the maſter ſhall anſwer for the ſame, with the intereſt. But concerning the ſuing for ſuch goods, the maſter may well do it; and notwithſtanding, if it be found that the merchant is in any fault, then if the maſter and four of his mariners ſwear that there was no fault in them, he will be cleared thereby.

The maſter of a ſhip, taking linen or cloths aboard, ſhall provide good canvas, leſt the goods be damaged: he muſt not overlade the ſhip above the birth-mark, or take into his ſhip any perſons of an obſcure and unknown condition without letters of ſafe conduct: nor ought he to lade any of his merchants goods on board the ſhip of an enemy, though his own ſhip be in diſtreſs, without ſuch letters of ſafe conduct; for if he does, the ſame may be made prize, and he muſt make good the damage. And he muſt not lade any prohibited goods; in which caſe, he is not only anſwerable, but alſo for any damage happening by any unreaſonable ſtowing or breaking of goods, and therein he and his company may be put to their oath. He ought not to ſhip any merchandiſes, but only at the public ports and keys; and he may not make uſe of any unlawful colours, enſigns, pendants, jacks, or flags, whereby his ſhip or lading would be ſubject to ſeiſure.

He may not deviate in his courſe, without good cauſe, or ſteer a dangerous and unuſual way, when he can have a more ſecure paſſage; though, to avoid illegal impoſitions,

poſitions, it is ſaid he may ſomewhat change his cour nor may he ſail by places infeſted with pirates, enemies, &c. or notoriouſly known to be unſafe; or near rocks, or remarkable ſands, if he be not thereto neceſſitated by violence of wind and weather, or deluded by falſe lights. He ſhall not ſneak into the creeks, or other places, when laden homewards, but come directly into the king's great ports, unleſs he be driven in by tempeſt; for in ſuch caſe he would incur a forfeiture of the merchandiſe, and is obliged to anſwer.

If ſeveral ſhips are in company on the ſame voyage, the maſters are obliged, by the marine laws, to ſtay for one another; or ſhall be liable to the damages that the others ſhall ſuſtain from an enemy, or pirates.

A maſter is to deliver to the owners the names of all the perſons which he is to tranſport, and of his mariners, before he departs the kingdom; and at his return ſhall cauſe a true inventory of the goods of any perſon which ſhall happen to die, to be delivered to them, that his kindred and friends may have intelligence of it, and the goods may be ſafe and forthcoming for one whole year: but of theſe goods, in the mean time, the bedding and appurtenances may be taken by the maſter and mate to their uſes; as alſo the cloathing, and other things upon the deceaſed's body, may be delivered to the boatſman and the company. The maſter ſhall keep his company in peace; and if any ſeaman ſhall be hurt in doing ſervice, he muſt take care that he be healed; and, if done by his companion, the charges ſhall be recovered of the other mariner. In caſe a mariner falls ſick, the maſter ſhall order him to be laid in a houſe, with all ſuſtentation neceſſary and uſual in the ſhip, but ſhall not ſtay until he recovers; and when he is recovered to health, muſt pay him his wages; or, if he dies, ſhall give it to the wife, or his neareſt friends.

If the mariners want money during the voyage, the maſter ought to lend it them; but he ſhall not be anſwerable for the contracts of his men, for in ſuch caſe they may be detained. He ought to give his mariners fleſh three days a week, and the other days fiſh, or ſuch like victuals, with ſufficient drink. If through the maſter's fault the ſhip-boat periſh, with any mariners in it, then ſhall the maſter pay one whole year's hire to the heirs or executors of the perſons drowned.

On a ſhip's arrival ſafe in port, a maſter is firſt to ſee that the ſhip be well moored and anchored; and then he muſt not relade or ſet ſail again, until he has been legally cleared, ſo as to have made ſatisfaction for damage, if any happened by default of him or his men, &c.

By acts paſſed in the 5th, 6th, and 9th of George I. and 2d George II. ſhips inwards of 50 tons or under, laden with cuſtomable and prohibited goods, hovering on the coaſts within the limits of any port, or if laden with brandy within two leagues of the ſhore, pretending to be bound to foreign parts, and not proceeding on their voyages, the maſter may be compelled to give ſecurity in treble the value of the goods, to proceed, and to land them in foreign parts: on default whereof, unleſs permitted by the collector to make a longer ſtay, which muſt not exceed 20 days, the goods muſt be ſecured, and the duties paid; or if they are wool, or ſuch goods as are prohibited, they will be forfeited.

After the goods are brought on ſhore, and ſecured by the officers, the bond muſt be delivered up; or, if not brought on ſhore, upon producing a certificate under the common ſeal of the chief magiſtrate of any place beyond the ſeas, or under the hands and ſeals of two known Britiſh merchants there reſiding, teſtifying the landing, or upon due proof that the goods were taken by enemies, or periſhed at ſea, the ſaid bond is to be vacated and diſcharged.

Maſters of ſuch ſhips ſuffering foreign goods to be put out, or wool, wool-fells, mortlings, ſhortlings, yarn made of wool, wool-flocks, fuller's earth, fulling clay, or tobacco-plpe clay, to be taken in; beſides former penalties, are to ſuffer ſix months impriſonment, without bail or mainprize.

The tonnage of ſuch ſhips is to be meaſured and aſcertained by the following rule: Take the length of the keel within board, ſo much as ſhe treads on the ground; and the breadth within board by the midſhip beam, from plank to plank, and half the breadth for the depth; then multiply the length by the breadth, and that product by the depth, and divide the whole by 94, the quotient will give the true contents of the tonnage.

By the ſtatutes of the 28th of Edward III. and 20th of Richard II. ſhips of foreigners, freighted towards Great Britain, or elſewhere, may not be compelled to come into any port of Great Britain, nor to tarry there againſt the wills of the maſters, &c.; and if ſuch ſhips come voluntarily, or be driven in, part of the goods may be delivered, and the duties paid, and the ſhips be permitted to proceed with the remainder, where the maſters, &c. pleaſe, without payment of duties.

By the ſtatute of the 13th and 14th of Charles II. ſhips inwards arriving in the port of London from foreign parts, may not be above three days in coming from Graveſend to the place of diſcharge, without touching or ſtaying at any wharf, key, &c. adjoining to either ſhore between Graveſend and Cheſter's key, unleſs apparently hindered by contrary winds, &c. or other juſt impediment, to be allowed by the principal officers of the cuſtoms; and in the out-ports, they muſt come directly up to the place of unlading, upon forfeiture of 100 l.

Upon, or before their arrival, and before any goods are unladen, the maſters or purſers for that voyage muſt, upon oath, make a juſt and true entry of the burthen, contents, and lading of their ſhips, with the particular marks, numbers, qualities, and contents of every parcel of goods on board, to the beſt of their knowledge; alſo where laden, of what country built, how manned, who was maſter during the voyage, and who are owners; and muſt anſwer all queſtions concerning the ſame, that ſhall be demanded by the cuſtomer, &c. upon forfeiture of 100 l.

And upon making ſuch declaration upon oath before any two principal officers of the port, bulk may be broke in any port allowed by law, and duty paid for no more goods than are entered and landed: but, upon arrival at the next port, declaration muſt likewiſe be made upon oath, before the cuſtomer, collector, comptroller, or ſurveyor, or two of them, of the quantity and quality of the goods landed at the firſt port, and to whom they did belong.

Ships of war from parts beyond the ſeas, having any goods on board, may not unlade them till the captain has ſignified under his hand, to the cuſtomer, or collector and comptroller inwards, the names of every importer, with the marks, numbers, quantity, and quality of every parcel of goods; and has anſwered upon oath to ſuch queſtions as ſhall be demanded by the ſaid officers, upon forfeiture of 100 l.

Such ſhips are liable to all ſearches and rules as merchant-ſhips are ſubject to, except victualling bills and entring.

Captains refuſing to make ſuch entries, as well inwards as outwards, the officers may bring all cuſtomable and prohibited goods on ſhore to the king's ſtorehouſe.

The maſters of any ſhips from foreign parts ſuffering any package to be opened, and the goods embezzled, carried away, or put into any other form or package, after the ſhip comes into the port of diſcharge, are to forfeit 100 l.

Or knowing of, or conſenting to the unſhipping of any goods inwards, without a warrant, and the preſence of an officer, are to forfeit the value of the goods.

By the ſame ſtatute of the 13th and 14th Cha. II. ſhips outwards, bound for parts beyond the ſeas, may not take in any Britiſh goods, till ſuch ſhips are entered by the maſters in the book of the cuſtomer or collector, and comptroller outwards, with the burthens, the maſters names, the number of guns and ammunition, and to what place bound.

Before departure out of the port, the maſters are to bring to the ſaid officers, a content in writing, under their hands, of the names of every exporter, with the marks and numbers of the goods; and are, upon oath, to anſwer publickly in the cuſtomhouſe to ſuch queſtions as ſhall be demanded concerning the ſame, upon forfeiture of 100 l.

By the ſtatute of the 8th of Queen Anne, ſhips bound to Ireland

Ireland with certificate-goods, the maſters muſt take with them a duplicate of their contents in writing, certified under the hands and ſeals of the collector and comptroller of the port in Great Britain, in order to be delivered to the officers of the cuſtoms in Ireland.

By the 5th and 9th of George I. and 2d of George II. the maſters ſuffering the package of any foreign goods to be opened on board, or put into any other form or package, or unſhipped whilſt the ſhip remains in port, without leave of the principal officers, are to forfeit 100 l. and to ſuffer ſix months impriſonment, without bail or mainpriſe.

Ships may not be detained by the officers above three tides after their arrival at Graveſend, and in the out-ports not above one tide, after they are ready to ſail, upon forfeiture of office, and rendering damage to the merchant and owner.

By the 1ſt of James II. ſhips coaſtwiſe, foreign built ſhips ſo employed, are to pay at the port of diſcharge, for every voyage 5 s. *per* ton; one moiety for the uſe of the cheſt at Chatham, and the other moiety to the Trinity houſe at Deptford-Strond.

By the 12th, 13th, and 14th of Charles II. Britiſh built ſhips, which any where in the book of rates are deſigned to entitle the importers or exporters of goods to any abatement or privilege, are to be underſtood, ſhips built in Great Britain, Ireland, Guernſey, Jerſey, or the Britiſh plantations in Aſia, Africa, or America, and whereof the maſter, and at leaſt 3-4ths of the mariners, are Britiſh; that is, his Majeſty's ſubjects of Great Britain, Ireland, or the ſaid plantations; and have been ſo during the whole voyage, unleſs in caſe of ſickneſs, death, &c.

But by the 1ſt of William and Mary, Britiſh ſhips laden with corn entitled to the bounty, may be ſailed with the maſter, and at leaſt 2-3ds of the mariners, his Majeſty's ſubjects.

Foreign-built ſhips are not to be deemed or paſs as ſhips belonging to Great Britain or Ireland, till the owner has made it appear to the chief officer of the cuſtoms, in the port next to his abode, that he is not an alien; and has made oath before the ſaid officer, that ſuch ſhips were *bona fide*, and without fraud, by him bought for a valuable conſideration, expreſſing the ſum, as alſo the time, place, and perſons from whom bought, and who are his part-owners, if any, all which part owners are alſo liable to the ſame oath; and that no foreigner, directly or indirectly, hath any part, intereſt, or ſhare therein: whereupon the officer is to grant a certificate under his hand and ſeal, which he is to regiſter, and return a duplicate thereof to the chief officers of the cuſtoms in London, with the names of the ſeller and part-owners, and the ſum paid.

But foreign-built ſhips, that is, not built in any of his Majeſty's dominions of Aſia, Africa, or America, are not to enjoy the privilege of ſhips belonging to Great Britain or Ireland, although owned or manned by Britiſh; except ſuch ſhips as are taken at ſea by letters of mart or repriſal, and condemned as lawful prize in the court of admiralty; but are to be deemed aliens ſhips, and to be liable to aliens duties.

Officers of the cuſtoms may not allow foreign-built ſhips, the privilege of ſhips Britiſh built, or belonging to Great Britain or Ireland, until a certificate be produced, or proof of the property be made, or until examination whether the maſter and 3-4ths of the mariners are Britiſh; nor allow a foreign-built ſhip the privilege of bringing in goods of the growth of the country where it was built, till examination and proof; upon forfeiture of office.

Governors of the Britiſh plantations may not ſuffer foreign-built ſhips to lade or unlade any goods, till certificate be produced, and examination be made, whether the maſter and 3-4ths of the mariners are Britiſh, upon forfeiture of government.

Ships belonging to his Majeſty's ſubjects of Scotland, though foreign-built, if regiſtered upon oath, are to be deemed as of the built of Great Britain.

By the 5th of Queen Anne, a duplicate of the regiſter is to be tranſmitted to the chief officers of the cuſtoms in Edinburgh, and from thence to the port of London, in order to be entered in the general regiſter of all ſhips belonging to Great Britain.

By the 38th of Edward III. ſhips are not to be loſt or forfeited for a ſmall thing put therein, not cuſtomed, without the owner's knowledge.

By the 28th of Henry VI. ſhips arreſted for unlawful cauſe; the officer being convicted thereof, forfeits 40 l. to be ſued for within two months.

By the 5th of George I. ſhips wilfully caſt away, burnt, or otherwiſe deſtroyed, to the prejudice of the inſurers, or of the merchant that ſhall load goods thereon; the maſters, owners, &c. directing or procuring the ſame, are to ſuffer death.

SHIPBUILDER. See *Shipwright*.

SHIPBUILDING, or *Shipcarpentry*, is that which teaches the conſtruction of ſhips, galleys, and other floating veſſels, for the water, with ports, moles, docks, and the like, on the ſhore. See *Shipwright*.

SHIP-*money*. An impoſition anciently charged upon the ports, towns, cities, boroughs, and counties of the realm, by writs commonly called ſhipwrits, under the great ſeal of England, for the providing and furniſhing certain ſhips for the king's ſervice.

This impoſition was revived by Charles I. in the years 1635 and 1636; but, by the ſtatute of the 17th of the ſame king, it was declared to be contrary to the laws and ſtatutes of the realm, the claim of rights, and the liberty of the ſubjects.

SHIPPER, or *Skipper*. A Dutch term ſignifying the maſter of a ſhip; but the word is alſo popularly uſed for any ſeaman.

SHIPWRECK. See *Wreck*.

SHIPWRIGHT, *Shipbuilder*, or *Shipcarpenter*. An artificer, whoſe buſineſs it is to build ſhips, or veſſels, to convey perſons or goods from one part of the world to the other, on or through the ſea or water.

SHIPWRIGHTS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 7th of Charles I. dated the 23d of May 1631, by the name of The maſter, wardens, and commonalty of the art or myſtery of ſhipwrights, London; whoſe fraternity conſiſts of a maſter, 2 wardens, and 16 aſſiſtants; but without either livery or hall; the latter whereof, which anciently ſtood at Ratcliff-croſs, being gone, they occaſionally meet at different places to tranſact their affairs.

SHOAL, in the ſea-phraſe, is the ſame as ſhallow, and is applied to flats in the water. They ſay it is good ſhoaling, when a ſhip ſailing towards the ſhore, they find by her ſounding it grows ſhallower and ſhallower by degrees, and not too ſuddenly, for then the ſhip goes in ſafety.

SHOALED. The miners term in the tin-mines, for thoſe fragments of ore, which by rains and currents of water, are torn off from the load, or veins of ore, that are waſhed down from the mountains; and by finding them they gueſs where to look for a load of ore.

SHOE. A covering for the foot, uſually of leather. See *Leather*.

SHOEMAKER. See *Cordwainer*.

SHOPKEEPER. A perſon who rents, and conſtantly attends, in an open ſhop, to ſell goods, particularly in the retail way.

SHORT *ſails*, in a man of war, are the ſame with fighting ſails, being the fore-ſail, main-ſail, and fore-top-ſail; which are all that are uſed in fight, leſt the reſt ſhould be fired and ſpoiled, beſides the trouble of managing them when a ſhip gives chaſe to another. If a chaſe has a mind to fight, they ſay the chaſe ſtrips into her ſhort ſails; that is, puts out her colours in the poop, her flag at the main-top, and her ſtreamers, or pendants, at the yard-arms, furls her ſprit-ſail, peeks her mizzen, and ſlings her main-yard.

SHOT, in the military art, includes all ſorts of ball or bullets for fire-arms, from the cannon to the piſtol; but thoſe for cannon are of iron; thoſe for muſkets, carabines, and piſtols, are of lead.

SHOT, for ordnance, eſpecially in the ſea-ſervice, are of ſeveral ſorts; as,

Round SHOT. Bullets fitted to the bore of the piece.

Bar SHOT. Two bullets, or rather half bullets joined together, by an iron bar, ſerving to cut down maſts and ſails; as alſo,

Caſe SHOT.

Chain-SHOT.

Langrel-SHOT.

Random-SHOT. And

Trundle-SHOT.

SHOT, for fowling, is otherwiſe called *hail*, by reaſon of the figure and ſize.

SHOTTEN *herring*. See *Herring*.

SHROWDS, or *Shrouds*, are great ropes in a ſhip, which go upon both ſides of all maſts, except the bowſprit.

They are faſtened below by chains to the ſhip's ſides, and aloft over the head of the maſt; their pennants, fore-tackle, and ſwifters, being firſt put under them; and they are ſewed there, to prevent their galling the maſt. The top-maſt ſhrowds are faſtened to the puttocks, by plates of iron, and by dead mens eyes, and lanniers alſo, as the others are.

The terms are, eaſe the ſhrouds, that is, ſlacken them. Set taught the ſhrowds, that is, ſet them faſter.

SHRUB. A little, low, dwarf tree, or a woody plant, of a ſize leſs than a tree; which, beſides its principal ſtem and branches, frequently from the ſame root puts forth ſeveral other conſiderable ſets or ſtems. Such are privet, phyllerea, holly, box, honey-ſuckle, and hundreds more.

Shrubs and trees put forth in autumn a kind of buttons, or gems, in the axis of the leaves: theſe buttons are as ſo many little ova, which coming to expand by the warmth of the following ſpring, open into leaves and flowers. By this, together with the height, ſome diſtinguiſh ſhrubs from ſuffrutices, or under-ſhrubs; which are low buſhes, that put forth none of theſe buttons; as roſemary, thyme, and others of the like nature.

SHUTTLE, in the manufactures. An inſtrument uſed by the weavers, which, with a thread it contains, either of woollen, ſilk, flax, or other matter, ſerves to form the woofs of ſtuffs, cloths, linens, and ribbands, by throwing the ſhuttle alternately from left to right, and from right to left, acroſs between the threads of the warp, which are ſtretched out lengthwiſe on the loom.

In the middle of the ſhuttle is a kind of cavity, called the eye or chamber of the ſhuttle; wherein is incloſed the ſpoul, which is a part of the thread for the woof, and is wound on a little tube of paper, ruſh, or other matter.

The ribband-weaver's ſhuttle is very different from that of moſt other weavers, though it ſerves for the ſame purpoſe. It is made of box, ſix or ſeven inches long, one broad, and as much deep; ſhod with iron at both ends, which terminate in points, and are a little crooked; the one towards the right, and the other towards the left, repreſenting the figure of an S horizontally placed.

SIAGBANDER, is a term in Perſia for the receiver of the duties of importation and exportation, paid for merchandiſe throughout the whole extent of the kingdom.

SIAM. A kingdom of India, extending from the firſt to the 25th degree of N. lat. and lying between 96 and 104 degrees of E. lon. See *India*.

SIBIT. A town of Arabia Felix, 370 miles S. of Mecca, and 115 miles north of Moco, ſituated in 45 deg. of E. lon. and 15 deg. of N. lat.

SICILIQUA. A ſmall weight, uſed by apothecaries, weighing 1 ſextula and 2 ſcruples. See *Sextula*.

SICILY. The largeſt of the Italian iſlands, ſituated between 12 and 16 degrees of E. lon. and between 37 and 39 deg. of N. lat. being about 170 miles long, and 100 broad. See *Italy*.

SICK *herring*. See *Herring*.

SIDEN. A port-town of Arabia, ſituated on the E. ſhore of the Red ſea, in 45 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 21 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. being the port town to Mecca, and ſubject to the Arabs.

SIDER. See *Cyder*.

SIDMOUTH. A port-town of Devon, ſituated on a bay of the Engliſh channel, 10 miles S. E. of Exeter, in 3 deg. 27 min. of W. lon. and 50 deg. 40 min. of N. lat.

SIDON, or *Sayd*. A port-town of Paleſtine in Aſiatic Turky, ſituated on the Levant ſea, in 36 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 33 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. lying 70 miles S. of Tripoli, and as many N. of Jeruſalem. See *Turky*.

SIDRA. An iſland of the Turkiſh Archipelago, lying in the 24th deg. of E. lon. and 37th deg. of N. lat. at the entrance of the gulph of Napoli de Romania, ſubject to Turky.

SIDRA. A ſpacious gulph, or bay, on the coaſt of Barbary, in the kingdom of Tripoli in Africa.

SIERRA LEON. A fort at the mouth of the river Sierra Leon, on the coaſt of Guinea, in Africa, ſituated in 14 deg. of W. lon. and 50 deg. of N. lat. which was once in the poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, who abandoned it.

SIEVE. An inſtrument ſerving to ſeparate the fine from the coarſe parts of powders, liquors, and the like; or to cleanſe pulſe from duſt and light grains: it is made of a rim of wood; the circle or ſpace whereof is filled with a tiſſue of ſilk, tiffany, linen, hair, wire, or even thin ſlices of wood.

The ſieves that have large holes are ſometimes alſo called riddles; ſuch is the coal ſieve, lime ſieve, and garden ſieve. When drugs, apt to evaporate, are to be paſſed through the ſieve, it is uſually covered with a lid.

SIGILLATA *Terra*. A kind of earth or bole, dug in the iſle of Lemnos; and thence alſo called Lemnian earth; of conſiderable uſe in painting and medicine.

It is of different colours, but moſt commonly red, heavy, ſoft, and friable; held very aſtringent, and, on that account, uſed in hæmorrhages; as alſo againſt the plague and poiſons. Pliny attributes ſeveral other virtues, which experience does not juſtify, nor is it in that eſteem it anciently was; yet it is ſtill an ingredient in Venice treacle.

This earth was anciently found in a mountain, in the neighbourhood of the city Hephæſtia; where Diana's prieſts went at certain times, with great ceremony, to dig it up. After a little preparation, they made it up into troches, and ſealed them with Diana's ſeal; whence the appellation of Sigillata. It is now brought from Conſtantinople in little flat cakes, round on one ſide, flat and ſealed on the other. See *Bole*.

SIGN. A painted device to diſtinguiſh the ſhops of tradeſmen; being commonly of wood, and ſometimes of pewter.

In the 14th year of Charles I. a royal charter was granted to the citizens of London, by which, among other privileges mentioned therein, to the ſaid mayor and commonalty, and citizens of the ſaid city, or any of them, and their ſucceſſors, they had full liberty and licence, to expoſe and hang in, and over the ſtreets, ways, and alleys of the ſaid city, and ſuburbs of the ſame, ſigns, and poſts of ſigns affixed to their houſes and ſhops; for the better finding out ſuch citizens dwellings, ſhops, arts, and occupations, without impediment, moleſtation, or interruption of his Majeſty's perſon, attendance, his heirs or ſucceſſors, or any officers or miniſters whatſoever of his ſaid Majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors.

SIGNAL. A certain ſign agreed upon, for conveying intelligence where the voice cannot reach.

Signals are given for the beginning of a battle, or an attack; uſually with drums and trumpets; at ſea they are given by cannon, or muſquet ſhot, by lights, ſails, and flags. See *Salutation*.

SIGNALS *at ſea*, are ſigns made by the Admiral, or commander in chief of a ſquadron of ſhips, either in the day or by night, whether for ſailing, for fighting, or the better ſecurity of merchant-ſhips under convoy. Theſe ſignals are very numerous and important, being all appointed and determined by order of the Lord High Admiral, or Lords of the Admiralty, and communicated in the inſtructions ſent to the commander of every ſhip of the fleet or ſquadron, before their putting out to ſea.

SIGNALS *by day*. When the commander in chief would have them prepare for ſailing, he firſt looſes his fore-top ſail, and then the whole fleet are to do the ſame. When he would have them unmoor, he looſes his main top-ſail and

and fires a gun; which in the royal navy is to be answered by every flag ſhip, and every ſhip to get to ſail as ſoon as it can. If with the leeward-ſide, the ſtern-moſt ſhip is to weigh firſt. When he would have the weather-moſt and head-moſt ſhips tack firſt, he hoiſts the union flag at the fore-top-maſt head, and fires a gun, which each flag-ſhip anſwers; but if he would have the ſtern-moſt and leeward-moſt ſhips to tack firſt, he hoiſts the union-flag at the mizzen-top-maſt head, and fires a gun; and when he would have all the whole fleet tack, he hoiſts an union, both on the fore and mizzen top-maſt heads, and fires a gun. When in bad weather, he would have them wear, and bring to the other tack, he hoiſts a pendant on the enſign ſtaff, and fires a gun: and then the leeward-moſt and ſternmoſt ſhips are to wear firſt, and bring on the other tack, and lie by, or go on with an eaſy ſail, till he comes a head: every flag is to anſwer with the ſame ſignal. If they are lying by, or ſailing by a wind, and the Admiral would have them bear up and ſail before the wind, he hoiſts his enſign, and fires a gun, which the flags are to anſwer: and then the leeward-moſt ſhips are to bear up firſt, and to give room for the weathermoſt to wear, and ſail before the wind with an eaſy ſail, till the admiral comes a head. But if it ſhould happen when the admiral has occaſion to wear and ſail before the wind, that both jack and enſign be abroad, he will haul down the jack before he fires the gun to wear, and keep it down till the fleet is before the wind. When they are ſailing before the wind, and he would have them bring to, with the ſtar-board tacks abroad, he hoiſts a red flag at the flag ſtaff, on the mizen-top-maſt head, and fires a gun. But if they are to bring to with the larboard tack, he hoiſts a blue flag at the ſame place, and fires a gun, and every ſhip is to anſwer the gun. When any ſhip diſcovers land, he is to hoiſt his jack and enſign, and keep it abroad, till the admiral or commander in chief anſwer him, by hoiſting his; on ſight of which he is to haul down his enſign. If any diſcovers danger, he is to tack and bear up from it, and to hang his jack abroad from the main-top-maſt-croſs-trees, and fire two guns: but if he ſhould ſtrike or ſtick faſt, then, beſides the ſame ſignal with his jack, he is to keep firing, till he ſees all the fleet obſerve him, and endeavour to avoid the danger. When any ſees a ſhip or ſhips more than the fleet, he is to put abroad his enſign, and there keep it till the Admiral's is out, and then to lower it, as often as he ſees ſhips, and ſtand in with them, that ſo the Admiral may know which way they are, and how many; but if he be at ſuch a diſtance, that the enſign cannot well be diſcovered, he is then to lay his head towards the ſhip or ſhips ſo deſcryed, and to brail up his low ſails, and continue hoiſting and lowering his top ſails, and making a waſt with his top-gallant ſails, till he is perceived by the Admiral. When the Admiral would have the Vice-admiral, or he that commands in the ſecond poſt of the fleet, to ſend out ſhips to chaſe, he hoiſts a flag, ſtriped with white and red on the flag-ſtaff, at the fore-top-maſt head, and fires a gun. But if he would have the Rear-admiral do ſo, he then hoiſts the ſame ſignal on the flag-ſtaff, at the mizen-top-maſt head, and fires a gun. When the Admiral would have any ſhip chaſe to windward, he makes a ſignal for ſpeaking with the captain, and hoiſts a red flag in the mizzen ſhrouds, and fires a gun: but if to chaſe to leeward, a blue flag; and the ſame ſignal is made by the flag, in whoſe diviſion that ſhip is. When he would have them give over chaſe, he hoiſts a white flag on his flag-ſtaff, at the fore-top-maſt head, and fires a gun: which ſignal is to be made alſo by that flag-ſhip which is neareſt the ſhip that gives chaſe, till the chaſing ſhip ſees the ſignal. In caſe of ſpringing a leak, or any other diſaſter, that diſables their ſhip from keeping company, they are to hawl up their courſes, and fire two guns. When any ſhip would ſpeak with the Admiral, he muſt ſpread an Engliſh enſign, from the head of his main, or fore-top-maſt, and keep firing guns till the Admiral obſerves him; and if any ſhip perceive this, and judges the Admiral does not, that ſhip muſt make the ſame ſignal, and make the beſt of his way to acquaint the admiral therewith, who will anſwer by firing one gun. When the admiral would have the fleet prepare to anchor, he hoiſts an enſign ſtriped red, blue and white, on the enſign-ſtaff, and fires a gun; and every flag-ſhip makes the ſame ſignal. If he would have the fleet moor, he hoiſts his mizen-top-ſail, with the clew lines hawled up, and fires a gun. If he would have the fleet cut or ſlip, he looſes both his top-ſails, and fires two guns, and then the leeward ſhips are to cut or ſlip firſt, to give room to the weathermoſt to come to ſail. So if he would have any particular ſhip to cut or ſlip, and to chaſe to windward, he makes the ſignal for ſpeaking with that ſhip; hoiſts a red flag in the mizzen-ſhrouds, and fires a gun: but if the ſhip is to chace to leeward, he hoiſts a blue flag as before. If he would have the fleet exerciſe their ſmall arms, he hoiſts a red flag on the enſign-ſtaff, and fires a gun; but if the great guns, then he puts up a pendant over the red flag.

SIGNALS *by night*, to be obſerved at anchor, weighing anchor, and ſailing, are as follow. When the Admiral would have the fleet to unmoor, and ride ſhort, he hangs out three lights, one over another in the main-top-maſt ſhrouds, over the conſtant light in the main-top, and fires two guns, which are to be anſwered by flag ſhips: but all guns fired for ſignals in the night muſt be fired on the ſame ſide, that they may make no alteration in the ſound. When he would have them weigh, he hangs a light in the main-top-maſt-ſhrowds, and fires a gun, which is to be anſwered by all the flags, and every private ſhip muſt hang out a light in his mizen ſhroud. When he would have them tack, he hoiſts two flags on the enſign-ſtaff, one over another, above the conſtant light in his poop, and fires a gun, which is to be anſwered by all the flags, and every private ſhip is to hang out a light extraordinary, which is not to be taken in till the Admiral takes in his: After the ſignal is made, the leeward-moſt and ſtern-moſt ſhips muſt tack as faſt as they can, and the ſtern-moſt flag-ſhip, after he is about on the other tack is to lead the fleet, and him they are to follow, to avoid running through one another in the dark. When he is upon a wind, and would have the fleet veer, and bring to on the other tack, he hoiſts up one light at the mizen-peek, and fires three guns, which are to be anſwered by all the flag-ſhips, and every private ſhip muſt anſwer with one light at the mizen-peek. The ſtern-moſt and leeward-moſt ſhips are to bear up as ſoon as the ſignal is made. When he would have them, in blowing weather, to lie a try, ſhort, or a hull, or with the head-ſails braced to the maſt, he will form lights of equal height, and fire five guns, which are to be anſwered by the flag-ſhips, and then every private ſhip muſt ſhew four lights: and after this, if he would have them to make ſail, he then fires ten guns, which are to be anſwered by all the flags, and then the head-moſt and weather-moſt ſhips are to make ſail firſt. When the fleet is ſailing large, or before the wind, and the admiral would have them bring to, and lie by with their ſtarboard tacks aboard, he puts out four lights in the fore-ſhrouds, and fires ſix guns; but if with the larboard tacks aboard, he fires eight guns, which are to be anſwered by the flag-ſhips; and every private ſhip muſt ſhew four lights. The windward ſhip muſt bring to firſt. Whenever the Admiral alters his courſe, he fires one gun, without altering his lights, which is to be anſwered by all the flag-ſhips. If any ſhip has occaſion to lie ſhort, or by, after the fleet has made ſail, he is to fire one gun, and ſhew three lights in his mizen ſhrouds. When any one firſt diſcovers land, or danger, he is to ſhew as many lights as he can, to fire one gun, and to tack, or bear away from it: and if any one happens to ſpring a leak, or any be diſabled from keeping company with the fleet, he hangs out two lights of equal height, and fires guns till he is relieved by ſome ſhip of the fleet. If any one diſcovers a fleet, he is to fire guns, make falſe fires, put one light out on the main-top, three on the poop, to ſteer after them, and to continue firing of guns, unleſs the admiral calls him off, by ſteering another courſe, and fire two or three guns; for then he muſt follow the admiral. When the admiral anchors, he fires two guns, a ſmall ſpace of time one from the other, which are to be anſwered by the flag-ſhips; and every

private ſhip muſt ſhew two lights. When the admiral would have the fleet to moor, he puts a light on each top-maſt head, and fires a gun, which is to be anſwered by the flag-ſhips, and every private ſhip is to ſhew one light. If he would have them lower their yards, and top-maſts, he hoiſts one light on his enſign ſtaff, and fires one gun; which is to be anſwered by the flag-ſhips, and every private ſhip is to ſhew one light. When he would have them hoiſt their yards and top-maſts, he puts out two lights, one under the other, in the mizen top-maſt ſhrouds, and fires one gun, which is to be anſwered by the flag-ſhips, and each private ſhip muſt ſhew one light in the mizen-ſhrouds. If any ſtrange ſhip be diſcovered coming into the fleet, the next ſhip is to endeavour to ſpeak to her, and bring her to an anchor, ſo as not ſuffer her to paſs through the fleet. And if any one diſcovers a fleet, and it blow ſo hard that he cannot come to give the admiral notice timely, he is to hang out a great number of lights, and to continue firing gun after gun, till the admiral anſwers him with one. When the admiral would have the fleet to cut or ſlip, he hangs out four lights, one at each main-yard-arm, and at each fore-yard-arm, and fires two guns, which are to be anſwered by the flag-ſhips, and every private ſhip is to ſhew one light.

SIGNALS *uſed when a fleet ſails in a fog.* If the admiral would have them weigh, he fires ten guns; which every flag ſhip is to anſwer. To make them tack, he fires four guns, which are to be anſwered by the flag-ſhips, and then the leeward-moſt and ſtern-moſt ſhips muſt tack firſt, and after they are about, to go with the ſame ſail they tacked with, and not to lie by, expecting the admiral to come a-head: and this is to avoid the danger of running thro' one another in thick weather.

When the admiral brings to, and lies with his head ſails to the maſt; if with the ſtarboard tack aboard, he fires ſix guns; but if with the larboard tack, he fires eight guns, which the flag ſhips are to anſwer. And after this, if he makes ſail, he fires ten guns, which the flag-ſhips muſt anſwer; and then the headmoſt and weathermoſt ſhips are to make ſail firſt. If it grow thick and foggy weather, the admiral will continue ſailing, with the ſame ſail ſet, that he had before it grew foggy, and will fire a gun every hour, which the flag ſhips muſt anſwer, and the private ſhips muſt anſwer by firing of muſquets, beating of drums, and ringing of bells: but if he be forced to make either more or leſs ſail than he had, when the fog began, he will fire a gun every half hour, that the fleet may diſcern whether they come up with the admiral, or fall a ſtern of him; and the flags and private ſhips are to anſwer as before. If any one diſcovers danger, which he can avoid, by tacking and ſtanding from it, he is to make the ſignal for tacking in a fog; but if he ſhould chance to ſtrike and ſtick faſt, he is to fire gun after gun, till he thinks the reſt have avoided the danger. When the admiral would have the fleet to anchor, he fires two guns, which the flags are to anſwer, and after he has been half an hour at an anchor, he will fire two guns more, to be anſwered by the flags, as before, that all the fleet may know it.

SIGNALS *for calling officers on board the admiral.* When the admiral puts aboard an union flag in the mizen ſhrouds, and fires a gun, all the captains are to come aboard him: and if with the ſame ſignal, there be alſo a waft made with the enſign; then the lieutenant of every ſhip is to come on board. If an enſign be put aboard in the ſame place, all the maſters of the ſhips of war are to come on board the admiral. If a ſtandard on the flag-ſtaff be hoiſted at the mizen-top-maſt-head, and a gun fired, then all the flag-officers are to come aboard the admiral. If the Engliſh flags only; then a ſtandard in the mizen-ſhrouds, and fire a gun: if the flag, and land general officers; then the admiral puts aboard a ſtandard at the mizen top-maſt-head, a pendant at the mizen-peek, and fires a gun. If a red flag be hoiſted in the mizen ſhrouds, and a gun fired; then the captains of his own ſquadron are to come aboard the admiral; and if, with the ſame ſignal, there be alſo a waft with the enſign, the lieutenant of each ſhip muſt come aboard. If he hoiſts a white flag, as before, then the vice-admiral, or he that commands in the ſecond poſt, and all the captains of his ſquadron, are to go on board the admiral: if a blue flag, then the rear-admiral, and the captains of his ſquadron, muſt come aboard; and if a waft as before, the lieutenants, and all of the reſt. When a ſtandard is hoiſted on the enſign ſtaff, and a gun fired, the vice and rear admirals muſt come aboard the admiral's ſhip. When the admiral would ſpeak with the captains of his own diviſion, he will hoiſt a pendant on the mizen-peek, and fire a gun; and if, with the lieutenants, a waft is made with the enſign, and the ſame ſignal: for whenever he would ſpeak with the lieutenants of any particular ſhip, he makes a ſignal for the captain, and a waft alſo with the enſign. When the admiral would have all the tenders in the fleet come under his ſtern, and ſpeak with him, he hoiſts a flag yellow and white, at the mizen-peek, and fires a gun: but if he would ſpeak with any partiaular ſhip's tender, he makes a ſignal for ſpeaking with the captain ſhe tends upon, and a waft with the jack. If all the pinnaces and barges are to come aboard, manned and armed, he hoiſts a pendant on the flag-ſtaff, both on the fore-top-maſt-head, and a gun fired; and if he would have them chaſe any ſhip, veſſel, or boat, in open view, without coming aboard him, he hoiſts the pendant as aforeſaid, and fires two guns. When the admiral would have all the boats in the fleet come aboard him, manned and armed, he hoiſts a pendant on the flag ſtaff, both on the fore-top-maſt, and mizen-top-maſt-head, and fires one gun; but if he would have them chaſe, he hoiſts his pendants as before, and fires two guns. When the admiral would ſpeak with the victualler, or his agent, he puts an Engliſh enſign in the mizen-top-maſt ſhrouds; and when with him that hath the charge of the gunners ſtores, he will ſpread an enſign at his main-top-ſail-yard-arm.

SIGNALS *for managing a ſea-fight.* When the admiral would have the fleet form a line of battle, one ſhip a-head of another, he hoiſts an union flag at the mizen peek, and fires a gun; and every flag-ſhip does the like. But when they are to form a line of battle, one a-breaſt of another, he hoiſts a pendant with the union flag. When he would have the admiral of the white, or he that commands in the ſecond poſt, to tack, and endeavour to gain the wind of the enemy, he ſpreads a white flag under the flag at the main-top-maſt-head, and fires a gun; and when he would have the vice-admiral of the blue do ſo, he does the ſame with the blue flag. If he would have the vice-admiral of the red do ſo, he ſpreads a red flag from the cap, on the fore-top-maſt-head, downward on the back-ſtay; if the vice-admiral of the blue, he ſpreads a blue flag, and fires a gun. If he would have the rear-admiral of the red do ſo, he hoiſts a red flag at the flag-ſtaff, at the mizen top-maſt-head; if the rear-admiral of the white, a white flag; if the rear-admiral of the blue, a blue flag, and under it a pendant of the ſame colour, with a gun. If he be to leeward of the fleet, or any part of it be to leeward of him; in order to bring theſe ſhips into the line, he bears down with a blue flag at the mizen peek, under the union flag, which is the ſignal for battle, and fires a gun; and then thoſe ſhips, that are to leeward of him, muſt endeavour to get into his wake or grain, according to his ſtation in the line of battle. When the fleet is ſailing before the wind, and he would have him, who commands in the ſecond poſt, and the ſhip of the ſtarboard quarter, to clap by the wind, and come to the ſtarboard tack, he hoiſts a red flag at the mizen-top-maſt-head: but a blue one, if he would have ſhips of the larboard quarter come to the larboard tack, with a gun. If the van are to tack firſt, he ſpreads the union-flag at the flag-ſtaff, on the fore-top-maſt-head, and fires a gun, if the red flag be not abroad; but if it be, then he lowers the fore-top-ſails a little; and the union flag is ſpread from the cap of the fore-top-maſt downwards; and every flag ſhip does the ſame. If the rear be to tack firſt, he hoiſts the union flag on the flag-ſtaff, at the mizen-top-maſt-head, and fires a gun; which all the flag-ſhips are to anſwer. If all the flag-ſhips are to come into his wake or grain, he hoiſts a red flag at his mizen-peek, and fires a gun; and all the ſhips muſt do the ſame. If he would have him that commands in the ſecond poſt of his ſquadron to make more ſail, tho' he himſelf ſhorten ſail,

fail, he hoiſts a white flag on the enſign-ſtaff: but if he who commands in the third poſt is to do ſo, he hoiſts a blue flag, and fires a gun, and all the flag ſhips muſt make the ſame ſignal. Whenever he hoiſts a red flag on the flag-ſtaff, at the fore-top-maſt-head, and fires a gun, every ſhip in the fleet muſt uſe their endeavour to engage the enemy, in the order preſcribed them. When he hoiſts a white flag at his mizen-peek, and fires a gun, then all the ſmall frigates in his ſquadron, that are not of the line of battle, are to come under the ſtern. If the fleet be ſailing by a wind, in the line of battle, and the admiral would have them brace their main-ſails to the maſt, he hoiſts up a yellow flag, on the flag-ſtaff, at the mizen-top-maſt head, and fires a gun; which the flag-ſhips are to anſwer: and then the ſhips in the rear muſt brace firſt. After this, if he would have them fall their head-ſails, and ſtand by, he hoiſts a yellow flag, on the flag-ſtaff of the fore-top-maſt-head, and fires a gun, which the flag-ſhips muſt anſwer, and then the ſhips in the van muſt fall firſt, and ſtand on. If, when this ſignal is made, the red flag at the fore-top-maſt-head be abroad, he ſpreads the yellow flag under the red. If the fleets being near one another, the admiral would have all the ſhips to tack together, the ſooner to lie in a poſture to attack the enemy; he hoiſts the union-flag on the flag-ſtaves at the fore and mizen-top-maſt-heads, and fires a gun; and all the flag-ſhips are to do the ſame. The fleet being in a line of battle, if he would have the ſhip that leads the van, hoiſt, lower, ſet, or hawl up any of his ſails, he ſpreads a yellow flag, under that at his main-top-maſt-head, and fires a gun, which ſignal the flag-ſhips are to anſwer; and then the admiral will hoiſt, lower, ſet, or hawl up the ſail, which he would have the ſhip that leads the van do; which is to be anſwered by the flag ſhips of the fleet. When the enemies run, and he would have the whole fleet follow them, he makes all the ſail he can after them himſelf, takes down the ſignal for the line of battle, and fires two guns out of his fore-chaſe, which the flag-ſhips anſwer; and then every ſhip is to endeavour to come up with, and board the enemy. When he would have the chace given over, he hoiſts a white flag at the fore-top-maſt head, and fires a gun. If he would have the red ſquadron draw into a line of battle, one a-breaſt of another, he puts aboard a flag, ſtriped red and white, on the flag-ſtaff at the main-top-maſt-head, with a pendant under it, and fires a gun: if the white or ſecond ſquadron is to do ſo, the flag is ſtriped red, white, and blue: if the blue or third ſquadron is to do ſo, the flag is a Genoeſe enſign and pendant: but if they are to draw in a line of battle, one a-head of another, the ſame ſignals are made without a pendant. If they are to draw into the line of battle, one a-ſtern of another, with a large wind, and he would have the leaders go with the ſtarboard tacks, aboard by the wind, he hoiſts a red and white flag at the mizen-peek, and fires a gun: but if they ſhould go with the larboard tack aboard, by the wind, he hoiſts a Genoeſe flag at the ſame place; which ſignals, like others, muſt be anſwered by the flag-ſhips.

SIKINO. An iſland of the Turkiſh Archipelago. See *Turkiſh* Iſlands.

SILESIA *Duchy*. A province of the kingdom of Bohemia, bounded by Brandenburg on the north; by Poland on the eaſt; by Hungary on the ſouth; and by Moravia, Bohemia proper, and Luſatia, on the weſt; claimed both by the Queen of Hungary and King of Pruſſia, but has by treaty been ceded to the latter. See *Germany*.

SILESIA *Loan*, was the ſum of 250,000 l. lent by ſome Britiſh merchants to the Emperor Cha. VI. in 1734, at an intereſt of 6 *per cent.* ſecured on the ſilver mines of Sileſia, which duchy being, in 1742, transferred to his Pruſſian Majeſty, he thereby took upon himſelf the payment of what was remaining due on that loan; though in 1753 he ſtopt the remainder, amounting to 62,000 l. on a pretence of detaining it as an indemnization for the loſſes his ſubjects ſuſtained by Britiſh privateers during the late war.

SILK. A very ſoft, fine, delicate thread; the work of an inſect, called bombyx, or the ſilk-worm.

The ancients were but little acquainted with the uſe and manufacture of ſilk: they took it for the work of a ſort of ſpider, or beetle, who ſpun it out of its intrails, and wound it with its feet about the little branches of trees: this inſect they call *ſer*, from Seres, a people in Scythia who kept it, from whence they called the ſilk *ſericum*: but the ſer has very little affinity with the ſilk-worm; the former living five years; but the latter dying annually, enveloped in a yelloviſh bag, or ball, which, wound out into little threads, make what is called ſilk.

The art of manufacturing ſilk was firſt invented in the iſle of Cos; and Pamphila, daughter of Platis, is honoured as the inventreſs. The diſcovery was not long unknown to the Romans, ſilk being brought them from Serica, where the worm was a native; but ſo far were they from profiting by the diſcovery, that they could not be induced to believe ſo fine a thread ſhould be the work of a worm, and thereupon formed a thouſand chimerical conjectures of their own. This temper rendered ſilk a very ſcarce commodity among them for many ages, inſomuch that it was ſold weight for weight with gold; and Vopiſcus tells us, the Emperor Aurelian refuſed the empreſs, his ſpouſe, a ſuit of ſilk, which ſhe ſollicited of him with much earneſtneſs, meerly on account of its dearneſs. At length, two Monks coming from the Indies to Conſtantinople, in 555, brought with them great quantities of ſilk-worms, with inſtructions for the hatching of their eggs, rearing and feeding the worms, drawing out the ſilk, ſpinning and working it: upon which, manufactures were ſet up at Athens, Thebes, and Corinth. About the year 1130, Roger, King of Sicily, eſtabliſhed a ſilk manufactory at Palermo, and another in Calabria, managed by workmen, who were part of the plunder brought from Athens and Corinth, whereof that prince made a conqueſt in his expedition to the Holy land: Mezerey adds, that by degrees the reſt of Italy and Spain learned from the Siciliansand Calabrians the management of the ſilk-worms, and the working of ſilk; and at length the French, by right of neighbourhood, a little before the reign of Francis I. began to imitate them. The great advantage to which the new manufacture turned, made King James I. very earneſt for its being introduced in England: accordingly it was recommended ſeveral times from the throne; and, in the moſt earneſt terms, to plant mulberry trees for the propagation of ſilk-worms, but unhappily without effect; tho' from the various experiments we meet in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, and other places, it appears, that the ſilk-worm thrives, and works as well, in all reſpects in England, as in any other part of Europe.

The ſilk worm is an inſect, not more remarkable for the precious matter it furniſhes for divers ſtuffs, than for the many forms it aſſumes, before and after its being inveloped in the rich cod or ball it weaves itſelf. From a ſmall egg, about the ſize of a pin's head, which is its firſt ſtate, it becomes a pretty big worm, or maggot, of a whitiſh colour, inclining to yellow. In this ſtate it feeds on mulberry leaves, till, being come to maturity, it winds itſelf up in a ſilken bag, about the ſize and ſhape of a pigeon's egg, and becomes metamorphoſed into an aurelia: in which ſtate it remains without any ſigns of life or motion, till at length it awakes, to become a butterfly, after making itſelf a paſſage out of its ſilken ſepulchre. And at laſt, dying indeed, it prepares itſelf by an egg, or ſeed, it caſts, for a new life, which, aſſiſted by the warmth of the ſummer, it reſumes.

As ſoon as the ſilk-worm is arrived at the ſize and ſtrength neceſſary for beginning his cod, he makes his web: for it is thus they call that light tiſſue, which is the beginning and ground of this admirable work; and this is his firſt day's employment: on the ſecond, he forms his folliculus, or ball, and covers himſelf almoſt over with ſilk: the third day, he is quite hid; and the following employs himſelf in thickening and ſtrengthening his ball, always working from one ſingle end, which he never breaks by his own fault; and which is ſo fine and ſo long, that thoſe who have examined it attentively, think they ſpeak within compaſs, when they affirm that each ball contains ſilk enough to reach the length of ſix Engliſh miles. In ten day's time the ball is in its perfection, and is now to be taken down from the branches of the mulberry-tree,

where the worms have hung it: but this point requires a deal of attention; for there are ſome worms more lazy than others; and it is very dangerous waiting till they make themſelves a paſſage, which uſually happens about the fifteenth day.

The firſt, fineſt, and ſtrongeſt balls are kept for grain; the reſt are carefully wound: or if it is deſired to keep them all, or if there be more than can be well wound at once, they lay them for ſome time in an oven, moderately hot; or elſe expoſe them, for ſeveral days ſucceſſively, to the greateſt heats of the ſun, in order to kill the inſect, which, without this precaution, would not fail to open itſelf a way, to go and uſe thoſe wings abroad it has acquired within.

Ordinarily, they only wind the more perfect balls: thoſe that are double, or too weak, or too coarſe, being laid aſide; not as altogether uſeleſs, but that being improper for winding, they are reſerved to be drawn out into ſkains.

Theſe balls are of different colours; the moſt common are yellow, orange colour, iſabella, and fleſh-colour; ſome of a ſea-green, ſome of a ſulphur-colour, and ſome white: but there is no neceſſity for ſeparating the colours and ſhades, to wind them apart, as the colours are to be loſt in the future ſcouring and preparing of the ſilk.

To wind the ſilk from off the balls, two machines are neceſſary; the one a furnace, with its copper; the other a reel, or frame, to draw the ſilk. The winder then, ſeated near the furnace, throws into the copper of water over the furnace, firſt heated and boiled to a certain degree, which cuſtom alone can teach, a handful or two of balls, which have been firſt purged of all its furry ſubſtance. He then ſtirs the whole very briſkly about with birchen rods, bound and cut like bruſhes; and when the heat and agitation have detached the ends of the ſilks of the pods, which are apt to catch on the rods, he draws them forth; and joining ten or twelve, or even fourteen of them together, he forms them into threads according to the bigneſs required, to the works they are deſtined for: eight ends ſufficing for ribbands and velvets; the reſt requiring no leſs than fourteen. The ends thus joined into two or three threads, are firſt paſſed into the holes of three iron rods, in the fore-part of the reel, then upon the bobbins, or pullies, and at laſt are drawn out to the reel itſelf, and there faſtened, each to an end of an arm or branch of the reel. Thus diſpoſed, the workman giving motion to the reel, by turning the handle, guides his threads, ſubſtitutes new ones, when any of them break, or any of the balls are wound out; ſtrengthens them where neceſſary, by adding others; and takes away the balls wound out, or that having been pierced are full of water.

In this manner two workmen will ſpin and reel three pounds of ſilk in a day; which is a different diſpatch than is made by the ſpinning-wheel, or diſtaff. Indeed, all ſilks cannot be ſpun and reeled after this manner, either by reaſon the balls have been perforated by the ſilk-worms themſelves, or becauſe they are double, or too weak to bear the water; or becauſe they are coarſe. Of all theſe together they make a particular ſilk called floretta, which, being carded or even ſpun on the diſtaff, or the wheel, in the condition it comes from the ball, makes a tolerable ſilk.

As to the balls, after opening them with ſciſſars, and taking out the inſects, which are of ſome uſe for the feeding of poultry, they are ſteeped three or four days in troughs, the water whereof is changed every day to prevent their ſtinking. When they are well ſoftened by this ſcouring, and cleared of that gummy matter the worm had lined the inſide with, and which renders it impenetrable to the water, and even to the air itſelf, they boil them half an hour in a lye of aſhes, very clear and well ſtrained: and after waſhing them out in the river, and drying them out in the ſun, they card and ſpin them on the wheel, and thus make another kind of floretta, ſomewhat inferior to the former.

The ſeveral preparations which ſilks undergo, to fit them to be uſed in the manufacture of ſilken ſtuffs, are the ſpinning, reeling, milling, bleaching, and dying. The two firſt have been already ſpoke of, as they are concerned in drawing the ſilk from off the balls. As to the ſpinning and reeling the raw ſilks from off the balls, which are brought from Italy and the Levant; the firſt is chiefly performed on the ſpinning wheel; and the latter, either on hand reels, or on reels mounted on machines, which ſerve to reel ſeveral ſkains at the ſame time. As to the milling, they uſe a mill, compoſed of ſeveral pieces, which may mill two or 300 bobbins at once, and make them into as many ſkains.

Silk is diſtinguiſhed by different names, according to its different ſtates. Thus,

Raw-SILK, is that taken from the ball, without fire, and wound without any coction: ſuch is moſt, if not all that which is brought into England from the Levant. In the French works, the greateſt part of this raw ſilk paſſes for little better than a kind of fine floretta; yet when ſpun it makes a fine thread, and ſerves for the manufacture of ſtuffs of moderate luſtre. But the raw-ſilks of the Levant, from whence moſt Engliſh ſilk comes, are exceeding fine and beautiful. This difference ariſes hence: in France the beſt balls are ſpun and wound in boiling water, and only the refuſe made into raw ſilk; whereas in the Levant, there is no ſuch thing as ſpinning and winding on the fire; but the ſilks are all ſent in bales or packs, as they are drawn from off the balls: ſo that they are only diſtinguiſhed by their quality of fine, middling, and coarſe.

Boiled SILK, is that which has been boiled in water, to facilitate the ſpinning and winding. This is the fineſt of all ſorts of ſilk manufactured in France, and is ſeldom uſed but in the richeſt ſtuffs; ſuch as velvets, taffaties, damaſks, and brocades. There is alſo another kind of boiled ſilk, which is prepared by boiling, to be milled; and which cannot receive that preparation, without being firſt paſſed through hot water. By the laws of France, it is prohibited to mix raw with boiled ſilk; both as ſuch a practice ſpoils the dying, and as the raw ſilk corrupts and cuts the boiled.

Throwed or twiſted SILKS, are ſuch as, beſide their ſpinning and winding, have received their milling and throwing; which they receive in a different degree, as they are paſſed oftener or ſeldomer over the mill: properly, however, throwed ſilks are thoſe wherein the threads are pretty thick throwed, and are twiſted ſeveral times.

Slack SILKS, are ſuch as are not twiſted; but are prepared and dyed, for tapeſtry, and other works for the needle.

Eaſtern, or *Eaſt India* SILK. That particularly ſo called, is not the work of the ſilk-worms, but comes from a plant that produces it, in pods much like thoſe of the cotton tree. The matter this pod contains is extremely white, fine, and moderately gloſſy: it ſpins eaſily, and is made into a kind of ſilk, that enters the manufacture of ſeveral Indian and Chineſe ſtuffs.

French SILKS. It is only in the moſt ſouthern provinces of France that ſilk is cultivated, mulberry trees planted, and worms bred. The principal are thoſe of Languedoc, Dauphine, Provence, Avignon, and Lyons. The laſt place, indeed, furniſhes very few ſilks of its own growth; but is the great ſtaple whence the merchants of Paris and the other cities are to fetch them: at leaſt, they are obliged to let them paſs through Lyons, if they bring them from elſewhere, either by land or ſea.

There are computed to enter Lyons, one year with another, 6000 bales; the bale valued at 160 pounds weight: of which 6000 bales there are 1400 from the Levant, 1600 from Sicily, 1500 from Italy, 300 from Spain, and 1200 from Languedoc, Provence, and Dauphine.

At the time when the manufactures of Lyons were in their proſperity, there were reckoned 18000 looms employed in the ſilk manufacture; but they are ſo fallen, that even in the year 1698, there were not reckoned 4000. The decay is not leſs remarkable at Tours, where they formerly had 700 mills, for winding and preparing the ſilks; 8000 looms, to weave them; and 40,000 perſons employed in the preparation and manufacturing thereof, which are now reduced to 70 mills, 1200 looms, and 4000 perſons.

Sicilian SILKS. The commerce of the ſilks of Sicily is very conſiderable; the Florentines, Genoeſe, and Lucceſe, being the people who chiefly make it. Great quan-

tities

tities are yearly brought thence, eſpecially from Meſſina; part whereof they uſe in their own manufactures, and ſell the reſt to their neighbours the French with profit. The Italians have this advantage, eſpecially the Genoeſe, over other people, that having large eſtabliſhments in the iſland, they are reputed as natives, and pay no duty for the export. Part of the Sicilian ſilks are raw, the reſt ſpun and milled; of which laſt kind thoſe of St. Lucia and Meſſina are the moſt valued. The raw unwrought ſilks are always ſold for ready money; and the others ſometimes in exchange for other goods.

Italian SILKS. The ſilks brought from Italy are partly wrought, and partly raw and unwrought. Milan, Parma, Lucca, and Modena, furniſh none but the latter kind; Genoa moſt of the former; and Bologna affords both kinds.

Spaniſh SILKS, are all raw; being ſpun and milled in England, according to the ſeveral works they are to be uſed in.

Turky SILKS are all raw. One advantage we have in the commerce of the Levant in ſilks, wanting in thoſe of Sicily is, that the latter are confined to a particular ſeaſon of the year; whereas the former are bought at all times. They are brought from Aleppo, Tripoli, Sayda, and from the iſle of Cyprus, Candia, and other places: but the principal commerce, eſpecially for the ſilks of Perſia, is carried on at Smyrna; from whence the ſilks are brought hither in caravans, from the month of January to September. The caravans in January are loaded with the fineſt ſilks, thoſe of February and March with indifferent ones, the reſt ſtill of a coarſer kind. They all come from the ſeveral provinces of Perſia, chiefly thoſe of Ghilan and Shirvan, ſituated near the edge of the Caſpian ſea; from which three places, a Dutch author aſſures us, there do not come leſs than 20,000 bales of ſilk in a year. Ardeuil, or Ardibil, another city of Perſia, not far diſtant from theſe ſilk countries, is the place where the ſilks are laid up, and whence the caravans ſet out for Smyrna, Aleppo, and Conſtantinople; and it is this city, with Shamachi, that have been always eſteemed the centre of the ſilk trade; which has been ſeveral times attempted to be removed from Smyrna and the Mediterranean, in favour of Archangel and the White ſea, by carrying them acroſs Muſcovy by the Volga and Dwina, two rivers that traverſe the principal provinces of that vaſt empire. This new courſe of the Perſian ſilks into Europe, was firſt propoſed by Paolo Centurio, a Genoeſe, to the Czar Baſil, under the Pontificate of Leo X. The French had the ſame deſign in 1626. The Duke of Holſtein, in 1633, ſent ambaſſadors to the court of Perſia purely with the ſame view: and in 1668, the Czar Alexis Michael attempted the thing himſelf; but was diſappointed by the rebellion of the Coſſacks, and the ſurprize of Aſtracan.

In 1688, the commerce of Perſian ſilks had like to have been removed from Smyrna by an earthquake, which almoſt overturned the whole city: and doubtleſs the removal had been effected, but for the vigorous means uſed by the Turks to prevent it. Smyrna, however, ſtill remains in her ancient poſſeſſion, and the ſeveral nations of Europe continue every year to ſend their fleets to fetch away the ſilks; and matters are like to remain ſo, unleſs the conqueſts made by the late Czar, along the Caſpian ſea, enable his ſucceſſors, as he certainly had ſuch a thing in view, to put this great deſign in execution.

China, *Japan*, and *Indian* SILKS. Several provinces in China are ſo fertile in mulberry-trees, and their climate ſo agreeable to the nature of ſilk-worms, that the quantity of ſilk produced here is incredible. The ſingle province of Tchekiam, might ſupply all China, and even a great part of Europe with this commodity; and the ſilks of this province are moſt eſteemed, though thoſe of Nanquin and Canton are excellent.

The ſilk trade is the principal in China, and that which employs the moſt hands: but the European merchants who deal in it, eſpecially in wrought ſilks, ſhould be careful of the ſpinning, the waſte being uſually very great, as the French Eaſt India company lately found to their coſt. Japan would not afford fewer ſilks than China; but that the Japoneſe, who are a diſtruſtful people, have interdicted all commerce with ſtrangers, eſpecially with Europeans, excepting with the Dutch, who are ſaid to be admitted on certain impious terms, related by Tavernier; but which have not been much credited. The ſilks of the ſtates of the Great Mogul, are brought almoſt wholly from Kaſem-bazar, whence they are conveyed by a canal of 15 leagues into the Ganges.

The ſilk of Kaſem-bazar is yellowiſh; as are alſo thoſe of Perſia and Sicily; there being none that we know of naturally white, but that of Paleſtine. The Indians, however, whiten it, with a lye made of the aſhes of a tree called Adam's-fig-tree; but, as the tree is pretty ſcarce, the Europeans are obliged to take the greateſt part of their ſilks in the native yellow.

Kaſem-bazar alone is computed to furniſh every year 22,000 bales of ſilk, each bale weighing 100 pounds; almoſt all which the Dutch buy up, not to bring into Europe, no more than they do that of Japan; but to change it for other rich merchandiſe, particularly bars of ſilver.

Spider SILK. Within a few years the ſecret has been found in France, of producing and preparing ſilk of the webs of ſpiders; and uſing it in ſeveral manufactures. This diſcovery is owing to M. Bon, who, in 1710, publiſhed a diſſertation on the ſubject, whence what follows is extracted.

Spiders are uſually diſtinguiſhed, either with regard to their colour, as into black, brown, yellow, and white; or with regard to the number and arrangement of their eyes; ſome having ſix, others eight, and others ten. But with regard to the ſilk-ſpider, M. Bon reduces them all to two kinds; thoſe with long legs, and thoſe with ſhort, which laſt are thoſe that furniſh the raw-ſilk.

The ſilk-ſpider makes a ſilk as beautiful, gloſſy, and ſtrong as the ſilk-worm: it ſpins it out of the anus, around which are five papillæ, or ſmall nipples, and behind theſe two others, all muſculous, and furniſhed with ſphincters. Theſe nipples ſerve as ſo many wire-drawing-irons, to form and mould a viſcous liquor, which, when dried in the air, after being drawn through them, makes the ſilk.

The ſpider-bags are of a very grey colour when new, but turn blackiſh when expoſed to the air: one might, indeed, find other ſpider-bags of other colours, and which would afford a better ſilk; but their ſcarcity would render the experiment difficult; for which reaſon, we confine ourſelves to the bags of the moſt common ſpiders, which are the ſhort-legged kind. Theſe always find out ſome place ſecure from the wind and rain, to make their bags; as hollow trees, the corners of windows, or vaults, or under the eaves of houſes.

By collecting a quantity of theſe bags, a new ſilk is made, inferior in nothing to the common ſilk. It takes all kinds of dyes, and may be made into all kinds of ſtuffs. M. Bon had ſtockings and gloves made of it, which he preſented to the academy, and others to the royal ſociety.

Nor is there any venom in the ſilk, or even in the ſpider, as many have imagined. M. Bon has been bit by them ſeveral times without any manner of harm; and as for the ſilk, it is uſed with very good ſucceſs to ſtop bleeding, and cure wounds, the natural gluten thereof acting as a kind of balſam. It likewiſe yields by diſtillation ſeveral ſpecific medicines, particularly great quantities of ſpirits, and volatile ſalt, which being prepared after the ſame manner as that drawn from the bags of ſilk worms, in making the guttæ Anglicanæ, or Engliſh drops, ſo famous over all Europe, may ſerve to make other drops of greater efficacy, which M. Bon calls drops of Montpellier, to be uſed in all ſleepy diſeaſes.

But theſe ſpiders furniſh much leſs ſilk than the worms: the largeſt bags of the latter weighing four grains, the ſmaller three grains; ſo that 2304 worms, produce a pound of ſilk. The ſpiders bags do not weigh above one grain, and when cleaned loſe two thirds of that weight: the work of 12 ſpiders, therefore, only equals that of one ſilk-worm; and a pound of ſilk will require at leaſt 27648 ſpiders. But as the bags are wholly the work of the females, who ſpin them to depoſit their eggs in, there muſt be kept 55296 ſpiders, to yield a pound of ſilk: yet this will only hold of the beſt ſpiders; thoſe large ones uſually ſeen in gardens ſcarce yielding a 12th part of the

ſilk

ſilk of the others. 280 of theſe would not do more than one ſilk-worm, and 663,552 of them would ſcare yield a pound.

By an act paſſed in the 6th Anne, wrought ſilks, mixed with gold or ſilver, or other materials, ſecretly or clandeſtinely imported, are forfeited with 200 l. by every importer, and each of his aſſiſtants, beſides former penalties, and 100 l. by the receiver, ſeller, or concealer. Such ſilks are to be ſold by inch of candle, at the cuſtom-houſe in London or Edinburgh.

By an act paſſed in the 2d Will. and Mary, ſilk thrown of the growth or product of Turky, Perſia, Eaſt India, China, or any other country, except Italy, Sicily, and Naples, brought directly from thoſe places reſpectively by ſea, in ſhips legally navigated, may not be imported on forfeiture thereof.

By the 8th and 9th of King William III. it was enacted, That the royal luſtring company, for making and dreſſing alamodes, renforcez, and luſtrings in England, ſhould continue a body corporate, by the name of the Royal luſtring company, and ſhould enjoy all privileges in the charter of incorporation granted to them. See *Alamode*.

By the ſtatute of the 14th of Geo. II. for opening a trade to and from Perſia, through Ruſſia, the Ruſſia company, excluſive of all other perſons, had a grant to import into Great Britain, from Ruſſia, in Britiſh built ſhipping, navigated according to law, raw-ſilk, or any other goods or commodities of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Perſia; provided ſuch manufacture was made of the growth or produce of Perſia, being purchaſed by barter, with woollen or other manufactures, or commodities exported from Great Britain to Ruſſia, and from thence carried into Perſia, gold and ſilver in coin or bullion excepted, or with the produce ariſing from the ſales of ſuch manufactures, or commodities ſo exported to Ruſſia, and carried into Perſia as aforeſaid, and not otherwiſe; which is directly contrary to the act of the 12th Cha. II. entituled an act for the encouragement and increaſing of trade and navigation: but ſoon after the commencement of the ſaid act of the 14th of Geo. II. a very beneficial trade between Great Britain and Perſia, through Ruſſia, was opened, whereby great quantities of raw ſilk, and other goods and commodities of the growth and manufacture of Perſia were imported, in return for the woollen and other manufactures and goods of Great Britain, upon much eaſier and more advantageous terms than the ſame could have been otherwiſe. But the ſaid trade having been for ſome years interrupted, the ſubjects of Great Britain, not having been permitted to import Britiſh manufactures and commodities into Perſia, through Ruſſia; in conſequence whereof, the importation of raw ſilk and other commodities of Perſia from Ruſſia were diſcontinued: and as it would be of great advantage to the trade of Great Britain in general, as well as contribute to the increaſe and improvement of the ſilk manufactures in particular, if raw ſilk of the growth or produce of Perſia, purchaſed in Ruſſia, was permitted to be imported from thence, in return for woollen and other manufactures exported from Great Britain, although the ſame be not carried from thence into Perſia; it was enacted by the 23d of George II. That perſons free of the Ruſſia company, excluſive of all others, might import into Great Britain from Ruſſia, in Britiſh built ſhipping, navigated according to law, raw ſilk of the growth or produce of Perſia, which ſhould be purchaſed by barter, with woollen or other manufactures, or commodities exported from Great Britain to Ruſſia, altho' the ſame be not carried from thence into Perſia, gold or ſilver in coin or bullion excepted, or with the produce ariſing from the ſale of ſuch commodities, and not otherwiſe; upon paying the cuſtoms and other duties payable for the ſame, according to the directions, and with like allowances and drawbacks, and under like penalties and forfeitures as were preſcribed by law, on the importation of raw ſilk, of the growth or produce of Perſia, imported from the Levant, by any perſons free of the Levant or Turky company.

Some farther obſervations on the ſilk trade, particularly applied to Great Britain, follow.

The northern provinces of Perſia produce the greateſt quantity, and the beſt ſort of raw ſilk; from whence the ſouthern provinces, and the ſilk manufactories at Meſched, as well as thoſe in Turky, are ſupplied. The provinces moſt abounding in ſilk are Ghilan, the principal city in which is Reſhd; Shirvan, the capital of which is Shamakie; Aran, or Erivan, of which the principal city is Ganja: the two former of theſe provinces are on the ſouth-weſt ſhores of the Caſpian ſea, and the latter is adjacent.

When Nadir Shah aſcended the throne of Perſia, he made Meſched, the capital of Khoraſan, his favourite city, and conſequently the ſeat of the Perſian empire: ſo that by the extraordinary privileges with which he endowed that capital, and by other meaſures he took to aggrandiſe it, he in ſome meaſure drained Iſfahan of its inhabitants; the trade of which was transferred to Meſched; and this city is at too great a diſtance from the Perſian gulph, or Eaſtern ocean, for either the Britiſh or Dutch East India company to ſend goods thither round the Cape of Good Hope. From whence it was imagined, that when the Britiſh merchants had eſtabliſhed themſelves in the Caſpian trade to Meſched and Bokhara, it would in a few years become a more beneficial article to Great Britain than the Turky trade ever was: becauſe, a great quantity of woollen goods might be vended at a better price, and to countries where the Britiſh commerce had never yet extended, nor ever could be extended by any other channel; beſides, the very ſame commodities which the Turky company imported into Great Britain, not to mention any new articles, might be brought from Meſched a great deal cheaper, and with much greater advantage to the nation.

The trade between Perſia and Turky is for the greateſt part carried on by the Armenians, of whom there are not leſs than 10,000 ſettled in Turky, who are chiefly employed by the Engliſh, French, and Dutch merchants reſiding in Conſtantinople, Smyrna, and Aleppo: they have long diſtinguiſhed themſelves as the moſt acute traders in all Aſia, and carry to market the products of the eaſt, returning thoſe of Europe.

The wars, and hereditary enmity of the Turks and Perſians, had often obſtructed this commerce between Perſia and Turky, and at length forced moſt of the Armenian traders into the channel of Ruſſia, croſs the Caſpian ſea: but ſhould Perſia recover herſelf again, ſo as to produce any conſiderable quantity of ſilk, it is more than probable, that the Armenian ſubjects of the Grand Signior, who live in and about Tauris and Erzerum, will come in for a large ſhare of that branch of commerce.

According to the uſual courſe of the ſeaſons, the only proper time to ſet out through Ruſſia to Perſia are the months of May, June, and July, for the ſummer caravans; and January for the winter. This muſt neceſſarily create delays, and often prevent the timely exportation from St. Peterſburgh; nor can it be imagined, but that the ſhipping of the ſilk on the Caſpian, and in the ſummer time again on the Volga, as alſo again on the Baltic, muſt be attended with conſiderable expences and inconveniencies; inſomuch, that the Engliſh gentlemen found the charge run to 34 *per cent.* on the invoices from London, delivered to the factory at Reſhd; and on raw ſilk delivered in London, duties and diſcharges paid, about 36 *per cent.* on the invoice.

If we may judge from the duties paid in Reſhd, the trade began to flouriſh on the arrival of the Engliſh factors there; for in 1742, the cuſtoms amounted only to 20,000 crowns, but in 1743 they roſe to 50,000, and made about the ſame ſum in 1744.

The Perſians have ſeveral kinds of ſilk: the firſt is called ſherbaff, or weavers ſilk, becauſe the weavers, particularly in Reſhd and Caſhan, are ſuppoſed to uſe the beſt they can procure; but what generally goes for the Perſian fabrics at Caſhan is the fineſt ſort, the threads of which are more ſplit; this is uſually all white, whereas the other is white and yellow; nor is it wound off ſo ſhort; ſo that, though finer, it is not eſteemed ſo much as ſherbaff: there is alſo a ſort called Arabs, from being bought up for the moſt part by Arabians, who ſend it into Turky, where it

it is afterwards manufactured; and there is likewiſe a ſilk called kedge, which is made from the pods of the ſilk-worms which are permitted to live for the ſake of generation; but this ſilk cannot be prepared like the others, for it muſt be pounded, and ſpun off like cotton yarn; whereas the worms are killed in the other pods, either by ſuffocating them with blankets, or by the heat of the ſun, unleſs they wind off the ſilk immediately, for then warm water anſwers the ſame purpoſe.

The cleanneſs and clearneſs of raw ſilk conſtitute a great part of its goodneſs; inferior ſilk having many knits, and coarſe ſtuff ſticking to the threads. The maſs, or head of ſilk, often appears fair to the eye, when much coarſeneſs is concealed under it; for it is a trick of the Perſian peaſants to hide the defects, as they wind it off from the pod. The beſt ſilk has conſtantly a gloſs or brightneſs: the white or ſilver-coloured is moſt eſteemed; but in Ghilan the greateſt part comes yellow from the worm, which is fed by the leaves of mulberry ſhrubs. White ſilk that is ſoiled is generally found to have lain in a moiſt place, which hurts its ſtrength as well as beauty. Silk ſhould be equal, ſtrong, and round as wire, and alſo clean; the greateſt part ſhould be in a medium with regard to fineneſs, for the fineſt is not the eaſieſt to manufacture to advantage. The threads of ſilk being thus even, that is, as near as poſſible of one ſize, and not coarſe and fine intermixed, can be moſt eaſily ſeparated in the winding; but otherwiſe the coarſe is apt to tear the fine, and make waſte in manufacturing it. The ſize which is uſually moſt eſteemed is wound off 16 or 18 pods or cocoons. A moſs, which is about 60 inches in the round, can be moſt conveniently reeled off; longer is not approved of, and if ſhorter it is apt to break by the quick revolutions of the reel, being glued together with its own gum. It is alſo to be obſerved, that there is a vaſt difference between ſilk cleaned by combing, and that which remains juſt as it came from the pod: the former, to an unſkilful perſon, who does not obſerve the broken threads and the ends of the combings, ſhall look better than the latter, though it is conſiderably worſe.

When the Armenians and Ruſſians pack up their ſilk, they generally comb the heads of their moſſes to deceive the buyer; but this makes it really worſe, becauſe it hurts it in the winding off. Theſe people, who were never famed for probity, have long practiſed the art of falſe package. Hence, at Smyrna and Aleppo, where the Armenians ſell their ſilk to the factors of the Engliſh Turky company, as likewiſe in Ruſſia, it has often been rejected upon that account: eſpecially, as they hold it a conſtant maxim not to ſuffer their bales to be broken up, except at their heads.

The benefits of the ſilk manufacture muſt ever appear conſiderable, even upon the moſt ſuperficial view; when it is conſidered, that a pound of 16 ounces of the plaineſt manufactured ſilk is commonly worth 35 or 40 s. and that rich ſilks increaſe in proportion to the greater labour which is beſtowed upon them. The great pound in Perſia, of 24 ounces coſting 21 s. the ſmall pound is 14 s. let us now ſee what profit ariſes from it, and how much it increaſes in value as it paſſes through the hands of the ſeveral workmen; and here the charge only of throwing the ſmall pound is 5 s.; dying, grain colours included, on a medium, is 2 s. and winding, weaving, &c. 10 s. ſo that allowing 1 s. for the dying materials, the nation gains 16 s. at leaſt on every pound of ſilk manufactured in Great Britain and exported abroad, and in ſome articles much more. To inſtance only in one particular; a pair of ſilk gauze ſtockings weighs about 2 ½ ounces of ſilk, which computed as above is 2 s. 2 d. and 20 *per cent.* breakage, and other contingencies on the ſilk is leſs than 3 s. and yet the ſtockings ſell for 9, 10, or 12 s. Thus this beneficial branch of commerce gives a ſubſiſtence to the induſtrious artificer, and enriches the nation. See *Ruſſia*, and *Ruſſian* company.

His preſent majeſty, in the beginning of his reign, having taken into his royal conſideration the miſerable circumſtances of many of his own poor ſubjects, who were ready to periſh for want; and likewiſe the diſtreſſes of many foreigners, who would gladly embrace any opportunity of ſettling themſelves under his princely protection, to take refuge from perſecution; was graciouſly pleaſed to grant a charter to incorporate a number of diſintereſted gentlemen, by the name of The truſtees for eſtabliſhing the colony of Georgia in America, thereby empowering them to receive and collect benefactions, and to lay them out in clothing, arming, and ſupporting colonies of the poor, as well ſubjects as foreigners, in that new plantation, where, among the many uſeful employments deſigned for thoſe induſtrious people, that of raiſing raw ſilk, was principally intended.

The raiſing of the ſilk manufacture is practicable even in this kingdom, but much more ſo in our American dominions, where both the climate and ſoil are excellently well adapted to the nature of the ſilk worm, and the propagation of the mulberry-tree, whoſe leaves are the natural and moſt beloved food of this inſect, inſomuch that they have been often found feeding thereupon, naturally or ſpontaneouſly; but being there for ſome time diſregarded, except by a few curious perſons, who kept them only for their diverſion, they became the prey of birds and other creatures; and it was on this very account that the care and propagation of this wonderful inſect, whoſe well known uſe is more immediately deſigned by providence for the benefit and advantage of mankind, has been for ſo many paſt ages neglected by the Britiſh nation.

The breeding of ſilk-worms, even in England, would have been doubtleſs eſtabliſhed, if a ſufficient number of eminent perſons had heartily engaged in the undertaking. This would have been the only means to have excited others to follow their laudable example: it was by this method, the ſilk trade was brought to ſuch perfection in Italy, &c. where not only perſons of the firſt rank were engaged in this work, but the magiſtrates alſo aſſiſted, each lending a helping hand, till they ſaw the deſirable and profitable manufacture firmly rooted and eſtabliſhed in their countries; which among many other advantages is attended with this one very great benefit, that it employs a great number of their induſtrious poor: for not only men, but women, children, and impotent perſons may be made uſe of in this work, being a work both eaſy and pleaſant, and performed in as delightful a ſeaſon as any in the whole year. In Carolina the ſilk trade is vaſtly improved, ſome families making 40 or 50 pounds a year, and their plantation work not neglected: little negro children being ſerviceable in feeding and looking after the ſilk worms. Beſides, there is no tree in Carolina thrives better than the mulberry, which in that climate flouriſhes as well as in any country in the known world. This ſufficiently ſhews the great advantages which may be made from the keeping of ſilk-worms; firſt, it takes up but two or three months time from the beginning to the ending of the work: ſecondly, the perſons chiefly employed in attending theſe creatures, are ſuch generally as are unfit for any other employment. Therefore it is to be hoped, from the conſideration of the fitneſs of our American colonies to propagate the ſilk trade in, the buſineſs of its being perfected, the benefit which will accrue therefrom to every individual concerned in keeping of ſilk-worms, and to the nation in general, by relieving ſo many poor unhappy people, that this will incline the hearts of all perſons, of what rank or condition ſoever, towards carrying on ſuch an undertaking.

To what has been already ſaid, about the origin of ſilk-worms, and the introduction of ſilk into Europe, it may be proper to add the following, as a more particular account. No man can doubt but that the ſilk-worm had its original within the ſixth day of the world's creation, when all land inſects and quadrupeds were created, as we are informed, Gen. i. 24. *And God ſaid, let the earth bring forth the living creature after his kind, cattle, and creeping thing, and beaſt of the earth after his kind: and it was ſo.* But whether the Antediluvians had any knowledge of this noble inſect, the manner of its ſpinning of the web, and its uſefulneſs to mankind for clothing, does not appear: neither is it certainly known at what time after the flood, or by what nation they were firſt taken notice of. Some ſay Noah firſt diſcovered the uſe of theſe wonderful creatures, and propagated them in China. Others contend that the knowledge and propagation of the ſilk-worm was altogether as early made known to the Perſians by the ſons of Noah. But, be this as it will, both theſe nations firſt

propagated ſilk, and reaped the profit and benefit of it many hundred years before any other country. For the firſt time any ſilk was brought into Greece, was after Alexander the Great had conquered Perſia, 300 years before the birth of Chriſt, and about 2000 years ſince it was known in theſe parts. From Perſia it came into Italy, in the flouriſhing time of the Roman empire, where it was for a long time very dear, being weight for weight of equal value with gold. Until Juſtinian the Emperor, who began his reign in the reign of our Lord 526, looking on it as a great hardſhip that his ſubjects ſhould buy this manufacture of the Perſians at ſo dear a rate, in order to put an end to the impoſition, ſent two monks into India to bring with them, if it was poſſible to be procured, ſome of the ſpecies, whether vegetable or animal, from which the ſilk was produced, that ſo he might eſtabliſh a manufacture of this rich commodity in his own dominions.

Theſe Monks when returned, told the Emperor that the ſilk was produced by an inſect, which could not be brought ſo long a journey alive, but that its eggs might be brought, and from them the creatures be propagated. The Emperor on this their information ſent them back a ſecond time, to bring him ſome of thoſe eggs; who having effected what they went about, brought great quantities of them to Conſtantinople, which they preſented to the Emperor, incloſed in a roll or horn of paper, with inſtructions how to breed, nouriſh, and draw ſilk from theſe creatures. They were received with great admiration and applauſe; and from them have been propagated all the ſilk-worms, and their ſilk in Europe.

This ſhort hiſtory of the introduction of the ſilk manufacture into Europe, may be ſufficient to ſhew how valuable this commodity was eſteemed by our anceſtors; and how eaſily it might be brought to great perfection in the Britiſh American colonies, by us their ſucceſſors, without any prejudice to the ſtaple commodity of Great Britain, the woollen manufacture. Were we to have all the raw ſilk which is uſed in England from our own plantations, or of our own growth, the money would circulate among ourſelves, and the balance of the trade be wholly on our own ſide, while we found no occaſion for purchaſing it from foreign nations. For the further encouragement of this noble deſign, it is alſo proper, in the next place, to give ſome account of the profits ariſing from keeping of ſilk worms.

Silk-worms produced from an ounce of eggs, eat in their whole time of feeding, from 2 to 300 pounds weight of mulberry leaves: and that number of worms will ſpin from five to ten pounds of ſilk, more or leſs, according as they are in largeneſs and goodneſs. They require the attendance of two perſons for about two months, one to gather and bring leaves, the other to feed, clean, and manage the worms, in which ſpace of time the whole work will be compleated. But it muſt be noted, that tho' two perſons only will attend and feed all the worms that come from ſix ounces of eggs, till they be paſt their fourth ſickneſs, and within a fortnight of their ſpinning: yet, then the worms muſt be more carefully fed, and attended; it being the chief time wherein they make and ſtore up the materials for their ſilk, when there are required five or ſix perſons to aſſiſt in feeding and managing them.

It is eſtimated, that in France a fourth part of the ſilk defrays all charges: and in Italy, where it has been longer improved, a ſixth part will diſcharge all expences, clearing five parts, and they reckon the mulberry leaves the half of the whole charge, if they are obliged to buy them. But it is cuſtomary in many places where great numbers of ſilk-worms are kept, for gentlemen to let out their mulberry-trees to the poor, and to ſuch perſons as make it their buſineſs to nurſe theſe creatures, which turns to a very good account.

The drawback on ſilks, callicoes, linens, and ſtuffs, printed, painted, ſtained, or dyed in Great Britain, was granted by the 10th of Queen Anne for ever, as follows.

Silks, except ſilk handkerchiefs, the yard ſquare	0	0	3
Callicoes, the yard ſquare - -	0	0	3

Note, all callicoes within 1-8th part of a yard, of yard-broad; or not exceeding 1-8th part of a yard, of yard-broad, are to pay as yard-broad, and no more nor leſs.

Linens and ſtuffs the yard ſquare - -	0	0	1

By the 12th of Queen Anne, and 6th of George I.

Silks, except ſilk handkerchiefs, the yard in length, reckoning half a yard for the breadth -			
Silk handkerchiefs, the yard ſquare	0	0	6
Callicoes, the yard ſquare - -	0	0	1
Linens and ſtuffs, the yard ſquare - -	0	0	3
	0	0	1

Except callicoes, linens and fuſtians, dyed throughout of one colour, and ſtuffs made of woollen, or whereof the greateſt part in value, ſhall be woollen.

The exporter, before ſhipping, to give notice to the proper officer appointed by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, when and where he intends to pack up the goods; who is to take care that the ſtamps be taken off from each piece, and to return an account of the kinds and quantities, to the officer appointed to receive the ſame.

Which duties are to be repaid upon exportation, under the ſame regulations as Britiſh made paper.

The bounty on Britiſh manufactures of ſilk, &c. exported, was granted by the 8th of Geo. I. and continued by the 20th of Geo. II.

Upon due exportation of the Britiſh manufactures of ſilk hereafter mentioned, there are to be allowed the following reſpective bounties.

Ribbons and ſtuffs of ſilk only, the pound avoirdupoiſe weight - - - - -	0	3	0
Silks and ribbons of ſilk mixed with gold or ſilver, the pound avoirdupoiſe weight - -	0	4	0
Silk ſtockings, ſilk gloves, ſilk fringes, ſilk laces, ſtitching or ſewing ſilk, the pound avoirdupoiſe weight - - -	0	1	3
Stuffs of ſilk and grogram yarn, the pound avoirdupoiſe weight - -	0	0	8
Stuffs of ſilk mixed with incle or cotton, the pound avoirdupoiſe weight - -	0	1	0
Stuffs of ſilk and worſted, the pound avoirdupoiſe weight - - -	0	0	6

To be paid out of the cuſtoms, or other duties upon goods imported, by the collector of the port, with the privity of the comptroller, upon a debenture made out from the entry, the ſhipping verified by the ſearcher, and the oath of the exporter, that they are of Britiſh manufacture, and exported without intention of relanding in Great Britain; he having firſt given ſecurity with one or more perſons in the value of the goods, to the ſame purpoſe; and to produce a certificate from the officers of the cuſtoms in diſcharge thereof, within ſix months, for ſuch goods as ſhall be exported to Ireland, Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man; and within eighteen months for thoſe to the Britiſh plantations. And for what ſhall be exported to any other foreign parts, a certificate under the common ſeal of the chief magiſtrate, or under the hands and ſeals of two known Britiſh merchants there reſiding. But if ſuch goods were ſold on the coaſts of Africa, or other foreign parts, where certificates of the landing cannot be obtained; or were tranſhipped at any of the Britiſh plantations in America, without being there landed, into ſhips bound to Africa, or other foreign parts; the bonds given on exportation may be diſcharged, and vacated upon proof made within eighteen months from the date of ſuch bonds, upon oath of the maſter, mate, purſer, &c. and alſo upon oath of the merchant-exporter, if living, that, to the beſt of their knowledge and belief, the ſaid goods have been diſpoſed of at the places therein to be mentioned, and that they have not been relanded or brought on ſhore again, in any port or part of Great Britain. 1 Geo. II. cap. 17. § 9.

The aforeſaid manufactures may, after entry, be opened and examined by the officers; and, if wrong entred, are forfeited with their value. But if right entered, muſt be repacked at the officer's charge, which may be allowed him by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms.

SILK *herb*, or *Herba*. See Silk *Herb*.

SILKMEN, thoſe who deal in the thread that is ſpun by

silk worms, and in those curious manufactures which are produced from it: or more properly those who buy raw silk rom the importer, and sell it to the manufacturer.

SILKMENS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 7th of Charles I. dated the 23d of May 1631, by the name of The governor, commonalty, and assistants, of the art and mystery of silkmen of the city of London.

This fraternity consists of a governor, and 20 assistants; but, having neither hall nor livery, they occasionally meet at different places to manage the company's affairs.

SILK-*spinster*, is a person employed in spinning the hard silk and winding it; which business employs a great number of female hands.

SILK-*thrower*, or *Throwster*, one who prepares or makes silken thread, fit to be wove or worked with a needle. The silk throwster does his work by a mill calculated for that purpose, and chiefly employs women, to whom he gives small wages.

SILK-*throwers company of London*. The art of silk-throwing being first practised in London in the reign of Q. Elizabeth by foreigners; their descendants, and others, in 1622 were constituted a fellowship of the city; and by letters-patent of Charles I. dated the 23d of April 1630, were incorporated by the title of The master, wardens, assistants, and commonalty of the trade, art, or mystery of silk-throwers of the city of London: who are governed by a master, two wardens, and 20 assistants; but have neither hall, nor livery.

By the statute of the 13th and 14th of Charles II. it was enacted, That no person should use the art and mystery of a silk-thrower, unless such as should be apprentices to the said trade, or should have served seven years apprentiship thereunto; upon pain that every person offending should forfeit 40 s. for every month he should use the trade.

SILK-*weaver*. See *Weaver*.

SILLEBAR. A port town on the west coast of the island of Sumatra, in the East Indies, a little south of Bencoolen, situated in 101 deg. of E. lon. and 4 of S. lat.

SILVER. A white, rich sort of metal; being the finest, purest, most ductile, and most precious of all metals, except gold. See *Gold*.

There are silver mines in all the four quarters of the world; Europe has its share; nor is Great Britain quite destitute thereof, tho' it has none of much value.

The mines of Peru, and some other parts of America, are much the richest, and appear almost inexhaustible; particularly those of Potosi, which continue to be dug with great advantage: the veins of ore were in the beginning but at a very small depth in this mountain; but, by degrees the miners were obliged to dig deeper into the bowels of the mountain, in order to follow the veins; and at present the shafts are so deep, that it requires upwards of 400 steps to arrive at the bottom.

The veins at this depth are found to be of the same quality as those formerly discovered near the surface: and the mine is full as rich; though the working in it becomes more difficult every day, and often proves fatal to the greatest part of the workmen, by the exhalations arising from the bottom of the mine, and which spread even to the extremities. No person can endure so destructive an air more than one day at a time, nor are the animals which feed on the adjacent places free from its effects. They often meet with metallic veins, which yield such pernicious vapours as kill instantly; those they are obliged immediately to shut up, and leave them entirely: besides, the greatest part of the workmen, after they have wrought in the mines for a considerable time, become disabled: so that it is astonishing to find how many Indians have lost their lives, since they began to work these mines; and the numbers that die still every day.

The silver ore, tho' contained in the same vein, is not always of the same colour and quality: in Peru they call it Minerai; if it be white or grey, mixed with red or whitish specks, they call it Plata-blancha, which is the richest and easiest ore to work. They likewise find a black ore, like the scoria of iron, which they term Plomoronco. There is another species of black ore, to which they have given the name of Bosticler, because it turns red on being wet and rubbed against iron. The ore called zoroche shines like talc, and tho' it looks as if it contained silver, yet they extract but little of that metal from it; the Paco ore is of the red colour, with a cast of yellow in it, and is found in little and very soft pieces, being but a poor ore: the green ore called Cobrisso, is almost friable; the particles of silver in it may be seen with the naked eye; but it is very difficult to extract them. There is also, in the mine of Catamito in Potosi, an ore called Arannea, which consists of threads of pure silver; and this is what they call silver ore in small threads. These filaments are always richer towards the center than towards their extremities; but the silver abounds most where these threads intersect each other. The two first mines of Potosi were opened in the year 1545; the one called Rica, and the other Diego Centeno. The first was raised some distance above the level of the ground, in the form of a cock's comb, being 300 feet long and 13 broad. The ore of this mine was so rich, that almost half of it was pure silver, to the depth of 52 or 60 fathoms, where it began to change a little.

The richest silver mines are only to be found in the cold places of America. The climate of Potosi is so very cold, that formerly the Spanish women could not lie in there, but were obliged to remove 20 or 30 leagues beyond it, in order to have a milder climate: though at present, they lie in as easily at Potosi, as the native Indians themselves. At the foot of the mount of Potosi stands the town of the same name, which is become famous on account of the great riches its inhabitants have drawn from the mountain. There are in this town upwards of sixty thousand Indians, and ten thousand Spaniards. They oblige the neighbouring parishes to furnish a certain number of Indians every year to work in the mines; and this is what they call Mita, or their quota: the greatest part carry their wives or children with them, but they all go thither with the greatest reluctance. This servitude lasts only a year, after which they are at liberty to return to their former habitations; but a great many settle in Potosi, which by that means becomes every day more and more populous. Tho' the mines of Potosi are the least dangerous; yet without the herb Paraguai, which the miners, take by way of infusion, as Europeans do tea, or chew it like tobacco, they must soon quit them. The mines of Potosi and Lipes still maintain their reputation; however, there have been others discovered some years ago that are reckoned richer; such are those of Oruvo, eight leagues from Arica; and those of Ollacho, near Cusco, which were discovered in 1712.

In order to extract silver from the ore, they first break it into pretty small pieces, and then grind it with iron pestles, weighing about two hundred pounds, and which commonly are moved by water. The ore, when pounded, is passed through a sieve of iron or copper, and then kneaded with water to a paste, which they leave to dry a little; afterwards, they knead it a second time with sea-salt; and at last they throw some mercury upon it, and knead it a third time, in order to incorporate the mercury with the silver; being what they call an amalgama. Eight or ten days are sufficient for this process in temperate places; but in cold countries it sometimes requires a month or six weeks. They then throw the paste into large tubs or lavatories, in order to separate the earth from it; these tubs consisting of three basons standing over a current of water, which carries off the earth, after it has been steeped in each bason. In order to facilitate the operation, they constantly stir the paste with their feet, that, when the water comes clear out of the basons, there may remain at the bottom only silver and mercury amalgamated together; and this is what they call Pigna. They endeavour to extract the mercury, which is not incorporated with the silver, by pressing the pigna, beating it strongly, or bruising it in a press or mill. There are pignas of different sizes and different weights; which commonly contain a third of silver and two thirds of mercury. They lay the pigna upon a trivet, placing under it a vessel full of water; and cover the whole with earth in form of a cap, which they surround with burning coals.

The action of the fire cauſes the mercury to evaporate from the pigna, and falls into the water where it is condenſed. The interſtices which the mercury occupied in the pigna continue empty; when there remains only a porous and light maſs of ſilver, compared with its former bulk.

Silver is likewiſe extracted from the ore in the following manner: they firſt break the ore, and ſometimes waſh it, to ſeparate the ſtony particles which have been reduced to a powder: after this they calcine it, in order to extract from it the ſulphur and arſenic: this is what they call roaſting the ore; after which they waſh it again, to free it from the calcined powder. The ore being thus prepared, they fuſe it with lead or litharge, or with copel-heads that have been uſed before: they employ granulated lead for this purpoſe, when the work is but ſmall. The harder the ore is to melt, the more lead they mix with it: about ſixteen or twenty parts of lead to one of ore. This proceſs is called ſcorifying: the ſcoria conſiſt of lead vitrified with the ſtone, and with whatever is not gold or ſilver in the ore; and the metal precipitates into a regulus. If this regulus look pretty fine, and of a metallic colour, they put it into the copel; but, if it be ſtill mixed with ſcoria, and black, they melt it over again with a ſmall quantity of glaſs of lead.

In order to ſeparate the ſilver from the mercury, with which it is amalgamated, they have a furnace with an aperture at the top; this aperture they cover with a ſort of dome made of earth in a cylindrical form, which may be left on or taken away at pleaſure. When they have put the maſs of ſilver and mercury into the furnace, laid on the cover, and lighted the fire, the quick-ſilver riſes in the form of vapours, and adheres to the dome, from whence they collect it, and uſe it again for the ſame purpoſe.

When the ſilver is well purified, ſo that all heterogeneous matter, either metallic or other, that might be mixed with it, is extracted, they ſay it is twelve carats fine. This is the expreſſion they uſe to denote the quality of the pureſt ſilver, without any mixture or alloy; but if there ſhould remain any, they deduct the weight of the mixture from the principal weight, and the remainder ſhews the value of the ſilver. The carat conſiſts of twenty-four grains: ſo that, when to the weight of twelve carats there are twelve grains of mixture, the value of the ſilver is eleven carats twelve grains: and ſo of any other.

As to refining, it is differently performed in different countries, and according to the different intentions of the refiners. The refining of ſilver with lead is performed with a very dry copel, which they make red-hot in a reverberatory furnace; and after this they put the lead into it, uſing more or leſs, according as the ſilver which they would copel is ſuſpected to have more or leſs alloy. In order to know the quantity of lead which ought to be uſed, they put a ſmall piece of ſilver, with two parts of lead, into the copel; and, if they find that the piece of ſilver is not very pure, they put in more lead, by little and little, till the ſilver is refined; after which they compute the quantity of lead they have uſed, and conſequently know how much is requiſite to refine the ſilver: they let the lead melt, and be very clear, before they put the ſilver to it, and even the litharge that is formed over the melted lead, muſt be fuſed likewiſe: this is what they call the opening or napping of the lead. Should they put in the ſilver ſooner, t would cauſe the matter to fly over: but if, on the contrary, they ſhould delay doing this till the lead be opened, they would ſpoil the proceſs, becauſe the lead would be too much diminiſhed by calcination.

After the lead is opened, they put the ſilver to it, which they generally wrap in a thin plate of lead, which is better than paper, becauſe it often ſticks to the copel.

The ſilver in the copel is fuſed, and turns inceſſantly up and down, forming globules which grow bigger and bigger, in proportion as the maſs diminiſhes; and at laſt theſe globules, which ſome call fluors, diminiſh in number, and become ſo large, that they are reduced to one globule covering the whole matter, by cauſing a bright appearance like lightening.

When the ſilver is in this ſtate, they ſay it looks like an opal, and appears to turn round. At laſt it looks red, then grows white, and one can hardly diſtinguiſh it from the copel; in which ſtate it turns no more round. If it be taken out too ſoon, while it rolls round, it vegetates by means of the air, into the form of a tree, and becomes of a ſpiral figure, or turns to a rough maſs, and ſometimes it leaps out of the copel.

There is ſome difference between copelling in ſmall, and copelling in great: for inſtance, when they copel in the great, they blow upon the copel, while the ſilver turns round, in order to ſeparate it from the litharge: whence it happens, that, when the proceſs is not well performed, there is found ſome lead among the litharge, and ſometimes ſilver; which does not happen, when they copel in the ſmall. In this proceſs they muſt allow ſixteen parts of lead for each part of alloy.

The refining of ſilver with ſaltpetre is performed by fuſing the ſilver in a crucible that is laid in a wind-furnace: when the ſilver is fuſed, they ſay the matter is in balneo; and, when it is in this ſtate, they throw ſaltpetre into the crucible, and let the whole fuſe well together; this they call ſoldering the matter well in balneo.

They take the crucible out of the fire, and pour the matter gently into a tub full of water, where the ſilver turns to little grains, provided the water be ſtirred; for, if the water be at reſt, the ſilver falls down in a lump to the bottom.

They likewiſe fuſe ſilver three times, putting ſaltpetre and borax to it each time; and the third time they let the crucible cool without touching it, and pour it into an ingot-mold: after this they break it, and find at the bottom a piece of fine ſilver: the ſcoria or ſcales a-top conſiſt of the ſaltpetre and the alloy that was in the ſilver.

Two ounces of ſaltpetre, and an eighth part of an ounce of borax, calcined with eight ounces of ſilver, are repeated in the proceſs till the ſcoria have no colour.

All the above methods of refining ſilver having been found inconvenient and tedious, induced M. Homberg to attempt the diſcovering a method of ſhortening the proceſs, in which he ſucceeded. It conſiſts in calcining ſilver with half its weight of common ſulphur; and, after fuſing the whole together, throwing upon it at different times a certain quantity of filings of ſteel; by which means the ſulphur quits the ſilver, in order to unite with the iron, when both the one and the other turn to a ſcum that ſwims a-top of the ſilver; and there is found at the bottom of the crucible the purified matter.

To which we ſhall add, that, according to Acoſta, a Spaniſh hiſtorian, this mine was diſcovered by an Indian, who, purſuing his game up the mountain of Potoſi, and in danger of falling, laid hold of a ſhrub to ſave himſelf; but the ſhrub came up by the roots, and expoſed to his ſight the rich metal, which lay juſt under the ſurface. He was wiſe enough to keep this diſcovery ſecret, till he had enriched himſelf and family; but as ſoon as the Spaniards found it out, they divided it among ſuch adventurers as agreed to the propoſals of the government, for digging and refining the ore; and this mine ſucceeded ſo well, that, according to the ſame author, it yielded one hundred two thouſand millions of pieces of eight, regiſtered, beſides what was privately conveyed away without paying duty.

By the ſtatute of the 6th and 7th of Will. III. molten ſilver may not be exported, unleſs marked or ſtamped at goldſmiths-hall, and a certificate be produced to one of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, under the hand of one or more of the wardens, of oath having been made before him or them, by the owner, and one credible witneſs, that it is lawful ſilver, and that no part thereof, before molten, was the current coin, nor clippings thereof, nor plate wrought within this kingdom.

If ſhipped without being ſo marked or ſtamped, and without ſuch certificate, is forfeited; and may be ſeized by the officers of the cuſtoms.

By the ſtatute of the 7th and 8th of Will. III. molten ſilver or bullion, either in bars, ingots, wedges, cakes, pinas, or any other form; may not be ſhipped, unleſs a certificate be produced to the commiſſioners of the cuſ-

toms,

toms, or four of them, from the court of the Lord Mayor and Aldermen of London, of oath having been made before the ſaid court, by the owners, and two or more credible witneſſes, that the ſame, and every part and parcel thereof was, and is, foreign bullion; and that no part thereof, before molten, was the coin of this realm, or clippings thereof, nor plate wrought within this kingdom. An entry thereof to be made by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in a particular book.

If ſhipped without ſuch oath, certificate, and entry, it is forfeited, and may be ſeized by any perſons; and the proprietor forfeits double the value.

The maſter of any ſhip belonging to a ſubject, knowingly permitting the ſhipping, forfeits 200 l. and if it be a man of war, the captain likewiſe forfeits his employment, and is rendered incapable of any office, civil or military.

Officers granting a cocket, before certificate be produced, and entry made by the commiſſioners, forfeit 200 l. and are rendered incapable of any other place.

When ſeized, proof of its being foreign, &c. is to lie on the proprietor or claimer.

By the ſtatute of the 8th and 9th, and 9th and 10th of Will. III. watches, ſword-hilts, wrought plate, and other ſilver manufactures, of the fineneſs of 11 ounces 10 penny weight to every pound troy; ſo many may be exported yearly, as ſhall be allowed by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or any three of them.

But boxes, caſes, or dial-plates of gold, ſilver, braſs, or other metal, for clocks or watches, may not be exported without the movements made up fit for uſe, with the maker's name graved thereon, upon forfeiture, and 20 l.

ILVER-*leaf*, is that which the goldſmiths have reduced into fine thin leaves, to be uſed by gilders. See *Gold*-leaf.

ILVER-*wire*, is ſilver drawn through the holes of a wire-drawing iron, and by this means reduced to the fineneſs of a thread or hair: but, for the manner of drawing it, ſee *Gold*-wire.

ell-SILVER, is made of the threads of ſilver leaves, or of the leaves themſelves: uſed in painting and ſilvering certain works; being prepared in the ſame manner as ſhell-gold. See *Gold*.

LVER, in chemiſtry is called luna, moon; and ſeveral preparations are made from it; particularly a tincture of

LVER, made by diſſolving thin ſilver plates, or ſilver ſhot in ſpirit of nitre; and pouring the diſſolution in another veſſel full of ſalt-water. By this means the ſilver is immediately precipitated in a very white powder, which they waſh ſeveral times in ſpring-water. This powder, they put into a matraſs; and pour rectified ſpirit of wine, and volatile ſalt of urine upon it; which is left to digeſt in a moderate heat for 15 days; during which the ſpirit of wine aſſumes a beautiful ſky-blue colour, and becomes an ingredient in ſeveral medicines. This is called potable ſilver, *argentum potabile*.

LVER is likewiſe converted into chryſtals, by means of the ſame ſpirit of nitre, which is called vitriol of ſilver.

The *lapis infernalis argenteus*, is nothing but the cryſtals of ſilver melted with a gentle heat in a crucible; and then poured into iron moulds.

LVER-*gros*. A money of accompt uſed in Sileſia; 12 pfennins making the ſilver gros, and 30 ſilver-gros the rix-dollar, or 4 s. 6 d. ſterling.

LVER *Dollar* of Sweden, is the third of the rix-dollar, or 1 s. $6\frac{2}{3}$ d. ſterling.

LVER *Marc*, of Sweden, is the fourth of the ſilver dollar, or $4\frac{2}{3}$ d. ſterling.

ve SILVER. See *Mercury*.

LVERING. The covering of any work with ſilver-leaf. It is uſual to cover wood, metals, paper, or ſuch like; which is performed either with fire, oil, or ſize. Metal-gilders ſilver by the fire, and painter-gilders all the other ways. See *Gilding*.

LVERSMITH. See *Goldſmith*.

LVESTRIS, or *Sylveſtris*. A red grain or ſeed, uſed by ſome to dye in ſcarlet. See *Dying*.

The tree that produces it is peculiar to the province of Guatimala in New Spain; and is not much unlike that which produces the cochineel, only in this, that the fruit, containing the grain, is ſomewhat longer than that of the

cochineel tree. When the fruit of the former is ripe, it opens of itſelf, and caſts out its ſeed upon a gentle ſhaking; when the Indians gather it in earthen plates ſet under the tree for the purpoſe. Eight or ten of theſe fruits yield about an ounce of ſeed; whereas four of the cochineel fruits yield an ounce of inſects. Theſe two drugs are much like one another, as to the eye, but prove very different; the tincture of cochineel being infinitely more beautiful than that of the ſilveſtris. See *Cochineel*.

SIMPLE. Something not mixed or compounded. In pharmacy there are ſimple remedies, and compounds; the former of which are uſually preferable to the latter.

SIMPLE, in botany, is a uſual name given to all herbs and plants; as having each its particular virtue, whereby it becomes a ſimple remedy: but the ſimples brought from the Levant, and the Eaſt Indies, were not known among Europeans till about the year 1200.

SIMPLES, in weaving, thoſe bunches of ſmall threads tied a-croſs the perpendicular lines, or packthread cords, which the draw-boys pull, to make the figure riſe. See *Weaving*.

SINCOPORA. A promontory of Malacca, in the Eaſt-Indies, in Aſia, ſituated in 2 deg. of N. lat. oppoſite to the iſland of Sumatra, which, with this cape, form the ſtreights of Sincopora.

SINICAL *Quadrant*. A kind of quadrant furniſhed with an index, and two ſights to take altitudes by; and beſides, its ſide, or face, covered over with ſines, drawn from each ſide, interſecting each other, whereby the ſeamen can ſolve, by inſpection, any problem in plain-ſailing. See *Sailing*.

SINIGALIA. A port-town of Italy, in the Pope's territory and duchy of Urbino, ſituated on the gulgh of Venice, in 14 deg. 35 min. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 37 miles S. E. of Urbino.

SINKING, ſignifies falling, or ſettling downwards; in which ſenſe may be underſtood the ſurpluſſes of ſuch duties as are applicable to the ſinking-fund. See Sinking *Fund*.

SINOPE. A port-town of Aſiatic Turky, ſituated on the Euxine ſea, in 36 deg. of E. lon. and 42 deg. 25 min. of N. lat. 80 miles N. of Amaſia.

SIPHANTO. An iſland of the Turkiſh Archipelago. See *Turkiſh* Iſlands.

SIPHANTO, is alſo a name given to a dimity manufactured in this iſland.

SISTER. A corn meaſure uſed at Bergen-op-zoom; 63 making the laſt of wheat, and 28 $\frac{1}{2}$ that of oats.

SIVADIERE. A corn meaſure uſed in Provence in France, particularly at Marſeilles: 8 of which make the hemina of the country; and the ſivadiere of wheat ſhould weigh about 7 lb. avoirdupoiſe.

SIZE. An inſtrument uſed to find the weight of fine round pearls. See *Pearl*.

This inſtrument conſiſts of five thin pieces or leaves, about two inches long, and half an inch broad, faſtened together at one end by a rivet. In each of theſe are ſeveral round holes drilled, of different diameters. Thoſe in the firſt leaf ſerve for weighing pearls from half a grain to 7 grains: thoſe of the ſecond, for pearls from 8 grains, or 2 carats, to 5 carats: and thoſe of the fifth, for pearls, from 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 8 $\frac{1}{2}$.

SKARFED, in ſhip-building, is the joining or letting of one piece of timber into another.

SKELSKOR. See *Denmark*.

SKERRIES. An iſland, or rock, near Holyhead in the county of Angleſea. By the ſtatute of the 3d of Geo. II. it was enacted, That all the powers and duties granted in letters-patent, bearing date at Weſtminſter July 13, in the 13th of Anne, to William French, eſq; for erecting a lighthouſe on this iſland, ſhould have continuance for ever: ſubject to a proviſo, as to the maintaining of the lighthouſe in the letters-patent contained, and to the truſts in the act aforementioned; and ſhould be veſted in Sutton Morgan, clerk, who married the only ſurviving child of the ſaid William French.

That the ſaid Sutton Morgan, his heirs and aſſigns, might demand of maſters and owners of every ſhip or bottom, paſſing, croſſing, or ſailing, in or thro' St. George's

channel, by Holyhead, or Wicklow, to or from any foreign port; or which ſhould paſs, or croſs the ſaid channel, to or from any place in Great Britain ſouthward of Holyhead from and to Wicklow, or any place northward thereof in Ireland; or that ſhould paſs, croſs, or ſail, from any place northward of Holyhead, and ſail between Holyhead and the calf of Man, or any way in St. George's channel to the ſouthward of Dublin: and likewiſe from all coaſters paſſing to and from any place in Great Britain, north of Holyhead, from or to any port ſouth thereof, 1 d. *per* ton coming into, and the like ſum *per* ton going out of the ſaid ports in Great Britain or Ireland, and double ſuch duties for any foreign ſhip. That ſhips loaded with coals in Great Britain north of Liverpool for Ireland, or the greateſt part of their loading being coals, and paſſing from Great Britain to Ireland, ſhould only pay one voyage in every year; the ſame to be paid the firſt voyage yearly, before clearing out of the cuſtom-houſes, either in Great Britain or Ireland. That in conſideration of the benefit which the packet-boats, ſailing between Holyhead and Dublin, receive by the ſaid lighthouſe, the poſt-maſter general ſhould pay to the ſaid Sutton Morgan, the annual ſum of 50 l.

SKIE. One of the greateſt weſtern iſlands in Scotland, divided from the counties of Roſs and Inverneſs by a narrow channel; being upwards of 60 miles in length, and 20 in breadth.

SKIFF, or *Squiff*, the leſs of two ſhip-boats; ſerving chiefly to go aſhore in, when the ſhip is in harbour. See *Boat*.

SKILLING. A Dutch coin, worth 6 $\frac{3}{10}$ d. ſterling; and 3 $\frac{1}{3}$ make the guilder: but the Flemiſh ſkilling is 6 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. ſterling, and 2 $\frac{6}{7}$ make the Flemiſh guilder.

SKIN, in commerce, is particularly uſed for the membrane ſtripped off the animal, to be prepared by the tanner, ſkinner, currier, and parchment-maker. See *Hide*, *Tanning*, and *Currying*.

The uſe of ſkins is very ancient; the firſt garments in the world being made thereof: the Danes, and other northern nations, having a long time dreſſed in ſkins.

Moroccos are made of the ſkins of a kind of goats. See *Morocco*.

Parchment is uſually made of ſheep-ſkins; ſometimes of goat-ſkins. See *Parchment*.

Vellom is a kind of parchment made of the ſkin of an abortive calf, or at leaſt of a ſucking calf. See *Vellom*.

The true ſhammy is made of the ſkin of an animal of the ſame name; tho' frequently counterfeited with goat and ſheep-ſkins. See *Shammy*.

Shagreen is prepared at Conſtantinople, of the hind-part of the ſkin of a mule, or rather aſs of that country, prepared and tanned, and when ſoft and manageable, ſtretched on a frame and expoſed to the ſun. This done they ſprinkle muſtard-ſeed on the ſkin; taking care to rub it ſeveral times over with the hand: by means whereof, and the heat of the ſun, the grain of the leather is raiſed up, and there hardened. See *Wool* and *Shagreen*.

SKINNER. A perſon who buys raw ſheep-ſkins, and takes off the wool; ſelling the pelts to be converted into leather by the tanner, currier, and parchment-maker, for other uſes.

SKINNERS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 1ſt of Edw. III. in 1327, by the appellation of The maſter and wardens of the guild or fraternity of the body of Chriſt, of the ſkinners of London; which was confirmed by Henry VI. in 1438, whereby every perſon, upon his being admitted into the freedom of the company, is to be preſented to the Lord Mayor: and by theſe grants the corporation was reſtrained from making by-laws.

The government of this company is veſted in a maſter, four wardens, and ſixty aſſiſtants, with a livery of 137 members, who pay each, upon their being admitted, a fine of 15 l. having a ſtately hall on Dowgate-hill, to tranſact their buſineſs in.

The members of this company pay no quarterage, which is owing to the great eſtate they are poſſeſſed of; out of which, according to the wills of the ſeveral donors, they annually pay to charitable uſes about 700 l.

SKIPPER. The name given to a merchant, or maſter of trading ſhips coming from Holland.

SKIROS. An iſland of the Turkiſh Archipelago. See *Turkiſh* Iſlands.

SLAB. An outſide ſappy plank, or board, ſawed off from the ſides of a timber tree.

SLATE. A blue fiſſile ſtone, very ſoft when dug out of the quarry, and on that account eaſily cut or ſawed into thin long ſquares, or eſcallops, to ſerve inſtead of tiles for the covering of houſes; ſometimes alſo to make tables of, and for pavements, or grave-ſtones.

The ancients were unacquainted with the uſe of ſlate, and inſtead thereof covered their houſes with ſhingle. Beſides the blue ſlate, there is in England a greyiſh ſlate, called alſo Horſham-ſtone, from a town in Suſſex of that name, where the greateſt quantities of it are found. The blue ſlate is a very light, laſting, and beautiful covering; but expenſive, in regard the roof muſt be firſt boarded over, the ſlates hung on tacks, and laid with finer mortar than tiles. The grey ſlate is chiefly uſed in covering of churches, chancels, and chapels: it is dearer than tiles, but far more durable. The timber of the roof muſt be very ſtrong for theſe grey ſlates, they being almoſt double the weight of tiles.

To judge of the goodneſs of ſlate, Mr. Colepreſs, in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, orders it to be knocked againſt any hard body, to make it yield a ſound; if the ſound be good and clear, the ſlate is firm, otherwiſe it is crazy. Another method of proving its goodneſs, is by weighing it exactly, then letting it lie ſix or eight hours in water, and wiping it very clean; if it weighs now more than it did before, it is of that kind that ſoaks in water, and therefore will not endure, without rotting the lath or timber. Another method of trial is, by placing a ſlate half a day perpendicularly in a veſſel of water, ſo as to reach a conſiderable height above the level thereof: if the ſlate be firm and cloſe, then it will not draw water; that is, the water will not have aſcended above half an inch above the level of the water in the veſſel, nor that perhaps any where but at the edges, the new texture whereof might be looſened by hewing; but a bad ſtone will have drawn the water to the very top, be it as high as it will. There are ſlates in ſeveral places, which the moſt experienced ſlaters, or coverers, conjecture to have continued on houſes ſeveral hundred years, and are yet as firm as when firſt put up.

SLAVE. A perſon in the abſolute power of a maſter, either by war or conqueſt.

The Romans called their ſlaves *ſervi*, from *ſervare*, to keep or ſave, being ſuch as were not killed; but ſaved to yield money either by ſale, or by their work. Tho other authors are of opinion, that the Roman name, *ſervi* might come from that of *Serbi*; as that of ſlaves, from Sclavi, a people.

We find no mention of ſlaves before the deluge; but immediately after, in the curſe of Canaan, Gen. ix. 25, whence it is eaſily inferred, that ſervitude commenced ſoon after that time: for in Abraham's days we find it generally eſtabliſhed. Some will have it to commence under Nimrod; becauſe it was he who firſt began to make war, of conſequence to make captives, and to bring ſuch as he took, either in his battles or irruptions into ſlavery. Among the Romans, when a ſlave was ſet at liberty, he changed his name into a ſur-name, and took the nomen or prænomen of his maſter; to which he added the cognomen, or nick-name, he had been called by when a ſlave.

By the civil law, the power of making ſlaves is eſteemed a right of nations, and follows as a natural conſequence of captivity in war. The Lacædemonians, ſome ſay others that the Aſſyrians, firſt introduced the practice which the Romans not only approved of, but even invented new ways of making ſlaves: for inſtance, a man born free among them might ſell his freedom, and become a ſlave. This voluntary ſlavery was firſt introduced by a decree of the ſenate, in the time of the Emperor Claudius, and at length abrogated by Leo. The Romans had the power of life and death over their ſlaves which no other nations had: but this ſeverity was afterwards moderated by the laws of the emperors; Adrian, particularly, made it a capital crime to kill a ſlave without cauſe. The ſlaves were eſteemed the proper goods

their maſters, and all they got belonged to them; but if the maſter was too cruel in his domeſtic corrections, he was obliged to ſell his ſlave at a moderate price. As ſlavery was not aboliſhed by the goſpel, the cuſtom of keeping ſlaves laſted a long time in Chriſtendom. In the time of Louis the groſs, they were ſo numerous in Egypt, that it was found a difficult matter to quell a body of them who had made head againſt their maſters: yet Bartolus, who lived in 1360, obſerves, there were none left in his days.

Slavery is abſolutely aboliſhed in England and France, as to perſonal ſervitude; where ſervants are not ſlaves, but only ſubject to certain determinate ſervices; and it is ſaid, that the moment a ſlave ſets his foot upon Engliſh ground, he becomes free.

Slaves make a conſiderable article of the traffic in America. See *Negro*, *Africa*, and *Guinea*.

SLEASY-*Holland*. A kind of holland thus called, becauſe made in Sileſia, in Germany; and which, from its ſlightneſs, occaſions all thin, ſlight, illwrought hollands, to be called ſleaſy.

SLESWICK, or *South Jutland*, is bounded by North Jutland on the north; by the Baltic ſea on the eaſt; by Holſtein on the ſouth; and by the German ocean on the weſt; being 60 miles long, and 45 broad, over which the King of Denmark and Duke of Holſtein are joint ſovereigns; only there are ſome towns and bailliages in which theſe princes have a ſeparate juriſdiction. See *Denmark* and *Germany*.

SLIDING *rule*. A mathematical inſtrument, ſerving to work queſtions in gauging, and meaſuring, without the uſe of compaſſes; merely by the ſliding of the parts of the inſtrument one by another; the lines and diviſions whereof give the anſwer by inſpection.

This inſtrument is variouſly contrived, and applied by various authors; particularly Everard, Coggeſhal, Gunter, Hunt, and Partridge; but the moſt uſual and uſeful ones, are thoſe of Everard and Coggeſhal; the deſcription and uſes whereof are as follow:

Everard's ſliding rule is principally uſed in gauging; being ordinarily made of box, a foot long, and an inch broad, and $\frac{6}{10}$ of an inch thick. It conſiſts of three parts; a rule, on each ſide whereof is a groove; and two ſmall ſcales, or ſliding pieces, which ſlide in the grooves: when both theſe pieces are drawn out to their full extent, the inſtrument is three feet long.

Coggeſhal's ſliding rule is principally uſed in meaſuring of the ſuperficies, or ſolidity of timber, and ſtone: it conſiſts of two rulers, each a foot long, which are framed or put together various ways; ſometimes they are made to ſlide by one another, like glaziers rules; ſometimes a groove is made in the inſide of a common two-foot joint rule, and a thin ſliding piece put in, with Coggeſhal's lines added on that ſide: but the moſt uſual and commodious way, is to have one of the rulers ſlide along a groove made along the middle of the other.

SLING, at ſea, means to hang a bowl with liquor ſo in a rope, that it may comply with all motions of the ſhip without ſpilling the liquor.

SLINGING, is uſed variouſly at ſea; but chiefly for the hoiſting up caſks, and other heavy things with ſlings, that is, contrivances of ropes ſpliced into themſelves at either end, with one eye big enough to receive the caſk, or other thing, to be ſlung.

SLOOP. A ſort of floating veſſel, other called ſhallop. See *Shallop*.

In the Britiſh navy ſloops are commonly tenders on the men of war, and are uſually about 60 ton, carrying about 30 men: but ſometimes they are diſtinct veſſels of war, carrying about 16 guns. See *Navy*.

SLOP-*Shop-keeper*, is a perſon who furniſhes ſeamen with all kind of ſhirts, jackets, trouzers, and other marine apparel; which, on ſhip-board, are called ſlops.

SLUICE. A frame of timber, ſtone, or other matter, ſerving to retain, or raiſe the water of a river, and, on occaſion, to let it paſs; ſuch is the ſluice of a mill, which ſtops and collects the water of a rivulet, to let it fall, at length, with greater plenty on the mill-wheel: ſuch alſo are thoſe uſed as vents, or drains, to diſcharge water off

land. And ſuch are the ſluices of Flanders, which ſerve to prevent the waters of the ſea overflowing the lower land, except when there is occaſion to drown them.

Sometimes there is a kind of canal incloſed between two gates, or ſluices, in artificial navigations, to ſave the water, and to render the paſſage of boats equally eaſy, and ſafe, upwards and downwards; as in the ſluices of Briare in France, which are a kind of maſſive walls built parallel to each other, at the diſtance of 20 or 24 feet, cloſed with ſtrong gates at each end; between which is a kind of canal or chamber, conſiderably longer than broad, wherein a veſſel being incloſed, the water is let out at the firſt gate, by which the veſſel is raiſed 15 or 16 feet, and paſſed out of this canal into another much higher. By ſuch means a boat is conveyed out of the Loire into the Seyne, tho' the ground between them riſes above 150 feet higher than either of thoſe rivers.

SLUYS. A port-town of Dutch Flanders, ſituated in 3 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 18 min. of N. lat. oppoſite to the iſland of Cadſant, 10 miles N. E. of Bruges, and 21 miles N. W. of Ghent.

SMACK, is a kind of veſſel with one ſail.

SMALL COAL, uſed for lighting of fires, is prepared from the ſpray, and bruſh-wood, ſtripped off from the branches of coppice-wood, ſometimes bound in bavins for that purpoſe, and ſometimes prepared without binding. The wood they diſpoſe on a level floor, and ſetting a part of it on fire, throw on more and more as faſt as it kindles; whence ariſes a ſudden blaze, till all is burnt that was near the place. As ſoon as all the wood is thrown on, they caſt water on the heap, from a large diſh, or ſcoop; and thus keep plying the heap of glowing coals, which ſtops the fury of the fire; while, with a rake, they ſpread it open, and turn it with ſhovels till no more fire appears. When cold they are put up into ſacks and ſold for uſe. See *Coal*.

SMALT. A kind of mineral matter, prepared and purified abroad, and brought to England, ſometimes in form of a blue powder, and ſometimes in cakes; chiefly uſed with ſtarch, to give linens the finer and clearer caſt; and beſt known by the name of ſtone, or powder-blue.

The preparation of ſmalt, as practiſed in Hermanduria, we find deſcribed in the Philoſophical Tranſactions by Dr. Krieg, who tell us, that the matter it is made of, is the mineral ſtone called cobalt, or cadmia, which being pulverized, and the lighter ſtuff waſhed away, the remainder is laid on a furnace, underneath and beſide it, the flames whereof are reverberated over it; a matter is ſeparated from it in form of a ſmoak, which ſticking to the walls, makes what we call arſenic. See *Arſenic*.

When the cobalt has done ſmoaking it is cooled, mixed with pot-aſhes, and powder of white flint-ſtones, the mixture put in pots, and melted for five or ſix hours in a furnace: by this means the matter is formed into a blue glaſs, which being put into cold water, cracks, and grows tender, and is at length powdered by an engine, the fineſt part ſeparated by a ſieve, put into a mill, and ground in water into an impalpable powder, which by waſhing is ſtill further ſeparated from all coarſeneſs, barrelled up and ſent away.

SMARAGD. A precious ſtone of a green colour, very beautiful and brillant, but brittle: called alſo emerald. See *Emerald*.

The oriental ſmaragds are moſt eſteemed, as being the hardeſt, and their ſplendor the moſt vigorous; ſo as even to tinge the air with their greenneſs. Great virtues are aſcribed to the ſmaragd or emerald: Carden, and others ſay, it reſiſts plagues, poiſons, and dyſenteries, and that it refreſhes the ſpirits.

SMELTING, among metalliſts, the melting of a metal in the ore, in a ſmelting furnace; in order to ſeparate the metallic from the earthy and other parts.

Smelting, in propriety, is reſtrained to large works, wherein ores from the mines are melted down and ſeparated: in ſmaller works they do not ſay ſmelting, but melting.

SMITH. A perſon employed in ſeveral branches of manufacturing iron and ſteel; as for grates, locks, jacks, paliſadoes, anvils, files, ſaws, ſpring-curtains, printers work, coach-tyre, and guns. Some of theſe are uſually called

white

white-ſmiths, and the black-ſmith is he who makes ſhoes for horſes and other coarſe work.

SMOKED, or *Red herring*. See *Herring-fiſhery*.

SMUGGLING. A cant word for the running of goods, or the clandeſtine running them without paying cuſtom.

SMUGGLER. One who makes a trade of doing any thing ſecretly, and unjuſtifiably; but the name is more notoriouſly applied to thoſe who import foreign goods into a nation, without paying the duties or cuſtoms appointed.

Tho' the ſmugglers of wool are the moſt prejudicial, they are not the only ſort of men who contribute to the impoveriſhment of their country, and the ruin of the fair trader, to which they have been long incited by the high duties on French wines and brandies, and lately by the prohibition of cambrics and French lawns: for it is evident that deſperate men ſet the danger at defiance for the ſake of the profit; and it is evident, that there is no way ſo effectual to aboliſh the evil, as to remove the temptation. It muſt be granted, that the duties are ſo rigidly levied in the port of London, that it is next to an impoſſibility for any conſiderable fraud to be committed there; but theſe duties are not ſo punctually collected in other places, where there are a ſpecies of importers, little better than licenſed ſmugglers, who have moſt inviting opportunities ſo to manage matters with the officers, that ſometimes goods are landed without any entry at all, and ſometimes fraudulent entries are made, that the officer may ſeem to DO, and the trader to PAY his duty.

That the great number of ſmugglers are of great detriment to trade, is very apparent; becauſe they carry nothing but bullion, or wool, out of the kingdom; and return principally with the commodities of France: they are the neceſſary cauſe of creating ſeveral officers, maintaining ſloops, ſmacks, and other veſſels, for their detection; and they furniſh a pretence for encumbering the nation with the addition of many more. Thus they become doubly pernicious, and tempt others to do the like, for fear of being ruined in their lawful trades by being underſold.

When the brave and honeſt Admiral Vernon, during the late rebellion, ſo prudently and vigilantly protected the Britiſh coaſts, againſt the threatened invaſion of France, he was ſenſible that the Engliſh ſmugglers carried intelligence to the French, and were the moſt perfidious traytors to their country: at that time, according to the Admiral's intelligence, 700 ſmugglers had their reſidence in and about the neighbourhood of Deal, Dover, Ramſgate, and Folkſtone, who perpetually proſecuted an infamous trade with France; a trade which had converted thoſe employed in it, from honeſt induſtrious fiſhermen, to lazy, drunken, and profligate ſmugglers: yet, till there is a proper ſubordination introduced, and the qualification for voting ſomething altered from what it is at preſent, no effectual cure for this growing evil can be ſeaſonably applied; becauſe, theſe very ſmugglers, their relations, friends, dealers, or acquaintance, are the electors for members to ſerve in parliament, and, it muſt be naturally concluded, have ſome conſiderations for their ſervices.

So numerous, ſo deſperate, ſo pernicious, were the increaſing gangs of ſmugglers, and the laws of cuſtoms or exciſe ſo much put in defiance, tnat the legiſlature were under an abſolute neceſſity of concerting ſome preventive meaſures againſt ſo obnoxious an evil. In conſequence of which, an act of parliament was paſſed in 1746 to enforce the laws againſt ſmugglers; the preamble ſetting forth, That divers diſſolute perſons had aſſociated, and entered into confederacies to ſupport one another, appearing in great gangs in ſeveral parts of the kingdom, carrying fire arms and other offenſive weapons, to facilitate the pernicious practice of ſmuggling, to the great diſcouragement of the fair trader, and the loſs of the public revenue, wherein it was enacted, "That if any perſons, to "the number of three or four, armed with ſuch offen- "ſive weapons, ſhould be aſſembled, in order to aſſiſt in "the illegal running of wool, or other goods prohibited "to be exported; or in the running or carrying away "prohibited or uncuſtomed goods, or goods liable to "pay any duties, which had not been paid or ſecured; "or in the illegal relanding of any goods ſhipped upon "debenture or certificate; or in reſcuing the ſame after "ſeizure; or in reſcuing any perſon apprehended for any "of the offences, made felony by this, or any other act "relating to the revenues of cuſtoms or exciſe; or in "the preventing the apprehending any ſuch: or if three, "or more, ſhould have their face blacked, or wear any "vizard, maſk, or other diſguiſe, when paſſing with "ſuch goods; or ſhould forcibly hinder, or aſſault, any "of the officers of the revenue in ſeizing any ſuch goods; "or dangerouſly wound any ſuch in his attempting to "go on board any veſſel, within the limits of any port, "or wound him on board, or in the execution of his "office; the offender being convicted, ſhould be ad- "judged guilty of felony, and ſuffer death as in caſes of "felony, without benefit of clergy: and perſons convicted "within Scotland, ſhould ſuffer death, and confiſcation of "moveables."

By this act, if any perſons, charged with ſuch offences ſhould not ſurrender themſelves, within 40 days after iſſuing a proclamation for that purpoſe, they ſhould ſuffer death. If any perſon, after the time appointed for the ſurrender of any charged with ſuch offences, ſhould harbour or ſuccour them, he ſhould be tranſported for ſeven years. If any officer, in endeavouring to apprehend offenders againſt this act ſhould be beaten, or killed, or the goods ſeized ſhould be reſcued; in ſuch caſes the inhabitants of every rape, lath, or hundred, where the facts ſhould be committed, ſhould make full ſatisfaction for the reſpective damages, and ſhould alſo pay 100 l. to the repreſentatives of each perſon ſo killed: but the ſum for beating is not to exceed 40 l. or for the loſs of goods 200 l. Beſides, for the diſcovering of ſuch offenders, who ſhould be proclaimed, and not ſurrender within time, that every perſon who ſhould take ſuch offender in England, ſhould receive 500 l. for every ſuch perſon.

But, while ſuch large advantages are to be made from any branch of illicit traffic, while the golden branch is in view, and gives an invitation to the reſolute adventurer, ſmuggling will be continued: life will be deſpiſed for the ſake of intereſt, and the fears of death will be ſuperſeded by the hopes of an accumulated heap of treaſure. Penal laws have been found ineffectual: the only way for a total ſuppreſſion of ſuch abominable evils, is to purſue the political rule; and we can never expect to find the abatement of ſmuggling, till there is a diminution of the exceſſive duties: by removing the temptation, clandeſtine trade muſt be ſuffocated; the fair market flouriſh in a happy condition; ſhop-keepers ſupport their credit; bankruptcies add no diſgrace to the nation; and the whole community ſhare the bleſſings of a free, a neceſſary, and advantageous branch of commerce.

By a royal ordinance in France of 1687, penal laws were enacted againſt the guards, that ſhould have an underſtanding with the merchants to favour frauds: and by another of 1701, it was ordained, that every trader or merchant, concerned in defrauding the king of his duties ſhould be declared infamous, and incapable of any buſineſs or traffic during life; in conſequence of which they were prohibited carrying it on, it being alſo enjoined that no perſons whatſover ſhould have any correſpondence with them in point of trade; and that their ſhops ſhould be walled up, their coats of arms and titles eraſed, and their names and ſurnames written upon a tablet to be ſet up in the hall or court of conſular juriſdiction, if there be one in the ſame town, and if not, in that neareſt to it; that their factors, agents, carriers, and others that ſhould be concerned in theſe frauds, be expoſed to public ſhame in the pillory, during three market days; and that the receivers, comptrollers, overſeers, guards, and others employed in the cuſtom-houſes, accomplices alſo in theſe frauds, be condemned to the gallies for nine years, and their places confiſcated.

The penalty of death is alſo, by other ancient edicts, denounced againſt the officers of the revenue, that cauſe falſe regiſters to be made, or give falſe copies of them, ſigned with their hand; or counterfeit the hand of the judges, and other commiſſioners.

That

That any private perſon, on whom the crown has a demand, who ſhould have counterfeited the marks of perſons employed in the cuſtomhouſes, their licences, receipts, paſſports, certificates, or other inſtruments, be condemned for the firſt time, to be whipped and baniſhed for five years, with a fine that ſhould not be leſs than a fourth part of his eſtate, or effects; and in caſe of his offending a ſecond time, to the gallies for nine years, with a fine that ſhould not be leſs than a moiety of his effects.

Above 20,000 l. a year is expended by the Britiſh government, in maintaining cruizers againſt the ſmugglers; who, notwithſtanding the vigilance of the officers, ſtill continue their contraband trade, and particularly from the iſle of Man.

SMUT. A diſeaſe in corn, whereby the pulp or meal thereof is damaged; and its natural ſubſtance, taſte, and colour altered.

The ſmut is uſually aſcribed by the huſbandmen to the exceſſive rankneſs of the ſoil, to the manuring the land with rotten vegetables, as ſtraw, hawn, and fern, and to the ſowing ſmutty ſeed.

SMYRNA. A city and port-town of Aſiatic Turky, ſituated on a bay of the Archipelago, in Leſſer Aſia, in the province of Ionia, in 27 deg. of E. lon. and in 37 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 100 miles north of the iſland of Rhodes, and 200 miles S. W. of Conſtantinople. See *Turky*.

SNAKE *root*. See *Serpentaria*.

SNATCH *block*, in a ſhip, is a great block, with a ſhiver in it, and a notch cut through one of the cheeks, by which a rope is reeved into it very expeditiouſly, as well in the middle as at the ends: it is commonly faſtened to the main-maſt with a ſtrap, and uſed for the winding tackle.

SNUFF. A preparation of tobacco, made by reducing it into a powder, fit to be taken at the noſe, in order to purge, or clear the head of pituita. See *Tobacco*.

Ordinarily, tobacco is the baſis of ſnuff, other matters being only added to give it a more agreeable ſcent. The kinds of ſnuff, and their ſeveral names, are numerous, and new ones are daily invented: ſo that it would be difficult, not to ſay impoſſible, to give a detail of them: however, the three grand ſorts are, firſt, the granulated; the ſecond, an impalpable powder; and the third, the bran, or coarſe part remaining after ſifting the ſecond ſort.

By acts paſſed in the 1ſt and 5th George I. ſnuff made, mixed, or coloured with oaker, umber, &c. except water tinged with Venetian red, or fuſtick, yellow ebony, touch-wood, dirt, ſand, or tobacco duſt mixed therewith, is forfeited, with 3 l. for every pound weight, by the maker or ſeller.

The powers and proviſions relating to counterfeit tobacco, are to extend to the abuſes in making and mixing of ſnuff.

SNUFF-BOXES, are no inconſiderable article of trade; being made of gold, ſilver, braſs, or tin; as alſo of rich pebbles, wood, or tortoiſe-ſhell, ſet in thoſe metals: beſides, there is a new manufacture of ſnuff-boxes invented in France, made of paper, condenſed to a hard conſiſtence, and painted; but theſe ſnuff-boxes are likewiſe now made in England.

SOAP, or *Sope*. A kind of paſte, ſometimes hard and dry, and ſometimes ſoft and liquid; much uſed in waſhing and whitening linens, and for other purpoſes, by the dyers, perfumers, hatters, and fullers.

The principal ſoaps of Britiſh manufacture, are the ſoft, the hard, and the ball ſoap; the ſoft ſoap again is either white or green. Green ſoft ſoap is made of lees drawn from pot-aſh, and lime boiled up with tallow and oil. White ſoft ſoap is made after the ſame manner as green ſoft ſoap, the oil excepted, which is not uſed in the white. The other ſort of white ſoft ſoap is made from lees of the aſhes of lime, boiled up, at twice, without tallow, which is put out of the copper into the ſame ſort of caſks as are uſed in green ſoft ſoap.

Ball-SOAP, commonly uſed in the North, is made with lees from aſhes and tallow, put out of the copper into tubs or baſkets, with ſheets in them, and immmediately, while ſoft, made into balls.

Hard SOAP, is made of lees from aſhes and tallow, and moſt commonly boiled at twice.

Mr. Tew addreſſes himſelf to the hard ſoap-makers, in the following manner:

The proceſs for making hard ſoap is exceeding plain and eaſy, when certain unerring rules are laid down for the workman to know the certain weight or ſtrength of his lees, on which almoſt every thing depends. As this plan is entirely devoted to the hard ſoap-makers now carrying on the buſineſs, I take it for granted they are all maſters of mixing their wood-aſhes and lime properly to ſet their vats or tubs to extract the alcaline ſalt or lees from the ſaid aſhes.

To reduce this to a certainty, we muſt have recourſe to weights and ſcales; and as water is the body into which the ſalts are infuſed, we ſuppoſe the parts of any given, or certain quantity of water to conſiſt of one hundred and twenty-eight.

For inſtance; take a ſmall ſquare bottle, containing about 4 oz. make a weight with a piece of lead, the exact weight of the bottle; then filling the bottle with water, add in the weight-ſcale as many ſmall ſhot as will exactly balance the water in the bottle: when this is done, lay aſide the bottle and water, and the lead-weight the empty bottle weighed; then divide the ſhot very exactly into two equal parts; this firſt diviſion will be $\frac{64}{128}$; this weight being much too heavy for any uſe, divide your ſhot again; this ſecond diviſion will be $\frac{32}{128}$; this weight is likewiſe too heavy for uſe, divide your ſhot the third time, the weight will then be $\frac{16}{128}$, and is the firſt weight uſed in weighing lees: therefore take a piece of thin milled lead, and make a weight called $\frac{16}{128}$; then divide the ſhot the fourth time, this weight will be $\frac{8}{128}$; the fifth diviſion will be $\frac{4}{128}$; the ſixth diviſion will be $\frac{2}{128}$; and the ſeventh diviſion will be $\frac{1}{128}$ parts. A true and perfect ſet of weights being thus made, it remains now to ſhew their juſt value and uſe; inſtead of thoſe trifling and uncertain obſervations hitherto made uſe of, by an egg ſet afloat in the lees, or by the colour, or the pungency on the tongue, with many other fallacious ſymptoms.

The general run of common wood-aſhes will not increaſe the weight of water above $\frac{10}{128}$, and is too weak to mix with tallow; for which reaſon every ſoap-maker that charges his copper with lees of that weight, will find when the lees and tallow are incorporated in one body, and become ſoap, that the body is very thin, and his copper full of water inſtead of alcaline ſalt, that it is with great labour and trouble prevented from boiling over; and when the workman proceeds to grain the ſoap, that is, by ſeparating the water from the tallow and alcaline ſalt, now become one body, by throwing in common ſalt; the lees being thus weak, it will take a very great quantity of ſalt to ſeparate and raiſe the curd to the ſurface, and will, with great difficulty, be reſtrained from flowing over the copper at the criſis of this ſeparation.

At once, to obviate all theſe troubleſome and expenſive inconveniencies, purſue this plain method.

When a proper quantity of lees are drawn, in order to make them into ſoap, have recourſe to your bottle and ſcales, to know what they weigh, and inſtead of putting in the tallow, boil away the watery part of the lees till they weigh $\frac{15}{128}$ parts more than common water: be cautious in this experiment of breaking your bottle, by weighing the lees too hot: then charge what quantity of tallow you think proper; and when melted, damp the fire, and let it lye all night; in the morning the ſoap will appear under the ſcum of a blackiſh colour; and to know when a due proportion of lees are properly added, obſerve theſe plain ſymptoms.

When the fire is ſtirred up, and the ſoap begins to boil, take a very thin knife finely poliſhed, the blade about five inches long, and near half an inch broad; dip this knife into the ſoap about two inches, holding the edge upwards; if it wants lees, the tail that drops from the point of the knife will appear as thick as a thread, and ſeem full of little knots, eſpecially at the end; and the ſoap on the blade of the knife will appear thin and watery; and, on preſſing the flat of the thumb to the knife, drawing it back haſtily, no point of ſoap will remain on your thumb; but when a due quantity of lees are ſupplied, the following

unerring ſymptoms will appear. On dipping your knife, as before directed, the ſoap will fall from the point as fine as a hair, without knots, and very long; but the rule that never varies is, a fine white liſt will appear on the edge of your knife as broad as the edge of a ſixpence; and on preſſing your thumb as before directed, whilſt the ſoap is warm, againſt the blade of the knife, the ſoap will remain on your thumb with a point quite erect; when theſe ſymptoms appear, proceed to graining, and you will find half the ſalt will do when your lees are charged thus ſtrong.

The ſecond operation is ſo ſimple and eaſy, that it ſcarce deſerves notice; for when the half boil is thus made, it only wants to be re-boiled on clear ſmall lees, weighing two or three 128th parts, in order to clarify and tough the ſoap, to prevent the brittleneſs it would have if finiſhed in the firſt operation on ſuch ſtrong lees: when the light frothy ſcum is all boiled in, and the lees ſpout up clear through the curd, the ſoap is finiſhed, and fit to frame.

Perſons not acquainted with the nature of alcaline ſalt, will perhaps be afraid of boiling away their lees; though they may be aſſured nothing can evaporate but the water; and by boiling three pints of lees weighing ten, in a common ſaucepan, till they are waſted to one quart, they will find by their weight this fact demonſtrated.

July being the proper ſeaſon for cutting fern, nettles, thiſtles, beans, potatoes, peaſe, and every weed of the field, every hard ſoap-maker in the country will do well immediately to hire labouring men to cut all ſuch vegetables whilſt they are full of ſap, and abound with alcaline ſalts, and burn them as green as poſſible on a brick-hearth in ſome old chimney, not ſuffering the fire to burſt into flame; and when a proper heap of aſhes are burnt on ſuch hearths, whilſt they are glowing hot, ſprinkle on wood-aſh lees, weighing four or ſix $\frac{1}{28}$ parts, till the fire is quite extinguiſhed.

This plain, eaſy, cheap method will almoſt form the duſt of theſe vegetables into pot-aſh; and every ſoap-maker will find one buſhel of aſhes thus prepared, worth four buſhels of common wood-aſhes.

The ſame perſon alſo ſaid, that he would addreſs the landed intereſt, and prove paſt all exception, that if the uſe of hard ſoap becomes general, 100,000 l. will be ſaved this nation in two articles, foreign pot-aſhes and olive-oil; and to the people in the exciſe on ſoap, full 1-3d part thereof, being 30,000 l. as it is demonſtrable that 1 lb. of hard ſoap will anſwer all the uſes of 1 lb. and a half of ſoft ſoap. This being proved, every gentleman will perſuade, recommend, or command the uſe of hard ſoap in his family.

By an act of the 10th of Queen Anne, foreign ſoap ſhipped for exportation, and afterwards relanded, is forfeited, or the value, beſides the penalty of the bond; and there is to be paid upon all ſoap imported into Great Britain, 2 d. for every pound avoirdupois; which act is made perpetual by the 3d of George I.

SOAP-*earth*. A ſmooth unctuous ſort of earth found in the Levant, and uſed as a ſoap; which Dr. Smith tells us is only had in two places near Duraclea, ſix leagues to the eaſt of Smyrna. It is in effect a fine ſoap of itſelf, boiling and ſhooting up out of the earth; but ſhould be gathered always before ſun-riſe, and in mornings when there falls no dew; ſo that a ſtock muſt be laid up in the ſummer-months to ſerve all the year. In ſome places it comes up an inch or two above the ground; but the ſun riſing on it, makes it fall again; yet every morning there returns a freſh crop.

SOAPMAKER, or *Soapboiler*. A perſon who makes ſoap.

SOAPMAKERS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 13th of Charles I. dated the 25th of May 1638, by the name of The maſter, wardens, and commonalty of ſoapmakers of London; who conſiſt of a maſter, 2 wardens, and 15 aſſiſtants; but having neither livery nor hall, treat of their affairs in Guildhall.

SOCIETY. An aſſemblage or union of ſeveral perſons in the ſame place, for their mutual ſecurity, aſſiſtance, intereſt, or entertainmeut. See *Corporation*, and *Company*.

Royal SOCIETY. See *Royal* ſociety.

SOCIETY, in trade, is a compact or agreement, between two or more perſons, whereby they bind themſelves together for a certain time, and agree to ſhare equally in the profits and loſſes which ſhall accrue in the affair, for which the ſociety or copartnerſhip is contracted. There are ſeveral very conſiderable ſocieties of this kind in England; as the merchant-adventurers, the Turky, Eaſt India, Ruſſia, Eaſtland, Greenland, African, South-ſea, and Hudſon's bay companies; the inſtitutions and policies whereof ſee under their reſpective articles.

SOCONUSCO. A port-town of Mexico, in North America, the capital of the province of Soconuſco, ſituated on the Pacific ocean, in 98 deg. of W. lon. and 15 deg. of N. lat. 200 miles S. E. of Acapulco.

SOCOTORA. An iſland of the Indian ocean, ſituated in 53 deg. of E. lon. and in 11 deg. of N. lat. 120 miles N. E. of Cape Gardefoy in Africa. See *Zocotora*.

SODDER. See *Solder*.

SOFALA. Capital of the territory of Sofala in Africa, ſituated in 35 deg. of E. lon. and 20 deg. of S. lat. at the mouth of the river Sofala, 400 miles S. W. of Moſambique; where the Portugueſe have a ſettlement, and pretend that the natives are ſubject to them.

SOFT *herbs*. See Soft *Herb*.

SOGBU. See *Philippines*.

SOIL, in agriculture and gardening, denotes earth or ground, conſidered with regard to the quality of its mould for the production and growth of vegetables.

Mr. Bradley reduces all ſoils to three heads or kinds, which are ſand, loam or mother earth, and clay.

Gravels, and all the open ſoils, till we come to loam, are of the ſandy race; and the binding earths, from loam down to the ſtiffneſs of chalk, may be ranged under the clay kind.

Loam, or mother-earth, is the medium between the two, and includes all the intermediate kinds. A mixture of two or three of theſe ſoils is generally better than any ſimple ſoil, eſpecially where the hot and dry are mixed with the cold and moiſt. Clay laid on ſand or gravel, or ſand on clay, is the better manure.

It is not the nature of the ſoil alone, but its depth muſt alſo be regarded, and what ſoil is underneath: for the beſt ſoil, if it be not a foot deep, and lie on a ſtiff clay, or hard cold ſtone, is not ſo fertile as a leaner ſoil of greater depth, or lying on a warm lime-ſtone, ſand, or gravel; through which the ſuperfluous moiſture may deſcend, and not ſtagnate on the clay or ſtone, to chill the roots of the plants. Indeed, regard is to be had to the climate; for even in England, cold and moiſt clays are more fruitful in the ſouth than the north.

Some general rules with reſpect to ſoils are as follow: 1. All land that moulders to duſt with froſt, with all ſorts of warm lands, black mould, yellow clay, if not too wet, and that turns black after rain, are good for corn. 2. Lands bringing forth large trees and weeds, black thorn, thiſtle, and rank graſs, generally prove fruitful. 3. Strawberries, betony, and thyme, give indication to wood, and camomile to a mould diſpoſed for corn. 4. All land that binds after froſt and rain, and turns white, and full of worms, that is extremely moiſt, bears holly, yew, box, broom, heath, or moſs, is of a cold temperature. 5. Black, dun, and yellow ſand, and hot ſtoney gravel, are generally unfruitful.

SOK, or *Soc*. A long meaſure, uſed in the kingdom of Siam. See *Ken*.

SOL, or *Sou*. A French coin of billon, that is, copper, with a little ſilver mixed, worth 39-80ths of a penny ſterling; being equal to 12 deniers, or French pence, and the 20th part of the livre or pound.

The Dutch have alſo two kinds of ſols; the one of ſilver, called ſols de gros, and likewiſe ſchilling; the other of copper, called alſo ſtyver.

The ſol of Savoy is worth 3-4ths of a penny ſterling.

SOLAR. Something belonging to the ſun.

SOLAR *year*, conſiſts of 365 days, 5 hours, and 49 minutes, in oppoſition to the lunar year, which only conſiſts of 365 days. The ſolar year is either tropical or ſidereal.

SOLAR *tropical year*, is the ſpace of time, wherein the ſun returns again to tha ſame equinoctial or ſolſtitial point, which is always equal to 365 days, 5 hours, and about 49 minutes.

SOLAR *ſidereal year*, is the ſpace wherein the ſun comes back to any particular fixed ſtar, which is about 365 days, 8 hours, and 9 minutes.

SOLDANELLA, or *Sea-cabbage*. A ſmall plant of very ſlender roots, and leaves reſembling thoſe of the ariſtolochia. Its flowers are of a purple colour; and the whole plant, which is found abundantly on ſome coaſts of the ocean, and reputed good in the dropſy, ſhould be choſen new, and as little ſhattered as poſſible.

SOLDANIA *bay*. A bay of the Atlantic ocean, ſituated in 15 deg. of E. lon. and in 33 deg. 30 min. of S. lat. on the S. W. coaſt of Africa, a little N. of the Cape of Good Hope.

SOLDER, *Sodder*, or *Soder*. A metallic or mineral compoſition, uſed in ſoldering or joining together other metals.

Solders are made of gold, ſilver, copper, tin, biſmuth, and lead; always obſerving, that in the compoſition there be ſome of the metal to be ſoldered, mixed with ſome higher and finer metals.

Goldſmiths uſually make four kinds of ſolder; namely, ſolder of eight, where, to ſeven parts of ſilver, there is one of braſs, or copper; ſolder of ſix, where only a 6th part is copper; ſolder of four, and ſolder of three. It is the mixture of copper in the ſolder, that makes raiſed plate always come cheaper than flat.

The ſolder uſed by plumbers is made of two parts of lead to one of block tin. Its goodneſs is tried by melting it, and pouring the bigneſs of a crown-piece on a table; for, if good, there will ariſe little, bright, ſhining ſtars.

The ſolder for copper is made like that of the plumbers, only with copper and tin. For very nice works, inſtead of tin, they ſometimes uſe a quantity of ſilver.

Solder for tin is made of 2-3ds of tin, and one of lead: but where the work is any thing delicate, as in organ-pipes, where the juncture is ſcarce diſcernable, it is made of one part of tin-glaſs, and three parts of pewter.

SOLDERING, among mechanicks. The joining and faſtening together of two pieces of the ſame metal, or of two different metals, by the fuſion and application of ſome metallic compoſition on the extremities of the metal to be joined. See *Solder*.

In the ſoldering of metals they generally uſe borax in powder, and ſometimes roſin. As to iron, it is ſufficient to heat it red hot, and in this ſtate to hammer the two extremities together; by which means they become incorporated.

SOLDI, or *Soldis*. Monies of accompt uſed in ſeveral towns of Italy, as alſo in Geneva and Liege, but not of the ſame value; as 58 of Leghorn, 83 of Bologna, 63 of Geneva, 94 of Milan, 60 of Nova, and 96 of Genoa, make 2 s. $5\frac{1}{4}$ d. ſterling.

SOLENDALE. A port town of Norway. See *Denmark*.

SOLES. A ſort of tanned hides. See *Hides*.

SOLICITOR. A perſon employed to follow, and take care of other perſons ſuits depending in courts of law or equity, formerly allowed only to nobility, whoſe menial ſervants they were, but now frequently uſed to others, to the great increaſe of champarty and maintenance.

SOLIMAN-DOSTYN. The Indians ſo call an excellent root for dying, found in ſome provinces of Perſia, and called by the Perſians *ruynas*.

SOLOMON's *iſlands*. A cluſter of iſlands in the Pacific ocean, ſituated between 130 and 140 deg. of W. lon. and between 7 and 12 deg. of S. lat. of which we have very little knowledge; no Europeans having thought fit to ſend any colonies thither.

SOLOTA. A money of Turky, worth about $10\frac{3}{4}$ d. ſterling.

SOLSTICE, in aſtronomy. The time when the ſun is in one of the ſolſtitial points, that is, when he is at his greateſt diſtance from the equator, which is 23 deg. and a half: thus called, becauſe he then appears to ſtand ſtill, and not to change his place in the degrees of the zodiac any way; an appearance owing to the obliquity of our ſphere, and which thoſe who live under the equator are ſtrangers to.

The ſolſtices are two in each year; the æſtival or ſummer ſolſtice, and the hyemal or winter ſolſtice. The ſummer-ſolſtice is when the ſun is in the tropic of Cancer, which is on the 11th of June, when he makes the longeſt day.

The winter-ſolſtice is when he enters the firſt degree of Capricorn, which is on the 11th of December, when he begins to return towards us, and makes the ſhorteſt day. This is to be underſtood as in our northern hemiſphere; for in the ſouthern the ſun's entrance into Capricorn makes the ſummer-ſolſtice, and that into Cancer the winter-ſolſtice.

SOLSTITIAL *points*, are thoſe points of the ecliptic, whereby the ſun's aſcent above the equator, and his deſcent below it, are determinated. The firſt point, which is in the beginning of the firſt degree of Cancer, is called the æſtival or ſummer point; and the latter, which is in the beginning of the firſt degree of Capricorn, the hyemal or winter point.

SOMBERO. One of the Caribbee iſlands in the American ocean, ſituated in 63 deg. of W. lon. and 18 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. 80 miles N. W. of St. Chriſtopher's.

SOMME. A river of France, which runs from eaſt to weſt through Picardy, paſſing by Amiens and Abbeville, and falling into the Britiſh channel near St. Vallery.

SOMPAYE. The ſmalleſt ſilver coin ſtruck and current at Siam, worth about 2 d. ſterling. The ſompaye is divided into 2 payes, and each paye into 2 clams; but theſe are two monies of accompt. The ſompaye, and its diminutions, ſerve alſo for weight; the clam weighing 12 grains of rice, and the others in proportion.

SOMPI. A weight uſed by the inhabitants of Madagaſcar for gold and ſilver, being equivalent to the dram. The diminutions of the ſompi are the vari or half dram, the ſacare or ſcruple, the nanqui or half ſcruple, and the nanque conſiſting of 6 grains.

SONTO, is a term at China for a ſort of tea in great vogue, and brought in conſiderable quantities from Canton to Batavia.

SOOT. An earthy, volatile matter, ariſing from wood, coals, and other fuel, along with the ſmoak, by the action of the fire; or rather it is the ſmoak itſelf, fixed and gathered to the ſides of the chimney.

Soot is found an excellent manure for corn-lands, eſpecially where the ſoil is cold: and the dyers alſo make conſiderable uſe of ſoot, for a kind of dun colour, which, it is true, has no agreeable ſmell, but in return has the property of ſaving cloths and other ſtuffs from moths.

SOOT *of frankincenſe*, is the ſmalleſt and fineſt part of the incenſe, called olibanum, or male incenſe, burnt after the manner of roſin to make lamp-black. See *Frankincenſe*.

SOPE. See *Soap*.

SOPHISTICATION, in chemiſtry and alchymy. A term particularly applied to the counterfeit works of fraudulent alchymiſts, who uſe indirect means of whitening copper, gilding ſilver, and giving other ſuperficial tinctures; as alſo of making augmentations, by divers mixtures, and other illegal operations, to delude thoſe at whoſe expence they are employed. Hence the term is applied to merchandiſes, and other goods adulterated, mixed or altered by the deceit of the ſeller. See *Adulteration*.

Muſk at preſent is almoſt all ſophiſticated, as well as bezoard, balm of Gilead, lapis lazuli, and other valuable drugs. Canary wines are alſo ſophiſticated on the place, before ever they come near the Engliſh ports.

SOR. See *Arabia*.

SORRENTO. A city and port-town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, and province of Lavoro, ſituated on the ſouthern ſhore of the bay of Naples, in 15 deg. of E. lon. and 40 deg. of N. lat. 18 miles ſouth of the city of Naples.

SORY. The antients ſo called a kind of vitriolic matter, now reputed to be nothing elſe than chalcitis. See *Vitriol*, and *Chalcitis*.

SOSA, and *Barilla*, are materials Spain abounds with, and in higher perfection than they have been hitherto diſcovered in any other part of the world; of which vaſt quantities are

are exported into other countries, who are in abſolute want of them, for their glaſs, ſoap, and other uſes.

All over the kingdom of Murcia, and in Granada, the poor peaſants ſow a plant they call barilla, which coſts them the labour of two years to reap the advantage of; and, after all this time and pains, they are obliged to carry it from the ſide of Lorca, and even further off, to Alicant, for a market.

They cannot manufacture at Genoa, Marſeilles, Venice, and other places, their glaſs and ſoap without this barilla and ſoſa; inſomuch, that in one year there are ſhipped at Alicant alone 44,692 quintals of barilla, and 8380 quintals of ſoſa.

SOSIA. A cloth made of the bark of a tree, with a mixture of ſilk and cotton, brought by the Engliſh from the Eaſt Indies; whereof the pieces are from 16 to 19 ells in length, and from 3-4ths to 7-8ths in breadth.

SOTOVENTO *iſlands*, are ſituated on the coaſt of Terra Firma, in South America; the chief whereof are Trinidad, Margaretta, Tortuga, and Curaſſo; being alſo a part of the Antilles. See *Spaniſh* America.

SOU. See *Sol.*

SOUAGUZEZ. A kind of cotton cloth brought from the Eaſt Indies, uſually 14 ells in length, and 2-3ds and half an ell in breadth.

SOUDIS. A ſmall coin current at Ormus in the Perſian gulph; being worth 4 payes, and the paye 10 beſorches, which are much of the nature of the Engliſh farthing.

SOVERAIGN. A gold coin, ſtruck and current in Holland, worth 15 florins, or 1 l. 6 s. 3 d. ſterling.

SOUND, in geography, denotes a ſtreight, or inlet of the ſea, between two capes of headlands. See *Streight.*

The ſound is uſed by way of eminence for that famous ſtreight which joins the German ſea to the Baltic. See *Denmark.*

SOUNDING, in navigation. The act of trying the depth of the water, and the quality of the bottom, by a line and plummet, or other artifice. There are two kinds of lines occaſionally uſed in ſounding the ſea, namely, the ſounding line, and the deep ſea-line. See Deep ſea *Line.*

The ſounding line is the thickeſt and ſhorteſt, as not exceeding 20 fathoms in length; and marked at two, three, and four fathoms, with a piece of black leather between the ſtrands; and at five, with a piece of white leather, which may be uſed when a ſhip is under ſail, and the deep ſea-line cannot. The plummet is uſually in form of a nine-pin, and weighs 18 lb.; the end is frequently greaſed, to try of what nature the ground is, whether ſandy or rocky. Near banks and ſhores they are to be continually ſounding.

SOURBASTIS, or *Sourbaſſis.* The fineſt and beſt Perſian ſilks brought from the Levant; being ſent from Iſpahan on camels loaded with two bales each to Bander-Abaſſi, whence they are ſhipped for Europe, Smyrna, Aleppo, and other Levant trading towns.

SOUTHAMPTON. A borough and port-town of Hampſhire, ſituated on a bay of the Engliſh channel, 12 miles S. W. of Wincheſter.

SOUTH *Sea company.* During the long and expenſive war againſt France in the reign of Queen Anne, due care was not taken for the regular payment of ſeamen employed in the royal navy; for, inſtead of money, thoſe very uſeful men had tickets granted them in lieu of pay; which, by their great neceſſities, they were frequently obliged to part with at a diſcount of 40, and ſometimes 50 in the hundred, to avaritious men; whereby the debt due from the government upon this and other accounts not provided for by parliament, amounted to 9,471,521 l. To ſatisfy theſe public and national debts and deficiencies, Mr. Harley, at that time chancellor of the exchequer, and afterwards Earl of Oxford, propoſed to the houſe of commons a ſcheme which he had projected for this purpoſe, by allowing the proprietors of theſe debts and deficiencies an intereſt of 6 *per cent. per annum*, redeemable by parliament, and incorporating them to carry on the trade to the South-ſeas; which project being received with general approbation, a bill was brought in, and an act paſſed, in the year 1710, to that effect.

By this act it was enacted, that the duties upon wines, vinegar, and tobacco, upon India goods, and wrought ſilks, whale-fins, wax and tallow candles; and the ſtamp-duties ariſing from the rates of monies given with clerks, apprentices, and ſervants, ſhould be appropriated for paying an intereſt or annuity, after the rate of 6 *per cent.* for the 9,471,321 l. until the principal ſhould be paid; which intereſt amounted to the ſum of 568,279 l. 10 s. That the queen might, by letters-patent, incorporate all perſons entitled to any of the public debts, deficiencies, or ſums of money provided for by the act, with power to chuſe their governor, directors, and other officers; and the perſons ſo incorporated ſhould be capable in law to purchaſe and retain to them and their ſucceſſors, lands and tenements not exceeding the yearly value of 1000 l. That, over and above the ſaid annual ſum, there ſhould be paid to the company the further annual ſum of 8000 l. for charge of management, out of the ſame funds. That the ſtock and ſhares in the corporation ſhould be a perſonal eſtate, and be exempted from taxes. That it ſhould not be lawful for the corporation to borrow, owe, or take up, any money on their bills or notes, payable at demand, or at any time leſs than ſix months; nor ſhould it be lawful for the corporation to diſcount bills or notes, or to keep books or caſh for any perſon other than the books or caſh of the corporation. That no perſon ſhould be elected governor, ſub-governor, deputy-governor, or director of this corporation, during the time that he ſhould be governor, deputy governor, or director, of the bank, or of the Eaſt India company. That her Majeſty might, by letters-patent, direct a ſtock to conſiſt of 20 s. upon every hundred pounds of the capital ſtock, of the intended company, to be raiſed by the members thereof, in proportion to their ſtock; the ſaid ſtock to be kept apart, and employed in improving and carrying on the fiſhery for the benefit of the company; provided that no money ſhould be called in from the members of the corporation for carring on the fiſhery, or other trade thereby granted, but by order of a general court of the company called for that purpoſe, and whereof there ſhould be 14 days notice given in the London Gazette.

That the company, and their ſucceſſors, ſhould, after Auguſt 1, 1711, for ever be veſted in the ſole and excluſive trade unto and from all the lands on the eaſt-ſide of America, from the river Oronoko to the ſouthermoſt part of Terra del Fuego; and on the weſt-ſide thereof, from the ſaid ſouthermoſt part of Terra del Fuego, through the South ſea, to the northermoſt part of America, within 300 leagues of the ſaid weſtern ſhore; and ſhould be ſole owners of all iſlands, forts, &c. which they ſhould diſcover within the ſaid limits.

The company was accordingly incorporated, by the name of The governor and company of merchants of Great Britain, trading to the South ſeas, and other parts of America, and for encouraging the fiſhery. And as all the public creditors intended to be provided for by the act, and particularly deſcribed therein, were, if they pleaſed, to ſubſcribe their debts into the ſtock of the ſaid company, and to have a ſhare in their capital, each perſon in proportion to the principal and intereſt due to him by the public, the expectation that this company would make great advantages by trade, and by the diſcoveries they might make, induced almoſt all thoſe public creditors to ſubſcribe their reſpective debts; ſo that at the acceſſion of his late Majeſty, the capital ſtock of this company amounted to 9,177,967 l. 15 s. 4 d.; and as the debt to grow due to them at Chriſtmas 1715, for their annuity and allowance for management, would amount to 583,339 l. 8 d. and they were willing to advance 238,693 l. 4 s. for the current ſervice; therefore, by the ſtatute of the 1ſt of George I. it was enacted, That the ſum of 822,032 l. 4 s. 8 d. ſhould be added to the capital ſtock of the company; which would then amount to 10,000,000 l. the intereſt whereof amounted to 600,000 l. annually, and was charged upon the ſame duties chargeable for payment of the original ſtock: that on one year's notice, on repayment by parliament of the ſaid ten millions, and of all arrears of the yearly ſums of 600,000 l. and 1000 l. all the duties appropriated by the 9th

9th of Queen Anne might be diſpoſed of by the parliament, and the ſaid yearly fund of 600,000 l. and 8000 l. ſhould ceaſe; but the corporation ſhould continue for ever.

By the ſtatute of the 3d of George I. the intereſt on the capital ſtock was reduced to 5 *per cent.* ſo that the annual ſum of 600,000 l. was leſſened to 500,000 l. and the company were alſo to advance two millions more to the government, at 5 *per cent.* if required, which it never was.

It was by ſome imagined, that this company was originally intended, rather as a political contrivance for raiſing a fund of money to ſerve the preſſing occaſions of the ſtate, than as a real eſtabliſhment for the ſake of commerce. Be this as it will, it is certain the miniſtry never thought ſeriouſly, during the remaining courſe of the war, about making any ſettlements on the coaſt of South America, which was the thing wherewith the people were firſt flattered; nor was any other trade even undertaken by this company, except the Aſſiento, in purſuance of the treaty of Utrecht, for furniſhing the Spaniards with negroes; of which the company was deprived by a convention executed between the courts of Great Britain and Spain, ſoon after the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748; and except a little of the whale-fiſhery; by both which, it is thought, the company were loſers, though their directors and officers were very conſiderable gainers.

The company, it is certain, ſet out with good ſucceſs, and there was room to hope ſtill better; ſince, beſides that the value of their ſtock, the firſt five years, roſe faſter, in proportion, than that of any other company, his Majeſty, after purchaſing 10,000 l. therein, condeſcended to be their governor in 1718.

By a ſtatute of the 5th of George I. the ſaid company agreed to take in by ſubſcription, at $11\frac{1}{2}$ years purchaſe, the annuities eſtabliſhed by the 8th of Anne, c. 4. amounting to 135,000 l. *per ann.* and alſo the arrears of the ſame at *cent. per cent* of their capital ſtock; the whole value of the ſaid annuities and arrears amounting, by computation, to 1,721,250 l. and moreover to advance 778,750 l. or a proportional part thereof, according to the value of ſuch of the ſaid annuities and arrears as ſhould be ſubſcribed into their ſtock, to be applied towards payment of the national debts incurred before Chriſtmas 1716: therefore, by the ſaid ſtatute, they were to add to their then capital ſuch a ſum as ſhould bear a proportion to the annuities and arrears ſo ſubſcribed into their ſtock, and to the ſum of money ſo to be advanced by them; upon which additional ſtock they were to have 5 *per cent.* till redeemed, together with 2000 l. *per ann.* additional allowance for expence of management; the whole to be paid out of the duties on coals, &c. continued, and the new duties on houſes granted by the ſaid act of Queen Anne, and both now continued for ever: ſo that if the whole had been ſubſcribed, the ſaid company's capital ſtock would then have amounted to 12,500,000 l.; but as 46,260 l. 6 s. 1 d. *per ann.* of the ſaid annuities remained unſubſcribed, their ſtock was proportionably under that ſum, being only 11,746,844 l. 8 s. 4 d. and their annuity was 587,342 l. 4 s. 5 d. with 9397 l. 9 s. 6 d. for charges of management.

By the ſtatute of the 6th of George I. it was declared, that the South ſea company might redeem all, or any of the redeemable national debts, amounting in the whole to 16,546,482 l.; for which liberty they were to pay 4,156,306 l. into the exchequer, towards diſcharging the national debts. And it was alſo declared, that they might purchaſe in the irredeemable annuities, at ſuch prices as ſhould be agreed on between them and the reſpective annuitants; for which liberty they were likewiſe to pay into the exchequer, towards diſcharging the national debts, ſuch a ſum as ſhould bear a proportion to the irredeemable annuities purchaſed in by them, according to the proportion mentioned in the act; that is to ſay, they were to pay 450 l. for every 100 l. *per ann.* ſo purchaſed in by them: and farther, they were to pay into the exchequer, for the ſame purpoſe, 100 l. for every 100 l. *per ann.* of the ſaid annuities that ſhould not be purchaſed in by them.

Then for enabling the company to raiſe the ſaid ſums, and to pay off the redeemable, and purchaſe in the irredeemable annuities, and for exchanging for ready money all exchequer-bills, carrying on their trade, and other purpoſes, it was enacted, that the company might by calling in from their members, or by opening books of ſubſcription, or by granting annuities, or any other method, as they ſhould think proper, raiſe any ſums of money, as in a general court of the company ſhould be judged neceſſary, and ordered to be called in. The company were alſo empowered to borrow money on contracts, bills, bonds, or obligations, under their common ſeal, or on the credit of the capital ſtock. But if the ſub-governor, deputy-governor, directors, managers, aſſiſtants, or other members of the company, ſhould purchaſe any lands or revenues belonging to the crown, upon account of the corporation, or lend money by way of loan, or anticipation, on any branch of the revenue, other than ſuch parts only on which a credit of loan was granted by parliament, ſuch ſub-governor, or other member of the company, ſhould forfeit treble the value of the money ſo lent.

It was moreover declared, that their capital ſtock ſhould be increaſed in proportion to the redeemable and irredeemable annuities which they ſhould pay off or purchaſe; that is to ſay, that they ſhould have added to their capital 100 l. for every 100 l. of the redeemables which they ſhould pay off, and 2000 l. for every 100 l. *per ann.* of the irredeemable long annuities, and 1400 l. for every 100 l. *per ann.* of the irredeemable ſhort annuities, which they ſhould purchaſe; upon the greateſt part of which increaſed capital they were to have 5 l. *per cent.* and upon the reſt 4 l. *per cent.* added to their former annuity, until Midſummer 1727; after which the whole of their old as well as new capital, was to be reduced to an annuity at the rate of 4 l. *per cent.* And, finally, they were to have, on account of their increaſed capital, a proportionable addition made to their allowance for expences of management.

The fatal South ſea ſcheme, tranſacted in the year 1720, was executed upon the laſt mentioned ſtatute; and the impoſitions were ſo enormous, as to occaſion the ſtatute of the 7th of George I. which recites, That the then ſub-governor, deputy-governor, and directors of the South ſea company, under colour of the laſt act, had contrived, and carried on, many notorious, fraudulent, and indirect practices, contrary to the intention of the ſaid act, to the great detriment of the public, in breach of their truſt, and in manifeſt wrong of great numbers of his Majeſty's ſubjects: therefore, that their perſons and eſtates might be ſecured, ſo as to be liable to juſtice in parliament, it was enacted, That the ſaid ſub-governor, directors, and other members, and every of them, ſhould deliver in, upon oath, before one of the barons of the exchequer, inventories of their real and perſonal eſtates, which ſhould be paid into the exchequer, and applied for the benefit of the South ſea company.

By another ſtatute of the 7th of George I. wherein ſeveral proviſions were made for the reſtoration of public credit, it was declared, That the ſum of 4,156,306 l. and the other ſums, which, in purſuance of the 6th of George I. the South-ſea company was to pay into the exchequer, ſhould be remitted and releaſed; and the ſum of two millions, part of the capital ſtock belonging to the company, ſhould be reduced, ſunk, and annihilated; and a proportionable part of their annuities, payable on account of the ſaid two millions, ſhould be no longer paid, but ſhould from thenceforth ceaſe and determine. This part, however, was repealed the ſecond year after, and the two millions revived.

By the ſtatute of the 8th of George I. the company were empowered to ſell 4,000,000 l. of the ſtock in their hands, by lottery, or otherwiſe; which they accordingly ſold to the bank.

By the ſtatute of the 9th of George I. it was enacted, That the whole capital ſtock of the South ſea company,

computed to amount to 33,802,483 l. 14 s. $0\frac{1}{2}$ d. ſhould be divided into two equal parts; one moiety whereof being 16,901,241 l. 17 s. $0\frac{1}{4}$ d. ſhould be converted into a joint ſtock, attended with annuities payable out of the funds of the company, in lieu of all dividends; which annuities were to be 5 l. *per cent.* till the 24th of June 1727, and from thence at 4 l. *per cent.* till redemption by parliament, to be called "The joint ſtock of the "South ſea company." That the other moiety of the capital ſtock ſhould remain in the company as "a joint "ſtock," attended with the reſidue of the yearly funds till redemption; and alſo attended with the ſeveral ſums, for charges of management, and with all benefits of trade.

In 1727, the company was, by an act then paſſed, empowered for ſix years to ſend four ſhips yearly to Madagaſcar, to receive negroes on board ſuch ſhips, to be delivered at Buenos-Ayres: but they were for this purpoſe to have a ſpecial licence from the Eaſt India company; and were beſides laid under ſuch reſtraints, that I believe they never made uſe of this privilege.

In 1728 the government iſſued to the company 500,000 l. part out of the ſinking fund, towards an equal reduction of their capital ſtock, and joint ſtock of annuities. In 1730 a million was iſſued out of the ſinking fund towards redeeming part of their capital ſtock. And in 1731, 1732, and 1733, a million was iſſued yearly out of the ſinking fund towards redeeming part of their capital ſtock, or joint ſtock of annuities.

By the ſtatute of the 6th of George II. it was enacted, That, after the 24th of June 1733, the capital ſtock of the South ſea company, which amounted to 14,651,103 l. 8 s. 1 d. and the ſhares of the reſpective proprietors, ſhould be divided into four equal parts; 3-4th parts whereof, amounting to 10,988,327 l. 11 s. $0\frac{3}{4}$ d. ſhould be converted into a joint ſtock, attended with annuities payable out of the funds of the South ſea company, after the rate of 4 *per cent.* until redemption by parliament, and ſhould be called "The new joint ſtock of South ſea "annuities." And the other 4th part, amounting to 3,662,775 l. 17 s. $0\frac{1}{4}$ d. ſhould remain in the South ſea company as a trading or capital ſtock, attended with the reſidue of the annuities or funds payable at the exchequer to the company for their whole capital, until redemption; and attended with the ſame ſums allowed for charges of management, and with all effects, profits of trade, debts, privileges, and advantages, belonging to the South ſea company, but charged with all the debts of the company. And that the fund of the trading ſtock ſhould not, without the conſent of the company, be liable to be redeemed by parliament, until the new South ſea annuities ſhould be reduced by redemption by parliament to 3,500,000 l.

In 1736 the government iſſued one million out of the ſinking fund for redeeming part of the new South ſea annuities; and in 1737 another million was iſſued out of the ſupplies granted by the parliament for redeeming part of the old South ſea annuities. By which reduction there was left due to the company, upon their trading ſtock, and two joint ſtocks of annuities, 27,302,023 l. 5 s. $6\frac{1}{2}$ d. which remained due to them until 1753, when their unſubſcribed old and new annuities, amounting to 2,325,023 l. 7 s. 11 d. were to be paid off by a reſolution of the committee of ſupply; and of this there was 2,276,893 l. 11 s. 7 d. paid off before Chriſtmas following; ſo that the whole debt then due to that company amounted to 25,025,309 l. 13 s. $11\frac{1}{2}$ d.; the difference between the reſolution and the ſum actually paid off having by an act been allowed to be afterwards ſubſcribed; and by an another act their annuity upon their trading ſtock is to be reduced to 3 l. *per cent.* after Chriſtmas 1757, as the annuities upon all our other public funds are likewiſe then to be.

The South ſea company is under the direction of a governor, ſub-governor, and 30 directors, who are to be reduced to 15, and to be choſen annually by the general court: but no perſon is qualified for being governor, his Majeſty excepted, unleſs ſuch governor has, in his own name and right, 5000 l. in the trading ſtock. The ſub-governor is to have 4000 l. the deputy-governor 3000 l. and a director 2000 l. in the trading ſtock; who are annually elected by the general court; wherein every member, having in his own name and right 500 l. trading ſtock, has one vote; if 2000 l. two votes; if 3000 l. three votes; and if 5000 l. four votes; but annuitants are not entitled to any votes.

The ſtock and ſhares in this corporation are, by the ſtatute of the 8th of Queen Anne, declared a perſonal eſtate, exempted from taxes: which ſtatute alſo declares, that it ſhould not be lawful for the corporation to borrow, owe, or take up any money on their bills or notes, payable at demand, or at any time leſs than ſix months; nor ſhould it be lawful for the corporation to diſcount bills or notes, or to keep books or caſh for any perſon, other than the books and caſh of the corporation; and that no perſon ſhould be elected governor, ſub-governor, deputy-governor, or director of this corporation, during the time that he ſhould be governor, deputy-governor, or director of the bank, or of the Eaſt India company. See *Company*, and National *Debt*.

SOUTH *ſea fund*. See South ſea *Fund*.

SOUTH *ſea trade*. See *Spain*, and *Spaniſh* America.

SOUTH *ſea*, or *Pacific ocean*. See *Pacific*, and *Ocean*.

SOUTHERN, or *European ocean*. See *Ocean*.

SOUTHWOULD. A port-town of Suffolk, ſituated in 1 deg. 55 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 28 min. of N. lat. on a bay of the German ſea, 42 miles E. of Bury.

SOUTIS, or *Souris*. A muſlin ſilk, ſtriped with ſeveral colours, brought from the Eaſt Indies, and called muſlin; though no cotton enters their compoſition, upon account of their grain much reſembling muſlin; and none but the Indians are expert in their manufacture.

Their lengths and breadths are different; ſome pieces having 8 ells in length, and 3-4ths breadth; and others 20 ells in length, and 2-3ds in breadth.

SOW *of iron*. See *Forge*.

SOWAUD BUND. The third kind of ſilk gathered in the Mogul's territories.

SPA. A town in the biſhopric of Liege in Germany, famous for its mineral waters. Thoſe of the Pouhon ſpring in Spa are preferred by phyſicians to any others in or near the country of Liege; particularly to the waters of Bru; which they complain have been impoſed on the public, to their frequent diſappointment. See *Spaw*.

SPAAD, *Spaat*, or *Spalt*. A ſpecies of Engliſh talc, or gypſum; being a white, fibrous, ſcaly, ſhining ſtone, ſometimes uſed to promote the fuſion of metals. See *Talc*.

It is found pretty frequent in England and Germany, and ſometimes brought from the Levant. The beſt is in long ſcales, very ſoft, and eaſily pulveriſed; but the Engliſh ſpalt is generally very hard.

SPAIN, including *Portugal*, once a province of it, is the moſt weſtern part of the continent of Europe; being bounded by the ſea, or bay of Biſcay, on the north; by the Pyrenean mountains, and the Mediterranean, towards the eaſt; by the Mediterranean, and the Atlantic ocean, on the ſouth; and by the ſame ocean, on the weſt; lying between 10 deg. of W. and 3 deg. of E. lon. and between 36 and 44 deg. of N. lat. being about 700 miles long from eaſt to weſt, and 500 broad from north to ſouth. The form of it is generally ſaid to reſemble an ox-hide ſpread upon the floor; of which the Pyrenean mountains, dividing it from France on the north-eaſt, may be reckoned the neck. See *Portugal*.

Spain is divided into 15 provinces, excluſive of Portugal; namely, New Caſtile, Old Caſtile, Leon, Galicia, Aſturia, Biſcay, Navarre, Arragon, Catalonia, Valencia, Eſtremadura, Andaluſia, Granada, Murcia, and the iſlands.

The face of the country is rough and uneven, encumbered with abundance of high mountains, ſome of them running the whole length of the country from eaſt to weſt; and are generally covered with oaks, fir-trees, and other excellent timber. It is is ſaid to be watered with 150 rivers; of which nine only deſerve that name, as the Ebro, the Guadalquiver, the Guadiana, the Tagus, Duero,

Duero, or Douro, the Minho, the Guadalaviar, the Xucar, and Segura.

The ſoil of Spain produces excellent wheat and barley; and they have rich paſture-grounds. Their wool is the fineſt in Europe, and uſed by other nations in their fineſt cloths. They abound in wine, oil, and ſilk: no country produces better oranges, lemons, raiſins, citrons, prunes, figs, capers, cheſnuts, almonds, and pomegranates; beſides, the ſoil alſo produces flax, cotton, ſugar, and ſaffron: they have alſo rich mines of quickſilver, copper, lead, allum, ſulphur, and the iron and ſteel of Biſcay is eſteemed the beſt in Europe.

Formerly the Spaniſh mines yielded the Romans more gold and ſilver than any country under their dominion; though now theſe mines are loſt or exhauſted; or the Spaniards have ſuch plenty of theſe minerals in their American colonies, that their mines in Europe are not worth the working.

The dominions ſubject to the King of Spain are the largeſt that are poſſeſſed by any one monarch; being ſo extenſive, that one of the Spaniſh monarchs boaſted the ſun never ſets upon them all. Beſides his territories in Europe, he poſſeſſes the beſt part of America. He is alſo ſovereign of thoſe rich and numerous iſlands S. E. of the coaſt of China, in Aſia, called the Philippines, from whence the Spaniards import all the rich merchandiſe of the Eaſt; and in Africa he is maſter of Ceuta, Oran, and ſeveral other places of conſequence on that coaſt; as alſo of the Canary iſlands. See *Philippines*, *Barbary*, and *Canary* iſlands.

The merchandiſes proper for Spain, of which the greater part are ſent into America, are ſtuffs of gold, ſilver, ſilk, and wool of all qualities and prices; laces, and hats; ſpice, medicinal drugs, dying ſtuffs, and colours for painting; muſk, civet, and ambergreaſe; hard and haberdaſhery wares; ſteel, copper; leathers of ſeveral ſorts, particularly of Ruſſia, all dreſſed; paper, cards for playing, maſts for ſhips, planks, cordage, pitch, and tar; clay for making of pipes; caſks and barrels for their wines and oils; linens of all kinds, and in great quantities; white and yellow wax; herrings, dry and green cod, ſalmon, butter, cheeſe, and even corn, when the harveſt has not been abundant in Spain, which happens but too often. Beſides, the Spaniards are ſupplied with negroes for their American colonies by the Engliſh, French, and Dutch.

All theſe merchandiſes proper for Spain, and for Spaniſh America, are brought in Engliſh, Dutch, and French bottoms; as alſo in ſome belonging to the northern nations, whether of their own manufactures, or the produce of their country, or that they had them elſewhere for this commerce.

The following is an account of what theſe nations freight their ſhips with for Spain.

The French furniſh gold, ſilver, and ſilk ſtuffs; velvets, pluſh, gold and ſilver lace, caſtor, and hats; ſilk and woollen ſtockings; narrow woollen ſtuffs of Amiens, Rheims, Liſle, Arras, and ſome other French manufactures; a great quantity of linens of all ſorts, particularly thoſe of Bretagne, Rouen, Coutance, Morlaix, and Laval; great parcels of paper, for writing, printing, and other uſes; cards for playing; French hard and haberdaſhery wares; thread and ſilk laces, black, and pretty coarſe; dry cod, and ſome other articles. All theſe merchandiſes are ſent by ſea from France into Spain; yet ſeveral go there alſo by land, on the ſide of the Lower Navarre and Bearn; amongſt others, lead, copper, wrought or unwrought iron, which the traders of Oleron ſend into Arragon; linens of hemp and flax, pretty coarſe, but readily bought up by the people of Arragon from the merchants of St. John Pied-de-Porc. Through the Lower Navarre nothing paſſes into Spain, but ſmall horſes, which are very ſerviceable, and eſteemed greatly by the Spaniards. Laſtly, by land, a great number of merchandiſes of French Flanders are ſent into Spain, by croſſing the kingdom with permits; which long and expenſive journey is undertaken chiefly upon the account of dear commodities, and ſuch as are of a ſmall bulk.

It is thought, before the long wars between France and Spain had made room for the Dutch to engroſs the better part of the Spaniſh commerce, whereof they remained maſters till the war about the Spaniſh ſucceſſion in favour of the Duke of Anjou, the ſole article of French linens amounted, one year with another, to about 400,000 l. ſterling.

The traders of Paris, Rouen, St. Malo, Nantz, and Bourdeaux, are thoſe who uſually ſend the greateſt cargoes into Spain; thoſe of St. Malo alone ſending there generally every year 20 ſhips, from 150 to 400 tuns.

The Dutch, for upwards of 20 years together, and till the commencement of the 18th century, having in a manner the whole commerce of Spain in their hands, ſold there all the commodities above mentioned, and whereof partly they eſtabliſhed manufactures among themſelves. But ſince the French entered upon this trade, when Philip V. aſcended the throne, the Dutch trade has greatly declined in Spain.

The principal commodities which the Dutch ſend to Spain, are their ſpices, linens, woollen cloths, and woollen ſtuffs.

As to ſpice, the pepper-trade is divided between them and the Engliſh, the latter ſelling as great a quantity in Spain as the former; but for nutmegs, cloves, and cinnamon, the Spaniards are obliged to receive them from the Dutch.

Cinnamon ſells beſt in Spain; and it is thought that upwards of two-thirds of what the Dutch export from the Eaſt Indies, is ſold and conſumed in Spain and in America, eſpecially at Peru, upon account of the chocolate.

The linens imported by the Dutch for Spain are uſually fine, and manufactured in the province of Overyſſel, or in the neighbourhood of Douay and Valenciennes; which are ſold for cloths of Cambray, or what the French call *batiſte*.

There are others which they call perſeilles, made in Brabant; but they are coarſe, and of a great breadth; ſo are only uſed by the poorer ſort.

Laſtly, the Dutch ſend to Spain cottons and callicoes, fine and coarſe, ſtamped and painted with various colours in Holland.

The other works are table-linen, ribbonds, and thread.

Though ſpice and linen make a great part of the Dutch commerce for Spain, yet the moſt conſiderable they carry on is that of their woollen manufacture; for it can ſcarce be imagined what quantities they import of cloths, ſerges, camblets, and anacoſts; ſo that what other nations furniſh altogether, comprehending even the Engliſh, whoſe trade there is pretty good, is in no reſpect equal to what the Dutch alone ſell there.

The other commodities imported to Spain in Dutch bottoms, are ſilk ſtuffs of the Dutch manufacture; hard and haberdaſhery wares, which they have from Nuremberg, Frankfort, and Liege; Swediſh ſteel and copper; leather and corn from Dantzic; bleached and yellow wax of the north; as alſo maſts, and timber for the building of ſhips.

Laſtly, beſides ſalmon, herrings, and ſalt cod, the Dutch furniſh Spain with butter and cheeſe; of which great quantities are made in Holland.

The Engliſh, beſides the pepper, whoſe commerce, as it has been ſaid they divide with the Dutch, ſend there great parcels of woollen cloths, and other woollen ſtuffs; as ſerges of all ſorts, perpetuanas, bays, flannels, &c.; and, next to the Dutch, they may be ſaid to trade moſt to Spain. They export alſo from the north, the Indies, and Germany, almoſt the ſame merchandiſes with the Dutch, to make up their cargo; but add thereto of their own manufactures, quantities of beaver, woollen, and hair hats; ſilk and woollen ſtockings, ſeveral ſilk ſtuffs, and clock-work not inferior to any in Europe. Laſtly, they import there abundance of tin, lead, ſalt fleſh from Ireland, and ſalt fiſh of their own fiſheries: ſo that an author of reputation, who wrote of the intereſts of England in 1704, aſſerts, that the profits the Engliſh make, one year with another, by the merchandiſes

diſes they either import to, or export from Spain, amount to upwards of 400,000 l. ſterling.

It will be unneceſſary to enter into particulars with regard to the commerce which the Swedes, Danes, or other traders of the north, carry on directly with Spain, as they conſiſt chiefly in naval ſtores.

The principal commodities exported from Spain, of its own growth and produce, are wool, wine, oil, ſoap, kali, ſalt, and iron; olives, figs, raiſins, almonds, capers, citrons, oranges, and cheſnuts.

The wool is chiefly the produce of Andaluſia, Valencia, Caſtile, Arragon, and Biſcay, and is undoubtedly the greateſt object of the peculiar Spaniſh commerce; for not only the French, Dutch, and Italians, cannot do without it, in the manufactures of their fine woollen cloths and ſtuffs, but alſo the Engliſh themſelves, who are poſſeſſed of ſuch fine and beautiful wool, uſe ſuch parcels of it in the greater part of their fineſt cloths, that the ſame author already quoted, thinks it no exaggeration to ſay, that in England, one year with another, there are made 30,000 pieces of fine cloths, of the firſt and ſecond claſs, all of pure Spaniſh wool of Caſtile and Andaluſia. However, the conſumption thereof in the manufactures of France and Holland is ſtill greater. See *Wool*.

Spaniſh wine is of two ſorts, white and red, both excellent. The greateſt quantity is made in the more ſouthern parts; and the ſale thereof is conſiderable, when the Engliſh and Dutch, by the interruption of commerce, cannot have thoſe of France.

There are brandies alſo made in Spain; but not much bought up, unleſs through a want of thoſe of Nantz, Anjou, and Rochelle.

Canary wines are found there alſo in abundance: but the chief ports for the wine-trade are Malaga, Alicant, Cadiz, and St. Lucar. The greater part of the Malaga and Alicant wines are red; and the other white, which are called xerez wines.

Oil of olives is had from Seville and Malaga; as alſo the greateſt ſtores of fruits.

Soap and kali for the making of glaſs, and the bleaching of linen, from Alicant, Carthagena, Valencia, and Murcia.

Salt from ſeveral places, but more particularly from Andaluſia.

Laſtly, iron from the mines of Biſcay, and the Upper Navarre.

Next to the port of Cadiz, Bilboa and St. Sebaſtian are thoſe of the beſt trade; but the following is an account of the trade which is carried on both in the inland and maritime towns.

Madrid, is the capital of the province of New Caſtile, and of the kingdom of Spain, ſituated in 4 deg. 15 min. of W. lon. and 40 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. almoſt in the middle of a large ſandy plain, ſurrounded with high mountains, 800 miles S. W. of London, 680 miles S. W. of Paris, and 700 eaſt of Liſbon; being about 7 miles in circumference, without walls or fortifications; containing ſeveral grand ſtreets and ſpacious ſquares.

Though this city is ſituated in the heart of the kingdom, it promotes a great maritime commerce, by the means of correſpondents and factors employed by its merchants in ſeveral port-towns, eſpecially Cadiz.

The difference of the old and new plata makes that of exchange between ſtrangers and the ſeveral towns of Spain: thus, for inſtance, when the exchange on Cadiz and Seville, where the old coin is current, is at 110 deniers de gros *per* ducat at Amſterdam, it is only at Madrid and Bilboa 80 or 90, where the new coin is uſed.

Seville, the capital of Andaluſia, is the next city to Madrid in magnitude; being ſituated in 6 deg. of W. lon. and 37 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. on the river Guadalquivir, 50 miles N. E. of the port-town of St. Lucar, 70 miles N. E. of Cadiz, and 200 S. W. of Madrid. It is about 8 miles in circumference, and contains about 300,000 inhabitants. No town abounded more in wealth than this in the laſt age, when all the treaſures of America were brought hither up the Guadalquivir from St. Lucar; but now Cadiz, where the galeons rendezvous, comes in for the greater ſhare of this rich traffic.

The principal commodities of Seville are oil of olives, large pickled olives, wines, oranges, lemons, wool, leather, and particularly Morocco leather.

Granada, the capital of the kingdom of the ſame name, is ſituated in 3 deg. 40 min. of W. lon and. 37 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. 200 miles ſouth of Madrid, and 65 N. E. of Malaga; being remarkable for its great commerce with ſtrangers, though an inland town.

The principal commodities for exportation are wines, corn, oils, flax, and hemp; as alſo fruits, either freſh, dry, or pickled; the freſh fruits being pomegranates, oranges, citrons, and olives; the dry are almonds, figs, and raiſins; the pickled are olives and capers.

But its richeſt and moſt important commerce is that of ſilk, as great numbers of mulberry-trees grow there, and nouriſh an abundance of ſilk-worms.

Malaga, is a port town of the kingdom of Granada, upon the Mediterranean, ſituated in 4 deg. 45 min. of W. lon. and 36 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. 66 miles N. E. of Gibraltar: its principal commerce conſiſts in wool, oil of olives, olives, dry raiſins, figs, and excellent wines.

Carthagena, is a port-town of the kingdom of Murcia, ſituated upon the Mediterranean, in 1 deg. 5 min. of W. lon. and 37 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. being eſteemed the beſt of all the ports in Spain. Its commodities are ſome wool, oil, olives, raiſins, figs, and almonds.

Valencia, the capital of the kingdom of the ſame name, is ſituated in a fine plain, on the river Guadalaviar, in 35 min. of W. lon. and 39 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. 180 miles S. E. of Madrid, and 106 north of Carthagena, containing about 12,000 houſes, and 70,000 inhabitants. There are a great many rich merchants in this city, who carry on a conſiderable trade in ſilk, wine, or almonds. The natives are more induſtrious than the reſt of the Spaniards, and the whole country for 20 miles round looks like a garden; the towns and villages being very numerous, where great numbers of women and children are to be ſeen ſpinning of ſilk before their houſes.

St. Sebaſtian, is a port-town, and a great road for ſhipping, in the province of Biſcay, ſituated in 1 deg. 50 min. of W. lon. and 43 deg. 35 min. of N. lat. 55 miles eaſt of Bilboa, and 25 S. W. of Bayonne. The merchants employ about eight or ten ſhips in the cod-fiſhery, and as many more for the whale-fiſhery. They keep their ſhips at Paſſage, an excellent incloſed port, into which but one ſhip can enter at a time; though the port itſelf is very ſpacious; where the King of Spain keeps his ſhip-carpenters, for the building of the galleons, and moſt of his ſhips of war.

The French bring to St. Sebaſtian wheat, beans, peaſe, and ſome linens; the Dutch bring maſts, cordage, pitch, tar, planks, and ſteel; the Engliſh, woollen ſtuffs, and tin. Theſe three nations export from thence hardly any thing but iron, and are paid for the reſt of their merchandiſe in ready money.

The town of St. Sebaſtian is ſmall; and as there are ſcarce any vacant houſes for foreign merchants, and their merchandiſes, they are obliged to lodge with the people of the town, to whom they give 1 *per cent.* of every thing they ſell.

The province of Biſcay abounds in wood for the building of ſhips, and affords alſo a kind of aſh-trees, which are excellent for pikes and lances. Cyder is the uſual drink of the Biſcayners, though the country produces very good wine. Walnuts, cheſnuts, millet, iron, ſteel, and lead, are its other commercial commodities, eſpecially iron and ſteel; for the manufacture of which there are about three hundred forges, and in each forge there are at leaſt yearly made a thouſand quintals, of 150 lb. each, which are ſent into France, England, Holland, and almoſt all the ſtates of Europe.

Bilboa is the richeſt and moſt mercantile town of all Biſcay; being ſituated in 3 deg. of W. lon. and 43 deg. of N. lat. at the mouth of the river Ibaicabal, which a little below falls into a bay of the ſea, and forms a good harbour. It ſtands 66 miles N. E. of Burgos, 60 weſt of St.

St. Sebaſtian, and 200 N. E. of Madrid; having a great trade for its wool, ſword-blades, and other manufactures of iron and ſteel. It has a port only for ſmall veſſels, and of very difficult entrance; ſo that ſhips of any conſiderable burden are obliged to put in at Saint-Toya, or St. Antony; whence the merchandiſes are tranſported in ſmall veſſels to Bilboa.

The Baſques, and the inhabitants of Bayonne, ſend there yearly five or ſix of their ſhips laden with cod; thoſe of St. Malo ten or twelve, and thoſe of Granville four or five; which is paid for, partly in iron, partly in Segovia wool, and partly in money.

All theſe French ſhips arrive at Bilboa in the months of Auguſt and September, returning to their own ports in November and December.

Beſides cod-fiſh, the French import there great parcels of coarſe linen cloths, for the package of Spaniſh wool; as alſo linens of Quintin and Morlaix.

The Engliſh annually ſend to Bilboa, between 20 and 25 ſhips, laden with cod-fiſh. They import there alſo an abundance of woollen cloths and woollen ſtuffs; this town ſerving as a ſtaple for all Caſtile, and as far as Madrid. Their returns are much of the ſame nature with thoſe of the French.

The cargoes of Dutch ſhips for Bilboa conſiſt in linens, thread-lace, camblets, all ſorts of their own woollen manufactures, and ſpice. Their returns are in wool, ſilver, iron, ſaffron, cheſnuts, oranges, and citrons.

It ſhould be obſerved, that all the woollen ſtuffs and linens ſent to Bilboa for the conſumption of Madrid, muſt be by one-fourth ſtronger and better than thoſe brought to Cadiz for Andaluſia and the Indies.

Corunna, or the *Groyne*, is a port town of Galicia, ſituated in 9 deg. of W. lon. and 43 deg. 10 min. of N. lat. on a fine bay of the Atlantic ocean, 32 miles N. of Compoſtella, and 16 S. W. of Ferrol. To this port the Engliſh packet-boat always goes in time of peace; yet its commerce is but indifferent, few foreign ſhips reſorting it. The pilchard-fiſhery makes the greateſt trade for its inhabitants; who alſo ſend freſh fiſh into the neighbouring towns, and as far as Madrid.

Alicant, is a large ſea-port town in the province of Valencia, ſituated in 30 min. of W. lon. and 38 deg. 35 min. of N. lat. 60 miles S. of Valencia, and about as many N. of Carthagena.

It has a very good road for ſhipping; and there are uſually ſold between five and ſix thouſand quintals of cod of the French fiſhery. What is exported to France conſiſts chiefly in kali, ſoap, and wine.

The greateſt trade of this town is in wines called Alicant, though not all of the produce of the neighbourhood of this town. Abundance of dry and pickled fruits are alſo exported from thence, as raiſins, figs, olives, and capers. The ſoap of this place is eſteemed ſome of the beſt in Europe for woollen manufactures. There are alſo ſome ſilk manufacturers, who all live incorporated in one of the ſuburbs. The commodities imported for Alicant are corn, ſtuffs, linen, and ſome precious ſtones.

Barcelona, is the capital of Catalonia, ſituated in a large plain along the ſhore of the Mediterranean, in 2 deg. of W. lon. and 41 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. 300 miles E. of Madrid, 140 E. of Saragoſſa, and 180 N. E. of Valencia. It contains about 15,000 houſes, and 90,000 inhabitants; having a mole running out into the ſea, which ſecures ſmall veſſels; but the larger ſhips lie in the road expoſed to ſtorms. They have manufactures of ſilk and woollen, and excel in thoſe of iron and ſteel; they alſo make good wine, which they export in large quantities. It is from Barcelona that excellent blankets of Spaniſh wool, called *catalognes*, are brought. The brandy made there is of a very bad quality; yet the Dutch take up with it, for want of that of France.

Cadiz, is a city and port-town of the province of Andaluſia, ſituated in 6 deg. 40 min. of W. lon. and 36 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. at the N. E. end of the iſland of Leon, or Lyon, oppoſite to Port St. Mary's on the continent, 270 miles S. W. of Madrid, 60 S. W. of Seville, and 40 N. W. of Gibraltar. The iſland it ſtands upon is about 18 miles long, and 9 broad at the S. W. end, but only 2 at the N. W. end, where the town ſtands. It has a communication with the continent by a bridge, and with the oppoſite ſhore forms a bay 12 miles long, and 6 broad: but about the middle of the bay are two points of land, one on the continent, and the other on the iſland; ſo near together, that the forts upon them, called the Puntal and Matagorda, command the paſſage; and within theſe points is the harbour. The city contains about 5000 houſes, and 30,000 inhabitants. It has the beſt foreign trade of any town in Spain; becauſe the galeons annually take in their loading here, and return hither with the treaſures and rich merchandiſe of Peru and Mexico.

Beſides theſe, there are ſeveral other places in Spain, conſiderable either for trade, or the number of inhabitants.

In the kingdom of *New Caſtile* are the city of *Alcala de Henares*, 15 miles E. of Madrid; having an univerſity founded by Cardinal Ximenes in 1517, which conſiſts of 20 colleges. *Guadalajara* is about 30 miles N. E. of Madrid; the country about it producing corn, wine, flax, and hemp; beſides, the mountains are covered with oaks, of which they make charcoal, and ſupply all the neighbouring country with that kind of fuel. *Brihuega* is 12 miles N. E. of Guadalajara, being conſiderable for its wool and cloth. *Toledo*, formerly the capital of Spain, is 40 miles S. of Madrid, built upon a ſteep rock on the river Tagus: their manufactures of wool and ſilk were once very conſiderable, and the ſword-blades made here have always been in great eſteem. *Talavera de la Reyna* is 35 miles W. of Toledo; remarkable formerly for its wooollen manufacture, and now for its fine earthen ware; as alſo for its corn, wine, cattle, and honey. The other towns are Cuenca, Calatrava, Cividad, Real, Almagro, Mancanares, Las Naves del Merques, Colmenar, Guadarama, Galapagar, Guadalix, Porquerizas, Arganda, Tortoſa, Hita, Cadacra, Medina Celi, Arcos, Monteagudo, Uzeda, Cadahalſo, Eſcalona, Maqueda, Illeſcas, Leganes, Mora, Anover, Fuente Duegna, Paſtrana, Zurita, Yepes, Ocagna, Villa Rubia, Molina, Caracena, Valeria, Moya, Alarcon, Alcarez, Segura de la Sierra, Velez de Rubio, Orgaz, Conſuegra, Miquellurra, Elviſo, Almodavar del Campo, and El Convento de Calatrava.

In the province of *Old Caſtile* are the cities of *Burgos*, 120 miles N. of Madrid; having a briſk trade, and containing 70,000 inhabitants. *Segovia* is 50 miles S. of Valladolid, and 30 N. of Madrid: it contains 30,000 inhabitants; and on the neighbouring mountains they feed large flocks of ſheep, whoſe wool makes the fineſt cloth in Europe: they have alſo a manufacture of paper, and one of the moſt conſiderable mints in the kingdom. The other towns are Miranda de Ebro, Najara, Navarette, Guardia, Baſtida, Eſpinoſa de los Monteros, Lerma, St. Pedro d'Arlanza, Aranda de Duero, St. Eſtevan de Gormaz, Verlanga, Almazan, Soria, Logrogno, Aquilar del Campo, Agreda, Crugna, Roa, Pegnafiel, Mocada, Coca, Arevalo, Olmedo, Madregal, Pegnaranda, Villa Franca on the Tormes, and Cuellar.

In the province of *Leon*, are the cities of *Leon*, 165 miles N. W. of Madrid; conſiſting of 13 pariſhes, 6 monaſteries, and 5 nunneries; but it is neither ſo rich nor populous as formerly. *Salamanca* is ſituated on the river Tormes, 120 miles S. of Leon, and 105 N. W. of Madrid; it contains about 8000 families, and is remarkable for its univerſity, which has 24 colleges, and 4000 ſtudents. *Medina del Campo* was once a rich trading town, though now on the decline. The other towns are Aſtorga, Palencia, Zamora, Medina del Rio Seccio, Cividad Rodrigo, and Ledeſma.

In the province of *Gallicia* are alſo the cities of *Compoſtella*, or *St. Jago de Compoſtella*, 30 miles S. of Corunna, and 40 E. of Cape Finiſterre; containing 12,000 inhabitants, who are a rich trading people, better accommodated with proviſions and neceſſaries than moſt towns in Spain, on account of its neighbourhood to the ſea. *Lugo*, about 69 miles E. of Compoſtella, was once a conſiderable place, but now upon the decline; though it is reſorted to on account of its hot baths. *Orenſe*, 42 miles

S. E. of Compoſtella, is remarkable for its fine grapes, which make excellent wine. *Tuy*, 30 miles S. W. of Orenſe, has alſo good wines. *Betancod*, oppoſite to Corunna, is a little port-town. *Ferrol* is ſituated in 8 deg. 40 min. of W. lon. and 43 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on a bay of the Atlantic ocean, 20 miles N. E. of Corunna; being a good harbour for the Spaniſh fleet; and the country about it produces good wine. *Vigo* is a port-town, ſituated in 9 deg. 18 min. of W. lon. and 42 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. on a fine bay of the Atlantic ocean, which forms a capacious harbour, 70 miles S. E. of Cape Finiſterre, and 50 S. of Compoſtella. *Bayona* is a port-town S. of Vigo. *Ponte Vedra* is a large town, on a bay of the ſea, to the N. of Vigo. *St. Mary de Finiſterre*, or *Finis-terræ*, is a little town, 46 miles W. of Compoſtella, chiefly remarkable for the neighbouring cape, from whence it takes its name, being the moſt weſterly part of the continent of Europe. *Caſtro de Ortegal* is an open town near Cape de Ortegal, the moſt northerly promontory of Spain, well known to ſeamen. *Padron* is ſituated at the mouth of the river Ulla, near a bay of the ſea, 12 miles S. of Compoſtella.

In the province of *Aſturia* are the towns of *Oviedo*, ſituated in a plain, at the confluence of the rivers Ove and Dava, whoſe united ſtreams afterwards go by the name of Aſta, 48 miles N. W. of Leon, and 195 miles N. W. of Madrid; being more remarkable for its univerſity than for its trade. *Villa Vicioſa* is a little port-town, ſituated at the mouth of the river Aſta, 36 miles N. E. of Oviedo. *Aviles* is a port on the bay of Biſcay, 36 miles N. of Oviedo; and 6 miles N. lies a promontory, well known to mariners, called Cape de Pinas. And *Santillana* is ſituated on the bay of Biſcay, 66 miles E. of Oviedo.

In the province of *Biſcay* are alſo the towns of *St. Andero*, a port-town in the N. W. part of the country, formerly much frequented, but upon the decline at preſent. *Toloſa* is the capital of that part of the province called Guipuſcoa, ſituated at the confluence of the rivers Orio and Araxes, 12 miles S. of St. Sebaſtian; but remarkable for no other manufacture than that of ſword-blades. *Placentia* is ſituated on the river Deva, 13 miles W. of Toloſa; having a manufacture of ſword-blades and fire-arms. *Fontarabia* is the laſt town of Spain towards France, ſituated on a peninſula in the bay of Biſcay, near the mouth of the river Bidaſſoa, which parts the two kingdoms; being commonly called the key of Spain on the ſide of Biſcay. *Vittoria* is ſituated in a fine fruitful valley, 42 miles S. of Bilboa; being well inhabited by tradeſmen, and people of faſhion, on account of its pleaſant ſituation. *Salvatierra* is a little town, 20 miles E. of Vittoria. *Trevigno* is 16 miles W. of Vittoria. Beſides, there are the towns of Porto Galette, Caſtro de Urdecales, Loredo, St. Antonio, Orduna, and Durango; which are of no conſequence in trade.

In the province of *Navarre*, are the towns of *Pampeluna*, ſituated in a plain near the Pyrenees, on the river Arga, 31 miles S. of Fontarabia; but it is remarkable only for its univerſity. *Eſtella*, or *Stella*, is 22 miles S. W. of Pampeluna. *Sangueſa* is 21 miles S. of Pampeluna. *Olita* is ſituated on the river Cidaco, 10 miles S. of Sangueſa, formerly the ſeat of the kings of Navarre; being in a good ſoil, which affords corn, wine, flax, hemp, and fruits. *Taffala* has an univerſity, and the country about affords good wine. But *Tudela*, on the river Ebro, has little trade; though it is a fine town, inhabited by people of faſhion.

In the province of *Arragon*, are the cities of *Saragoſſa*, ſituated in a great plain on the banks of the river Ebro, 90 miles N. E. of Madrid, and 30 W. of the confines of Catalonia; being a large place, with an univerſity, 17 great churches, and 14 fine monaſteries, beſides many others leſs conſiderable; it is well inhabited by people of quality, as well as by a great many merchants and bankers; the latter of whom are generally natives of France: the neighbouring country is full of fine gardens and orchards; and the houſes ſtand ſo thick for 9 miles about it, that they look like one continued village. *Balbaſtro* is ſituated on the river Vero, 35 miles N. E. of Saragoſſa, and contains about 10,000 inhabitants, who have little trade. *Jaca* is ſituated on the river Arragon, 57 miles N. of Saragoſſa; the neighbouring country abounding in corn, fruit, cattle, and all manner of game. *Taracona* is ſituated on the river Queiles, 60 miles N. W. of Saragoſſa; its principal manufacture being ſword-blades, and other arms, which receive a good temper from the water of the Queiles. *Hueſca* is a little handſome town, ſituated on the river Juela, in a fruitful plain, ſurrounded with mountains, 16 miles N. W. of Balbaſtro. *Catalajud* is a large beautiful city, ſituated at the confluence of the rivers Xalon and Xaloca, 53 miles W. of Saragoſſa. *Tervel* ſtands in a large agreeable plain, at the confluence of the rivers Alhambra and Guadalquivir, 75 miles S. of Saragoſſa; being very populous, and a rich place of trade. Beſides, there are the towns of Albarazzin, Daroca, Boria, and Fraga.

In the province of *Catalonia*, are alſo the towns of *Tarragona*, ſituated on the ſide of a hill on the ſea-ſide, 46 miles S. W. of Barcelona; being formerly a good harbour, which is ſo much choaked up at preſent, that nothing but ſmall veſſels can enter it. *Tortoſa* is ſituated on the river Ebro, 12 miles N. of the Mediterranean, and as many W. of the confines of Valencia: it is in general a good town of trade, to which the Ebro very much contributes; this river being navigable here, and affording it a communication with the Mediterranean: they make great quantities of ſilk and oil, as alſo a fine ſort of earthen ware, in imitation of China: it is an univerſity, pleaſantly ſituated in a country abounding in grain and fruits; having alſo mines of ſilver and iron, quarries of alabaſter, and the moſt beautiful jaſper. *Lerida* is ſituated 105 miles W. of Barcelona, and 54 N. of Tortoſa; but it is only remarkable for its univerſity. *Balaguer* is 13 miles N. E. of Lerida. *Vich* is a little town, 37 miles N. of Barcelona; remarkable only for its neighbouring mountains, in which are found amethyſts and topazes. *Gironne* is ſituated at the confluence of the Ouda and the Ter, 60 miles N. E. of Barcelona, and 21 W. of the ſea; having an univerſity, and a flouriſhing trade. *Ampurias* is a little ſea-port town at the mouth of the Fluvia, 30 miles N. of Barcelona; formerly a place of great trade, but it has none at preſent. *Roſes* is a port-town, ſituated on a bay of the ſea, a little W. of Cape Creus, 23 miles N. of Gironne, and 60 N. E. of Barcelona. *Campredon* is 30 miles N. W. of Gironne; in the neighbourhood of which is a mountain where they find chryſtal. *Puicerda* is ſituated in a fine plain between the rivers Carol and Segra, at the foot of the Pyrenean mountains; where there are ſome quarries of jaſper of various colour, and two medicinal fountains. *Urgel* is ſituated on the river Segra, and affords great plenty of wine. *Cardona* is a handſome town, ſituated on an eminence near the river Cardonero, 40 miles N. W. of Barcelona; being remarkable for a prodigious mountain of ſalt of all colours, which becomes perfectly white on waſhing it; and this ſalt-work, though it has been dug 2000 years, yields the preſent owner, the Duke of Cardona, about 18,000 l. ſterling a year. And *Solſona*, 60 miles N. W. of Barcelona; but has no trade.

In the province of *Valencia*, are alſo the towns of *Murviedro*, which is 13 miles N. of the city of Valencia, and 6 from the ſea; it contains about 5000 inhabitants, but has no trade. *Segorba* is 30 miles N. of Valencia, and as many E. of the ſea; it contains about 6000 inhabitants; who have little trade, except for marble, of which there is an excellent quarry near the town. *Alzira* is ſituated on the river Xucar, 18 miles S. of Valencia, and remarkable chiefly for its ſilk manufacture. *Gandia* is ſituated on the little river Alcoy, within a mile and half of the ſea, and 30 miles S. of Valencia; being remarkable for its ſugar-works. *Denia* lies 10 miles S. E. of Gandia, on the ſea coaſt, having a tolerable harbour. *Altea* ſtands about 10 miles farther S. being famous for its bay, where ſhips frequently take in water. *Origuela*, or *Orihuela*, is ſituated in a fruitful plain, ſurrounded with mountains, on the river Segura, about 3 miles from the confines of Murcia; it is an

an univerſity, and the neighbouring country abounds in corn, wine, fruits, honey, flax, and ſalt, Beſides, there are the towns of Xerica, Villa Real, and Xativa.

In the province of *Eſtramadura*, are the following towns. *Placentia*, ſituated on the banks of the little river Xente, ſurrounded with high mountains, about 120 miles S. W. of Madrid; the town contains about 2000 houſes; the neighbouring plains produce excellent grain; and on the mountains are whole foreſts of fruit-trees, as apples, pears, cheſnuts, olives, cherries, peaches, apricots, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, figs, and raiſins. *Truxillo* is 135 miles S. W. of Madrid, and contains about 1000 houſes; but has no trade. *Guadalupe* is 24 miles E. of Truxillo; it is a ſmall town, but the neighbouring country looks like a foreſt of fruit-trees, abounding with grapes, oranges, figs, and other delicious fruits. *Merida* is 165 miles S. W. of Madrid; but has no trade, and few inhabitants; though it was formerly a conſiderable place. *Badajoz* is 180 miles S. W. of Madrid; it contains about 4000 inhabitants, and ſtands in a very fertile ſoil, abounding with fruits. *Xeres de Badajoz* is a little city 24 miles S. E. of Badajoz; its principal trade is in cattle, which are fed in the fine paſtures about it in ſuch numbers, that they ſend annually 50 000 horned cattle to the fairs of Exalona and Villena. Beſides, there are the towns of Medellin, Ellerena, Coria, and Alcantara, which have little trade.

In the province of *Andaluſia*, are alſo the following towns. *Jaen*, 165 miles S. of Madrid, and 60 E. of Cordoua; being well inhabited, and ſituated in a country abounding in ſilk, corn, wine, oil, and excellent fruits. *Cordoua* is ſituated on the north bank of the river Guadalquivir; having the mountains of Sierra Morena on the N. and a ſpacious plain to the S. about 180 miles S. of Madrid, and 72 E. of Seville: it is large and populous, containing 90,000 inhabitants; having a flouriſhing trade by means of the river, which begins to be navigable here; the principal commodities being wine, corn, ſilk, Cordouan leather, and fruits, particularly oranges and citrons; ſo that it is called the granary of Spain. Beſides, there are alſo the towns of Cacorla, Ubeda, Baeza, Alcala-Real, Anduxar or Andujar, Medina-Sidonia, Oſſuna, Ecya, Carmona, Marchena, St. Lucar-Arcos, Port St. Mary, Rota, St. Lucar la Major, Xeres de Guadiana, Aymonte, and Lucena; as alſo Gibraltar, which is now ſubject to Great Britain. See *Gibraltar*.

In the province of *Granada*, are alſo the following towns. *Guadix*, a large town, 30 miles E. of Granada. *Baza* is 21 miles N. E. of Guadix, and contains about 12,000 inhabitants; who have a good trade in corn, wine, honey, flax, and hemp. *Loxa*, or *Loya*, 18 miles W. of Granada, which it furniſhes with great quantities of fruit, herbs, fleſh, and other proviſions. *Antiquera* is 36 miles S. W. of Granada; being a large town, remarkable for its manufactures of ſilk, and its ſalt-pits. *Velez Malaga* is 15 miles E. of Malaga; having a good trade in dried raiſins, oranges, citrons, and other fruits. *Alhama* is 21 miles S. W. of Granada, and is remarkable for its hot baths. *Almeria* is ſituated on a bay of the Mediterranean, 45 miles S. E. of Granada; and has a good trade in oil of olives. And *Ronda* is 19 miles N. E. of Gibraltar, but has no trade.

In the province of *Murcia*, are alſo the following places. *Lorca*, about 18 miles from the ſea; being tolerably large, but in a declining condition, inhabited chiefly by new Chriſtians, or Moreſcos, as they are called, whoſe principal employment is huſbandry. *Murcia*, the capital of the province, is ſituated in a fine plain on the river Segura, 192 miles S. E. of Madrid, and 36 S. E. of Alicant, being four or five miles in circumference; the country about it abounds chiefly in olives and mulberry-trees; the latter of which feed an incredible number of ſilk-worms, whoſe ſilk is the principal manufacture of the place; beſides, they have ſome plantations of ſugar-canes and rice. And *Almacaron* lies on the ſea-coaſt, at the mouth of the river Guadalantin, 18 miles W. of Carthagena; being chiefly conſiderable for its allum-mines.

The Spaniſh iſlands. The principal iſlands belonging to Spain in the Mediterranean, are the Baleares, conſiſting of Majorca, Minorca, Ivica, and Formentera, formerly called the kingdom of Majorca; but Minorca is now ſubject to Great Britain. See *Minorca*.

Majorca, the largeſt of theſe iſlands, has Minorca on the N. E. and Ivica on the S. W. ſituated about 80 miles S. of the coaſt of Catalonia, and 100 miles E. of Valencia; being about 60 miles long, and 45 broad. The face of the country is very rough and mountainous, eſpecially on the coaſt; but there are ſeveral fine plains and vallies in the heart of the iſland, where there are arable lands, meadows, vineyards, and orchards. They abound in corn, wine, oil, ſalt, honey, ſaffron, cattle, wool, game, and fiſh. There are ſeveral good ports and roads for ſhipping on the coaſt; but they have no ſtream worthy the name of a river. The chief towns are Majorca and Alcudia. *Majorca* town is ſituated towards the bottom of a large bay, on the S. W. ſide of the iſland, in 2 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 39 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. it contains about 6000 houſes, and has 22 churches, beſides the cathedral; being the reſidence of the viceroy; the harbour is large, and ſecure againſt all winds but the S. W. *Alcudia* is ſituated on a peninſula in the E. part of the iſland, and contains about 1000 houſes.

Ivica, or *Yvica*, is ſituated 50 miles E. of Valencia, and as many S. W. of Majorca; being about 30 miles long, and 24 broad: it is mountainous, but produces ſome corn and fruits; though it is moſt conſiderable for its ſalt, of which great quantities are exported. The chief town is called *Ivica*, ſituated in 1 deg. of E. lon. and 39 deg. of N. lat. on a bay in the ſouth part of the iſland.

The little iſland of *Formentera* lies about 6 miles ſouth of Ivica; being once well peopled, but now almoſt entirely deſerted, on account of the Turkiſh and Barbary rovers, who frequently come on ſhore here.

There is another little uninhabited iſland, called *Cabretta*, a little ſouth of Majorca; as alſo ſeveral others near the mouth of the Ebro, on the coaſt of Catalonia; but they are not worth a particular deſcription.

There is no kingdom on the continent better defended by nature than Spain, which is now more formidable than it was before the Duke of Anjou mounted that throne. As France is the great ſupport of Spain, no doubt the Spaniards make the French ſome return, by favouring their traffic with Spaniſh America. Nor is the alliance of France the only benefit ariſing to Spain, from its having a prince of French extraction upon the throne. The court of Spain have conſiderably improved their revenues, and increaſed their forces by ſea and land: ſince that event, the people are encouraged to apply themſelves to manufactures and huſbandry, ſo as to ſhake off that indolent diſpoſition which had rendered them contemptible in the eyes of other nations; and they will probably, in a few years, make a more conſiderable figure in Europe, than they did under their native princes.

The forces of Spain, in time of peace, are about 40,000 men; and though their fleets were very inconſiderable for many years, the royal navy has lately been increaſed to about 40 ſail of men of war.

The revenues of the crown ariſing in Spain were computed at about 5 millions ſterling a year; but they have been much improved ſince the acceſſion of the houſe of Bourbon; beſides, their American ſilver-mines are inexhauſtible, of which the king has a fifth.

The taxes in Spain, are duties on goods imported and exported; as alſo on goods brought into Madrid, or carried from one province to another. The rents of the firſt floor of all the houſes in Madrid. A kind of land-tax on the peaſants, and thoſe under the degree of nobility. A kind of general exciſe on meat, drink, and other proviſions. Duties on cattle driven from N. to S. A tax on thoſe who eat butter, cheeſe, milk, or eggs, in lent. A tax on the clergy, who are exempt from military ſervice. A tax on the three military orders, for the king their grand-maſter. And a tax on timber. But more money is raiſed by the king's fifth of the treaſure brought from America, than by all other means.

The Spaniards have abundance of fine ports upon the ocean

and the Mediterranean; beſides, the produce of their ſoil is as rich as that of any other nation, if it was properly cultivated. Their wine and oil are in great reputation; their wool and ſilk admirably fine; their fruits are large, and of an exquiſite taſte; they abound in rich minerals, and the Pyrenean mountains furniſh wood and iron ſufficient to furniſh the ſea with their ſhips. Their ſettlements in America furniſh them with prodigious quantities of gold and ſilver, ſilk, wool, ſugar, cochineal, cotton, ambergreaſe, cryſtals, emeralds, turquoiſes, balm, amber, bezoar ſtones, pearls, ſapphires, jaſpers, Brazil wood, oſtrich-feathers, ebony, and a great variety of other rich merchandiſes. But, notwithſtanding their ſoil produces ſuch admirable wine and oil, it is not cultivated ſo much as it ought to be; their fine wool and ſilk is unwrought, and they import the manufactures made of it in England, France, Italy, or Holland. Beſides, the flotas and galeons they ſend to America are laden with the merchandiſes of theſe nations, the Spaniards being generally no more than their factors or agents: ſo that moſt of the plate that is brought from America, is exported again, and diſtributed to foreigners.

SPALATTO. A city and port-town of Dalmatia, ſituated on the gulph of Venice, in 17 deg. 45 min. of E. lon. and 33 deg. 16 min. of N. lat. 65 miles N. W. of Raguſa, ſubject to Venice.

SPAN. A meaſure, taken from the ſpace between the thumb's end, and the tip of the little finger, when both are ſtretched out; being eſtimated at 3 hands breadth, or 9 inches inches. See *Meaſure*.

SPANISH *America*. Spain has ſeveral extenſive dominions, both in North and South America: in North America are the three grand diviſions of Old Mexico, New Mexico, including California, and Florida; and in South America are the grand diviſions of Terra Firma, Peru, Chili, and la Plata or Paraguay.

The Spaniſh iſlands in America, are Cuba, part of Hiſpaniola, Porto Rico, the Virgin iſlands, Trinity, and Margaretta, in the North ſea; as alſo Chilo, the King's or Pearl iſlands, Juan Fernandez, and the Gallipago iſlands, in the South ſea; beſides Golden iſland, Iſle of Pines, Samballas iſlands, and Baſtimentos, near Porto Bello, in Terra Firma.

The Spaniſh territories upon the continent of America lie contiguous; and, according to their accounts, extend from 45 degrees of N. lat. to the ſtreights of Magellan, in 54 deg. of S. lat. or about 7000 miles in length; but the breadth is very unequal, and in many places very uncertain, for in ſome parts it is 1500 miles broad, and in others not 100.

The diviſion of *Old Mexico* has the three audiences of Galicia or Guadalajaras, Mexico, and Guatimala; the firſt contains the ſeven provinces of Guadalajara Proper, Zacatecas, New Biſcay, Cinoloa, Culiacan, Chametlan, and Xaliſco: the ſecond contains the nine provinces of Mexico Proper, Mechoacan, Panuco, Tlaſcala, Guaxaca, Tabaſco, Jucatan, Chiapa, and Soconuſco; and the third audience comprehends the ſix provinces of Verapaz, Guatimala Proper, Honduras, Nicaragua, Coſta Rica, and Veragua.

The diviſion of *New Mexico*, including California, contains the provinces of New Mexico Proper, Apacheira, Sonora, California, and the peninſula.

The diviſion of *Florida* contains the provinces of the Cherokee or Apalachian Indians, and the Cadaquio Indians.

The diviſion of *Terra Firma* has the nine provinces of Terra Firma Proper or Darien, Carthagena, St. Martha, Rio de la Hacha, Venezuela, Comana, New Andaluſia or Pavia, New Granada, and Popayon.

The diviſion of *Peru* includes the provinces of Quitto, Lima or Los Reyes, and Los Charcos.

The diviſion of *Chili* comprehends the provinces of Chili Proper, and Cuyo or Cuito.

And the diviſion of *La Plata*, or *Paraguay*, contains the ſix provinces of Paragua, Parana, Guiara, Uragua, Tucaman, and Rio de la Plata.

Gold and ſilver are the moſt precious commodities of South America, as ſkins and furs are of North America.

The gold is of three ſorts, ingots, ore, and duſt. The ſilver of two ſorts, bars and piaſtres.

The furs and ſkins are thoſe of beavers, otters, elks, lynxes, and ſome others.

The pearls come either from Margarita in the North ſea, or from the iſles De las Perlas, or Pearl iſlands, in the South ſea; and the emeralds from a mine near St. Foy de Bogotta, a town of the new kingdom of Granada.

The other more common commodities are ſugar, either refined or otherwiſe, tobacco, ginger, indigo, caſſia, maſtic, aloes, ſpun or wool cotton, tortoiſe-ſhell, Vigogne wool; buffaloes, cows, and goats hides; the latter dreſſed like Cordouan leather, and the two former green; quinquina, cacao, vanilla, ſeveral kinds of wood for dying, inlaid work, and medicine; amongſt others, Campechy wood, yellow ſantal, ſaſſafras, Braſil, braſletto, guiacum, cinnamon, roſe-wood, fuſtel or fuſtoc, Indian wood, and green ebony, ſalſaparilla; three kinds of balſam, that of Tolu, Copahu, and Peru; occidental bezoar, cochineel of three ſorts; attolt, or rocou; ſilveſtris, ipecacuanha, contra-yerva, dragon's blood, reſin, ambergreaſe, liquid amber, copal gum, wild nutmeg, quickſilver, ſal marinum, ſal gem, ſulphur; ſeveral kinds of dry and liquid confects, as ananas, citrons, oranges, ſyrups of lemons; tallow, wax, honey, the Paraguay herb of two ſorts, jalap, mechoachan, pitch, and tar; olives, and oil of olives; train-oil, cheeſe, wheat, and all kinds of dry pulſe; wines, ſome molaſſes, ſpirits, and Barbadoes water; horſes, mules, and all kinds of cattle; laſtly, woollen cloths, flannels, bays of Peru; a kind of linen called by the Spaniards *lienzo de la tierra*, to diſtinguiſh it from foreign linens; and they make the like diſtinction with all foreign woollen manufactures, called by them *pannos de la tierra*, or cloths of the country.

All theſe commodities neither grow, nor are found every where; but ſome in one place, and ſome in another, according as the ſoil and climate are proper for their production and culture.

Thus the mountains and rivers of Chili and Potoſi afford moſt gold and ſilver; ſugar, tobacco, indigo, and ginger, are found in greater abundance in the Antilles iſlands than elſewhere; the richeſt furs come from Canada, Acadia, Miſſiſſippi, and New England; and Buenos-Ayres, St. Domingo, and the Havannah, yield the beſt leather.

After this general obſervation upon the commerce of America, it may be proper to make two or three particular ones upon that of Spaniſh America; the firſt whereof conſiſts in the entire excluſion, the Spaniards in all times have given to other nations, from all the places in America belonging to the crown of Spain; an excluſion ſo rigorouſly executed, that till the war for the ſucceſſion of Spain, and the eſtabliſhment of Philip V. upon the throne of that monarchy, it endangered the life of all thoſe who were not Spaniards, or ſubjects of Spain, to be detected in trading to the Spaniſh Indies; which ſince the peace of Utrecht has been alſo renewed, even with the conſent of France, and other nations thereby intereſted.

In treating of Buenos-Ayres, a new moderation of this law is mentioned, granted in favour of the Engliſh Aſſiento company.

However, notwithſtanding ſuch a peremptory excluſion, and though none but the Spaniſh galeons and ſhips are ſeen in their American colonies, it is certain that Spain has the leaſt ſhare in this trade; and that the Engliſh, French, and Dutch, whom the Spaniards would exclude, have it almoſt entirely to themſelves, under the name of Spaniſh merchants; who in this reſpect execute only the office of factors, but with an exactitude and fidelity that cannot be ſufficiently praiſed or admired.

The ſecond obſervation regards the three kinds of Spaniſh ſhips that trade to the Weſt Indies, namely, the galeons, the flotas, and the regiſter-ſhips.

What has been ſaid already upon this matter, may be conſulted in the article of the commerce of Spain, *and in the ſequel under the commerce of the* Havannah, Borto-Bello, Buenos-

Buenos-Ayres, Maracaiba, *and chiefly* Panama. *See alſo* Galeon, Flota, *and* Regiſter.

SPANSIH *Iſlands of America.*

a, ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, between 74 and 87 eg. of W. lon. and between 20 and 23 deg. of N. lat. eing 800 miles long, and about 70 broad. A long hain of mountains divides it almoſt into two equal arts: from theſe mountains iſſue ſeveral rivers, and co- ious ſprings, rolling with their ſtreams and gravel a very ne gold, which leaves no room to doubt that there are ines of this metal; but which hitherto have not been pened, no more than thoſe of ſilver and copper, which is ſuppoſed may be found three leagues from St. Jago, he capital of the iſland.

t the foot of the mountains are ſeveral extenſive fields nd meadows, called by the Spaniards *ſavanas*, wherein re grazed an infinite number of large cattle, both tame nd wild; whoſe hides make the chief riches of the land, and are moſt eſteemed of all thoſe brought from he Weſt Indies.

What the Spaniards call coraux, are a kind of parks here they feed hogs; which are uſually kept in the oods, to conceal them from the buccaneers. This akes one of the beſt trades in the iſland, either at home r abroad; no meat being reckoned ſo ſound, and there- ore preſcribed for ſick perſons preferably to all other inds.

t is alſo in the midſt of the woods that the buccaneers rect their materias, that is, the places where they retire, o kill wild beaſts, and dry their hides.

The other commodities of the produce of Cuba, beſides eather, are ſugar, tobacco, tallow, dry confects, gin- er, caſſia, maſtic, aloes, ſalſaparilla, and ſeveral tor- oiſe-ſhells, which, in the ſeaſon for laying their eggs, roud in great numbers about the little iſlands called the Queen's-Garden, not far from the coaſt of the great land.

The beſt hides and leather are brought from Porto del Principe; as is the moſt excellent tobacco, from the little own of the Trinity, and that of the Holy Ghoſt. It is of this tobacco that the Spaniards manufacture what they all Seville ſnuff, giving it the preference to all others; n which account ſeveral ſhips are yearly laden with that kind alone.

There is alſo in theſe two towns a great trade of that ort of tobacco, called by the Spaniards cigarros, that is, he open leaves of this plant, which are ſmoked without pipes, by twiſting them about in the form of horns.

The greateſt traffic of all theſe commodities is at the Ha- anna, the port of Palma, Baracoa, Puerto, Scondido, he Trinity, and eſpecially at St. Jago, where ſhips from he Canaries come and take them in exchange for their ines, making their entire cargo thereof, either for the Canaries themſelves, or for Spain, or for ſome parts of America, where they are not common, particularly dry nd liquid confects, which are readily bought up through- out the whole coaſt of the North ſea.

A kind of ſpice called canica, and which ſells well in the Spaniſh iſlands, may be alſo ranked among the commodi- ies of Cuba; being a kind of wild cinnamon, but whoſe aſte borders more upon the clove than the real cinna- mon. It is alſo uſed in medicine, and ſubſtituted in the oom of caſſia.

St. Jago is the capital city of the iſland; which, not- withſtanding, comes ſhort of the Havanna, both in trade, nd the ſafety and beauty of its port: ſo that the gover- nor-general of the iſland reſides in the latter town, which makes it to be held by ſome as the real capital.

t is at the Havanna, called by the Spaniards St. Chriſto- al de la Havanna, eſteemed by them as the key of ll the Weſt Indies, and the general ſtaple of the Ame- ican merchandiſe, that the galeons, the flota, and all he other ſhips that make the commerce of the continent, nd the Spaniſh American iſlands, are to touch in their eturn, that they may all go together for Spain; after aving taken in refreſhments for this voyage at the Ha- anna: ſo that it might be ſaid, that all the riches of America are aſſembled there, as well what belongs to the revenues of the King of Spain, as to the traders, which often amount to about five millions ſterling.

As long as theſe veſſels are at the Havanna, which are about 50 or 60 of all capacities, a continual fair is held; whereby the inhabitants furniſh the galeons and flota with all neceſſaries, and ſend abroad ſeveral of the commodities produced in their iſland, for their correſpondents in Spain; or which they exchange for other commodities, either European, or of the continent of America: in which commerce abundance of piaſters are met with, brought from the continent, eſpecially of New Spain.

When the time of departure comes, which is uſually in the month of September, the united fleets open the gulph of Bahama, making ſail for the height of the Azores, towards which they direct their rout, to deſcend from thence to Cadiz by the help of the north-weſt and weſt winds.

It is alſo from the Havanna, the ports of the Holy Ghoſt, the Trinity, and Santa Crux, that the greater part of the ſmall veſſels depart, with which the inhabitants of Cuba trade to Campeachy, New Spain, and Florida; ſome even venturing to carry their merchandiſes into Spain, whence they bring back cloths, ſilk ſtuffs, linens, and other commodities.

Hiſpaniola, called more commonly *St. Domingo*, from the name of its capital, is ſituated between 67 and 74 deg. of W. lon. and between 18 and 20 deg. of N. lat. being about 420 miles long from eaſt to weſt, and 120 broad from north to ſouth, 50 miles eaſt of Cuba, 70 miles eaſt of Jamaica, 60 weſt of Porto-Rico, and 300 north of Terra Firma.

Chriſtopher Columbus diſcovered Hiſpaniola in 1492, which was even the firſt eſtabliſhment of the Spaniards in America; this admiral having left there 30 or 40 ſoldiers in a bad ſort of a fort, which he built in haſte out of the remnants of one of his ſhips.

Columbus returned the year following; when, finding his fort deſtroyed, and his men maſſacred by the iſlanders, he built a town, to which he gave the name of Iſabella: ſome time after, he built the town of St. Domingo, which ſoon increaſed from the ruins of Iſabella, and ſome others deſtroyed by the Indians, who could not endure the cruelty and avarice of their new maſters, as they never were at eaſe in their new conqueſt till they had deſtroyed all the antient inhabitants, to the number, as ſome ſay, of upwards of three millions; ſo that at preſent not one of them remains.

The Spaniards, for a conſiderable time, remained ſole poſſeſſors of Hiſpaniola: but, a little before the middle of the ſeventeenth century, the French came to divide it with them; and are now ſo well eſtabliſhed there, as to be capable of expelling the Spaniards in caſe they undertook to trouble them in their eſtabliſhment. *See the commerce of the French in this iſland, under the article of* French *America.*

The principal commodities the Spaniards trade in upon this iſland, are hides, tallow, ſugar, ginger, cacao, wax, honey, ſome ambergreaſe, Braſil wood, and guiacum, which grow or are produced there, and Campeachy wood, which is brought from the continent; laſtly, citrons, oranges, and ſeveral other fruits, either ſold freſh, or of which excellent dry and liquid confects are made.

There are alſo gold mines in Hiſpaniola, from which the Indians had the gold the Spaniards found in the hands of the caciques, when they arrived there; but ſince the entire deſtruction of the Indians, theſe mines became unknown; the gold got there at preſent being found among the ſand and gravel of the rivers and torrents, particularly near the town of St. Jago Cavalleros.

The town of St. Domingo, ſituated in the ſouthern part of the iſland, at the mouth of the river Oſana, is the capital of what belongs to the Spaniards in Hiſpaniola, and the ſtaple of all commodities either foreign or domeſtic; the inhabitants of the other towns coming there to ſupply themſelves with thoſe of Europe, and the continent of America, which arrive there on Spaniſh bottoms, and alſo bring there their own to be embarked for Spain.

The Spaniards, for a conſiderable time, carried on the

principal commerce of these newly discovered lands in the town of St. Domingo: but the conquest of Peru on one side, and that of Mexico on the other, having first weakened it, it gradually declined; so that its present trade is scarce sufficient for the subsistence of the Spanish inhabitants, whose number there is to the amount of 20,000, comprehending mulattoes and slaves.

The other parts of the island where there is any trade, are St. Jago Cavalleros, a country-town, whose inhabitants are almost all hunters, trading chiefly in hides and tallow, which they sell at St. Domingo.

Cotui is to the south of St. Jago, where tobacco and cacao are cultivated; besides, it affords guiacum, cut by the inhabitants in the little island of Sarva, six leagues distant from it.

The town of Asso has some trade in hides and tobacco.

Puerto de la Plata once enjoyed as extensive a trade as St. Domingo; but is now reduced to nothing, upon account of the buccaneers, who have several times desolated these coasts. They also abolished the trade of the Conception, Vega, Monto-Christo, Salva-Leon, Zeybo-Colay, Aqua Jaquana, and some others, which are resorted to no longer by Spanish ships. So that the inhabitants are obliged to carry their merchandise to St. Domingo aboard some small vessels, that venture at no great distance from land.

The salt-marshes of St. Domingo are almost equally divided between the French and Spaniards; but those which are most abundant, and productive of the best salt, are at the bay of Ocoa, and Coridou, to the south; and at Caracol, Limonade, and Monto-Christo, to the north-east. It is thought, if these salt-marshes were as well cultivated as those of Aunis, Bourneuf, Croisil, and such others in France, they might afford more salt than all the salt-marshes in France, Spain, and Portugal together.

Sal-gem is found in some mountains; but neglected with some other minerals, which might make a considerable object of commerce.

Porto-Rico, is the smallest of the three large islands which the Spaniards possess in the North sea; being about 120 miles long, and 60 broad, situated between 64 and 68 deg. of W. lon. and in 18 deg. of N. lat.

It was first simply called the isle St. John by Christopher Columbus, who discovered it on the feast-day of St. John the Baptist in 1493, in his second voyage to the West Indies; but it was afterwards called Porto-Rico; and a Spanish colony was settled there in 1510, either upon account of the port of its capital town, which is one of the most spacious, most commodious, and safest in all America; or upon account of the great quantity of gold then found in the mines of this island.

At this time it affords little gold; the mines having been either exhausted, or neglected for want of workmen; and the Spaniards exterminated, in less than 20 years, all the Indians on the island, who were upwards of 600,000. However, a little of this metal is always gathered there; being found mingled in the sand of some rivers, and especially in the torrents that descend from the mountains, particularly in those of Manatnabon and Cecubo.

The chief trade of this island at present consists in sugar, ginger, ox and cow hides, spun or wool cotton, cassia, mastic, guaiacum, and mace; salt, for which there are excellent salt-marshes; oranges, fresh or confected lemons, and all sorts of cattle.

Its principal towns are Porto-Rico the capital, St. Germain, Arezibo, and Guadiamila: but all the trade with strangers is carried on at Porto-Rico; which is to be understood only of the Spaniards, either European or American, who send their shipping here.

The inhabitants of the island go also themselves with their merchandise to the continent and neighbouring islands: besides, this island serves as a staple for the contraband trade, which the English, French, and Dutch, notwithstanding the severe prohibition, keep on footing with the Spaniards.

What prevents commerce from flourishing in Porto-Rico to the degree that might be expected from the fertility of the soil, are three terribles plagues whereto it is often exposed; namely, drought, which is sometimes very great; hurricanes, which are very frequent; and what the Spaniards formerly dreaded most, the descent of adventurers, or buccaneers, who often committed most terrible ravages.

The Virgin islands, are situated on the east-end of Porto Rico, and are very small; or rather only a cluster of barren rocks, through which the passage is somewhat difficult, and they are scarce worth claiming by any nation; though they are generally said to belong to Spain.

The island of *Trinity*, or *Trinidad*, is separated from the continent of Terra Firma, by the narrow straight of Boco del Drago, 80 miles N. W. of the river Oronoque. It lies between 60 and 62 deg. of W. lon. and between 9 and 11 deg. of N. lat. being 90 miles long, and 60 broad. The air is unhealthful; but the soil is fruitful, producing sugar, tobacco, indico, cotton, ginger, and Indian corn.

Margaretta, *Marguaretta*, or the *Pearl island*, is situated in 64 deg. of W. lon. and 11 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 60 miles north of the continent of Terra Firma, and 200 west of Trinity; being 50 miles long, and 2[illegible] broad.

This island has for a long time been famous for its pearl-fishery; as also those of Cubagua and Cocha, two other islands between it and the continent: but, since the middle of the seventeenth century, this fishery has greatly dwindled away, and is now resorted only by a few fishermen.

It is thought that this fishery has been destroyed by the avarice of the Spaniards, who fished out of season, and took indifferently all kinds of oysters: besides, the inhabitants of these three unfertile islands, which are destitute even of the benefit of fresh water, have been so harrassed from time to time by the buccaneers, that they abandoned both the forts and plantations they had there, even renouncing the fishery, which they could no longer support without such extraordinary expences, that no profits could be expected.

This fishery is always in the month of July; but not, as formerly, under the inspection of the King of Spain's frigates.

When this fishery first flourished, there was fished, one year with another, to the value of about 50,000 l. sterling; which, not only those belonging to merchants, but also the fifth belonging to the King, were all indifferently brought to Carthagena to be drilled; whence afterwards they were sent into Spain aboard the galeons, that usually touch there in their rout for Porto-Bello, and thence for Europe.

There is still a pearl-fishery on the coast of Ranchiera, and in the river Hacha; where 10 or 12 barques resort every year, accompanied by an Armadilla of 24 pieces of cannon.

Of these barques one is called the capitana; aboard of which all the rest are obliged to carry every night what they have fished during the day; and it is also to Carthagena that these pearls are brought and drilled. See *Pearl*.

Commerce of the coasts of Spanish America, *on the* North sea.

It would undoubtedly be too long, and perhaps useless, to enter into an exact detail of all the maritime towns where any trade is promoted in this part of Spanish America: therefore, it may be sufficient to represent what is only relative to the staple-towns; the principal of which are, Porto-Bello, for Peru, and Castile de Oro; Carthagena, for New Granada, and a part of Guatimala; Vera Cruz, for all Mexico; Porto-Cavallo, for Honduras, and the other part of Guatimala; Maracaibo, for Venezuella, and the neighbouring provinces; Buenos-Ayres, for Paraguay and Chili; as also some others of less consequence, whereof some mention may also be made.

Porto-Bello. This town is not ancient, being built only in 1584, to serve as a retreat for the Spanish galeons, instead of Nombre-de-Dios, whose less advantageous situation, and unwholsome air, proved very inconvenient to the European merchants of the flota; as also to those of Panama, and the other parts of Spanish America.

It is situated on the North sea, in the province of Terra Firma

Firma Proper, or Darien, on the narroweſt part of the iſthmus which joins North and South America; in 82 deg. of W. lon. and 10 deg. of N. lat. 70 miles north of Panama, and 300 weſt of Carthagena.

The Spaniards began to build it about the time that Sir Francis Drake came to deſtroy this colony, after having taken and plundered the town of Nombre-de-Dios.

The Engliſh plundered it in 1591, but without deſtroying it: in 1668 the Engliſh and French buccaneers made themſelves maſters of it, though at this time defended by three forts; but the Spaniards paid the ranſom in a conſiderable number of ſilver bars: laſtly, in 1739, it was taken by the brave Admiral Vernon.

The town is ſmall, and almoſt as unwholſome as Nombre-de-Dios: however, it has eaſily recovered all its loſſes, and may juſtly be eſteemed one of the richeſt places of commerce in the world; which is to be underſtood only during the continuance of its fair; that is, for a month or ſix weeks, while the galeons are there: beſides, the principal merchants reſide at Panama, on the South ſea, during the reſt of the year.

The concourſe of people is ſo great at Porto-Bello, while the galeons remain there, that the ſmalleſt ſhops are often let for 200 l. ſterling during this term, and a very indifferent chamber for 25 l. ſterling; proviſions alſo augmenting their price in proportion.

It is alſo during this time that the air is the moſt unwholſome; there being ſeldom a year, while the fair continues, but 500 perſons at leaſt die, eſpecially thoſe who come from Europe.

Two thouſand mules are uſually employed in carrying the merchandiſes from Panama to Porto-Bello, and return to Panama with thoſe brought from Europe by the flota.

This commerce may be alſo performed by the river Chagre; embarking the goods at Venta de Cruzes, 10 leagues from Panama, upon flat-bottomed boats conducted by the mulattoes and negroes; whereby the very difficult mountainous paſſage over land is avoided; but the journey is longer, eſpecially when the river is low.

During the fair, every thing is ſold by wholeſale; that is, by the peſo and piece, and not by the ell or pound.

The gold and ſilver from Panama, which makes the principal loading of 2000 mules, is ſet down in the midſt of the fair; where it is weighed and marked by the officers; remaining there till the departure of the fleet, with as much negligence as a parcel of ſmall value in the corner of a warehouſe.

As to the European and American commodities, they are all laid up in warehouſes, which make the better part of the buildings in the town; all the Panama merchants having large houſes appropriated entirely for this uſe, as alſo ſeveral ſtables for the convenience of mules, and other beaſts of burden.

While the galeons remain at Porto-Bello, or even before they arrive at Carthagena, a ſhip is detached, called the Royal patache, for collecting the tribute of the coaſt. This ſhip touches uſually at Margarita, Ponta Guyara, Maracaibo, Rio de la Hacha, Santa Maria, and ſeveral other places that have little or no commerce with Porto-Bello.

When the cargo of the galeons is adjuſted, the fleet ſails for Carthagena: but this paſſage, though inconſiderable for its diſtance, was very dangerous when the Engliſh were maſters of the iſle of Providence, which they called St. Catharine's.

Before the departure of the fleet from Porto-Bello, the King's officers viſit the ſhips, that nothing may go aboard but what has paid the King's fifth: though this is properly a mere formality, there being always an underſtanding between them and the merchants; ſo that ſcarce more than the half of the gold, ſilver, and other rich merchandiſe embarked for Spain is declared: beſides, upon the arrival of the fleet in Spain, the European officers are as unfaithful as thoſe of America, ſhutting their eyes againſt the unloading of the ſhips.

The commodities wherewith the Spaniards make up the cargo of their ſhips for America, conſiſt in all kinds of linens and cottons; all ſorts of woollen and ſilk manufactures, beſides hard and haberdaſhery wares; and, in general, all neceſſaries for the uſe of mankind; whereby a large profit is obtained, ſome of them producing 300 *per cent.* and others 100, and 150.

Porto-Bello is one of the ports of Spaniſh America, to which, by the Aſſiento treaty, the Engliſh South ſea company was allowed to ſend a ſhip in the fair-time, to ſell there, in conjunction with the Spaniſh merchants, the commodities of Europe; but this privilege is now retrenched.

The city of *Carthagena* is the capital of the province of the ſame name; ſituated on a peninſula near the ſea-coaſt, 300 miles E. of Porto-Bello; to which it is not inferior for commerce, but much ſuperior in extent, the number of inhabitants, and its riches.

It is one of the beſt ports of the New World, fortified with the greateſt care by the Spaniards, becauſe the galeons are accuſtomed to retire there when obliged to paſs the winter in the Indies.

Beſides this retreat of the galeons which enriches Carthagena, and promotes a conſiderable commerce there, it may be ſaid, that it has a fund of riches in itſelf; there being ſcarce any of the provinces of Mexico and Peru, wherewith it does not drive on a trade, either by ſea or land; without mentioning that of the Engliſh of Jamaica, and the Dutch of Curacao, notwithſtanding all the vigilance of the Spaniſh guarda coſtas.

All the revenues the King of Spain has out of Caſtile de Oro, and all the merchandiſes of private perſons, are tranſported to Carthagena, eſpecially from New Granada, to be ſent into Spain by the galeons.

They deſcend to it by the great river of Magdalena; on the banks of which, at ſix leagues diſtance from the North ſea, is the office of receipt, called by the Spaniards Baranca de Malambo, where all the European merchandiſes deſigned for New Granada are unloaded.

The commodities of Caſtile de Oro conſiſt particularly in gold, ſilver, drugs, medicinal plants, and ſpice.

Granada in particular has emerald-mines near the town of St. Foy de Bogatta; from whence all thoſe came, of which the French made ſo rich a booty when they took Carthagena in 1697.

This town has alſo a direct and regular commerce with Lima, the capital of Peru, by mules, which paſs through the middle of New Granada. It has from Peru great quantities of gold and ſilver, in exchange for European commodities; which it ſends there, and receives, partly by the galeons, and partly by a contraband commerce with Jamaica and Curacao.

To Carthagena is alſo ſent the greater part of the indigo, cochineel, ſugar, and cacao, gathered in the province of Guatimala; the Spaniards reputing it ſafer to tranſport their merchandiſes on the lake of Granada, to Nicaragua, and thence to Carthagena, than to ſend them through the gulph of Olce, in veſſels belonging to Honduras, where they were formerly more expoſed to the ravages of freebooters.

It is alſo in this town that the trade of all the pearls fiſhed for in the North ſea is carried on.

Laſtly, Cuba and Hiſpaniola furniſh it with ſugar, tobacco, confects, and eſpecially marmalades. The coaſt oppoſite the iſlands of Samballas receive from thence hogs, poultry, and other refreſhmonts. It has from the interior part of the country, gold gathered in the torrents and rivers; aromatic gums, excellent balſams, either oozing of themſelves from the trees, or extracted by inciſion; among others that of Tolu, a town five or ſix leagues from the ſea; long pepper, uſually called Brazil pepper; excellent fruits, and even wheat, which notwithſtanding ripens with difficulty, upon account of the intemperature of the air, which is too rainy, and therefore makes the ſoil over marſhy.

Carthagena is one of the beſt peopled towns of the Spaniſh American coaſts, containing generally 4000 Spaniards, and upwards of 14,000 mulattoes and negroes.

Vera Cruz, called alſo *St. John of Ulva*, from the name of its port, is ſituated towards the lower part of the gulph of Mexico,

Mexico, in the creek formed by the Yucatan, in 100 deg. of W. lon. and 18 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 200 miles S. E. of Mexico city.

But this is not the ſame Vera Cruz, whereby Hernando Cortez began the conqueſt of Mexico, with leſs than a hundred ſoldiers, when he had millions to engage, and where he ſunk his ſhips, to deprive the Spaniards of all hopes of returning to Yucatan or Cuba, and to oblige them to a neceſſity of either conquering or dying: for the ancient Vera Cruz is ſix leagues from the new one; for which it has been abandoned upon account of its corrupt air, and the ſecurity of its port; though that of St. John is alſo ſubject to almoſt the ſame inconveniencies.

The new Vera Cruz might be ſaid to be a town of the greateſt commerce in all Spaniſh America; its merchants ſending ſhips to all parts of the North ſea, and all the iſlands.

The flotilla annually arrives here from Spain, to receive the gold and ſilver of Mexico; as alſo the rich merchandiſe brought from the Philippines by the way of the Pacific ocean.

The number of the inhabitants is not conſiderable, amounting ſcarcely to 3000; but they are all opulent merchants, or factors of merchants in the Mexican trade.

The time of the fair of Vera Cruz begins when the fleet arrives, and continues almoſt as long as the ſhips remain in the harbour: but the principal merchants reſide there only during this time, and retire afterwards up the country, to avoid the wet ſeaſon.

It is alſo at Vera Cruz that the fleet paſſes the winter, when it has been detained at ſea. Moſt commonly it has its cargo in April, to ſet ſail in May; but ſometimes its departure is put off till the month of Auguſt, according as the winds prove favourable, or purſuant to the danger impending from European nations, with whom the Spaniards might be at war.

The embarkment always begins with the merchandiſe; the gold and ſilver, for greater ſafety, being deferred till the laſt. Even when attacks might be apprehended in the harbour, the King's revenue, and merchants money, remain at Pueblo de los Angelos, a large town, 40 leagues from St. John de Ulva, from whence they are not brought till a little before the fleet ſets ſail.

Porto Cavallo, or *Porto Cabelo*, is ſituated on the Caraccas coaſt, in 67 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 10 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. where all the commerce of Spain and the North ſea is carried on with Guatalima, or Guatimala; for the inhabitants of this town are almoſt all factors to the merchants of Guatalima; and their houſes are chiefly warehouſes for the reception of merchandiſe.

This port is inconſiderable for the number of its inhabitants, but is the moſt famous for trade of all thoſe in the gulph of Honduras; being ſituated near Rio-dolce, called alſo the river Guatalima; not becauſe it waſhes this province, from which it is ſeparated by high mountains, but becauſe it ſerves for the commerce promoted by it.

Some lighters convey the commodities of Spain as far as a ſmall town built at the foot of theſe mountains; from whence, by a cauſeway cut through rocks, they are tranſported on mules to Guatalima; and, as it is by the ſame way that the commodities of the country arrive at Porto Cavallo, this ſmall ſtaple-town is called the Port de Golfo-dola, or the gulph of Honduras.

The Spaniſh ſhip which brings the commodities of Europe here, is one of thoſe called regiſter-ſhips; becauſe the freighters purchaſe from the India-houſe the privilege of trading to certain American ports, and which privilege is regiſtred.

This ſhip is uſually a hulk of 7 or 800 tuns, laden with moſt kinds of commodities, but eſpecially with iron and ſteel; paper for printing and writing; linens, fine cloths, ſilks, ſaffron, oil, ſerges, ribbands, and thread, with ſome ſmall hard haberdaſhery and glaſs wares; the laſt of which are uſed for treating with the Indians of Honduras and Yucatan; the whole amounting ſometimes to about 50,000 l. ſterling in all theſe commodities.

The commodities from Guatalima are gold, ſilver, cochineel, indigo, leather, ſalſaparilla, jalap, mechoachan, cacao, cotton, balſam, a kind of petrol-oil, and paſtel: But cochineel, indigo, and ſilver, come uſually in an armed patache; being eſteemed the richeſt commodities wherein the European ſhip is to make its return.

It ſhould not be omitted, that cacao, in the province of Guatalima, is both ſold as a merchandiſe, and paſſes for money; for they not only ſerve the Indians, but alſo the Spaniards, in purchaſing ſeveral ſmall commodities; 10, 20, 30, and ſometimes 100 being given purſuant to the value of the thing.

Maracaibo, is a city and port-town of the province of Terra Firma, ſituated on the weſt-ſide of the lake of Maracaibo, in 70 deg. of W. lon. and 10 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. 130 miles E. of Rio de la Hacha.

The town is ſmall, but well built, in the modern taſte: its port is excellent, and its merchants ſo rich, that they build, rigg, and freight ſhips, which trade in all parts of America, and go even to Spain.

As this town has the privilege of a regiſter ſhip, which comes every year to take away the commodities of the country, and brings thoſe of Europe; the inhabitants keep ſeveral barks of 25 or 30 tons, with which they collect along the coaſts of this lake, where they have ſeveral plantations, the various productions of the country; as tobacco, cacao, ſugar, and indigo, with which they fill their warehouſes till the arrival of the Spaniſh ſhips: ſeveral green hides are alſo got there, the paſtures being excellent for large cattle, which are grazed in abundance, and killed only for their ſkins.

This place is likewiſe the ſtaple for the commodities of Merida, and ſome other towns ſituated upon the frontiers of New Granada and Venezuela. But it is from Merida that all the gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones are brought, which are ſeen at Maracaibo; and from Gilbratart are brought the beſt tobacco, and moſt excellent cacao, of the continent of Spaniſh America.

The commodities proper for the bay of Venezuela, and the lake of Maracaibo, are ſilks, linens, wire, huſbandmens implements, with hard and haberdaſhery wares.

Buenos-Ayres, is ſituated in 60 deg. of W. lon. and 36 deg. of S. lat. being one of the moſt conſiderable ports in the province of La Plata: it lies on the ſouth ſhore of the river Plata, 50 leagues within the mouth of it, and yet here the river is ſeven leagues broad.

The Spaniards were at ſome difficulty to eſtabliſh themſelves in this port, which they often abandoned ſince the time they laid the firſt foundation of it in 1535, and which they could not quietly poſſeſs till 1582, when the Indians were obliged to yield to theſe new maſters.

The town contains about 4000 houſes, all built with mud-walls, and covered with tiles; except fifty which are made of brick.

The inhabitants acquire great wealth, by commerce both at home and abroad. Their interior commerce is with Paraguay, Chili, and Peru; the exterior being firſt with Brazil, where the merchants of Buenos-Ayres ſend their ſhips, tho' they receive no goods from the Portugueſe: ſecondly, with the Spaniards of Europe, who ſend there ſeveral of their regiſter ſhips: and thirdly, ſhips alſo from ſeveral parts of Spaniſh America reſort to this town; where the Aſſiento ſhips were at liberty to come.

The principal commodity brought from Buenos-Ayres, and of which the greateſt profit is made, are green hides of wild bulls, that is, the hides of theſe animals with the hair on, and without being tanned; which coſt there uſually but about 4 s. ſterling after all duties are paid, and are ſold in Europe for 1 l. ſterling.

Cochineel from Peru, of an indifferent quality, may be reckoned another of its commodities; as alſo Vigogne wool from Peru; and the copper of Coquimbo.

The other commodities with which the Europeans make up their cargoes are the Paraguay-herb; leaf tobacco tyed up, and ſold by the pound; loaf and powder ſugar; ſpun cotton and yellow wax; all which the inhabitants have from the town of Corientes and Paraguay; the former being 500, and the latter 250 leagues from Buenos-Ayres.

From theſe two towns are alſo brought ſome coarſe cotton cloths, called lienzo della tierra by the Spaniards, and toconnis by the Indians; but they are all conſumed in and

and about Buenos-Ayres, for the ſhirting of domeſtics and ſlaves.

The commodities proper for Corientes and Paraguay, are Flemiſh knives, ſeizzars, ribbands, taffetas, linens, ſilk ſtuffs and ſtockings, Engliſh flannels, caſtor-hats; woollen cloths, and flannels of Peru and Quito; all which are bartered for the above mentioned commodities of Corientes and Paraguay; no money being ever received, or ſeen in either of theſe two towns.

The merchants who carry on the trade of Corientes, load their merchandiſe on carts, and carry them back the ſame way; tho' they have fifteen or ſixteen rivers to paſs, over which they ſwim their oxen, and make uſe of rafts for their merchandiſe, and carts; or even, in caſe of neceſſity, they build theſe rafts by diſmounting their carts.

The town of Corientes is half way from Buenos-Ayres to Paraguay; and the commerce of this laſt town, beſides the difficulties of rivers common to it with the other, has alſo ſome peculiar ones; thoſe who undertake it being uſually two years in the journey; becauſe each crop of the Paraguay-herb, which is the principal object of this trade, and which yearly amounts to about 160,000 l. ſterling, having an advance ſale, they muſt always expect a ſecond, without reckoning the preſents they are obliged to make to the governors, and to thoſe who are maſters of the beſt kind; yet, ſetting aſide the extortions they are expoſed to, they ſell the commodities they give in exchange at more than 300 *per cent.* profit.

The town of Santa-Fé is the ſtaple for the Paraguay herb, and the other commodities that come from Corientes and Paraguay, deſigned for Peru and Chili; the merchants bringing only to Buenos-Ayres what is to be conſumed or ſold there, whereby they avoid a double payment of the duties of importation and exportation, if all was to be tranſported there to be ſent to the South Sea.

All the gold and ſilver found at Buenos-Ayres is brought there by the merchants that trade to Chili and Peru; with which laſt country, the merchants of Buenos-Ayres drive on a conſiderable trade in cows and mules.

Laſtly, the merchants of Buenos-Ayres ſend to the Brazils corn, biſket, ſalt fleſh, or dried before the ſun; and get in exchange ſugar, tobacco, indigo, and other productions of the country, with wine, and ſome commodities from Portugal.

The bay of *Campeachy*, and the coaſt of *Carracos*, may alſo be included among the places of the Spaniſh American commerce in the North ſea.

It is in the firſt that the wood, ſo eſteemed in Europe for dying black and violet, is found.

The town of Campeachy, the metropolis of the country, was formerly the ſtaple of all the wood of this kind; and the Indians of the neighbourhood were employed to cut it at a real, or 5 $\frac{3}{8}$ d. ſterling a day; which was of great profit to the maſter, this wood ſelling then at 120 l. ſterling *per ton.*

When the Engliſh poſſeſſed themſelves of Jamaica, and had known the value and uſe of this wood, they attempted to divide the trade thereof with the Spaniards: but, perceiving that the places where the Spaniards uſed to cut it were well fortified, and the coaſts guarded againſt any attempts of their taking it away as before; they choſe for themſelves a place to continue this trade in the neighbourhood of the lake Triſte, where they engaged in their ſervice the Indian cutters of this coaſt, among whom ſome Engliſhmen eſtabliſhed themſelves.

The commodities wherewith the Engliſh people of Jamaica pay their cutters of Campeachy-wood, are rum, ſaws, hatchets, hats, ſtockings, ſhoes, knives, and other ſmall hard and haberdaſhery wares.

The Spaniards keep always on footing the commerce of this wood, and ſeveral other commodities, in the town of Campeachy, where their ſhips go yearly to be freighted with wood; as alſo with ſeveral kinds of carpenters timber, wax, ſugar, caſſia, ſalſaparilla and leather.

The coaſt of *Carracos* is productive of all kinds of almonds, or of the cocoa-nuts of which chocolate is made; from whence the Dutch have the greateſt part of the cocoa they bring into Europe.

Tho' this coaſt ſeems a long chain of mountains, it has ſeveral vallies where the inhabitants of Carracaos, capital of the country, make the Negroes cultivate the trees that produce the cocoa, whoſe nuts, tho' much ſmaller than thoſe which grow in ſome other places of America, are more eſteemed.

This fruit is almoſt the only merchandiſe of this coaſt: however, hides are another commodity; as alſo ſilver, which in reality is a contraband merchandiſe for ſtrangers; yet exported yearly in great quantities, by the Engliſh of Jamaica, and the Dutch of Curaco, as well as cocoa, eſpecially by the latter, who every year ſend there ſeveral ſhips of 30 and 40 tons.

Cloths of flax and hemp from Europe, and cottons from the Eaſt Indies, are very good articles for this commerce. Brandy, earthen-ware, and ſeveral commodities from England, France, and Holland, are likewiſe brought there, of which great profits are made; tho' the people of Jamaica, and thoſe of Carracaos, have them often, tho' at the ſecond and third hand: but the greateſt profits are for ſuch Dutch veſſels as trade there directy from Holland.

Cocoa ſerves for money upon the coaſt of Carracos, in the ſame manner as it does at Campeachy, and all along the bay.

Commerce of the coaſts of Spaniſh America on the South Sea.

That part of the ocean which is entered from the North ſea, thro' the ſtraights of Magellan, de le Maire, or Brouvers, and which waſhes the ſouth coaſts of America, from theſe ſtraights to the iſle of California, is called the South Sea: it is alſo called the Pacific ſea; the ſea of Cephalonia; and the ſea of Jeſſo: but only ſo when ſome part or other is ſpecified; the name of South Sea, when it is ſpoke of in general, comprehending all.

The principal towns of commerce poſſeſſed by the Spaniards on theſe coaſts, are from Chili to New Spain; being Baldivia, La Conception, Valparaiſa, Arica, Lima, and Callao its port, Panama, Acapulco, and la Navidad.

Among theſe chief places, there are alſo a great number of ſmall ports; which are either ſtaples for the more inland towns, or ſerve for the neighbouring trade of the inhabitants.

Of theſe ſmall towns, the moſt remarkable are, Auroca, Lavelia, Guiarma, Paita, Rio-Tomba, Selaquez, the Trinity, St. Michael, Tomaco, Sanſonat, Sagno, Naſca, Piſca, Pachacama, Barbacoa, Tecoantepeque, Nicoya, Chiricito, and ſome others.

Theſe laſt ſhall be only touched upon, as they merit a leſs detail than the reſt; which, for the better part, are as ſo many publick ſtorehouſes, not only for the commodities of Chili, Peru, and New Spain; but alſo for thoſe of the Eaſt Indies, and the Philippine iſlands, wherewith their commerce is very conſiderable.

The towns of Baldivia, Conception, and Valparaiſa, are ſituated upon the coaſt of Chili; it being in their ports that all the commerce of this kingdom with that of Peru is carried on.

Baldivia, called alſo *Valdivia*, is the firſt town on the coaſt, after having cleared the ſtraights of Magellan: Arauca, where the Spaniards keep a garriſon of 500 men, to ſtop the inroads of the revolting Indians, being more up the country, and having no port.

Baldivia is ſituated two leagues from the ſea, in 80 deg. of W. lon. and in 40 deg. of S. lat. between the branches of the two rivers, which at their mouth form one of the fineſt and ſafeſt ports of all this coaſt.

The gold mines, which are not far diſtant, being the moſt abundant and richeſt of Chili, made it formerly very famous; but the revolt of the Arauca Indians who took it in 1599, and could not afterwards be ſubjected, greatly diminiſhed both its reputation and commerce; tho' the Spaniards are re-eſtabliſhed there, and keep up a garriſon of 200 men.

Its chief trade by ſea is to Lima, the capital of Peru, where it ſends yearly eight or ten ſhips of 4 or 500 tons, laden with all the commodities of the country; particularly dreſſed ox and goat hides, tallow, ſalt fleſh, and corn. The returns of theſe ſhips are wines, ſugar, cocoa, ſpice, and all kinds of European commodities, that arrive at Lima from Porto-Bello by the way of Panama.

Its inland commerce is with St. Jago, the capital of Chili;

whereby it receives from Buenos-Ayres the ſeveral commodities already mentioned in treating of the trade of this town on the North ſea.

La Conception, is 60 leagues from Baldivia, and 70 from St. Jago; being ſituated in 79 deg. of W. lon. and 37 deg. of S. lat. The port is in the form of a horſe-ſhoe, from whence it is called by the Spaniards *Della Herradura*, and is 5 leagues from the town, where lighters come up by the river Andalian that runs thro' it.

The mines of Quilacoya and Quilacura are but four leagues diſtant; and la Eſtancia del Re, where the chief lavaderos of the kingdom are found, is not far off.

The inhabitants of the Conception graze abundance of goats, but chiefly for their tallow and ſkins; of which laſt they make a kind of morocco leather, called *Cordouan:* they are both ſent to Lima, from whence, by Panama and the river Chagre, they are tranſported to the North ſea. The other commodities they trade in are not much different from thoſe of Baldivia; except wool and cloths, and other ſtuffs manufactured in the country.

The ſhips ſent yearly by the inhabitants of the Conception to Peru, amount to ten or twelve, and make almoſt the ſame returns as thoſe of the other town.

La Conception has ſome trade with the nation of the Puelches; which, tho' not ſubject to, are in peace with the Spaniards.

Valparaiſa, is a little town ſituated on a bay of the ſame name, at the mouth of the river Topocalina, in 77 deg. of W. lon. and 33 deg. of S. lat. ſerving as a port to St. Jago, the capital of Chili, which is built upon the ſame river 15 leagues from the ſea.

From the port of Valparaiſa are embarked for Peru all the revenues of the King of Spain at Chili, and all the effects of private perſons deſigned for the North ſea; conſiſting particularly in gold from the mines near Baldivia, and the Conception; or thoſe of Tiſtil, between Valparaiſa and St. Jago.

Turquoiſes alſo are brought to Lima, found in an excellent rock open in the valley of Copiapo, ſituated in the north part of Chili.

As the ſhips which bring theſe treaſures are uſually convoyed by ſome armadillas, merchants are accuſtomed to uſe this convoy for ſending the reſt of their commodities to Lima, and the other ports of Peru; from whence they return with the productions of the country; as alſo a great number of piaſters, which ſerve them in their commerce with Buenos-Ayres; and they likewiſe bring ſuch commodities as arrive there by the way of Panama.

Quintero, and *Coquimbo*, are alſo two maritime towns of Chili, where ſome trade is promoted; eſpecially in the latter, near which there is a mine of the copper called by way of diſtinction Coquimbo copper, of which all the artillery of Peru and Chili is made. The harbour of Coquimbo is excellent, which is what brings it a great trade; its own neighbourhood alone being able to ſupply this trade, as corn, oil, pitch, cotton, the herb that ſerves for cordage, and cloth; beſides moſt kinds of fruit and legumes, which are found there in great plenty.

Arica, is ſituated in 70 deg. 20 min. of W. lon. and 18 deg. 20 min. of S. lat. in the province of los Charcas in Peru. Tho' this town, with regard to the number of inhabitants, and the beauty of its buildings, is one of the leaſt conſiderable of Peru; yet there is ſcarce one where, in as ſhort a time, a richer commerce can be ſet on foot.

It is true, the riches of Potoſi, and the other mines of Charcas, paſs no longer thro' Arica; being tranſported directed to Lima, as the ſureſt way, and leaſt expoſed to the inſults of freebooters: yet this is no impediment to the trade of Arica, which is ſituated 70 leagues from the city of Potoſi, and ſerves it for a port.

The Spaniards call thoſe beaſts of burden uſed at Arica, by the name of pecos. They are of a ſingular figure, and a kind known only in Peru; being ſtronger and higher than the largeſt ſheep in Europe, which they ſomewhat reſemble, and whereby they have acquired the name of Peru ſheep. The weight they can carry is about 150 lb. and if they are overloaded, they would ſooner ſuffer themſelves to be killed than riſe from the ground, where they remain kneeling, till the load is ſettled on their back.

Theſe animals are uſed for tranſporting the merchandiſe ſent by ſea to Arica, for the ſupport of the inhabitants of Potoſi, and the working of the mines. Upon the road to this famous town are ſeen continually caravans of pecos, who are thus employed entirely the whole year. There are every four leagues large villages, or at leaſt ventas, for ſo the inns are called, where care is taken for all neceſſary proviſions for theſe beaſts, and their conductors; for theſe animals are only able to make ſuch a journey in a day.

It is alſo the pecos that are employed to bring the minerals to the mills, and founderies; which greatly augment the number of theſe animals, whereof one Indian alone may conduct a hundred; having this common with ſheep, whom they reſemble, that they love company, and to go in flocks.

The commodities tranſported from Lima, and the other ports of Peru, to Arica for Potoſi, are cloths and ſerges from Europe; others from Quito, where are the beſt woollen manufactures of Peru: gold, ſilver, ſilk, and cotton ſtuffs; the laſt made in the country, and the three firſt brought from Spain in the galleons: flour, corn, and mace; acicoca, an herb uſed inſtead of that of Paraguay; wines of Araquipa, the beſt of Peru, where the king of Spain has allowed the planting of vines: oil, olives, butter, cheeſe, ſugar, ſalt, mercury, confects, and ſyrups: laſtly, all kinds of hard-ware, and iron utenſils for houſehold furniture, and the working of the mines.

All this merchandiſe is paid for in mine-money; the town of Potoſi, called alſo the Imperial city, being ſituated in ſo barren and ingrateful a country, as to furniſh nothing of itſelf for trade; had not the neighbouring mountains been inexhauſtible in mines of ſilver, which have made it the moſt beautiful, the beſt peopled, and the moſt abundant in all neceſſaries of any city in Peru; the number of its inhabitants amounting to upwards of 60,000, among which there are at leaſt 10,000 Spaniards.

As from this town the ſilver circulates throughout all the reſt of Peru, there is ſcarce a place in this extenſive empire that does not contribute to maintain its plenty. Carriages are conſtantly met with on the high roads for Potoſi, conducted at leaſt by 2000 Indians, who keep up its commerce with Arica; and upwards of 10,000 others, who come from Lima, Cuſco, and ſeveral other towns and villages of the country, ſometimes more than 200 leagues of.

Arequippa. A town of Peru, ſituated in 73 deg. of W. lon. and 17 deg. of S. lat. 220 miles S. E. of Lima. The anchorage of its port is good; but the entrance narrow and difficult. It is in this port that the greater part of the produce of the ſilver of los Charcas, and the mines of Potoſi and Porto, are embarked for Lima and Panama; which promotes a very conſiderable commerce, and almoſt the beſt of this coaſt.

Lima and *Callao.* Lima, called in Spaniſh, Cividad de los Reyes, is the capital of Peru. It received the firſt name from the valley wherein it is built; and the ſecond, becauſe the colony which Francis Pizarro ſent there in 1535, arrived on the day of Epiphany, popularly called the day of the kings.

This city is ſituated in 76 deg. of W. lon. and 12 deg. 30 min. of S. lat. on the banks of the river Lima, 6 miles S. of the Pacific ocean, and of the port-town of Callao. It is a place of the greateſt commerce of any in South America; all the riches of Peru and Chili being brought there from the ports of the Conception, and Arica. The greateſt part of the merchandiſe from Europe for Porto-Bello and Vera Cruz are alſo brought there; from the one by the Panama ſhips; and from the other by thoſe of Acapulco.

The inland commerce of Lima is not leſs conſiderable, extending not only into all the provinces of the Peruvian empire; but alſo to Buenos-Ayres and Carthagena.

The inland commerce of Lima is partly carried on by the Spaniards, and partly by the Indians, the latter having more liberty here than in any other part of the Spaniſh dominions; being obliged only to pay a ſlight tribute, of two picos of ſilver, and a pullet, worth about a rial, and half a piece of ſtuff whereof they make their cloaths; all which they pay every ſix months to the king.

The Spaniards trouble themſelves only about what is moſt im-

important in trade, leaving all other particulars to the Indians; together with all the work of arts, trades, and tillage; it being a rare thing with a Spaniard to demean himself in any of these points.

It is also the Indians that work in all the Peruvian woollen manufacture; wherein are employed the precious Vigogne and Pecos wools; of which they make carpets, tapestries, cloths, and serges, not in the least inferior to those of Europe in the workmanship, but much superior in point of industry; especially with regard to those that have no wrong side: but the cloths of Quito are those in most reputation.

The market place of Lima, wherein the Indians trade, is called Pobel-Carcado, from the name of the quarter of the town, where all the Indian artizans have their habitations and shops, to expose to sale their respective merchandise; and where those from the adjacent country sell their legumes, as onions, cabbage, sallads, radishes, cucumbers, melons, &c.

El Sato de los Cavallos is another place where the cattle market is kept, especially of horses, mules and asses; for which there are spacious and fertile pastures in the flat country of Peru.

The cloth-merchants have a market-place of their own; where are none but shops belonging to those of their profession.

The town-house is a place of assembly for merchants to treat of their commerce, and answers to what goes under the denomination in other European mercantile towns of exchange.

The commerce of the Spaniards consist principally in gold and silver; in stuffs, and European commodities; in cloths, and serges of the country; in wines, corn, flour, mercury, oil, olives, sugar, conserves, syrups, confects, India wheat, salts, lemons, oranges, dry fish, cattle, cotton, and timber for house and ship-building; besides pearls and precious stones.

Gold comes to them from Chili, Castile de Oro, Cusco, and some other provinces of Peru; Silver from the mines of Potosi, Oruco, Tarapaca, Chocolocora; and mercury from Europe, as also from Tuanca-Beluca, 40 leagues from Lima.

They have their stuffs from Quito, and the villages of the mountains that border upon their capital; likewise cotton, and the cloths made of it from the neighbouring plains.

Araquippa, Yca, Pisco, and Nasca, furnish them with wines: as do Xaura, Cusco, Caneto, and Guemangua, with cattle.

The sugars, confects, syrups, and conserves, are made at Jamanga and Guara: wheat, flour, and India corn, come from the same place; as also from Varancas and the villages near Lima: dry fish from Paita; carpenters timber from Quiaquil, but cut in the island of Gallo, which is near it; salt from the salt-marshes of Guara, from two other salt pools mentioned elsewhere, and from the mountains.

Lastly, oils and olives from all the ports of the coast, from Arica to Lima.

As for the precious stones and pearls, part of the latter are fished for at the islands de las Perlas, in the South sea; and part is brought by the way of Panama from the fisheries of Margarita or Rancheria, in the North sea: the former being found in several mines, rocks, and rivers of Peru.

Under the denomination of precious stones, which, as well as gold and silver, pay a fifth to the king, are comprehended not only all stones of lustre; but also bezoards, red coal, the loadstone, jet, arcanson, and vitriol.

The silver of Peru is both a coin and merchandise. The coined silver is in piastres, called Peruvian, to distinguish them from those of Mexico, called Mexican.

The mercantile silver is in quinted bars, and stamped at the royal mint, to denote the weight and standard.

This metal, whether money or merchandise, makes a part of what is called at Peru the flota of silver. The other part consists in gold ingots, or coined gold, which comes from Chili, Cusco, some other places of Peru, and Castile de Oro.

The commodities of the Manilles, China, and the East Indies, have not been ranked among those wherein the inhabitants of Lima trade; because the greater part are reputed contraband for Peru: the others being mentioned in the following paragraph.

Callao. The port of Lima, situated on a little island opposite to the city, about six miles below it; being a spacious and very safe harbour, without either shallows or rocks; and has two channels, the one for large ships, by doubling the isle Lobos that covers it; and the other for barks and small vessels, by passing thro' a narrow canal, which lies between the island and the continent.

Two fleets, both having the name of silver fleets, are equipped yearly in this port; one for Arica, and the other for Panama.

The fleet for Arica departs from Callao towards the end of February; and, after having taken in the silver of the mines of Potosi, returns to Lima towards the end of March, or the beginning of April; much about the same time that the ships of Valparaisa bring there the revenues of Chili.

As soon as this fleet is returned, and the ships from Chili arrived, the goods are unloaded till a proper season offers for going to Panama: the least important are deposited in warehouses; the gold, silver, and what is most precious, being carried to Lima on waggons, and beasts of burden, wherewith the road to Callao is full during the whole year; but particularly in the three or four months of the arrival, and departure of the fleets.

It is also during the months of March and April, that the gold, silver, and merchandise from all the provinces of Peru, arrive by land at Lima, for Porto-Bello; to be ready at the departure of the fleet from Panama.

The departure of this second fleet is always in the beginning of May; and it is usually by two thirds stronger, either in merchant-ships or men of war, than that of Arica; because, besides the sole riches of Potosi brought by the fleet of Arica, that for Panama is also laden with all the king's revenues, and the effects of the traders of Chili, Peru, and a great part of the other kingdoms of South America.

It is by the return of this fleet, that all the merchandise for Peru and Chili arrive at Lima; and it is from thence that, by sea or land, they are sent to the places of their destination.

Besides the two fleets for Arica and Panama, a 20 gun-ship is equipped every year at Callao for Acapulco, a famous port of New Spain; by which the Mexican Spaniards drive on a great trade with the Philippine islands, and receive Chinese and East India commodities.

This ship arrives at Acapulco a little before Christmas, with cocoa, pieces of eight, and quicksilver: the merchandise for return received from the hulks that come from the Manilles, are spice, silks, callicoes, white cotton cloths, and a few other East India commodities. But this commerce is contraband with regard to all others not concerned in this ship; and the court of Spain has prohibited it the rest of Peru, under very severe penalties; for fear it should discredit that of South America with Spain, by the way of Panama and Porto-Bello.

Before the English and Dutch, and after them the French freebooters, troubled the profound security which the Spaniards on the coast of the South sea lived in, almost all their trading ships on this sea were mounted with no large arms: but at present the Lima merchants have forty ships, carrying from six to twenty pieces of cannon; besides several other small ships pretty well armed.

It is with these two kinds of ships that they frequent all the coasts of this sea, making use of the light ships for short voyages, and the armed for long ones; that is, to the south as far as Baldivia; and to the north, as far as Realeio in New Spain; Lima trading but little beyond this last place, unless to Acapulco as already mentioned: the longest voyages being about six hundred leagues.

The chief places wherewith the Spaniards of Lima keep up a regular commerce, throughout this vast extent of coast are Leon, Quiaquil, Truxillo, Lesparso, Lavillia, Nicaya, Chiriquita, Paita, Sagna, Nasca, Pisca, and Pacama.

Leon, is the capital of the province of Nicaragua, situated 20 miles E. of the South sea, and in 91 deg. of W. lon. This town, which has scarce less than 1200 houses, trades in both seas; whereby it receives commodities from

Europe, China, and ſeveral places of the Eaſt Indies: Ria-Lixa, called alſo Realeio, being its port-town. From Leon are brought ſugar, wax, honey, pitch, reſin, cattle, hides, and excellent cordage. There is alſo timber in abundance found there for the building ſhips; of which, next to Quiaquil, the greateſt number is uſually built there.

Granada, is a town of Spaniſh America in the province of Nicaragua, ſituated in 89 deg. of W. lon. being one of the richeſt of New Spain, as it trades to ſeveral places, eſpecially to Carthagena, Guatimala, and Comayaga.

The beſt trade of Granada is at the departure of the frigates from the lake to Carthagena; becauſe then ſeveral valuable commodities are ſent there on mules, ſuch as indigo, cochineal, ſugar, leather, and ſilver.

It is alſo by the lake to Carthagena that the king's revenues, and the fifth of the mines are ſent.

Quito, is a town on the South ſea; and the capital of the Upper Peru.

At Quito there are manufactures of cloths, ſerges, and cottons; but, as they are not ſufficient for the conſumption of the town and neighbourhood, great parcels are brought from the adjacent towns and provinces, by the way of Quiaquil, the port of Quito. The abundance of gold, which the torrents, and rivers iſſuing from the neighbouring mountains of Quito roll along with their ſand, attracts great numbers to treat with the Indians that gather them; who get in exchange various European commodities.

Quiaquil, is a town of Peru, in the province of Quito: its commodities are gold, precious ſtones, cocoa, green hides, tallow, ſalſaparilla, woollen ſtuffs of the country, ſaltpetre, ſulphur and carpenter's timber.

The inhabitants carry on a pretty good trade with ſtrangers, who, paſſing from the north into the South ſea, hazard themſelves in a contraband traffic with the American ſubjects of the king of Spain.

The gold is found in the torrents and rivers, gathered by the Indians. The cocoa is cultivated along both the banks of the river, on which the town is ſituated; being gathered in ſuch great abundance, that it is not only ſufficient for all Peru, but alſo ſupplies Acapulco for its trade with the Philippines. The ſtuffs come from Quito, the capital of the province; ſome of them being very broad and coarſe cloths; others indifferent ſerges. Laſtly, the timber is cut in the iſle of Gallo; and it is at Quiaquil that the principal ſhip-carpenters are employed in the building of Spaniſh veſſels.

From Lima to Quiaquil are imported wine, oil, ſpice, and other European commodities; part of which remains there, and the other is ſent to Quito.

The place belonging to Quiaquil where ſhips load and unload is called Puna, an iſland at the mouth of a river of the ſame name, near 20 leagues from the town; where the French carried on a part of their trade with Peru, during the war for the Spaniſh ſucceſſion.

One of the principal objects of the commerce of Quiaquil is its timber, either for houſe or ſhip building; particularly for the laſt; having continually veſſels on the ſtocks, ſo as to furniſh the greater part of thoſe that compoſe the Spaniſh marine in the South ſea.

Cocoa for Quiaquil is alſo a very plentiful commodity, and has an exceeding great vent; being ſold in almoſt all the places of the South ſea; ſcarce a year paſſing without the making up of thirty thouſand bales, and ſometimes double that number, each weighing 162 pounds.

The ſalt, and ſalt-fiſh from St. Helens, make a part of the Quiaquil trade; being ſold in ſeveral places, but particularly at Quito.

The traders of Quiaquil get in exchange from Quito ſeveral woollen ſtuffs of its manufacture; as cloths and bays, much eſteemed throughout Peru; of which, beſides what is neceſſary for their own conſumption, they export a great part to the other ports of the South ſea.

Laſtly, it trades much in rice, cotton, and ſmoaked beef; as alſo, large and ſmall cattle.

What come to it from abroad are wine, brandy, oil of olives, ſugar, and ſuch like commodities.

It is computed that, one year with another, there arrive or depart from the port of Quiaquil to the amount of forty ſhips; without reckoning thoſe that trade along the coaſts.

Truxillo is ſix leagues from the South ſea; its port being one of the moſt difficult and unſafe of all the coaſt: but it trades in corn, flour, wine, brandy, ſugar, confects, ſilks, horned cattle, horſes and mules.

Four ſhips, laden with the commodities of the country, depart every year from Truxillo for Panama; and very often ſhips are wholly freighted with beautiful cotton cloths, manufactured by the Indians.

Panama, is the capital of the province of Darien, ſituated in 82 deg. of W. lon. All the towns hitherto mentioned, with which Lima carries on a trade, excepting Acapulco, ſupply Panama only with the commodities of the country; but Panama ſupplies them with European merchandiſe.

This town, which gives its name to a great bay whereon it is ſituated, and to the Iſthmus, which, ſeparating the two ſeas, joins North with South America, is equally famous for its trade by land, with Porto-Bello on the North ſea; and for that by ſea, with Lima on the South ſea; amaſſing in its warehouſes, all that on one ſide, the galleons bring from Europe; and on the other, all the riches of Peru and Chili that come there on board the ſilver fleet.

Tho' Panama always carries on a conſiderable trade; and tho' its road is always filled with a great number of ſhipping; yet it is at the arrival of the ſilver fleet, and the merchandiſe of the galleons, that the greateſt conflux of merchants is obſerved there; its trade being moſt flouriſhing, upon account of the fair then held there, which brings together all the neigbouring nobility and people.

As ſoon as the galleons have touched at Carthagena, where they remain for ſome time, before they proceed to Porto-Bello; a courier is diſpatched to Lima, who travels by land to Panama, croſſing the ſouth continent of America, and from Panama going by ſea to the capital of Peru.

Upon the advice of the arrival of the galleons at Carthagena, the Viceroy of Lima gives orders for the loading of the ſilver fleet, which he ſends to Panama under the convoy of an armadillas, conſiſting of four or five ſhips; and the preſident of Panama gets ready the mules that are to carry a part of the merchandiſe of Peru to Porto-Bello; alſo preparing the barks of Chagre, whereon the other part is to be embarked; becauſe no time may be loſt, and that they may depart as ſoon as intelligence is received of the arrival of the galleons at Porto-Bello, where they uſually continue but 30 days, during which time all the commerce is to be fully completed.

All the ſhips that arrive with the galleons ſhould be ready to ſail the 30th day, otherwiſe they run the riſque of being left behind. However, they are uſually granted eight days, which is of great advantage to the merchants, and no ſmall profit to the admiral, who is always complimented with a conſiderable preſent.

The European commodities, moſt proper for Peru and Chili, are all kinds of iron inſtruments, but more eſpecially thoſe neceſſary for ploughing, and the working of the mines. A ſufficient ſtock of ſpice, wine, oil, and ſilk; and gold lace, is alſo required there.

The Negro commerce of Guinea, and the other coaſts of Africa, is likewiſe one of the principal objects of the Panama trade: the Engliſh of Jamaica tranſporting numbers to Porto-Bello, from whence they are conducted by land to Panama, and afterwards by ſea to Peru, and a part of New Spain; where they are ſold at a very dear rate, to be employed in the ſervice of the mines, ſugar mills, and the culture and making of indigo.

As almoſt all the inhabitants of Panama apply themſelves to trade, and as the expedition of the ſilver fleets is the moſt important affair the court of Madrid has on this ſide, it is alſo principally for theſe two points that the audience of Panama has been eſtabliſhed; the officers ſupplying the place of conſular-judges, for ſummarily terminating the diſputes ariſing among merchants about commerce; and

the preſident, with his council, taking cognizance of little elſe than the detail of the arrival and departure of the galleons for the North ſea, and the ſilver fleet for the ſouth.

The towns of Realeio, Tecoantepequa, Trinity, and Vatulco, lie along the coaſt between Panama and Acapulco: it being by theſe four ſtaples that all the trade of Guatimala, Leon, Quaxaca, Nicaragua, and ſome other provinces of New Spain is carried on.

Their commerce conſiſts chiefly in cocoa, vanilla, achiolt, indigo, cochineal, hides, wheat, Indian corn, wool, ſugar, cotton, ſalt, honey, caſſia, wax, and in ſome other commodities of the produce of Mexico, particularly of the province of Guatimala, which are brought by land upon mules to the warehouſes the Spaniards have in theſe ports, and afterwards to Panama or Peru by ſea.

Acapulco, is ſituated on a fine bay of the South ſea, in 102 deg. of W. lon. and 17 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. being the port of the town of Mexico, on the weſt-ſide of the continent; as Vera Cruz is on the north ſide.

Acapulco carries on a conſiderable commerce with Peru, the Philippines, and the neighbouring coaſts of Mexico; but it is the commerce with the Philippines, and the Eaſt, which makes the greateſt riches of Acapulco, and gives it moſt reputation; though it is ſupported only by two ſhips, called Hulks, being a kind of large galleons, of 800 or 1000 tons burthen; one of which annually ſails from Acapulco to Manila; and, on its arrival there, the other ſets ſail from Manila to Acapulco.

Their cargo, in departing from Acapulco, is compoſed partly of European merchandiſe, that comes to Mexico by Vera Cruz; and partly of the commodities of New Spain, which are both ſent to the South ſea on mules.

The cargo, for returning, conſiſts in all that China, the Eaſt Indies, and the reſt of the Eaſt are productive of; even in pearls, precious ſtones, and gold duſt.

The voyage of theſe ſhips generally takes up about twelve months; departing moſt commonly towards the end of March, or the beginning of April.

Two months after their departure, they touch at Guam, the chief of the Marian iſlands, where they refreſh themſelves for two or three days, and arrive in the Manillas about the beginning of July.

The ſhip at Manila prepares itſelf for an immediate return; and departs before the end of July, to arrive at Acapulco about Chriſtmas; the difference of the arrival being never more than eight or ten days before or after this feaſt; for the trade-winds, which they are careful to take, are always favourable to them: but the reader may ſee a more particular account of the nature of this trade, in the 10th chap. of the ii. book of Mr. Walter's deſcription of a voyage round the world by the Right Honourable George Lord Anſon.

The Spaniſh government will allow no foreigners to trade with their colonies: but the Engliſh, French, and Dutch, carry on a contraband traffic, greatly to their own advantage, and to the benefit of the American Spaniards, who encourage this illicit trade, as it gives them an opportunity of evading the royal duties, and purchaſing the goods at a much cheaper price than they could do if they were properly to paſs through the hands of the government. The Spaniards pretend to have a right of viſiting all ſhips, and of confiſcating ſuch as have any of their manufactures, produce, or money aboard; which has given riſe to ſeveral quarrels between the crowns of Great Britain and Spain, from 1670 to 1739, when the laſt war was declared only upon this account.

SPARTEL *Cape*, or *Cape Spartel*. A promontory on the coaſt of Barbary, in Africa, at the entrance of the ſtreights of Gibraltar, ſituated in 6 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and in 36 deg. of N. lat.

SPAWS. Mineral waters ariſing out of the earth, tinged with nitre, ſulphur, alum, bitumen, copperas, or other mineral matter, in paſſing through the ſtrata thereof; and hence endued with ſome medicinal qualities, cathartic, diuretic, emetic, alterant, or the like. See Spa *water*, and *Mineral*.

SPEAKING-*trumpet*. See *Trumpet*.

SPECIALTY, in law, is moſt commonly taken for a bond, bill, or other the like inſtrument in writing.

SPECIES, in commerce, are the ſeveral pieces of gold, ſilver, and copper; which, having paſſed their full preparation and coinage, are current in public. See *Coin*.

SPECIES *decried*, or *cried down*, are ſuch as the ſovereign has forbidden to be received in payment.

Light SPECIES, are thoſe which fall ſhort of the weight preſcribed by law.

Falſe SPECIES, are thoſe of different metal, or alloy, from what they ſhould be.

SPECIFIC, in medicine, a remedy, whoſe virtue and effect is peculiarly adapted to ſome certain diſeaſe; is adequate thereto, and exerts its whole force immediately thereon. Thus quinquina, or the Jeſuit's bark, is held a ſpecific for intermitting fevers and agues, and mercury for the venereal diſeaſe.

SPECTACLES. An optic machine, conſiſting of two lenſes ſet in horn, or any other matter, and applied on the noſe, to aſſiſt in defects of the organs of ſight.

SPECTACLE-*maker*. A perſon who makes ſpectacles.

SPECTACLE-*makers company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 5th of Charles I. dated the 16th of May 1630, by the ſtile and title of the maſter, wardens, and fellowſhip of ſpectacle-makers of London; who conſiſt of a maſter, two wardens, and fifteen aſſiſtants; but have neither livery nor hall.

SPELL, in the ſea language. To ſpell, is to let go the ſheet and bowlings of a ſail, and brace the weather-brace, that the ſail may lie looſe in the wind. To do a ſpell, is to do any thing by turns, for a ſhort time, and then leave off. To give a ſpell, is to be ready to work in another man's room.

Freſh SPELL, is when freſh men come to work, eſpecially when the rowers are relieved by another gang.

SPELTER, *Speltre*, or *Zink*. A kind of imperfect metal, which ſome erroneouſly confound with biſmuth, and others with ſpaat, making it a ſort of antimony ore. See *Biſmuth*, and *Spaat*.

Spelter is a kind of crude mineral lead, very hard, white, and brilliant; which, tho' not perfectly malleable, ſtretches a little under the hammer; and is otherwiſe called zink, and ſometimes tutanaq. See *Zink*.

This mineral is found in great quantities in the mines of Goſſelaar in Saxony; and is commonly ſold in large, ſquare, thick cakes; whence one would judge it to have been melted as it came out of the mines, and caſt into that figure. It is uſed to purge and whiten tin, in making of pewter; much as lead is uſed to purify gold and ſilver. Thoſe who imagine that the ſpelter is put in to increaſe the weight are miſtaken; ſince, in melting 5 or 600 weight of tin, they ſcarce allow a pound of ſpelter, and that is mixed with turmeric.

SPERMA-*ceti*, or *Parma-citty*, in pharmacy, is a whitiſh, flaky ſubſtance, prepared from an oil, found in the head of a cetaceous fiſh, called by ſome the male whale, by others cachelot, and by the Latins orca; diſtinguiſhed from the common whale, by its having teeth, inſtead of whale-bone; and by a bunch on its back. See *Whale*.

The ancients were great ſtrangers to the nature of this preparation; inſomuch that Shroder ſeems in doubt whether to reckon it an animal or mineral ſubſtance. It had its name ſperma-ceti, ſeed or ſperm of whale, given it, no doubt, to raiſe its value, by a notion of its ſcarcity: the oil it is made from, is found in a large trunk four or five feet deep, and ten or twelve long, filling almoſt the whole cavity of the head, and ſeeming to ſupply the office of brain and cerebellum. It ſhould be choſen white, clear, and tranſparent; of a ſweetiſh ſmell, which ſome fancy to be ſimilar to that of the violet: ſome ſophiſticate it with wax; but the cheat is eaſily diſcovered, either by the ſmell of the wax, or the dulneſs of the colour. Some alſo ſell a preparation of oil gained from the tail of the whale, inſtead of that from the brain; which laſt kind turns yellow as ſoon as expoſed to the air. In the general, there is no merchandiſe that ſhould be kept cloſer from the air than ſperma-ceti.

Sperma-ceti is of great uſe in medicine. Dr. Quincy ſays, it is a noble remedy for the aſthma; tho' chiefly

uſed in bruiſes, hurts, and after delivery in child-bed: but it is certain, that which makes it ſo much in vogue, is its ſoftening the ſkin, and reſolving tumours of the breaſt: whence it comes to be uſed by the ladies in paſtes and waſhes.

SPERMI-CETI *Candles*, are of modern manufacture, and made ſmooth, with a fine gloſs, free from rings and ſcars; being ſuperior to the fineſt wax candles, both in colour and luſtre; and when genuine, leave no ſpot or ſtain on the fineſt ſilk, cloth, or linen.

SPEY. A river of Scotland, which runs N. E. through the ſhires of Badenoch and Murray, and falls into the German ſea, E. of the frith of Murray.

SPEZIA. A port-town of Italy, in the territory of Genoa, ſituated on a bay of the Tuſcan ſea, in 10 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 44 deg. of N. lat. 50 miles S. E. of Genoa.

SPHERE, in aſtronomy, that concave orb or expanſe which inveſts our globe, and in which the heavenly bodies, ſun, ſtars, planets, and comets, appear to be fixed, at an equal diſtance from the eye. This is alſo called the ſphere of the world, and is the ſubject of the ſpherical aſtronomy.

SPHERE, in geography, denotes a certain diſpoſition of the circles on the ſurface of the earth, with regard to one another, which varies in various parts thereof.

The circles originally conceived on the ſurface of the ſphere of the world, are almoſt all transferred by analogy to the ſurface of the earth; where they are conceived to be drawn directly underneath thoſe of the ſphere, or in the ſame places therewith; ſo that were the planes of thoſe of the earth continued to the ſphere, they would coincide with the reſpective circles thereon. Thus it is we have a horizon, meridian, and equator, on the earth.

As the equator in the heavens divides the ſphere into two equal parts, the one north and the other ſouth; ſo does the equator on the ſurface of the earth.

With regard then to the poſition of ſome of theſe circles in reſpect of others, we have a right, a parallel, and an oblique ſphere.

Right SPHERE, is that where the equator cuts the horizon of the place at right angles.

Parallel SPHERE, is where the equator is parallel to the ſenſible horizon, and in the place of the rational.

Oblique SPHERE, is where the equator cuts the horizon obliquely.

SPICE. A kind of aromatic drug, that has hot and pungent qualities: ſuch are pepper, nutmeg, ginger, cinnamon, cloves, and mace. Some alſo apply the word to divers medicinal drugs brought from the Eaſt; as ſenna, caſſia, and frankincenſe; all which ſee *under their proper articles*.

By the ſtatute of the 6th and 7th of Will. III. and other ſubſequent ſtatutes, cinnamon, cloves, mace, and nutmegs, may be imported in Britiſh ſhips, whereof the maſter and 3-4ths of the mariners are Britiſh, from any parts beyond the ſeas; upon licence firſt had from the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or any three of them, or from the cuſtomer, or collector and comptroller of the port.

The quantity, quality, and the port of importation, are to be expreſſed in ſuch licences; and if more be found than therein mentioned, it is forfeited. The package to be in caſks or bales, unleſs from the Eaſt Indies; the bale of cinnamon to weigh near 70 lb. or upwards; and each caſk of nutmegs, cloves, or mace, 300 lb. or upwards, upon forfeiture thereof.

The licences are to be delivered up by the maſters at entry of their ſhips, and annexed to the reports, with the marks and numbers of each caſk, bale, or parcel, and the quantity and quality endorſed on the back; upon forfeiture of ſhip and goods.

If found on board any ſhip in ſmall parcels, packed in hogſheads, bales, or caſks, are forfeited.

Spice and pictures unſhipped, or laid on land, before payment of the ſubſidy, are forfeited without any compotion whatſoever.

SPICE *Iſlands*, ſituated in the Eaſt Indies, in Aſia, are the Banda iſlands for nutmegs and mace; the Moluccas for cloves; and Ceylon for cinnamon: all now poſſeſſed by the Dutch, who obliged the Portugueſe, Spaniards, and Engliſh to abandon their ſettlements in theſe iſlands. See *India*, *Molucca*, *Banda*, *Celebes*, *Sunda*, and *Ceylon* Iſlands.

SPIDER *ſilk*. See Spider *Silk*.

SPIKENARD. A kind of vegetable ear growing even with the ground, and ſometimes in the ground; warm, ſpicy, cordial, and alexipharmic, and as ſuch uſed in the compoſition of Venice-treacle. The ear, or ſpike, is about the length and thickneſs of a finger, very light, covered with long reddiſh hairs, of a ſtrong ſmell, and a bitteriſh ſharp taſte. There riſe ſeveral of theſe ears from the ſame root, about the thickneſs of a quill. This ear is uſually reckoned in the number of roots; called alſo *nardus indicus*, becauſe brought from the Eaſt Indies; and is accounted a ſtomachic, nephritic, and carminative; proper to ſtrengthen the ſtomach, promote the diſcharge of urine, and diſperſe flatulencies.

There is another kind called *ſpica celtica*, growing in the Pyreneans, and the mountains of Tirol; which has much the ſame virtues with valerian; but by no means of equal eſteem with the former.

SPIKING *up the ordnance*. A ſea phraſe, uſed for faſtening a quoin with ſpikes to the deck, cloſe to the breech of the carriages of great guns; that they may keep cloſe and firm to the ſhip's ſides, ſo as not break looſe when ſhe rolls, and by that means endanger the breaking out of the butt-head of a plank.

SPINDLE, in the ſea-language, is the ſmalleſt part of a ſhip's capſtan, which is betwixt the two decks: thus, the ſpindle of the jeer capſtan hath whelps to heave the viol.

The axis of a wheel of a watch or clock is alſo called the ſpindle, and it ends the pivets.

SPINET. A muſical inſtrument, conſiſting of a cheſt or belly, made of the moſt porous and reſinous wood to be found; and a table of fir glued on ſlips of wood called ſummers, which bear on the ſides: on the table is raiſed a little prominence, wherein are placed as many pins as there are ſtrings to the inſtrument; which is played by two ranges of keys, the foremoſt range being in the order of the diatonic ſcale; and the other range ſet backwards, in the order of the artificial or ſemi-tones.

SPINNING, in commerce, the act or art of reducing ſilk, flax, hemp, wool, hair, or other matter into thread. See *Flax*, *Hemp*, and *Wool*.

Spinning is either performed on the wheel, or with a diſtaff and ſpindle, or with other machines proper for the ſeveral kinds of working. Hemp, flax, nettles, and other like plants, are to be wet in ſpinning: ſilk, wools, and cottons, are ſpun dry, and do not need water; yet there is a way of ſpinning ſilk as it comes off the caſes or balls, where hot and even boiling water is to be uſed. See *Silk*.

SPINNING *of ſilver thread*, is a particular branch of buſineſs, performed after the ſilver is flatted, by a wheel made of ſteel, which winds the ſilver gently about the ſilk; and when the whole thread is covered, it is rolled upon a bottom, and then called ſilver or gold fleyſy, uſed by the lacemen.

SPIRITS. A general name among diſtillers, for all diſtilled liquors that are neither oil nor phlegm. See *Diſtillation*.

SPIRIT *of wine*, is only brandy rectified once, or more by repeated diſtillation. A perfect rectification may be alſo made of brandy into ſpirit of wine, at one ſingle diſtillation, by uſing a chemical inſtrument conſiſting of ſeveral cucurbites, deſcribed by Glaſer. Spirit of wine is uſed in dying, as a non-colouring drug; and, tho' giving no colour itſelf, ſerves to prepare the ſtuffs for taking other colours. See *Dying*.

Its conſumption is alſo very conſiderable in ſeveral other works and manufactures; particularly in the making of varniſh.

Ætherial SPIRIT *of wine*, called by ſome vegetable æther, or the æther of plants, is a denomination given, by ſome modern chemiſts, to a liquor endued with very extraordinary properties, prepared from ſpirit of wine, and oil of vitriol.

Dr. Frobenius, who firſt brought it into England, deſcribes it the pureſt fire; tho' at the ſame time, a moſt fluid water.

SPIRIT *of Sulphur*, is a ſpirit drawn from ſulphur ſet on fire,

fire, the moſt ſubtile part whereof is converted into a liquor, by ſticking to a glaſs bell ſuſpended over it, whence it falls drop by drop into a trough, in the middle whereof is placed the ſtone pot, wherein the ſulphur is burnt.

SPIRIT *of Salt*, is a yellow liquor drawn by chemiſtry from ſea ſalt. The beſt is that prepared in England, which is much uſed in medicine; but has not, perhaps, all the virtues aſcribed to it.

SPIRIT *of vitriol*, is vitriol dried in the ſun, or in defect thereof by the fire, and then diſtilled by chemical operations ſeveral times repeated; firſt by a reverberatory fire, and then in *balneo mariæ*.

It is held excellent againſt the epilepſy, as well as againſt burning and malignant fevers. The laſt ſpirit drawn from vitriol, which is improperly called oil of vitriol, is uſed in the diſſolution of metals and minerals.

SPIRIT *of amber*. See *Amber*.

SPIRIT *of ſal armoniac*. See *Armoniac*.

SPIRITUOUS-*liquors*, are commonly underſtood to be arrack, rum, brandy, and geneva. See *Brandy*, *Arrack*, *Rum*, and *Geneva*.

The following is an account of the ſeveral quantities and ſpecies of ſpirituous liquors imported at London in the year 1733, together with thoſe of the ſeveral ſorts, that were diſtilled in the city and ſuburbs in the year 1727, of which much greater quantities are at preſent retailed.

Arrack - -	56,823 gallons.
Citron water - -	328 $\frac{1}{4}$
Geneva - -	379 $\frac{3}{4}$
Rackee - - - -	103 $\frac{1}{2}$
Vizney - - - - -	12
Malt ſpirits - - -	8,601,293
Molaſſes ſpirits, 1727 -	890,319
Brandy - - -	1,315,352
Cordial water - -	316 $\frac{1}{24}$
Hungary water - -	316 $\frac{1}{8}$
Rum - - -	327,703
Uſquebagh - -	154 $\frac{1}{2}$
Cyder ſpirits - -	12,527
Total number of gallons —	11,205,627

The prodigious quantity of theſe deſtructive ſpirits demonſtrate the exceſſive, ſcandalous, and wicked practice of dram drinking, which is generally the bane of all thoſe that follow it: however, theſe bewitching liquors have ſo far got the aſcendant over their votaries, that they ſtrenuouſly plead in their behalf, to indulge themſelves, and allure others to the like practice, by urging, that many men who have been hard drinkers for the ſpace of 30 or 40 years enjoy a good ſtate of health, and are as vigorous at the age of 60 or 70 as thoſe who have lived temperate. That this is a very deceitful plea is manifeſt; for, inſtead of living in that practice for ſo long a term of years, moſt are cut off in the bloom of their youth; therefore, to prevent people from being miſled by ſuch falſe and monſtrous allegations, it will be neceſſary to acquaint them, that all ſuch as have lived in that debauched way, for many years, are indebted to a vigorous conſtitution, which, inſtead of bringing to the ages of 60 or 70 years, would probably, with good management, have brought them in health to the age of 100 and upwards.

By the 11th of Geo. I. arrack, rum, brandy, ſpirits, or ſtrong-waters, or other exciſeable liquors, on board a ſhip within the limits of any port of Great Britain, or found unſhipping or unſhipped before entry, may be ſearched for, and ſeized, together with the package, by the officers of exciſe, in like manner as by the officers of the cuſtoms.

Permits granted for the removal, not returned, or the goods ſent away within the time limited, the penalty treble the value.

Brandy, rum, or other ſpirits, offered to ſale by any perſon without a permit, or by any hawker, &c. with a permit; the perſon to whom it is offered may ſeize and carry it to the next warehouſe belonging to the cuſtoms or exciſe, and bring the perſon offering the ſame before any juſtice of the peace, to be committed to priſon, and proſecuted for the penalties incurred for ſuch offence.

Foreign brandy, rum, or other ſpirits in casks under 60 gallons, except for the uſe of the ſeamen two gallons each, found in any ſhip or veſſel arrived from foreign parts, at anchor, hovering within the limits of any port, or within two leagues of the ſhore, and not proceeding on her voyage, unleſs in caſe of unavoidable neceſſity and diſtreſs of weather, notice whereof muſt be given to the collector or chief officer of the port upon the ſhip's arrival, is forfeited with the boxes, casks, and other package, or the value thereof.

By the ſtatute of the 3d of Geo. I. ſpirits. or low wines, by ſea, coaſtwiſe, without a certificate from the officer of exciſe where diſtilled, are forfeited: to be ſued for as any other forfeiture, by the laws of exciſe.

By the ſtatute of the 5th and 9th of Geo. I. the 2d, 9th, 15th and 16th of George II. rum, imported in caſks not containing 60 gallons at the leaſt, except for the ſeamens uſe, are forfeited, or the value: but if it appears to the ſatisfaction of the principal officers of the cuſtoms, to be imported without fraud or concealment, may be admitted to entry.

Rum or ſpirits of the Britiſh ſugar plantations, imported directed into Great Britain, may, on entry, and before payment of the duty of exciſe, be landed and put into warehouſes, provided by the proprietor or importer, and approved of by the commiſſioners of exciſe, under the joint locks of the proprietor and ware-houſe-keeper; ſecurity being firſt given to pay the ſaid duty, according to the gauge at landing, as ſoon as ſuch rum or ſpirits ſhall be ſold, or at the end of ſix months, if they ſhall not be then ſold.

If the duty is not paid at the expiration of the ſaid ſix months, the commiſſioners may cauſe ſuch rum or ſpirits to be ſold by auction; and out of the produce diſcharge the duty, and all expences, and pay the ſurplus if any, to the proprietor.

If landed without being entered at the cuſtom-houſe, and with the collector of exciſe, or without a warrant from the proper officers, or without the preſence of an exciſe-officer, forfeited; one moiety to his majeſty, the other to ſuch perſon as ſhall ſeize, inform, or ſue for the ſame.

Rum may from time to time be delivered out of ſuch warehouſes, but not in leſs quantities than one caſk, containing at leaſt 20 gallons, unleſs it was for the uſe of the ſeamen in the voyage, on paying the duty, and producing to the warehouſe-keeper, and officer appointed to attend, a warrant or certificate from the collector, certifying ſuch payment.

By the ſtatute of the 24th of Geo. II. and the ſeveral acts therein mentioned, the reſpective duties on ſpirituous liquors are aſcertained, and on licences for retailing the ſame.

Bounty on Britiſh SPIRITS. By the ſtatute of the 6th of Geo. II. for every ton of ſpirits drawn from Barley, malt, or other corn, there ſhall be paid to the exporter, by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or the proper officers belonging to them, when barley is at 14 s. *per* quarter, or under, on ſuch proof of exportation thereof as is directed by the firſt of William and Mary for encouraging the exportation of corn, out of the duties liable to the payment of the bounties on corn exported, the ſum of 1 l. 10 s. and ſo in proportion for a greater or leſſer quantity.

Drawback on the exciſe on SPIRITS drawn from corn in Great Britain, without any mixture of other materials.

Upon oath before two or more commiſſioners of exciſe, or juſtices of the peace, of the place from whence ſuch ſpirits are intended to be exported, that the ſame are drawn from corn in Great Britain, without any mixture with any other materials, and that the duties are duly entered and paid, and that the ſame are exported for merchandiſe to be ſent beyond the ſeas, and upon producing a certificate under the hands of the officers of exciſe, for the port or place where ſuch ſpirits were ſhipped, of the quantity ſo ſhipped, and that it was in the preſence of ſuch officer; the exporter is to be allowed or paid back by the commiſſioners of the exciſe, or the collector of the port of exportation,

portation, 4 l. 18 s. *per* ton, and ſo in proportion for a greater or leſſer quantity, in full of all drawbacks and bounties that can be made for the ſame, except the bounty of 1 l. 10 s. *per* ton payable at the cuſtom-houſe by the 6th of Geo. II.

SPITHEAD. A road between Portſmouth and the iſle of Wight, where the royal navy of Great Britain frequently rendezvous.

SPITSBERGEN. See *Denmark*.

SPLICE, at ſea. They ſay a cable or rope is ſpliced, when the ends of two pieces being untwiſted, the ſeveral ſtrands are wrought into one another by a fidd. Alſo, when an eye is to be made at the ends of a rope, the ends of the ſtrands are, by a fidd, drawn into the ends of the other rope ſtrands; and this is called a ſplice.

To SPLICE, among gardeners, is to graft the top of one tree into the ſtock of another, by cutting them ſloping and faſtening them together.

SPODIUM, in pharmacy, a kind of metalline calx, or aſhes, eſteemed cardiac, and by ſome held to have the ſame virtues with coral; being a metalline powder, very like, both in origin and uſe, to tutia and pompholyx; only heavier than either.

The ſpodium of the Arabian phyſicians, as Avicenna and others, was made of the burnt roots of ruſhes and reeds. Some moderns alſo make a ſpodium of ivory burnt, and calcined to a whiteneſs. It is ſometimes counterfeited by burning bullocks or dogs bones; but theſe are of no value.

SPONGE. See *Spunge*.

SPOONING, or *Spooming*, in the ſea language. When a ſhip being under ſail, in a ſtorm at ſea, cannot bear it; but is forced to put right before the wind; the ſeamen ſay, ſhe ſpoons. And in ſuch a caſe, as there is danger leſt ſhe ſhould bring her maſts by the board, with her rolling about, or feel under water, and ſo founder, they uſually ſet up the fore-ſail to make her go the ſteadier, eſpeclally if there be ſea-room enough: this they call ſpooning with the fore-ſail.

SPORADES. A name given to ſome of the iſlands in the Turkiſh Archipelago, between Aſia and the iſland of Candia, on account of their irregular ſituation.

SPOUT, or *Water-ſpout*, in natural hiſtory, an extraordinary meteor, or appearance at ſea, and ſometimes at land, very dangerous to ſhips, and oftenеſt obſerved in hot dry weather; called by the Latins *typho*, and *ſipho*; by the French *trompe*.

Its firſt appearance is in form of a deep cloud, the upper part whereof is white, and the lower black. From the lower part of this cloud hangs, or rather falls down, what we properly call the ſpout, in manner of a conical tube, biggeſt at top. Under this tube is alſo a boiling, or flying up of the water of the ſea in a jet d'eau. For ſome yards above the ſurface of the ſea, the water ſtands as a column or pillar: from the extremity whereof it ſpreads and goes off as in a kind of ſmoak. Frequently the cone deſcends ſo low, as to touch the middle of this column, and continue for ſome time contiguous to it; tho' ſometimes it only points to it, at ſome diſtance, either in a perpendicular or oblique line.

Frequently it is ſcarce diſtinguiſhable whether the cone or the column appear firſt, both appearing all of a ſudden againſt each other. But ſometimes the water boils up from the ſea to a great height, without any appearance of a ſpout pointing to it either perpendicularly or obliquely. Indeed, generally, the boiling, or flying up of the water has the priority; this always preceding its being formed into a column. Generally the cone does not appear hollow, till towards the end; when the ſea-water is violently thrown up along its middle, as ſmoak up a chimney. Soon after this, the ſpout or canal breaks and diſappears; the boiling up of the water, and even the pillar, continuing to the laſt, and for ſome time afterwards; ſometimes alſo till the ſpout form itſelf again, and appear a new; which it frequently does ſeveral times in a quarter of an hour.

In Pliny's time, the ſeamen uſed to pour vinegar into the ſea, to aſſuage and lay the ſpout, when it approached them: our modern ſeamen think to keep it off, by making a noiſe with filing and ſcratching violently on the deck; or by diſcharging great guns to diſperſe it.

SPRAT. A ſmall eatable ſea-fiſh, a ſpecies of the herring kind.

SPRING-*tide*. See *Tide*.

SPROTS. A term in Holland for the Engliſh red herrings.

SPUN-*herb*. See Spun-*herb*.

SPUN-*yarn*, among ſailors, the yarn of untwiſted ropes, whoſe ends are ſcraped and beaten thin, in order to be let into the ends of other ropes, and ſo made long as occaſion ſhall require.

SPUNGE, or *Sponge*. A kind of ſea-fungus, or muſhroom, found adhering to rocks and ſhells on the ſea ſhore.

The ancients diſtinguiſhed two kinds, male and female; but the moderns make only one, which, however, they diſtinguiſh with regard to its texture, into coarſe and fine. Naturaliſts have been embaraſſed in all ages, whether to range ſpunge in the animal, mineral, or vegetable family: ſome would have it a concretion formed of the ſea-mud; and others an animal, at leaſt a zoophyte, from its motion of contraction and dilatation.

The greateſt part of our ſpunges are brought from the Mediterranean, eſpecially from Nicaria, an iſland thereof, near the coaſt of Aſia. The diving or fiſhing for ſpunges is there reckoned the top qualification in youth, who all get the better wives as they excel more herein: to this proof the maids refer the preference among ſeveral ſuitors, placing themſelves on the brink of the ſea, to be witneſſes of the addreſs of each, and giving themſelves as a prize to the conqueror. See *Diving*.

The fine, or ſmall ſpunges are the moſt eſteemed; and uſually come from Conſtantinople. Their goodneſs conſiſts in being very white, light, and the holes ſmall and cloſe: the larger and coarſer come from the coaſts of Barbary, particularly Tunis and Algier. The ſpunge is a very uſeful matter in the arts. In phyſic, it ſerves to foment parts inflamed. By analyſis, it yields a deal of volatile, ſharp ſalts, like other ſea-plants. Taken inwardly it choaks; and is for that reaſon cut ſmall, and fried, or dipped in honey, and given to quadrupeds to kill them; which it ſeldom fails to do, by ſwelling and preventing the paſſage of the food into the inteſtines. In ſpunges are found a kind of ſtones, called cyſtiolithi, held good for the worms in young children, and taken in powder.

Pyrotechnical SPUNGES, are made of the large muſhrooms, or fungous excreſcencies growing on old oaks, aſhes, and firs; which, being boiled in common water, then dried, and well beaten, are put into a ſtrong lie, prepared with ſalt-petre, and again dried in an oven. Theſe make the black match or tinder brought from Germany, uſed to receive and ſuſtain the fire ſtruck upon it from a flint and ſteel.

SPUTER. A white hard metal, not known in Europe till introduced by the Dutch. Some give it a place among half metals; becauſe, tho' it reddens before it melts, as ſilver, copper, and other metals which withſtand ignition, yet it is no way ductile, and cannot be employed but in founders works.

SQUADRON *of ſhips*. A diviſion or part of a fleet, commanded by a vice or rear admiral, or ſome other commander or commodore. See *Fleet*, *Navy*, and *Admiral*.

The number of ſhips in a ſquadron is not fixed: a ſmall number of veſſels, if they be in a body, and have the ſame commander, may make a ſquadron. If there be a great number, they are uſually divided into three ſquadrons: and if the ſquadrons be numerous, each ſquadron is divided into three diviſions, diſtinguiſhed by their flags and colours,

SQUARE *meaſure*. See *Meaſure*.

SQUINANTI. The beſt Egyptian flax ſold at Cairo.

STACTE, in pharmacy, a fatty reſinous liquid matter, drawn from freſh myrrh, pounded, or preſſed with a little water. See *Myrrh*.

This liquor is very odoriferous, and held very precious, making alone the perfume called by Dioſcorides ſtacte, and which ſmells finely, tho' very bitter to the taſte. There is none of it now but what is ſophiſticated; and what the apothecaries call ſtacte is no more than liquid ſtorax. See *Storax*.

STADTHOLDER. A governor, or lieutenant of a province in the United Netherlands, particularly that of Holland; where the word is moſt uſed, by reaſon of the ſuperior importance of the government of that province; which office is now hereditary in both the male and female branch of the houſe of Orange over the whole United Provinces.

STAFFENGER. A town of Norway. See *Denmark*.

STALACTITES, *Stalagmites*, or *Stagonites*, in natural hiſtory. A ſtony, ſparry ſort of icicles, which hang down from the arches or tops of grottoes and ſubterranean caverns; as alſo from the roofs of buildings, and capitals of pillars of ſuch places as are built over vaults or hot ſprings.

Of this kind are the ſal, alumen, vitriolum ſtalactjcum, the minera ferri ſtalactica, the vitriolum capillare, the alumen capillare, and others.

STALIMENE. An iſland in the Turkiſh Archipelago. See *Lemnos*.

STALLAGE. The rent or money paid for the uſe of a ſtall in a fair, market, or inn.

STAMP. The impreſſion, or mark, of a ſeal, hammer, &c. upon any thing, to know or diſtinguiſh it from all others of the ſame kind.

Stamp-duties are taxes impoſed upon all writings and proceedings in the law, eccleſiaſtical courts, or notorial acts; which were firſt granted by the ſtatute of the 5th and 6th of William and Mary; whereby commiſſioners were appointed, who were empowered to appoint inferior officers for ſtamping of vellom, parchment, and paper. Theſe duties were augmented by the ſtatute of the 9th and 10th of William III. and, by the ſtatute of the 9th of Queen Anne, this tax was extended to certificates or debentures for drawing back duties on exporting goods; as alſo on bills of lading for exports, as well as on almanacks, and licences for retailing wines and exciſable liquors. By the ſtatute of the 10th of Queen Anne, this tax was further extended to ſurrenders and admittances to copyhold eſtates, as well as upon cards and dice, pamphlets, and advertiſements in the public news-papers. By the 10th of Queen Anne, an additional duty was laid on ſtamping policies of inſurance; and, by the 12th, a duty was laid on the transfers of ſtock in any company, pardons, grants, diſpenſations, admiſſions of phyſicians, attorneys, &c. appeals from the courts of admiralty, inſtitutions, and letters of mart. See *Apprentices*.

The annual revenue of the ſtamp-duties amounts to about 94,000 l. and the office is kept in Lincoln's-inn.

STAMPALIA. An iſland of the Turkiſh Archipelago, ſituated in 26 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. 60 miles weſt of Rhodes, about 50 miles in circumference, and inhabited by Greek Chriſtians.

STAMPING-*mill*. See *Mill*.

STANDARD, in commerce. The original of a weight, meaſure, or coin, committed to the keeping of the magiſtrate, or depoſited in ſome public place, to regulate, adjuſt, and try the weights uſed by particular perſons in traffic. See *Weight*, and *Meaſure*.

The juſtneſs of weights and meaſures is of ſuch conſequence to the ſecurity and good order of trade, that there is no civiliſed nation, but what makes it part of their policy to preſerve the equality thereof by means of ſtandards. The Romans and Jews even ſeem to have affixed a kind of religious worſhip to theſe ſtandards, by laying them up in their temples, as it were under the eye of their deities.

The ſtandards of weights and meaſures in England are appointed, by magna charta, to be kept in the exchequer by a proper officer, called the clerk or comptroller of the market. The ſtandard of gold coin is 22 carats of fine gold, and 2 carats of alloy, in the pound weight troy; and the French, Spaniſh, and Flemiſh gold are nearly of the ſame fineneſs. The pound weight is cut into 44 parts and a half, each current for 21 ſhillings.

The ſtandard of ſilver is 11 oz. 2 dwt. of ſilver, and 18 dwt. of alloy of copper. Whether gold or ſilver be above or below ſtandard, is found by aſſaying. See *Aſſay*.

STANNARIES. The mines and works where tin is dug and purified, as in Cornwall and Devonſhire. See *Tin*.

There are four courts of ſtannaries in Devonſhire, and as many in Cornwall; ſeveral liberties being granted to them, by ſeveral acts of parliament in the time of Edward I. though ſomewhat abridged under Edward III. and by the 17th of Charles I.

STAPLE, primarily ſignifies a public place, or market, where merchants and tradeſmen are obliged to bring their goods to be bought by the people; as the Greve, or the places along the Seine, for the wines and corns, at Paris; whither the merchants of other ports are obliged to bring thoſe commodities. See *Market*.

STAPLE, alſo ſignifies a city or town, where merchants jointly agree to carry certain commodities, as wool, cloth, lead, tin, or the like, in order to their being more commodiouſly ſold by the great.

In England, ſtaples were ſettled and appointed to be conſtantly kept at York, Lincoln, Newcaſtle upon Tyne, Norwich, Weſtminſter, Canterbury, Chicheſter, Wincheſter, Exeter, and Briſtol; to which places merchants and traders were to carry goods to ſell. The ſtaple-commodities of England were chiefly wool, leather, cloth, tin, and lead; though by ſtaple-goods is now meant any proper ſaleable commodity, not eaſily ſubject to periſh.

The principal Dutch ſtaples now exiſting are, Amſterdam, for all goods from the Eaſt Indies, Spain, the Mediterranean, and the Baltic; Fluſhing, for thoſe of the Weſt Indies; Middleburgh, for French wines; Dort, for Rheniſh wines and Engliſh cloth; and Verre, in Zealand, for Scotch merchandiſes.

The ſtaples in the Levant, called by the French *eſchelles*, that is, ſcales, are ſuch cities where the Engliſh, French, Dutch, and Italians, have factors, conſu's, and magazines, and whither they ſend veſſels regularly every year. The principal of theſe are Smyrna, Alexandretta, Aleppo, Seyda, Cyprus, Alexandria, Cairo, Tunis, Algiers, Tripoli, the Morea, Candia, and the iſlands of the Archipelago.

STAPLE-*merchants*, or *Merchants of the ſtaple*, were the 21 company of merchants incorporated in England by Edw. III. who, ſettling their chief factory at Middleburgh in Zealand, ſent thither great quantities of leather, woolfells, lead, tin, butter, cheeſe, and cloth; but the ſtaple, in the year 1389, being removed to Calais, it was ſoon after, in the year 1391, removed from thence to England.

Statute STAPLE. See *Statute*-ſtaple.

STARBOARD, denotes the right-hand-ſide of a ſhip, as larboard does the left. See *Larboard*.

They ſay, ſtarboard the helm, or helm a ſtarboard, when the man at the helm ſhould put it to the right-ſide of the ſhip.

STARCH. A fecula, or ſediment, found at the bottom of veſſels, wherein wheat has been ſteeped in water; of which fecula, after ſeparating the bran from it, by paſſing it through ſieves, they form a kind of loaves; which, being dried in the ſun, or an oven, is afterwards broke into little pieces, and ſo ſold.

The beſt is white, ſoft, and friable, eaſily broke into powder. Such as require very fine ſtarch, do not content themſelves, like the ſtarchmen, with refuſe wheat, but uſe the fineſt grain.

Starch is uſed along with ſmalt, or blue ſtone, to ſtiffen and clear linnen; and the powder thereof to whiten hair. It is alſo uſed by dyers to diſpoſe their ſtuffs to take colours the better.

By an act paſſed in the 10th Anne, foreign ſtarch ſhipped for exportation, and afterwards relanded, is forfeited, or the value, beſides the penalty of the bond; or hair-powder found in any ſhip, waggon, &c. is ſeizable by officers of exciſe or cuſtom, upon ſuſpicion of its having been privately made, or clandeſtinely imported, or exported and relanded again after the duty hath been repaid; and, within ten days after ſeizure, the officer is to exhibit an information before three commiſſioners of exciſe, or two juſtices of the peace.

By an act paſſed in the 4th of George II. the perſon in whoſe poſſeſſion ſtarch is found, muſt make appear that the duty has been paid for the ſame, upon forfeiture of the goods, with horſes and package, and 5 l. for every 100 lb.

Suſpected to be privately making or concealed, may be

ſearched

ſearched for by officers of exciſe or cuſtoms, by day or by night; but if by night, in the preſence of a peace-officer, by warrant from the commiſſioners of exciſe, or a juſtice of the peace.

Found privately making or concealed, is forfeited, with all materials, and things in which it is contained; and the perſon privately making, or in whoſe poſſeſſion it is found, upon failure of proof that the duty has been paid, forfeits 50 l. and for obſtructing the officers 50 l.

Mr. Brooks has fully laid open the bad effects of the preſent high duties upon ſtarch.

The duty ariſing upon ſtarch in the years

1716	was 21,000 l.
1717, 1718, 1719, 1720	19,000 l.
1745	11,000 l.
1746, 1747, 1748, 1749	10,000 l.

A proper regulation of the ſtarch-duty will be attended with the following good effects; as ſhewn by Mr. Brooks, in theſe words:

1. As all the farmers, eſpecially ſuch as live in inland countries, will have a greater opportunity of diſpoſing to the ſtarchmakers, at all times, ſuch bunty or ſmutty wheats, which, through the inclemency of the ſeaſon, as well as many other cauſes, very often is produced in many parts of this kingdom; ſuch corn being unfit for the merchant to buy for exportation, or lay up in ſtore. Therefore I would obſerve, that the greater conſumption of ſtarch will give the makers thereof an opportunity at all times to relieve the farmers, by taking from them all ſuch bad, cold, bunty wheat ſo far ſpoken of, at a fair market-price; as at any time the farmers ſhall become poſſeſſed of.

2. The next benefit which may accrue to the public from a greater conſumption of ſtarch, will be from an increaſe of the breed of ſwine, which are nouriſhed and fed by the ſtarchmakers offal; no other branch, where the conſumption of wheat is concerned, producing food of equal goodneſs.

3. This additional conſumption propoſed, may give another advantage, by employing a greater number of hands, as trade increaſes, which may be a means to repair and put in order ſuch ſtarch-offices or houſes in all inland countries as formerly have been employed, before the heavy duty was laid upon the ſame. This commodity was then made uſe of by many traders and artificers; ſtarch at that time being uſed in ſtiffening of buckrams, as well as by the whiteſters in whitening their threads and cloth, &c. Alſo by plaiſterers and whitewaſhers of churches or houſes, &c. it being valued for its beautiful colour, as well as laſting quality. Beſides, a great conſumption was made by all trunk and box-makers, upholſterers, ſadlers, breeches-makers, book-binders, &c. who then made up their paſte of ſtarch; which alſo added, at that time, to the conſumption thereof: but, after the duty was laid upon ſtarch, theſe tradeſmen were not compelled, like the barbers, to uſe that commodity, and the dearneſs of it prevented them from uſing it, which was the reaſon of the firſt decay in the ſtarch-trade. There are other reaſons for the decay of the ſaid trade; the firſt of which was the giving encouragement to the trade and importation of French cambrics, after the duty laid upon ſtarch, which reduced the conſumption of muſlins, and other Indian cloths, as required the uſe of ſtarch in getting up the ſame, which the wear of cambrics totally prevented. The next was in the firſt year after the act commenced, that the wheat in this kingdom advanced from 6 s. to 8 s. the buſhel; which ſo much advanced the price of ſtarch, with the heavy duty upon the ſame, as rendered it impoſſible for the barbers and perukemakers to make uſe of powder according to act of parliament, who might have become the greateſt conſumers of the ſaid article, at a proper duty: but, as the act now ſtands, they have been obliged to have recourſe to fine flour, &c. not out of any diſobedience to the laws, but from ſelf-preſervation, that hindered 18 parts of the trade out of 20, from being able to comply with the uſe of powder, according to the act aforeſaid; all which brought the trade and duty to ſuch a low ebb, as might no doubt give the firſt riſe to that clauſe made in the 4th year of his preſent Majeſty's reign; under which clauſe ſuch conſtraints and heavy penalties have been levied, as have been the ruin of many families.

The great decay of the ſtarch-trade, and the conſequent decreaſe of that branch of the revenue ariſing therefrom, which was appropriated by parliament to ſundry national uſes, has, for a long time paſt, been matter of great concern, both to the government and ſtarchmakers, as well as likewiſe greatly affecting the farmers, landholders, and ſtockholders, in general. But this has not been all the matter of complaint; for, notwithſtanding the dearneſs of hair-powder, ariſing from the high duty laid upon ſtarch, yet, by an act paſſed in the 4th year of his preſent Majeſty's reign, all barbers and perukemakers became obliged to uſe the ſame, on the penalty of 20 l. Beſides, the greateſt part of theſe traders having large families, and being likewiſe neceſſitated by the lowneſs of the prices they receive, and with the over and above attendance on their cuſtomers, which the alteration of the trade has laid them under, to what they were obliged before the ſaid duty was laid on, have been rendered unable hitherto to comply with the ſaid act, though never ſo well inclined; and conſequently multitudes of them have been fined and impriſoned, when at the ſame time the makers of ſophiſticated hair-powder have eſcaped puniſhment by working privately.

Now, by the aforeſaid act, all makers of hair-powder are to make true entries at the exciſe-office of their reſpective ſhops, workhouſes, or other places of making of hair-powder; and the officers appointed to inſpect them, never, without ſuſpicion or particular information, proceed to examine or ſearch further than ſuch places entered. But, for want of ſuch regulation with regard to the barbers places of working, all parts of their houſes are liable to be ſearched: and though flour is not ſpecified in the act aforeſaid, as an ingredient for which the powder-makers are ſubject to penalty, or even to be ſearched for by the officers; yet, as it is conſtructed as ſuch, when found in the cuſtody of the barber, even in his kitchen or buttery, he is liable to pay the penalty of 20 l. for the ſame; although the makers of hair-powder are only ſubject to half the penalty, for having other ſophiſticated ingredients found in their working-places.

Theſe evils having ſeveral times been attempted to be remedied, but without ſucceſs, induced Mr. Brooks, in 1751, to lay ſome thoughts thereon before the public, in a ſmall eſſay then publiſhed, intitled, *A ſhort treatiſe for reducing the duty on ſtarch*; which being read, and duly conſidered by the fraternity of barbers, perukemakers, ſtarch and powder makers, to whom it was addreſſed, occaſioned a memorial to be preſented to the lords commiſſioners of his Majeſty's treaſury, by the barbers and peruke-makers of the cities of London and Weſtminſter, bills of mortality, and places adjacent, in behalf of themſelves and their brethren, ſetting forth their grievances, and humbly praying for redreſs; when, after due conſideration of the ſaid memorial, by the lords of the treaſury, their lordſhips were pleaſed to refer the ſame to the honourable the commiſſioners of exciſe, who thereupon ordered Mr. John Paterſon, clerk of the company of barbers, and ſolicitor in the cauſe, to lay before them what he had to alledge in favour of the complainants, with regard to the duty on ſtarch; who thereupon ſoon after delivered in the annexed memorial on that head.

To the honourable the commiſſioners of exciſe.

In obedience to your honours command, I take the liberty to lay before you what I had to offer in ſupport of the

the barbers and peruke-makers memorial to the lords commiſſioners of his Majeſty's treaſury, referred to your honours.

1. That the price of ſtarch, before the duty was laid upon it, when wheat was at a medium price, was about 2 d. *per* pound; and now, by reaſon of the ſaid duty, it is about 4 d. halfpenny; which makes an advance upon the conſumer of 125 *per cent.*

2. That the great diſproportion neceſſarily prevents the duty producing ſo much as it otherwiſe would do; as it is a great temptation to one part of the ſubjects to make, import, or uſe ſtarch and ſtarch-powder, for which no duty has been paid; and lays others under a neceſſity of not making uſe of either.

3. That the many frequent convictions on your honours books, of barbers and peruke-makers, will ſhew how ineffectual penalties are to reſtrain the ſhift and evaſions of thoſe whom their own poverty, and the poorneſs of the trade, abſolutely diſable from complying with the law.

4. That ſtarch, and hair-powder made of ſtarch, can be made, and in fact is ſold abroad for three halfpence or 2 d. a pound, even when made of our own wheat, by means of the bounty paid upon the exportation; which being ſo much cheaper than the duty will permit it to be made and ſold for here, occaſions the ſmuggling of vaſt quantities; and ſo not only defrauds the revenue, but robs the nation of a conſiderable manufacture.

5. How much the revenue is defrauded, or at leaſt deprived of, in this article, upon its preſent footing, can only be made appear by a reaſonable eſtimate of what the conſumption either is, or would be, if the temptation or neceſſity above ſtated did not prevent it: for that purpoſe I humbly ſubmit the following calculation to your honours.

	lb.
I compute the barbers and peruke-makers at 40,000 throughout England, and their conſumption of powder, upon an average, at 4 lb. a week; which makes the whole amount *per ann.* to be - -	8,320,000
Then is computed the conſumption of hair-powder in all private families to be 1-3d more, which is - -	2,773,333
Then is computed, that there are 1,200,000 families; and their weekly conſumption of ſtarch, at 2 oz. each, makes *per ann.*	7,800,000
In all	18,893,333
So that the crown loſes the duty upon -	17,333,333
After deduction of the 13,000 l. now annually received upon the duty.	
Which loſs, at the preſent duty of 2 d. *per* lb. amounts to - -	*L.* 144,444
By the two firſt articles of the above calculation, it appears that the conſumption of powder, at 2 d. *per* lb. would amount to -	92,444
Which, at a halfpenny *per* lb. duly collected, is	23,111

That is near double the produce of the preſent whole duty on ſtarch, beſides what might reaſonably be expected from a variety of other trades, *viz.* indico-makers, calico-printers, whiteſters, dyers, ſaddlers, upholſterers, trunk-makers, ſhoe-makers, breeches-makers, glovers, book-binders, paſteboard-box-makers, paper-bag-makers, &c. who now uſe paſte and other ingredients inſtead of ſtarch; which is not only the beſt, but, when the duty is reduced to 1-4th, will be much the cheapeſt commodity they can uſe.

6. That ſtarch, and ſtarch-powder, would be much more generally uſed, as well in private families as by the ſeveral trades above mentioned, if the duty was reduced to one halfpenny *per* pound, for the reaſon before given; becauſe it is intrinſically better, goes farther, and conſequently would, in that caſe, be really cheaper than any thing now made uſe of in its ſtead.

7. That the duty, when ſo reduced, would be more generally paid; becauſe it would be very little, if at all, more than the *extra* expence which neceſſarily attends ſmuggling, and a clandeſtine trade.

8. That experience, in the caſe of tea, pepper, &c. proves the above ſuppoſition to be well grounded: and if your honours will look back to the produce of the duty now in queſtion, you will find how little the revenue was benefited by the increaſe of it, from 1 d. to 2 d. *per* pound.

	L.	*s.*	*d.*
9. That by the above calculation, excluſive of what may be expected from the ſaid other trades, it appears the duty, at one halfpenny *per* pound, is likely to produce *per ann.* - - -	39361	2	2½
Whereas the medium of the laſt ten years, at 2 d. has amounted to no more than	13000	0	0
So that the difference to the revenue yearly would at leaſt be - - -	26361	2	2½

Excluſive of what may be made appear from a more general conſumption.

Laſtly, I hope your honours will conſider the particular hardſhips which the barbers and peruke-makers lie under; as they are the only perſons obliged to uſe powder made of ſtarch, and the inevitable ruin that muſt fall upon them, and their numerous families, unleſs they are ſo happy as to be relieved by the legiſlature. J. P.

The foregoing memorial, previous to its delivery, was approved of and ſigned by a committee of the trade appointed for that purpoſe; conſiſting of the maſter and 3 wardens of the barbers company of London, and 28 of the principal peruke-makers of London and Weſtminſter.

At the time of delivering the above memorial to the honourable board of exciſe, this affair was alſo backed by the following memorial of the ſtarchmakers.

To the honourable the commiſſioners of exciſe,

The humble memorial of the ſtarch-makers, whoſe names are hereunto ſubſcribed,

Sheweth,

That a memorial of the barbers of the cities of London and Weſtminſter, borough of Southwark, and places adjacent, having been lately preſented to the lords of his Majeſty's treaſury, praying to be relieved againſt the inconveniencies which they labour under from the preſent duties upon ſtarch; and the ſame being referred to your honours, we humbly beg leave to repreſent, that the ſaid duties, being more than half the medium price of the ſtarch, have occaſioned great quantities thereof to be made in ſeveral parts of the kingdom, as well as imported from abroad, for which no duties are paid: that the dearneſs of ſtarch, occaſioned by the ſaid high duty, not only tempts and obliges thouſands of barbers and peruke-makers throughout England, to uſe hair-powder made with little, and often without any powder of ſtarch, contrary to the laws; but neceſſitates many other manufacturers, ſuch as indico makers, dyers, calico-printers, buckram ſtiffeners, &c. &c. and private families in general, to uſe infinitely leſs ſtarch than they actually did before the preſent duty was laid, or than they might afford to do, were the ſaid duties reduced, and the price of the ſaid commodity proportionably leſſened.

Your memorialiſts therefore moſt humbly offer it as their opinion, that the lowering the ſaid duties will neceſſarily promote the conſumption of the ſtarch, ſo as to encreaſe this branch of the revenue conſiderably beyond its preſent produce.

Daniel Ponton,
Thomas Gill,
Simon Lemon,
Henry Smith,
Hewton Lucas,
} ſtarch-makers.

Another memorial, to the purport of the foregoing, was preſented at the ſame time to the honourable commiſſioners

ſioners of exciſe, by his Majeſty's perfumers and others, whoſe names are hereunto ſubſcribed.

Mr. Wintle.
Mr. Coulthurſt.
Mrs. Bailey.
Mr. Barnard.
Meſſ. Robarts, ſen. and jun.
Mr. Robarts, at the Poſtern, common-council-man.
Mr. Harwood.
Mr. Willis.
Mr. Bickham.
Mrs. Reynolds, &c.

Upon which the honourable commiſſioners of exciſe were pleaſed to make the following candid report.

The report of the commiſſioners of exciſe, for reducing the duty upon ſtarch.

To the right honourable the lords commiſſioners of his Majeſty's treaſury.

May it pleaſe your lordſhips,

In obedience to your lordſhips order of reference upon the annexed memorial, of barbers and peruke-makers of the cities of London and Weſtminſter, borough of Southwark, and parts adjacent, ſetting forth, that, by an act paſſed in the 4th year of his preſent Majeſty's reign, the makers and ſellers of hair powder, who make any ſuch powder with any other materials than ſtarch, or powder of ſtarch, rice firſt made into ſtarch, and ſweet ſcents only excepted, are made liable to a penalty of 20 l. beſides forfeiture of the powder ſo made; and all barbers and peruke-makers in whoſe cuſtody any ſuch powder is found, are ſubject to a like penalty of 20 l.: that the duties on ſtarch, amounting to 2 d. *per* pound, which is more than double the prime coſt, or intrinſic value thereof, many perſons are tempted to make, ſell, or uſe hair-powder, prepared either wholly or in part of the ſaid prohibited materials; to the great detriment of the revenue, as well as prejudice of the fair trader: that the general decay of the barbers trade, and the poverty of the traders, render it impoſſible for the greater part of them to comply with the intention of the ſaid act, notwithſtanding the aboveſaid penalties have been rigorouſly levied in all caſes that have been diſcovered; and promiſing a reduction of the preſent duties to 1-4th part, that is, one halfpenny *per* pound; which is all ſet forth to anſwer all the intentions of the ſaid memorial.

We humbly certify to your lordſhips, that we have conſidered the ſaid memorial, and alſo the ſeveral papers and computations which the ſaid memorialiſts have laid before us, in ſupport of it: and we are humbly of opinion, that the high duty laid on ſtarch, of 2 d. *per* pound, which is repreſented to us as more than the intrinſic value of the commodity, excluſive of the duty, has been a great temptation to ſtarch-makers to work privately, in order to avoid the paying the duty; and to the barbers to uſe counterfeit powder made without ſtarch, whereby the revenue is greatly prejudiced: that we apprehend very few barbers, out of the weekly bills of mortality, uſe any hair-powder made from ſtarch; and that the endeavours which we have uſed to bring them to comply with the laws, have hitherto proved ineffectual, from the unwillingneſs of the juſtices to put the laws in execution; and that, notwithſtanding the great number of barbers which have been convicted at this office, of uſing adulterated hair-powder, the practice ſtill continues to a high degree, even within the weekly bills of mortality.

We therefore offer it as our humble opinion, that if the preſent duty on ſtarch were reduced to one half, that is, to one penny *per* pound, there is reaſon to hope, that the traders may be induced to make uſe of ſuch materials in the making of hair-powder as the law requires; and the barbers be enabled, by the cheapneſs of the commodity, to uſe the ſame more generally in their trades; whereby the conſumption of ſtarch would be greatly increaſed, and the revenue would be benefited by it.

We thereupon ſubmit the propoſals in the memorial to your lordſhips conſideration. Given under our hands this 26th day of February 1752.

Thus far the affair of reducing the duty on ſtarch has hitherto been carried: but it being late in the ſeaſon when the right honourable the lords of his Majeſty's treaſury received the foregoing report, nothing could be further tranſacted therein during the ſeſſion of parliament in 1752; though, ſays Mr. Brooks, I have the greateſt reaſon to flatter myſelf, that it will merit the cloſe attention of the legiſlature in the next, eſpecially when ſupported by ſuch authentic teſtimonies.

However, in the mean time, I ſhall endeavour farther to corroborate what has been already advanced, in favour of reducing the duty on ſtarch; and ſhall, with due deference to the report of the honourable commiſſioners of exciſe, endeavour to demonſtrate, that the lowering the ſaid duty to 1-4th part, may afford the greateſt probability of a large encreaſe of his Majeſty's revenue, conſiderably promote the ſtarch-manufactory, be of the greateſt advantage to the fair trader, and likewiſe effectually redreſs the grievances complained of by the barbers, peruke-makers, and other dealers in hair-powder; beſides proving an ineſtimable benefit to the farmers, and landed intereſt in general.

In order to this, I ſhall lay down two propoſitions; of which I beg that the computations exhibited in the foregoing memorial may be admitted as the firſt; and from theſe two ſhall draw ſuch concluſions, as I hope will effectually ſupport the matter in hand.

From what is advanced in the foregoing memorial, I ſhall aſſume as my firſt propoſition,

	L.	s.	d.
That if the preſent duty on ſtarch was lowered to 1-4th part, there would ariſe thereby, from the uſe of hair-powder by the barbers in England only, the annual ſum of - -	17,333	6	8
Then allowing the private families to uſe but 1-3d of this quantity, it would annually produce - -	5,777	15	6½
The total of which ſhews, that the produce of the duty by the uſe of powder, excluſive of Scotland, and what the ſtarch will produce, amounts to the annual ſum of - -	23,111	2	2½
But from the ſtricteſt enquiry which I have made, and the opinion of others, it may be admitted, that the nobility, gentry, farmers, graziers, and tradeſmen, together with the commonalty in Great Britain, uſe an equal quantity with barbers; then the foregoing eſtimate will amount to the ſum of	34,666	13	4
Now, according to a ſecond propoſition, hereafter following, the above conſumption of the nobility, gentry, barbers, &c. will amount to the annual ſum of - -	47,450	0	0
The total of which eſtimate is -	82,116	13	4
And from hence I propoſe aſſuming the medium of - -	41,058	6	8

And this medium, ariſing from the two different calculations, will, I hope, ſufficiently juſtify me in deducing ſuch facts as may ſtrengthen and ſupport what has been offered upon the ſubject; ſince it appears from the foregoing candid report of the honourable commiſſioners of exciſe, that very few barbers out of the bills of mortality at preſent make uſe of any powder duly prepared; and when the duty upon ſtarch was at the higheſt produce, the revenue ariſing from powder has been adjudged not to exceed 5000 l. Therefore, admitting the foregoing medium, from thence, by the duty on powder only, will ariſe a loſs to the government, between what may be raiſed at the fourth part, and what the preſent high

high duty hath ever produced, amounting to the ſum of 36,058 l. 6 s. 8 d.

To corroborate what has already been advanced, I ſhall lay down my ſecond propoſition or eſtimate; which has coſt me much pains in bringing to ſuch a nicety, as may prevent any ſcruple of its being as near the truth as the nature of the ſubject will admit of.

	L.	*s.*	*d.*
1. The 40,000 of the trade of barbers, adjudged in the memorial to be in England, I ſhall divide into eight claſſes: of the firſt I ſhall admit 10,000, to make uſe of only two pounds of powder *per* week each; which, at the preſent duty, amounts to the annual ſum of - - -	0	17	4
This, according to the new duty, will be but	0	4	4
Wherefore every one of the above will ſave annually - - -	0	13	0
And the government gain *per ann.* -	2166	13	4
2. Again, admitting that 10,000 of another claſs make uſe of four pounds *per* week each, at the preſent duty, it will amount to	1	14	8
This, according to the new duty, will be	0	8	8
Each of the above will ſave annually -	1	6	0
And the government gain *per ann.* -	4333	6	8
3. Admitting that 10,000 of another claſs uſe ſix pounds *per* week each, at the preſent duty, it amounts to - -	2	12	0
The new duty will only be -	0	13	0
Each of this claſs will ſave annually	1	19	0
And the government gain *per ann.* -	6500	0	0
4. Allowing alſo, that 5000 of another claſs uſe eight pounds *per* week, at the preſent duty, it amounts to - -	3	9	4
The new duty will only be - -	0	17	4
Each of the above will ſave annually -	2	12	0
And the government ſave *per ann.* -	4333	6	0
5. Admitting alſo 2000 of another claſs to uſe ten pounds *per* week, at the preſent duty, it amounts to - - -	4	6	8
The new duty will only be -	1	1	8
Each of this claſs will ſave annually -	3	5	0
And the government gain *per ann.* -	2166	13	4
6. Again, allowing 2000 of another claſs to make uſe of twelve pounds *per* week each, at the preſent duty, it amounts to -	5	4	0
The new duty will only be - -	1	6	0
Each of this claſs will ſave annually -	3	18	0
And the government gain *per ann.* -	2600	0	0
7. Admitting alſo, that 500 of another claſs uſe fourteen pounds each *per* week, at the preſent duty, it amounts to -	6	1	4
The new duty will be only - -	1	10	4
Each of this claſs will ſave annually -	4	11	0
And the government gain *per ann.* -	751	6	8
8. and laſtly, Allowing that 500 of the higheſt claſs uſe ſixteen pounds of powder each *per* week, at the preſent duty, it amounts to	6	18	8
The new duty will be only -	1	14	8
Each of this claſs will ſave annually -	5	4	0
And the government gain *per ann.* -	866	13	4

Now, it appears, by collecting the ſeveral totals in this calculation, that the barbers uſe of powder would produce to the revenue the annual ſum of - 23,725 0 0

And it is likewiſe adjudged by the makers and dealers in ſtarch, that the private families throughout the kingdom cannot fail of creating the ſame conſumption, which will alſo produce the yearly ſum of 23,725 0 0

Therefore the whole amount, by this calculation, from powder only, will be the annual ſum of - - 47,450 0 0

In the foregoing eſtimates all poſſible care has been taken not to rely upon any conſumption but what has been adjudged to be neareſt the truth; and we hope that every dealer and judge of the trade will candidly allow, that therein we have rather been under than above the mark; eſpecially when the quantity of ſtarch that is uſed in making of indico, and other manufactures, becomes duly weighed and conſidered, of which we have made no account in our preceding calculations.

Having thus amply ſet forth the advantages that will accrue to the revenue, I ſhall now beg leave to exhibit, in a few words, the benefits that muſt neceſſarily ariſe to the landed intereſt from ſuch an enlargement of the conſumption of wheat, as we are about to promote.

Now, as ſome people have taken it into their imagination, that the conſumption of either flour or ſtarch is equally advantageous to the farmer and landholder, I ſhall beg leave to rectify their miſtake in a few words.

The production of ſtarch from wheat to that of flour is as 25 to 42; and conſequently a buſhel of wheat that produces 42 lb. of flour, will give but 25 lb. of ſtarch. Therefore it requires a much larger quantity of wheat to make 42 lb. of ſtarch, than it does to produce the like quantity of flour.

It is therefore evident, that to produce as much ſtarch as pays duty of 4 s. 2 d. will require one buſhel of wheat; wherefore to produce the annual amount of 13,000 l. will require 7800 quarters.

Again, upon the ſame principles, to produce the ſum of 144,444 l. which has been before obſerved to be annually deficient, will require 106,666 quarters, and the difference between them is 98,866 quarters.

Having ſhewn the inconveniencies that time has evinced to be ſuſtained by the whole community from ſuch an exorbitant duty being laid on ſtarch, made of wheat, one of our ſtaple-commodities, which no other nation has thought fit to impoſe any tax upon; I ſhall venture to ſet forth how much more the ſaid duty pays to the crown than the double duty ariſing from barley when malted and brewed, *viz.* the duty on the ſame when malted being 4 s. *per* quarter, and when brewed about 10 s. *per* hogſhead, at 8 buſhels each, it makes the double duty to be about 14 s.

And as it appears, by the preſent duty ariſing from ſtarch, each buſhel of wheat producing 25 lb. of ſtarch, amounts to 4 s. 2 d. that makes 1 l. 13 s. 4 d. *per* quarter; which exceeds the double duty on barley by 19 s. 4 d. each quarter, that is, near 2-3ds of the value of the wheat.

Now, ſeeing there is ſuch a diſproportionable duty between the two commodities, the latter muſt be ſuppoſed, for want of proper checks, ſubject to many difficulties in collecting, as ſet forth in the report: "That the great "duty laid on ſtarch of 2 d. *per* pound, which is re- "preſented as more than the intrinſic value of the com- "modity, excluſive of the duty, has been a great tempta- "tion to ſtarch-makers to work privately, in order to "avoid the paying the duty; and to the barbers to uſe coun- "terfeit powder, made without ſtarch; whereby the re- "venue is greatly prejudiced." And I beg leave further to obſerve, that the makers of ſophiſticated hair-powder, moſtly live out of the knowledge of the officers. The ſaid honourable commiſſioners have further delivered it as their opinion, "That if the preſent duty on ſtarch "were reduced to one half, that is, to 1 d. *per* pound, "there is reaſon to hope that the traders may be induced "to make uſe of ſuch materials in the making of hair-

" powder as the law requires; and the barbers be en-
" abled, by the cheapneſs of the commodity, to uſe the
" ſame more generally in their trades; whereby the
" conſumption of ſtarch would be greatly increaſed, and
" the revenue benefited thereby."

By this it appears, that the revenue ſuffers ſo great a loſs from the duty on powder, which is much owing, among other cauſes, to the lowneſs of the prices given in the barbers trade; they being the only perſons obliged by law to make uſe of the ſaid commodity, though unable to comply therewith: and the honourable commiſſioners have adjudged, that the lowering the duty to one half what it is at preſent, will be a great relief to the unhappy ſufferers, as well as an adequate advantage to the revenue.

From hence, with ſubmiſſion to that honourable board, I would humbly beg leave to make the following obſervations. 1. It has appeared to me, from the improvements made in adulterating hair-powder, that it may continue to be ſold under ſuch a profit as will induce, and ſtill encourage the ſaid illicit traders in treſpaſſing againſt the law, by increaſing their trade in the country, by ſale of ſuch a commodity as will be exceeding difficult for the officers to diſtinguiſh from the real hair-powder that has paid the duty. 2. Whether the ſaid duty, at 1 d. ariſing to 9 l. *per* tun, will not be a means of encouraging other countries ſtill to continue running ſtarch in upon us, or taking the advantage of the drawback? ſince it is obſerved in the 7th article of the memorial, that when the duty ſhall be lowered to 4 s. 8 d. *per* hundred, it will be very little more than the *extra* expence which neceſſarily attends ſmuggling, and a clandeſtine trade; neither could it then be thought practicable, from the ſmallneſs of the profit, and great hazard run in being detected, for any makers of adulterated powder to continue their preſent illicit practices. But it is to be hoped, from a due conſideration of the foregoing calculations, and the reaſons herein offered, that the legiſlature will, of their great wiſdom, compleat what the honourable commiſſioners of exciſe have already begun; in granting proper relief to a diſtreſſed trade, by lowering the duty upon ſtarch to 1-4th what it is at preſent, as the only means for procuring a greater certainty of the above augmentation to the revenue, and advantage to the fair trader; eſpecially as it will induce all conſumers of ſtarch, ſuch as indico-makers, dyers, whiteſters, &c. to make uſe of a conſiderably larger quantity thereof in their ſeveral manufactures, which the preſent high duty now prevents; and alſo encreaſe the conſumption of ſuch wheats as are only fit for the ſtarch-makers uſe.

This conſidered, with the loſs of manufacturing the ſame, and the deficiency in trade, will, with the following reaſons, leave no doubt of what is here propoſed, juſtly meriting the greateſt attention from the legiſlature. For the deficiency in the foregoing conſumption brings on a loſs of another nature, *viz.* whereas by act of parliament a buſhel of meal ought to weigh 56 lb. and the ſame producing only 25 lb. of ſtarch, there will remain 31 lb. of hog-feed in each buſhel; which makes 248 lb. in a quarter, or 2,438,768 lb. of ſuch hog-feed, which otherwiſe would remain in the 98,876 quarters, or become a loſs of ſo much feed, if exported unmanufactured. And daily experience manifeſts, that bacon and pork of the ſtarch-makers feed affords the beſt of price, as it is deſervedly of great repute. Now, could we encreaſe the conſumption of ſtarch to the height it aroſe before the duty was impoſed on the ſame, our colonies, and ſettlements abroad, together with the Britiſh navy, might be amply furniſhed with ſuch pork as would never admit of any juſt complaint, even from the ſeamen. Wherefore the foregoing arguments ſhould, as might reaſonably be thought, have weight enough to remove the whole preſent duty upon ſtarch, to ſome thing that would leſs affect the commonweal. For as a bounty is allowed of near a ſixth part the value of ſuch corn exported, which bounty is granted for the ſake of the landed intereſt; it cannot be otherwiſe than reaſonable to preſume, that we ought to give all imaginable encouragement towards creating a home conſumption, more eſpecially in a manufactory that has ſo many public advantages attending the ſame.

The want of ſuch conſumption may indeed give the merchants a greater opportunity to purchaſe ſuch corn at a market-price, and not ſuffer the ſame to remain in the farmers hands. But then the conſequence will be this, that when the foregoing ſuppoſed quantity of 98,866 quarters is ſold to Holland, or any other foreign market, for the uſe it is only fit for, that of making ſtarch, the ſame ſo ſhipped brings a demand of 5 s. *per* quarter on the government, which may be above the fifth part of the value of the ſame, amounting to the annual ſum of 24,716 l. Now I would aſk, whether we do not purchaſe commerce at too high a rate, for the ſake of caſh, when there is the greateſt probability, that in leſs than ſix months a larger ſum may be returned by the ſame commodity being brought in, and ſold in this nation, manufactured? And as there remains no duty on ſtarch in any other country, our preſent high duty of 18 l. *per* tun, admits of room for the illicit practice of ſmuggling the ſame, to the great denial of what has here already been penned in ſupport of our home conſumption and manufacture.

I ſhall beg leave to make another obſervation or two relating to the ſubject, and then conclude. Foreign nations have taken an opportunity to reflect on our politicks, by obſerving, that we have laid a duty upon the manufacturing of one of our ſtaple commodities, which pays above one half of the value of the land that produces it; and, at the very time, we give a fifth part, or more, of its value to get rid of the ſame. For example; if we value the arable lands in this kingdom, at a medium, at 8 s. *per* acre, the value, at 20 years purchaſe, will be 8 l. Then admitting that each acre of wheat-land produces *communibus annis* two quarters and a half, the duty ariſing from 25 lb. of ſtarch, made from a buſhel of wheat, is 4 s. 2 d. and the quarter, or eight buſhels, will be 1 l. 13 s. 4 d. This admitted, makes each acre pay an annual duty of 4 l. 3 s. 4 d. which leads me to obſerve, that the duty amounts to 3 l. 6 s. 8 d. more than the half value of the land, and raiſes it to 23 years purchaſe.

The drawback on Britiſh made ſtarch. By the 6th of George I. it is enacted, That for every pound avoirdupois weight there ſhall be paid one penny; which duties having been paid by the maker, may be repaid by the collector, upon exportation to foreign parts by way of merchandiſe: provided ſufficient ſecurity be given to the collector of the port, before ſhipping, that it ſhall not be relanded in Great Britain, and proof be made upon oath before the collector of the cuſtoms, that the duties have been paid; whereupon the ſaid collector is to grant a debenture, expreſſing the kinds and quantities, with the ſhipping, teſtified by the ſearcher: if relanded, the value to be forfeited, beſides the penalty of the bond.

STARCH-MAKER. A perſon who makes ſtarch.

STARCH-MAKERS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 20th of James I. dated the 13th of May 1622, by the name of The maſter, wardens, aſſiſtants, and commonalty of the art or myſtery of ſtarch-makers; which is governed by a maſter, 2 wardens, and 24 aſſiſtants; but they have neither livery nor hall to manage their affairs in.

STARO, or *Staio*, and *Stara*. A liquid meaſure uſed at Florence, containing 3 barrels, and the barrel 20 flaſques. The ſtaro is alſo a buſhel uſed at Venice, Leghorn, and Lucca, for meaſuring corn.

The ſtaro of Leghorn weighs uſually 54 lb.

The ſtaro of Venice weighs 128 lb. heavy weight, and each ſtaro contains 4 quarts.

START *Point*. A cape or promontory of Devonſhire, in the Engliſh channel, ſituated in 4 deg. 6 min. of W. lon. and 50 deg. 10 min. of N. lat. 12 miles ſouth of Dartmouth.

STARTING, among brewers, the putting of new beer or ale to that which is decayed, to revive it again.

STATE, or *Eſtate*. An empire, kingdom, province, or extent of country, under the ſame government.

The ſtate or ſtates of the King of England, include the Britiſh

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Britiſh iſlands, and the Weſt India plantations, as Virginia, Carolina, Maryland, and the reſt; to which may be added the duchies of Brunſwick-Lunenburg, Bremen and Verden.

STATE, is alſo uſed for the policy or form of government of a nation: hence the terms, miniſters of ſtate, reaſons of ſtate, and the like.

Politicians diſtinguiſh ſeveral forms of ſtate, namely, the monarchic, as that of England; the democratic, as that of Rome and Athens; the oligarchic, as that of Venice; and the ariſtocratic, as that of Sparta.

STATED *winds*. See *Wind*.

STATEN *iſland*. An iſland of the province of New York, in North America, ſituated in 72 deg. 31 min. of W. lon. and 41 deg. of N. lat. near the month of Hudſon's river, ſubject to Great Britain.

STATERA *Romana*, or *Stillyard*. A name given to the Roman balance. See *Stillyard*.

STATES. A term applied to the ſeveral orders or claſſes of a people, aſſembled to conſult of matters for the public good.

STATES-GENERAL. The name of an aſſembly, conſiſting of the deputies of the ſeven United Provinces. See *United* Provinces.

STATIONER. A tradeſman who deals in paper, parchment, pens, quills, ink, ſealing-wax, books of accompt, blank books, and the like.

STATIONERS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 3d and 4th of Philip and Mary, dated the 4th of May 1557, by the title of The maſter, and keepers or wardens, and commonalty of the myſtery or art of ſtationers of the city of London; being governed by a maſter, 2 wardens, and 27 aſſiſtants; with a livery of 208 members; who, when admitted, pay a fine of 20l. and have a ſtately hall near Ludgate-ſtreet, wherein they manage their affairs.

This company, conſiſting of ſtationers, bookbinders, bookſellers, printers, and letter-founders, has a ſtock of about 15,000l. denominated the *Engliſh ſtock*; which is employed in printing almanacks, horn-books, primmers, pſalters, ſchool-books, and privileged ware; the ſole printing whereof is confirmed to them by letters-patent of ſeveral kings.

This ſtock, which conſiſts of 15 whole ſhares, of 320l. each, is generally poſſeſſed by thoſe who have ſerved or fined for maſter: the ſecond at 30 half ſhares, of 160l. each, which are chiefly enjoyed by the aſſiſtants: the third are ſixty quarter-ſhares, of 80l. each, which are commonly divided between ſuch as have fined for renter-warden. But, the company being much more numerous than formerly, many of the laſt mentioned are divided into 40l. ſhares, for the obliging a greater number of members.

Upon the death of any of the married poſſeſſors of this ſtock, the profits ariſing from his ſhare devolve to his widow, which ſhe enjoys during her widowhood or life; but, at the expiration of either, another perſon is choſen to enjoy the profits of the ſaid ſhare; to which he is no ſooner ſelected, than he pays the depoſit-money to the late widow, her huſband, or executors.

The dividends upon the ſtock are made at Chriſtmas, which are increaſed or decreaſed according to the expence of the preceding year: however, it is ſeldom leſs than 40l. upon a whole ſhare. A fine intereſt upon 320! The maſter and wardens of the company are always in the direction of the ſtock; to them are joined ſix other members, annually elected, who adjuſt all accompts relating thereto, and at Chriſtmas report the ſtate thereof to the board, who regulate the above mentioned dividends accordingly; and the company pays in penſions, and other charities, about 300l. *per annum*.

STATUARY. A branch of ſculpture, employed in the making of ſtatues. See *Statue*.

STATUARY, is one of thoſe arts wherein the ancients excelled the moderns: indeed it was much more popular, and more cultivated among the former than the latter. It is diſputed between ſtatuary and painting, which of the two is the moſt difficult, and the moſt artful.

The invention of ſtatuary was at firſt very coarſe. Leon Battiſta Alberti, who has an expreſs treatiſe on ſtatues, imagines that it took its riſe from ſomething caſually obſerved in the productions of nature, that, with a little help, ſeemed diſpoſed to repreſent the figure of ſome animal. The common ſtory is, that a maid full of the idea of her lover, made the firſt eſſay, by the aſſiſtance of her father's implements, who was a potter. This at leaſt is pretty certain, that earth is the firſt matter ſtatuary was practiced upon.

STATUARY, is alſo uſed for the artificer, who makes ſtatues. Phidias was the greateſt ſtatuary among the ancients, and Michael Angelo among the moderns.

STATUE. A piece of ſculpture in full relievo, repreſenting a human figure.

Daviler more ſcientifically defines ſtatue, a repreſentation in high relievo and inſulate, of ſome perſon diſtinguiſhed by his birth, merit, or great actions; placed as an ornament in a fine building, or expoſed in a public place, to preſerve the memory of his worth.

In ſtrictneſs, the term *ſtatue* is only applied to figures on foot, the word being formed from the Latin *ſtatura*, the ſize of the body; or from *ſtare*, to ſtand.

Statues are formed with the chiſſel, of ſeveral matters, as ſtone, wood, marble, and plaiſter. They are alſo caſt of various kinds of metal, particularly gold, ſilver, braſs, and lead. See *Foundery*.

Allegorical STATUE. That which, under a human figure, or other ſymbol, repreſents ſomething of another kind; as a part of the earth, a ſeaſon, age, element, temperament, or hour.

Curule STATUES. Thoſe which are repreſented in chariots drawn by bigæ or quadrigæ, that is, by two or four horſes; of which kind there were ſeveral in the circus's and hippodromes: or in cars, as we ſee ſome with triumphal arches on antique medals.

Equeſtrian STATUE. That repreſenting ſome illuſtrious perſon on horſeback, as the famous one of Marcus Aurelius at Rome, and that of King Charles I. at Charing-croſs.

Greek STATUE, denotes a figure that is naked and antique; it being in this manner the Greeks repreſented their deities, athletæ of the Olympian games, and heroes. The reaſon of this nudity, whereby the Greek ſtatues are diſtinguiſhed is, that thoſe who exerciſed wreſtling, wherein the Greek youth placed their chief glory, always performed it naked.

The ſtatues of heroes were particularly called Achillean ſtatues, by reaſon of the great number of figures of that prince in moſt of the cities of Greece.

Hydraulic STATUE. Any figure placed as an ornament of a fountain or grotto, or that does the office of a jet d'eau, a cock, ſpout, or the like, by any of its parts, or by any attitude it holds. The like is to be underſtood of any animal ſerving for the ſame uſe.

Pedeſtrian STATUE. A ſtatue ſtanding on one foot, as that of King Charles II. in the royal exchange, and that of King James II. in the privy-gardens.

STATUTE, in the general ſenſe, ſignifies a law, ordinance, or decree.

STATUTE, in the Engliſh laws and cuſtoms, more immediately ſignifies an act of parliament made by the three eſtates of the realm, and having the force of a law.

STATUTE-*merchant*, is a bond of record, acknowledged before one of the clerks of the ſtatutes-merchant, and mayor or chief warden of the city of London, or two merchants of the ſaid city for that purpoſe aſſigned; or before the mayor, chief warden, or maſter of other cities and towns, or other ſufficient men for that purpoſe appointed, ſealed with the ſeal of the debtor and of the king; which is of two pieces, the greater to be kept by the mayor, chief warden, or maſter; and the leſſer by the ſaid clerk. Its effect is, that if the obligor pay not the debt at the day, execution may be awarded againſt his body, lands, and goods; and that the obligee ſhall hold the ſame till the debt be levied.

STATUTE-*ſtaple*, is a ſort of ſtatute-merchant, relating to merchants, and merchandiſes of the ſtaple. See *Staple*.

The ſtatute-ſtaple is of two kinds, proper and improper. Proper, is a bond of record acknowledged by the mayor

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of the ſtaple, in the preſence of one or more conſtables of the ſtaple; by virtue of which the creditor may forthwith have execution of the body, lands, and goods of the debtor, on non-payment. Improper, is a bond of relief, founded upon the ſtatute of the 23d of Henry VIII. of the nature of a proper ſtatute-ſtaple as to the force and execution of it, and acknowledged before one of the chief juſtices; or in their abſence, before the mayor of the ſtaple, and recorder of London.

STAVANGER. A port-town of Norway, in the province of Bergen, capital of the territory of Stavanger, ſituated on a peninſula in the German ocean, in 6 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 59 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 80 miles ſouth of Bergen.

STAVEREN. A port-town of the United Netherlands, in the province of Weſt Frieſland, ſituated on the Zuyder ſea, in 5 deg. 12 min. of E. lon. and in 53 deg. of N. lat. 15 miles north of Enchuyſen.

STAY, in the ſea-language. A big, ſtrong rope, faſtened to the top of the maſt, and the foot of that next before it, towards the prow; ſerving to keep it firm, and prevent its falling aftwards, or towards the poop. All maſts, top-maſts, and flag-ſtaves, have their ſtays, except the ſprit-ſail-top-maſts: that of the main-maſt is called the main-ſtay; the main-maſt, fore-maſt, and thoſe belonging to them, have alſo back-ſtays, to prevent their pitching forwards or overboard, as going on either ſide her.

To ſtay a ſhip, or *bring her on the ſtays*, is to manage her tackle and ſails ſo, as that ſhe cannot make any way forwards, which is done in order to her tacking about.

STAYMAKER, is a perſon who makes ſtays, jumps, and bodice, for women; the materials in ſtays being tabby, canvas, and whale-fin, commonly called whale-bone.

STEADY. A word of command at ſea, for the man at the helm to keep the ſhip ſteady in her courſe; and not to make angles, or yaws, as they call them, in and out.

STEEL. A kind of iron refined, and purified by the fire, with other ingredients, which renders it whiter, and its grain cloſer and finer than common iron. See *Iron*.

Steel, of all other metals, is that ſuſceptible of the greateſt degree of hardneſs, when well tempered; whence its great uſe in the making of tools and inſtruments of all kinds.

The true method of making ſteel has been greatly concealed, and the public long abuſed by counterfeit ones. The following method we have from Agricola, and is affirmed by Kircher to be that practiſed in the iſle of Ilva; a place famous in all ages for the manufacture of ſteel, from the time of the Romans to this day.

Heat a quantity of iron red hot, cut it into ſmall pieces, and mix it with a ſort of ſtone that eaſily melts: this mixture put by little and little into a crucible, firſt filled with charcoal duſt, and heated red hot; when melted off, three, four, or more pieces of iron, are to be put in the middle of it; there boil them five or ſix hours with a ſtrong fire. The workman is to ſtir the melted matter often, that the pieces of iron may ſoak in the ſmaller particles of the melted matter; which particles conſume and thin the groſſer ones of the iron pieces; being, as it were, a ferment to them, and make them tender. One of the pieces is now taken out of the fire, and put under the great hammer, to be drawn out into bars, and wrought; and, hot as it is, plunged into cold water. Thus tempered, it is worked again upon the anvil; then breaking it, it is conſidered, whether in any part it looks like iron, or whether it is wholly condenſed and turned into ſteel.

STEELYARD, in mechanics. A kind of balance, called alſo *ſtatera Romana*, or the Roman balance; by means whereof the gravity of different bodies are found by the uſe of one ſingle weight. See *Balance*.

STEEM. A weight of 8 lb. uſed in Brabant, ſome of the hanſe towns, at Amſterdam, and in other parts of the United provinces.

STEERAGE. The act of ſteering.

The word is alſo uſed for a place in a ſhip, next below the quarter-deck, before the bulk-head of the great cabin, where the ſteerſman ſtands and lodges.

STEERING, in navigation. The directing a veſſel from one place to another, by means of the helm and rudder. He is held the beſt ſteerſman, who uſes the leaſt motion in putting the helm over to and again, and who keeps the ſhip beſt from making of yaws, that is, from running in and out.

There are three methods of ſteering: 1. By any mark on land, ſo as to keep the ſhip even by it. 2. By the compaſs, which is, by keeping the ſhip's head on ſuch a rhumb or point of the compaſs as beſt leads to port. 3. To ſteer as one is bidden or conned; which, in a great ſhip, is the duty of him that is taking his turn at the helm. See *Conned*.

For the theory and effects of ſteering, ſee *Sailing*, and *Courſe*.

STEGEBURG. A port-town of Sweden, in the province of E. Gothland, ſituated in 16 deg. of E. lon. and 58 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on a bay of the Baltic ſea, 82 miles S. W. of Stockholm.

STEKAN, or *Steckan*. A Dutch liquid meaſure, particularly for oil, containing 16 mingles, 717 mingles making 1434 pints, or a tun.

The barique of Bourdeaux is 12 ſtekans and a half, and the puncheon of Nantz 12.

STEM, of a ſhip, is that main piece of timber which comes bending from the keel below, where it is ſcarfed, as they call it, that is, pieced in, and riſes compaſſing right before the forecaſtle. This ſtem it is which guides the rake of the ſhip, and all the butt-ends of the planks forwards are fixed into it.

STEP, in a ſhip, is that piece of timber, which is faſtened to the keelſon, whereon the main-maſt, miſſen-maſt, fore-maſt, and the capſtan ſtand.

STERLING. A term frequent in the Engliſh commerce; a pound, ſhilling, or a penny ſterling, ſignifying as much as a pound, ſhilling, or penny, of lawful money of England, as ſettled by public authority.

Antiquaries and critics are greatly divided as to the origin of the word ſterling. Buchanan fetches it from the caſtle of Striveling, or Sterling, in Scotland, where a ſmall coin was anciently ſtruck, that in time, according to him, came to give name to all the reſt. Camden derives the word from eaſterling, or eſterling; obſerving that, in the reign of Richard I. money coined in the eaſt parts of Germany, began to be of ſpecial requeſt in England, by reaſon of the purity thereof; and was called eaſterling money, as all the inhabitants of thoſe parts were called Eaſterlings; ſome of whom, ſkilled in coinage, were ſoon after ſent for over to perfect the Engliſh money, which was thenceforwards denominated from them ſterling, eaſterling, or eſterling; not from Striveling in Scotland, nor from *ſtella*, a ſtar, which ſome dream to have been coined thereon; for in old deeds the Engliſh ſpecies are always called *nummi eaſterlingi*, which implied as much as good and lawful money. Somner, again derives the word from the Saxon ſteore, a rule, or ſtandard; intimating that this, as to weight and fineneſs was to be the common ſtandard of all current money.

In Stow, and ſome other of our ancient writers, ſterling or eaſterling, is alſo uſed for a certain coin, amounting nearly to our ſilver penny: and on ſome occaſions we find the ſame word ſterling uſed in the general for a piece of money; it being obſervable, that for a good while together there was no other coin but pennies, which with ſterlings and eaſterlings were become ſynonymous, much as among the ancients the words *denarius* and *nummus* were uſed.

STERN *of a ſhip*, uſually denotes all the hindermoſt part of her; but, properly, is only the outmoſt part abaft.

STERN *chaſe*. See *Chace*.

STETIN. A city and port-town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, capital of the duchy of Pomerania, ſituated in 14 deg. 50 min. of E. lon. and 53 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the weſt ſhore of the river Oder 35 miles ſouth of the Baltic ſea, and 66 miles north of Berlin, ſubject to the King of Pruſſia.

STEWARD *of a ſhip*, is he who receives all the victuals from the purſer, and is to ſee it well ſtowed in the hold

all things of that nature belonging to the ſhip's uſe are in his cuſtody: he looks after the bread, and diſtributes out the ſeveral meſſes of victuals in the ſhip: he has an apartment for himſelf in the hold, which is called the ſteward's room.

STHÆCAS. The name of a plant which enters the compoſition of the theriaca; being of two ſorts, the ſthæcas arabicum, and the ſthæcas citrinum.

The ſthæcas arabicum is a plant which grows chiefly in the Hieres iſlands in France; whoſe leaves are narrow and greeniſh; and flowers, ſmall blue, and reſembling the violet. The flowers are the only part of the plant that is uſed, and muſt be choſen of a beautiful blue.

The ſthæcas citrinum, called otherwiſe yellow amaranth, differs only from the arabicum in colour; growing chiefly in Languedoc and Provence, in France.

STIBIUM. See *Antimony*.

STICAON. A weed growing in the neighbourhood of Palmyra, in Syria; of which the Arabs make the beſt ſort of pot-aſhes, to carry to Tripoli, and other places, where ſoap is made.

The plant is without leaves, having a ſoft juicy ſtalk ſhooting out into ſeveral branches, reſembling ſamphire; and, in burning, runs into cakes, not unlike the cinders of a forge, but heavier, and not ſo full of pores, nor ſo hard, as they are.

STILE. See *Style*.

STILLYARD, in commerce. The company of the ſtillyard was a community, or corporation of foreign merchants, eſtabliſhed at London; thus called from the place where they had their reſidence, called the ſtillyard, near the bridge, which was aſſigned them by act of parliament; and which, in ſome records, is called *Guildhalda Teutonicorum*; being, as ſome write, a broad place, or yard, where much ſteel uſed to be ſold.

This company was created in the year 1215, under Henry III. in favour of the free cities of Germany, who had been aſſiſtant to him in his wars againſt France; whereby the company rendered itſelf miſtreſs of all the Engliſh manufactories, particularly of cloth, which it was allowed not only to ſell throughout the kingdom, but alſo to export abroad.

The prejudice theſe privileges did, by which the company frequently abuſed the nation, occaſioned its being broke, by ſentence of the judges, under Edward IV.; but it redeemed its rights, and laſted to the year 1552, when it was ſuppreſſed by Edward VI.

STIPULATION, in the civil law. The art of ſtipulating; that is, of treating and concluding terms and conditions to be inſerted in a contract.

Stipulations were anciently performed at Rome with abundance of ceremonies; the firſt whereof was, the one party ſhould interrogate, and the other anſwer, to give his conſent, and oblige himſelf. By the ancient Roman law, no body could ſtipulate but for himſelf: but as the tabelliones were public ſervants, they were allowed to ſtipulate for their maſters; and the notaries ſucceeding the tabelliones, have inherited the ſame privilege. The ſtipulation had its origin in the *lex aquilia*, and another law of the emperor Arcadius. The word is taken from the Latin *ſtipula*, a ſtraw; becauſe in making a ſale, a ſtraw was given the purchaſer, in ſign of a real delivery; which cuſtom is ſtill retained in ſome parts of France, particularly at Verdun; where it has been always cuſtomary on this occaſion for the two parties to break a ſtraw between them, and each take his moiety; which they afterwards joined again, to recognize their promiſe.

STIVER. See *Stuyver*.

STOCK. A fund of money or quantity of goods, but is now particularly applied to the public funds. See *Fund*.

STOCK-FISH, or *Stock-fiſh*, in commerce. A kind of dried, ſalted fiſh, of a greyiſh aſh-colour, only the belly ſomewhat whiter.

The commerce of ſtock-fiſh is very conſiderable in Holland, both from the great conſumption thereof in the country, and from their victualling their veſſels therewith. It is ſaid to take its name from being as hard as a ſtock, or from its needing to be beaten with a ſtick, to fit it for eating. See Cod *Fiſhery*.

Three ſorts of ſtock-fiſh, the round, the long, and the ſhort, are ſold at Amſterdam by the quintal of 103 lb. and the deductions are 1 *per cent.* for good weight, and as much for prompt payment.

Round ſtock fiſh is ſold for about 16 s. ſterling the hundred, the long for about 17 s. and the ſhort for about 11 s. ſterling.

STOCKHOLM. The capital city of Sweden, in the province of Eaſt Gothland, ſituated in 18 deg. of E. lon. and 59 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on ſeveral ſmall iſlands in the Meller lake, 300 miles N. E. of Copenhagen, 900 miles N. E. of London, and 400 miles weſt of Peterſburg. See *Sweden*.

STOCKING. That part of the cloathing of the leg and foot, which immediately covers their nudity, and ſkreens them from the rigour of the cold.

Anciently the only ſtockings in uſe were made of cloth, or milled ſtuffs ſewed together; but ſince the invention of knitting and weaving ſtockings of ſilk, wool, cotton, and thread, the uſe of cloth ſtockings is quite exploded.

The modern ſtockings, whether wove or knit, are a kind of plexus's formed of an infinite number of little knots, called ſtitches, loops, or maſhes, intermingled in one another.

Knit STOCKINGS, are wrought with needles made of poliſhed iron, or braſs-wire, which interweave the threads, and form the maſhes the ſtockings conſiſt of. This operation is called knitting; the invention whereof is difficult to fix preciſely, though it is commonly attributed to the Scotch, on this ground, that the firſt works of this kind came from thence; and that it was upon this account the company of ſtocking-knitters eſtabliſhed at Paris in 1527 took for their patron St. Fiacre, who is ſaid to have been a ſon of one of the kings of Scotland.

Woven STOCKINGS, are ordinarily very fine; they are manufactured on a frame or machine made of poliſhed iron; the ſtructure whereof is exceeding ingenious, but exceedingly complex; ſo that it is very difficult to deſcribe it well, by reaſon of the diverſity and number of its parts; nor is it even conceived, without a deal of difficulty, when working before the face.

The Engliſh and French have greatly conteſted the honour of the invention of the ſtocking-loom: but the matter of fact, waiving all national prejudices, ſeems to be this, that a Frenchman firſt invented this uſeful and ſurpriſing machine; who, finding ſome difficulties in procuring an excluſive privilege, which he required, to ſettle himſelf at Paris, went over to England, where his machine was admired, and the workman rewarded according to his merit. The invention thus imparted to the Engliſh, they became ſo jealous thereof, that for a long time it was forbid, under pain of death, to carry any of the machines out of the iſland, or communicate a model thereof to foreigners. But as it was a Frenchman firſt enriched the nation with it, ſo a Frenchman firſt carried it abroad; and, by an extraordinary effort of memory and imagination, made a loom at Paris, on the idea he had formed thereof in a voyage he made to England. This loom, firſt ſet up in the year 1656, has ſerved for the model of all thoſe made in France and Holland.

The combing of wool, invented by Biſhop Blaze, added a farther improvement to the manufacture; and the eſtabliſhing of the mill for throwing of ſilk, at Derby, by Sir Thomas Lombe, has compleated it, and enabled the ſubjects of Great Britain, not only to furniſh themſelves and the Britiſh plantations with ſilk and worſted ſtockings, but many other parts of Europe.

Knit ſtockings are much preferable in durableneſs and ſtrength to thoſe made in the loom; but the time employed in knitting ſtockings of any fineneſs raiſes their price too much for common wear. The Scotch make the beſt knit ſtockings of any people in Europe, and ſell them at exorbitant rates; 30 s. for a pair of white knit ſtockings from Aberdeen being a common price, and ſome amounting to 4 l.

STOCKJOBBER. See *Broker*.

STOCKS, in ſhip-carpentry. A frame of timber, and great poſts, made aſhore, to build pinnaces, ketches, boats, and ſuch ſmall craft, and ſometimes ſmall frigates upon. It is hence we ſay, *a ſhip is on the ſtocks*, when ſhe is building.

STONE, in natural hiſtory. A hard, ſolid body, neither malleable, fuſible by fire, nor ſoluble in water, formed by ſucceſſion of time in the body of the earth.

Stones are of various kinds, with regard to the places they are produced in: the moſt ordinary are under ground; others in the bodies of men, and other animals; others ſeem to be generated by the ſea, as pumice, and the like; others the effect of a petrifying virtue in certain waters.

Of theſe, ſome ſerve ſimply for magnificence and ornaments; as all thoſe called

Precious STONES, which make the commerce of lapidaries and jewellers.

Others much more uſeful, if one might credit all the virtues attributed to them, are uſed in medicine; ſuch as bezoard, Jews-ſtone, eagles-ſtone, and many more.

Others again are uſed in painting; either to prepare colours from, by calcining and grinding them, or to be uſed as crayons or pencils for deſigning; of which number are the Armenian ſtone, black lead, and ruddle.

Laſtly, much the greateſt quantity, and thoſe too of the moſt immediate and common uſe, are thoſe employed in building; ſuch as free-ſtone, marble, lime-ſtone, and fire-ſtone. For

Free STONE, that dug in the peninſula of Portland, and thence called Portland ſtone, is much uſed; being ſofter and whiter than Purbec-ſtone, and is commonly raiſed out of the quarries in bigger blocks than that.

Some alſo call Ryegate, or fire-ſtone, free-ſtone.

Mr. Boyle obſerves, that a competent knowledge of the nature of the ſap or juice found in ſtones uſed in building, is of the laſt importance; the ſame ſtone dug out of the ſame quarry in one ſeaſon being found to moulder away in a few winters, which, dug at another ſeaſon, will brave the weather for many ages; and there are others, which, though dug at the proper ſeaſon, yet make but ruinous buildings, if uſed at an improper ſeaſon. The ſame author adds, that as there are ſome ſorts of ſtones which will decay in a few years, there are others will not have attained their full hardneſs in 30 or 40 years, or even much more.

STONE, alſo denotes a certain quantity or weight of ſome commodities. See *Weight*.

A ſtone of beef at London, is the quantity of 8 pounds, in Herefordſhire 12 pounds, in the North 16 pounds. A ſtone of glaſs is 5 pounds, of wax 8 pounds. A ſtone of wool, according to the ſtatute of the 11th of Henry VII. is to weigh 14 pounds; yet in ſome places it is more, in others leſs; as in Glouceſterſhire 15 pounds, in Herefordſhire 12 pounds. Among horſe-courſers, a ſtone is the weight of 14 pounds.

STONE-*blue*. A mineral preparation, properly called ſmalt. See *Smalt*.

STOOMING *of wine*. The putting bags of herbs, or other ingredients in it.

STOPPAGE. See *Payment*.

STORAX. A reſinous, odoriferous gum, brought from Syria; whereof there are two or three kinds, red ſtorax, ſtorax calamita, and liquid ſtorax.

Red or *dried* STORAX, called alſo *Jews incenſe*, is a gum or reſin oozing out at an inciſion made in the trunk and biggeſt branches of a tree called ſtorax, not unlike the quince-tree; whoſe fruit is of the ſize of a filberd, and contains a white, oily kernel, of a ſmell perfectly like ſtorax. It muſt be choſen in a maſs, of a reddiſh colour, ſoft and fat, with an agreeable ſmell, bearing no reſemblance to liquid ſtorax. That in cakes and balls is alſo ſophiſticated; being only a wretched compoſition of liquid ſtorax, with the impurities of the true red ſtorax, and other drugs: that in powder is ſtill worſe. Red ſtorax is of ſome uſe in medicine; and is alſo uſed by the perfumers, as well as often ſubſtituted for frankincenſe.

STORAX *calamita*, thus called from the ruſhes, or quills, it was anciently brought in, is by ſome held to be only a compoſition of ſeveral excellent drugs, and among the reſt red ſtorax, whence its name; though authors have generally taken it for a natural gum, different from the red ſtorax. Hoffman conjectures, that it only differs from the other in age, the ſtorax growing higher coloured with keeping. It muſt be choſen in fine white tears, very dry, and not bitter; ſometimes it is in reddiſh maſſes, full of theſe whitiſh tears, only mixed with a ruddy ſubſtance. Theſe two kinds are eſteemed excellent pectorals, ſtomachics, and cephalics.

Liquid STORAX, is a kind of factitious reſin, of a greyiſh colour, compounded of true ſtorax, common reſin of the pine-oil, and wine, beaten with water into the conſiſtence of an unguent. The druggiſts call it alſo ſtacte, to diſtinguiſh it, and ſell it for the better price.

The beſt is that of Holland: it is eaſily kept in a cellar, by pouring water on it from time to time; and is an ingredient in an unguent, which experience has ſhewn to be excellent againſt the ſcorbutus and gangrene.

STORE, or *Stores*, ſignifies the proviſions, ammunition, &c. provided for a ſhip.

The premium or bounty on naval ſtores imported, was firſt granted by the 3d and 4th of Queen Anne, and by the 24th of George II. continued till 1757.

The ſeveral ſorts of naval ſtores hereafter mentioned, imported directly from any of the Britiſh plantations in America, in any ſhip that may lawfully trade, manned as by law is required, are to enjoy the following bounty.

Hemp, water-rotted, bright and clean, the tun, containing 20 C. wt. -	6 00
Maſts, *Yards*, and *Bowſprits*, the tun, allowing 40 feet to each tun, girt-meaſure, according to the cuſtomary way of meaſuring round bodies - - -	1 00
Tar, clean, good, merchantable, well-conditioned, clear of droſs or water, and fit in every reſpect for making of cordage, the tun, containing 8 barrels, and each barrel to gauge 31½ gallons, to be well hooped and filled up	2 40
Tar, clean, good, merchantable, well-conditioned, clear of droſs or water, and fit in every reſpect for making of cordage, made from trees prepared according to the directions hereafter mentioned, the tun, containing 8 barrels, and each barrel to gauge 31½ gallons, to be well hooped and filled up, on the importation thereof - -	4 00
Pitch, clean, good, merchantable, and well-conditioned, not mixed with dirt or droſs, the tun, containing 20 groſs C. neat pitch, to be brought in 8 barrels of equal ſize -	1 00
Turpentine, clean, good, and merchantable, clear of droſs and water, the tun, containing 20 groſs C. neat turpentine, to be brought in 8 barrels of equal ſize - - -	1 10 0

Which premiums are to be paid by the commiſſioners of the navy, by bills to be made out for the ſame, and delivered to the importers within 20 days after the diſcharge or unlading of the ſhip, in order to be paid in courſe; upon certificate of the reſpective chief officers of the cuſtoms where imported; to whom a certificate has been produced under the hands and ſeals of the governor, lieutenant-governor, or collector of his Majeſty's cuſtoms, and naval officer, or any two of them, reſiding within any of his Majeſty's ſaid plantations, teſtifying, that, before departure of the ſhip, the perſon lading the ſame had made oath before them, that the ſaid ſtores were truly and *bona fide* of the growth and produce of his Majeſty's ſaid plantations; and with reſpect to the high bounty on tar, expreſſing, that it has appeared to them, the perſons ſo certifying, by the oath of the owner, or maker of the tar for which ſuch certificate was granted, that the tar herein mentioned was made from green trees prepared for that purpoſe, after the following manner; that is to ſay, that when ſuch trees were fit to bark, the bark thereof was ſtripped 8 feet, or thereabouts, up from the root of each tree, a ſlip of the bark of about 4 inches in breadth having been left on one ſide of each tree; and that each tree, after having been ſo barked, had ſtood during one year at the leaſt, and was not before cut down for the making of tar; and that the ſaid tar was made without mixture of any other tar therewith: as likewiſe

likewiſe upon oath to be made by the maſter of the ſhip, at the port of importation in Great Britain, that the ſame were ſhipped within ſome of his Majeſty's plantations in America; and that he knows, or believes, that the ſaid ſtores were the produce of the ſaid plantations.

But the aforeſaid certificates of the chief officers of the cuſtoms are not to be made out for the premium on pitch, until the ſame be freed from dirt or droſs; nor for any tar that is not fitting to be uſed for making of cordage, and ſhall not be freed from droſs and water, and unleſs ſuch pitch and tar be clean, good, mercantile, and well-conditioned.

And the ſaid officers of the cuſtoms, before they make out ſuch certificates, are to examine the pitch, by opening the heads of the barrels, ſawing of the ſtaves in the middle, and breaking the barrels, or by ſuch other means as they ſhall think proper, to diſcover whether the ſaid pitch is good and merchantable, not mixed with dirt or droſs; and alſo to examine and ſearch the ſaid tar, to diſcover whether the ſame is clean, good, merchantable, well-conditioned, clear of droſs or water, and fit for making of cordage.

By the 12th of Queen Anne, the naval ſtores hereafter mentioned, imported from North Britain to South Britain, in any ſhip built in Great Britain, are to enjoy the following bounty.

Hemp, water-rotted, bright and clean, the tun, containing 20 C. wt. -	6 0 0
Trees of 12 inches diameter and upwards, fit for *maſts*, *yards*, and *bowſprits*, regularly converted, and hewed at leaſt into eight ſquares, ſound, freſh, and in good and merchantable condition, the tun, allowing 40 feet to each tun, girt-meaſure, according to the cuſtomary way of meaſuring round bodies -	1 0 0

Which premiums are to be paid by the commiſſioners of the navy, by bills to be made out for the ſame, and delivered to the importers within 20 days after the diſcharge or unlading of the ſhip, in order to be paid in courſe; upon certificates of the reſpective chief officers of the cuſtoms where imported, to whom a certificate has been produced, under the hands and ſeals of the comptroller and collector of the cuſtoms, and the naval officer, or any two of them, reſiding at the port or ports of exportation in North Britain, teſtifying, that before the departure of the ſhip, the perſons concerned, or employed in cutting down the aforeſaid trees, or any two of them, had made affidavit in writing before ſuch comptroller and collector, and naval officer, or any two of them, that ſuch trees were truly and *bona fide* of the growth and produce of North Britain; and ſpecifying in the ſaid affidavit the particular number, quantity, and qualities of the trees, together with the time when they were cut down, the names of the proprietors, and the places where the ſame did grow; as likewiſe, upon oath to be made by the maſter of the ſhip, at the port of importation in South Britain; and that the ſame were truly laden within North Britain; and that he knows, or believes that the ſaid trees were of the growth of North Britain.

Perſons counterfeiting, or making falſe affidavits or certificates of the growth of the trees or hemp, in order to obtain the premium, are to ſuffer as for wilful and corrupt perjury, and to forfeit 100 l.

Comptrollers, collectors, or naval officers, making falſe certificates, are to forfeit their office, and 50 l. to be impriſoned a year without bail, to ſuffer ſuch corporal puniſhment as the court of exchequer ſhall think fit, and to be incapable of ſerving again in the cuſtoms.

Maſters or owners of ſhips knowingly importing foreign trees fit for maſts, &c. as of the product of North Britain, in order to obtain the bounty, are to forfeit 100 l. together with the ſhip and furniture.

Upon the landing of the aforeſaid ſtores and trees, the pre-emption or refuſal muſt be offered and tendered to the commiſſioners of the navy; and if, within 20 days after ſuch tender, they ſhall not contract for the ſame, the importers may otherwiſe diſpoſe of them.

No fee, gratuity, or reward, may be demanded or taken by the officers of the cuſtoms, for the examining, viewing, or delivering any of the aforeſaid naval ſtores, or for making or ſigning certificates, in order to receive the premium; upon forfeiture of office and 100 l. and to be rendered incapable of ſerving his Majeſty.

And if any of the aforeſaid naval ſtores, except hemp or trees, ſhall be again exported, the exporter muſt, before entry thereof, produce to the collector, &c. of the cuſtoms, at the port of exportation, a receipt from the treaſurer of the navy, or his caſhier, ſubſcribed by his comptroller, or his chief clerk, ſignifying that the full amount of the aforeſaid premium had been repaid to him; on failure whereof, ſuch ſtores may not be exported: and if ſuch ſtores are fraudulently exported without repayment of the premium, they are forfeited, and double the value.

And if, upon the exportation of the aforeſaid ſtores, doubts ſhall ariſe concerning the growth, product, or manufacture, the *onus probandi* ſhall lie on the owner or claimer thereof.

Bill of STORE. See *Bill* of ſtore.

Naval STORES, are hemp, maſts, yards, bowſprits, pitch, and turpentine.

STOWAGE, in the ſea-language. The putting of goods orderly into the hold of a ſhip, the moſt ponderous next the ballaſt.

STRAIGHT, *Streight*, or *Strait*, in hydrography. A narrow ſea, or gut, ſhut up between lands on either ſide, and affording a paſſage out of one great ſea into another. See *Sea*, and *Ocean*.

The moſt celebrated ſtraight in the world, is that of Gibraltar, which is about 130 miles long, and 12 broad, joining the Mediterranean ſea with the Atlantic ocean. The ſtraights of Magellan, diſcovered in 1520 by F. Magellan, were uſed for ſome time as a paſſage out of the North into the South ſea: but ſince the year 1616, that the ſtraight of Le Maire has been diſcovered, the former has been diſuſed; both becauſe of its length, which is full 300 miles; and becauſe the navigation thereof is very dangerous, from the waves of the North and South ſeas meeting herein, and claſhing. The ſtraight at the entrance of the Baltic is called the Sound. See *Sound*.

That between England and France, Le Pas de Calais, or the Channel.

There are alſo the ſtraights of Babel-Mandel, of Weigats, of Jeſſo, of Anian, of Davis, and Hudſon.

STRAIGHT, is alſo uſed in geography for an iſthmus, or neck of land between two ſeas, preventing the communication thereof.

STRAINED *ſugar*. See *Sugar*.

STRAIT. See *Straight*.

STRALSUND. A ſtrong city and port-town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and duchy of Pomerania, ſituated on the Baltic ſea, oppoſite to Rugen, in 13 deg. 22 min. of E. lon. and 54 deg. 23 min. of N. lat. 65 miles eaſt of Wiſmer, ſubject to Sweden.

STRAND, and *Stream*, in ancient cuſtoms. A freedom from all impoſitions upon goods and veſſels, by land or water.

STRANDED. When a ſhip is by tempeſt, or ill ſteerage, run on ground, and ſo periſhes.

STRANGFROD. A town of Ireland, which gives name to a lough and bay, in the county of Down, and province of Ulſter, ſituated in 54 deg. 24 min. of N. lat. 9 miles eaſt of Down.

STRAP, in a ſhip, is a rope ſpliced about a block, to faſten it any where that it is to be uſed.

STRASBURG. A city of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, capital of the landgravate of Alſace, ſituated in 7 deg. 75 min. of E. lon. and 48 deg. 38 min. of N. lat. near the weſt bank of the river Rhine, ſubject to France.

STREAM-*anchor*, is a ſmall anchor made faſt to a ſtream-cable, for a ſhip to ride by in gentle ſtreams, and in fair weather. See *Anchor*.

STRETCH. When at ſea they are going to hoiſt the yard, or hale the ſheet, they ſay, ſtretch forward the ſheets;

ſheets; meaning, that the part which the men are to hale by, ſhould be put into their hands, in order to their haling.

STRIKE, or *Stryke*. A meaſure, containing two buſhels.

A STRIKE *of flax*, is as much as can be heckled at one handful.

STRIKE, is a ſea-word variouſly uſed. When a ſhip in a fight, or upon meeting with a man of war, lets down or lowers her top-ſails, at leaſt half maſt high, they ſay ſhe ſtrikes; meaning, ſhe yields or ſubmits, or pays her reſpect to the man of war as ſhe paſſes by. See *Flag*.

And when any thing is let down, or lowered, into the hold, they call it ſtriking down into the hold. When a top-maſt is to be taken down, they ſay, ſtrike down the top-maſt. Alſo, when a ſhip touches ground in a ſhoal-water, they ſay, ſhe ſtrikes.

STROMBOLI. One of the Lipari iſlands, in the Neapolitan ſea, ſituated in 15 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 39 deg. 14 min. of N. lat. 50 miles north of Meſſina.

STUC, or *Stucco*, in building. A compoſition of white marble pulveriſed, and mixed with plaiſter and lime; the whole ſifted, and wrought up with water, to be uſed like common plaiſter; of which are made ſtatues, buſts, baſſo relievos, and other ornaments of architecture. See *Statue*.

STUFF, in commerce. A general name for all kinds of fabrics of gold, ſilver, ſilk, wool, hair, cotton, or thread, manufactured on the loom; of which number are velvets, brocades, mohair, ſattins, taffeties, cloth, and ſerges. See *Cloth*, *Velvet*, and *Brocade*.

STUFF, is particularly uſed for certain kinds of ſlight woollen ſtuffs, uſed principally for hangings, linings, and womens wear, as linſeys, ratteens, and the like: but for the drawback, ſee Drawback on *Silk*.

STUM. The flower of wine ſet a working: hence, to ſtum, is to put certain ingredients into ſick and decayed wine, in order to revive it, and make it briſk.

STURGEON. A large ſea-fiſh, which aſcends freſh water rivers; having its mouth pointed, belly flat, and back bluiſh.

There are ſturgeons of all ſorts of ſizes; but the ſmaller ſort is beſt for eating; and their roes are a conſiderable article in commerce. See *Cavia*, and Sturgeon *Fiſhery*.

STUYVER, or *Stiver*. The common ſol of Holland, worth 8 duyts, or 1 $\frac{1}{20}$ d. ſterling.

The ſtuyver of Cologn is 8 duyts, or $\frac{7}{10}$ d. ſterling, and the ſtuyver of Flanders is worth 2 grotes, or $\frac{27}{28}$ d. ſterling.

STYLE, in chronology, denotes a particular manner of accounting time, with regard to the retrenchment of ten days from the calendar year, in the reformation made thereof under Pope Gregory XIII. Style is either old or new.

Old STYLE, is the Julian manner of computing, which obtained in England till the year 1752, and is ſtill made uſe of in ſome proteſtant ſtates, who refuſed to admit of the reformation.

New STYLE, is the Gregorian manner, followed by the catholics, and others, in conſequence of that reformation. Hence there has ariſen a difference of ten days between the old ſtyle and the new, the latter being ſo much before-hand with the former; ſo that when the catholics reckoned the 21ſt of May, the Engliſh reckoned the 11th. The difference of ten days was increaſed in the year 1707 to eleven days, by reaſon that year was not the biſſextile in the old ſtyle, but was in the new; ſo that the 10th day of the one correſponded with the 21ſt of the other.

There are ſeveral places, however, where the new ſtyle has begun to obtain, even among proteſtants. At the diet of Ratiſbon, in 1700, it was decreed by the body of proteſtants of the empire, that eleven days ſhould be retrenched from the old ſtyle, to accommodate it for the future to the new; and the ſame regulation has ſince paſſed in Sweden and Denmark, and lately in England; ſo that it is probable the old ſtyle will ſoon dwindle quite away.

SUBJECT. A perſon under the rule and dominion of a ſovereign prince or ſtate: but of ſubjects, ſome are ſo by birth, and others by acts of naturalization. See *Alien*, *Denizen*, and *Naturalization*.

SUBLIMATE. A chemical preparation, the baſis whereof is mercury or quickſilver. See *Mercury*.

SUBLIMATION, in chemiſtry. An operation which differs little from diſtillation; except that in diſtillation only the fluid parts of bodies are raiſed, but in ſublimation the ſolid and dry; and that the matter to be diſtilled may be either ſolid or fluid: but ſublimation is only concerned about ſolid ſubſtances.

There is alſo another difference, namely, that rarefaction, which is of very great uſe in diſtillation, has hardly any room in ſublimation; for the ſubſtances which are to be ſublimed being ſolid, are incapable of rarefaction; and ſo it is only impulſe can raiſe them.

SUBREPTITIOUS, or *Surreptitious*. A term applied to a letter, licence, patent, or other act, fraudulently obtained of a ſuperior, by concealing ſome truth, which, had it been known, would have prevented the conceſſion or grant.

The benefit of letters, licences, grants, and patents, is forfeited, when they are found contrary to the informations given; they being then reputed ſubreptitious.

SUBSCRIPTION. The ſignature put at the bottom of a letter, writing, or inſtrument.

SUBSCRIPTION, in the Engliſh commerce, is uſed for the ſhare or intereſt which any particular perſons take in a public ſtock, or a trading company, by writing their names, and the ſhares they require, in the books of the regiſter thereof. See *Company*, and *Fund*.

The French have likewiſe adopted the word *ſubſcription*, uſing it in ſpeaking of the actions of their India company.

A ſubſcription differs from an action, in that the firſt is properly only an action begun, or an engagement, by making the firſt payment, to acquit the reſt in the time limited; and that the other is the whole action, performed in all its parts.

SUBSCRIPTION, in the commerce of books, ſignifies an engagement to take a certain number of copies of a book going to be printed, and a reciprocal obligation of the bookſeller and publiſher to deliver the ſaid copies on certain terms.

The uſual conditions of theſe ſubſcriptions are, on the part of the bookſeller, to afford the books cheaper to a ſubſcriber than to another, by 1-3d or 1-4th of the price; and on the part of the latter, to advance half the money in hand, and to pay the reſt on the delivery of the copies: an agreement equally advantageous to the one and the other; as the bookſeller is hereby furniſhed with money to carry on works, which would be otherwiſe above his ſtock; and the ſubſcribers receive, as it were, intereſt for their money, by the moderate price the book ſtands them in.

Subſcriptions had their riſe in England; and it is but very lately they are got into other countries. They were firſt ſet on foot in the middle of the laſt century, for the printing of Walton's Polyglott Bible, which was the firſt book ever printed by way of ſubſcription. From England they paſſed a few years ago into Holland, and are very lately introduced into France. F. Montfaucon's collection of antiquities was the firſt book publiſhed there by ſubſcriptions, which were ſo numerous that great numbers were refuſed. The ſame method has been ſince propoſed for the publication of St. Chryſoſtom by the Benedictines, but not with equal ſucceſs

The other books ſince printed in France by ſubſcription, are M. Dacier's tranſlation of Plutarch's lives; the deſcription of Verſailles; and F. Daniel's hiſtory of the French militia.

In England they are become exceedingly frequent; and their frequency has rendered them liable to ſome abuſes, which begin to diſcredit them.

SUBSIDY, in law. An aid, tax, or tribute, granted by authority of parliament to the King, on preſſing occaſions of ſtate, levied on the ſubjects according to their ſeveral abilities, or the yearly value of their lands and goods

Such is the land-tax, or royal aid, as it is called, which

is uſually at the rate 2, 3, or 4 s. in the pound for lands, and of 2 s. 8 d. for goods and perſonal eſtate, when of 4 s. for land.

The ancient Saxon kings had no ſubſidies collected after the preſent manner; having, inſtead thereof, ſeveral cuſtoms, whereby they levied money or perſonal ſervice on the people, for the repairing of cities, caſtles, bridges, and military expeditions; which they called burgbote, brigbote, herefare, and heregeld: but, upon the lands becoming oppreſſed by the Danes, King Ethelred, in the year 1007, agreed to pay them yearly 10,000 l. for redemption of peace; which ſum was afterwards increaſed to 36,000 l. and at length to 48,000 l. which was called Danegeld, and was levied on land; each hide, or plough-land, that of the church only excepted, being aſſeſſed 12 d. Hence the tribute came to be called hideage, a name that afterwards became common to all taxes and ſubſidies impoſed on lands; as thoſe on cattle were called hornegeld.

Both theſe the Normans ſometimes called taxes, from the Greek word ταξις, order; ſometimes from their own language *taillage*; and ſometimes according to the cuſtom beyond ſea, *ſubſidia*, and *auxilia*.

After the conqueſt, theſe ſubſidies ſeem to have been granted differently from what they now are; as every ninth lamb, every ninth fleece, every ninth ſheep, and the like. Sometimes the rate was every tenth, and ſometimes every fifteenth.

In the liſt of the Engliſh duties, or impoſitions, are divers kinds of ſubſidies; as old ſubſidy, additional impoſition to the old ſubſidy, new ſubſidy, third ſubſidy, and two-thirds ſubſidy. See *Duty*, and *Cuſtom*.

SUBSTITUTE, in medicine, denotes a drug, or remedy, that may be uſed inſtead of another, or that ſupplies the place of another of like virtue, which is not to be had; called alſo ſuccedaneum. See *Succedaneum*.

The root of the great centaury, and ſometimes rhaponticum, are uſed as ſubſtitutes to rhubarb.

SUBSTRACTION, or *Subtraction*, in arithmetic. The ſecond rule, or rather operation therein, whereby we deduct a leſs number from a greater, to learn the preciſe difference: or, more juſtly, ſubtraction is the finding a certain number from homogenous ones given; which, with one of the given numbers, is equal to the other. See *Arithmetic*.

SUBTILIZATION. The act of ſubtilizing, or rendering any thing ſmaller or ſubtiler; particularly, the diſſolving or changing a mixed body into a pure liquor, or a fine powder, by ſeparating the groſſer parts therefrom.

SUCCEDANEUM. A remedy ſubſtituted in the place of another firſt preſcribed, when the ingredients are wanting neceſſary for the compoſition of the other. See *Subſtitute*.

Subſtitute and ſuccedaneum are of the ſame import; unleſs, with ſome authors, we chuſe to uſe ſubſtitute, where a ſimple of like virtue is put for another; and ſuccedaneum, where a compound is uſed for the ſame purpoſe.

SUCCINUM, in pharmacy. A bituminous juice or reſin, which from a fluor grows hard and brittle. See *Amber*.

The whiteſt and moſt tranſparent is accounted beſt. It is of no great uſe in medicine by itſelf, as its texture ſeems too compact to open and yield to the natural concoctions; though ſome have a great opinion of it as a balſamic, and give it in gonorrhœas particularly. But what pharmacy extorts from it is of great efficacy, eſpecially in nervous caſes.

SUCCISA. A medicinal alexipharmic herb, called alſo *morſus diaboli*, or the devil's bit.

This is a powerful ſudorific; inſomuch that Sir Theodore Mayerne obſerves, in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, that laying a perſon ſick of the plague, or other malignant fever, on a bed thereof, moderately hot, he ſhall ſweat till they take him off; and much more, if he drinks of the decoction or juice of the herb: but the ſucciſſa is now little uſed.

SUCCOTRINE *aloes*. See *Aloes*.

SUDKOPPING. A Daniſh town, on the iſland of Falſter. See *Denmark*.

SUET. A kind of fat found in deer, ſheep, oxen, and hogs; which, when melted down and clarified, makes what is called tallow, uſed in the making of candles. See *Tallow*.

SUEZ. A port-town of Egypt, ſituated in 34 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 30 deg. of N. lat. at the bottom of the gulph called the Red ſea, 70 miles eaſt of Grand Cairo. See *Egypt*.

SUFFERANCE, is the ſame as permiſſion, allowance, leave, or forbearance. See *Permit*.

Bill of SUFFERANCE. See *Bill* of ſufferance.

SUGAR. A very ſweet agreeable juice, expreſſed from a kind of canes, or reeds, growing in great plenty in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, particularly in Braſil, and the Caribbee iſlands. It is a queſtion not yet decided among botaniſts, whether the ancients were acquainted with this cane, and whether they knew how to expreſs the juice from the ſame? What we can get from the arguments advanced on either ſide is, that, if they knew the cane and the juice, they did not know the art of condenſing, hardening, and whitening it; ſo, of conſequence, knew nothing of our ſugar.

Some ancient authors indeed ſeem to mention ſugar under the name of Indian ſalt; but they add, that it oozed out of the cane of itſelf, hardened there like gum, and was even friable between the teeth, like our common ſalt; whereas ſugar is expreſſed by a machine on purpoſe, and coagulated by the fire. Theirs, Salmaſius tells us, was cooling and looſening; whereas ours, the ſame writer aſſerts, is hot, and excites thirſt. Hence ſome have imagined, that ancient and modern ſugar plants were different; but Mathiolus, on Dioſcorides, c. 75. makes no doubt they were the ſame; and others are even of opinion, that ours has a laxative virtue, as well as that of the ancients, and that it purges pituita.

The generality of authors, however, agree, that the ancient ſugar was much better than the modern; as conſiſting of only the fineſt and matureſt parts, which made themſelves a paſſage, and were condenſed in the air.

The interpreters of Avicenna and Serapion call ſugar ſpodium, the Perſians tabaxir, and the Indians mambu. Salmaſius aſſures us, that the Arabs have uſed the art of making ſugar, ſuch as we now have it, above eight hundred years.

Another queſtion among naturaliſts is, whether the ſugar-canes be originally of the Weſt Indies, or whether they have been tranſplanted rather from the Eaſt? The learned of theſe laſt ages have been much divided on the point: but, ſince the diſſertation of M. Labat, a dominican miſſionary, publiſhed in 1722, there is no longer room to doubt, that the ſugar-cane is as natural to America as India: all that can be ſaid in favour of the latter is, that the Spaniards and Portugueſe firſt learned from the Orientals the art of expreſſing its juice, boiling it, and reducing it into ſugar.

Culture of the SUGAR-*cane*. The reed, or cane, from whence this uſeful juice is drawn, reſembles thoſe others we ſee in moraſſes, and on the edges of lakes; excepting that the ſkin of theſe latter is hard and dry, and their pulp void of juice: whereas the ſkin of the ſugar-reed is ſoft, and the ſpongeous matter, or pith, it contains, very juicy; though that in a greater or leſſer degree, according to the goodneſs of the ſoil, its expoſure to the ſun, the ſeaſon it is cut in, and its age; which four circumſtances contribute greatly to its goodneſs and its bulk.

The ſugar-cane uſually grows five or ſix feet high, and about half an inch in diameter; though F. Labat mentions ſome extraordinary ones in the iſland of Tobago 24 feet high. The ſtem or ſtalk is divided by knots, a foot and half apart. At the top it puts forth a number of long, green, tufted leaves, from the middle whereof ariſe the flower and the ſeed. There are likewiſe leaves ſpringing out from each knot; but theſe uſually fall as the cane riſes; and it is a ſign either that the cane is bad, or that it is far from its maturity, when the knots are ſeen beſet with leaves.

The ground fit for ſugar-canes, is that which is light, ſoft, and ſpongy; lying on a deſcent proper to carry off the water, and well turned to the ſun. They uſually plant them in pieces, cut a foot and a half below the top of the flower. Theſe are ordinarily ripe in ten

months

months, though ſometimes not till fifteen; at which time they are found full of a white ſucculent marrow, whence is expreſſed the liquor whereof ſugar is made. When ripe, they are cut, their leaves cleared off, and they are carried in bundles to the mills. The mills conſiſt of three wooden rollers, covered with ſteel plates; and have their motion either from the water, the wind, cattle, or the hands of ſlaves. See Sugar-*Mill*.

Two rules belonging hereto are, that no canes above four feet, or under two feet and a half long, be ſent to the mills; and that no more canes be cut than can be conveniently preſſed in 24 hours, in regard they will heat, ferment, and turn ſour.

Preparation of SUGAR. The juice coming out of the canes, when preſſed and broke between the rollers, runs through a little canal into the ſugar-houſe, where it is purified by repeated boilings; and, thus paſſing ſucceſſively a number of coppers, the juice is thickened, and rendered fit to be converted into any of the kinds of ſugar hereafter mentioned.

The ſize of the ſeveral coppers always diminiſhes, from the firſt to the laſt; each being furniſhed with a furnace, to give a heat proportionable to the degree of coction the juice has received. In ſome large ſugar-works, there are alſo particular coppers for the boiling and preparing the ſcums.

F. Labat mentions ſeveral different kinds of ſugar prepared in the Caribbees; ſuch as crude ſugar, or moſcovado; ſtrained, or brown ſugar; earthed, or white ſugar, in powder; refined ſugar, either in powder or loaves; royal ſugar; candied ſugar; ſugar of fine ſyrop; ſugar of coarſe ſyrop; and ſugar of the ſcum.

Crude SUGAR, or *moſcovado*, is that firſt drawn from the juice of the cane, and whereof all the reſt are compoſed.

Strained, or *Brown* SUGAR, though whiter and harder, does not differ much from the crude ſugar; but it is held a medium between this laſt and the earthed ſugar, which is the white powder-ſugar.

The invention of ſtrained ſugar is owing to the Engliſh, who are more careful than their neighbours in the preparation hereof; for they not only ſtrain it, but, when boiled, put it in ſquare wooden moulds of a pyramidical figure; and, when it has purified itſelf well, they cut it in pieces, dry it in the ſun, and barrel it up.

Earthed SUGAR, is that which is whitened by means of earth laid upon the top of the forms it is put in, to purge itſelf.

SUGAR *of the ſcum*. This is all made of the ſcum of the two laſt coppers; thoſe of the former being reſerved for making of rum.

The ſcum deſtined to make ſugar, is kept in a veſſel for that purpoſe, and boiled every morning in a copper ſet apart for that uſe: with the ſcum is put into the copper a fourth part of water, to retard the boiling, and give time for its purging: when it begins to boil, the uſual lee is put in, and it is carefully ſcummed; when almoſt enough boiled, lime and alum water are thrown in; and when it is ready to be taken out, they ſprinkle it with a little powdered alum.

SUGAR *of ſyrop*, or *treacle*. There are three kinds of ſyrops that run from ſugar; the firſt, from the barrels of raw ſugar, which is the coarſeſt of all; the ſecond, from the forms or moulds, after they are perforated, and before they receive their earth; the third, that coming from the forms after they have had their earth; which laſt is the beſt.

The coarſe ſyrops ſhould only be uſed for rum; but, ſugar being grown dear, endeavours have been uſed to make ſome hereof, and that with tolerable ſucceſs. They are firſt clarified with lime-water; and, when boiled, are put up in barrels, with a ſugar-cane in the middle, to make them purify themſelves; after 20 days, a quantity of coarſe earth is thrown in, to make them caſt the remainder of their ſyrop, and fit them to be returned into a crude ſugar. The Dutch and German refiners firſt taught the iſlanders how to turn their treacle into ſugar.

Refined SUGAR. Crude ſugar, ſtrained ſugar, and the heads or tops of loaves that have not been whitened well, are the baſis or ground of this ſugar. In the refiner are uſually two coppers, the one ſerving to clarify, the other to boil the clarified liquor; though they ſometimes clarify in both, and boil afterwards. For the operation of refining, the ſame weight of lime-water and ſugar are put into the copper; and as the ſcum is raiſed by the heat, it is taken off; and when it ceaſes to riſe any more, the ſyrop is ſtrained through a cloth: after this it is clarified, by throwing in a dozen of eggs, white, yolk, ſhell, and all, having firſt broke and beaten them well in lime-water. When the fat, and other impurities of the ſugar, which this compoſition gathers together on the ſurface of the ſyrop, have been ſcummed off; a few more eggs are thrown in, and it is ſcummed afreſh; which method they repeat till the ſugar is well clarified; and, this done, it is again ſtrained through the cloth.

When taken out of this copper, it is boiled in a ſecond; which done, it is put out into coolers, the bottoms whereof are firſt covered half an inch with fine white powdered ſugar: as ſoon as it is there, it is briſkly ſtirred about, and the ſurface ſtrewed over with powder-ſugar. The reſt is performed as in ſugars of ſyrops, or as in earthed ſugar; only more care and exactneſs muſt be uſed. See *Refining*.

Royal SUGAR. The baſis of this ſort ought to be the fineſt refined ſugar that can be found, which they melt with a weak lime-water; and ſometimes, to make it the whiter, and prevent the lime from reddening it, they uſe alum-water: in this manner they clarify it three times, and paſs it as often through a cloth, uſing the very beſt earth. Thus prepared, it is whiter than ſnow, and ſo tranſparent that we ſee a finger touching it, even through the thickeſt part of the loaf.

SUGAR-*candy*, is ſugar depurated and chryſtallized. This is better made of earthed than refined ſugar, becauſe the former is ſweeter. The ſugar to be uſed herein, is firſt diſſolved in a weak lime-water, then clarified, ſcummed, ſtrained through a cloth, and boiled; after which it is put into forms or moulds that are traverſed with little rods, to retain the ſugar as it chryſtallizes. Theſe forms are ſuſpended in a hot ſtove, with a pot underneath to receive the ſyrop that drops out at the hole in the bottom, which is half ſtopped, that the filtration may be the gentler. When the forms are full, the ſtove is ſhut up, and the fire made very vehement: hereupon the ſugar faſtens to the ſticks that croſs the forms, and there hangs in little ſplinters of chryſtal. When the ſugar is quite dry, the forms are broke, and the ſugar taken out and candied. Red ſugar-candy they make, by caſting into the veſſel where the ſugar is boiling, a little of the juice of the Indian fig; and if it is deſired to be perfumed, they caſt a drop of ſome eſſence in, when the ſugar is putting into the forms. This method of making ſugar-candy is that mentioned by F. Labat as practiſed in the Caribbees: but the method in Europe, deſcribed by Pomet, is ſomewhat different.

White SUGAR-*candy*, is made of white refined ſugar, boiled with water into a thick ſyrop, in a large pan, candied in a ſtove, where it is carried, incloſed in braſs peels, croſſed with little rods, about which the chryſtals faſten, as they are formed. The fire of this ſtove is kept equable for 15 days; after which the ſugar is taken out of the peels to be dried. Red or brown ſugar-candy is made like the white, except that they only uſe brown ſugar and earthen pots.

Barley-SUGAR, is a ſugar boiled till it is brittle, and then caſt on a ſtone anointed with oil of ſweet almonds, and formed into twiſted ſticks, about the length of the hands, and the thickneſs of the finger: but it ſhould be boiled up with a decoction of barley, whence it takes its name; though, inſtead thereof, they now generally uſe common water, to make the ſugar finer; and, to give it the brighter amber colour, they ſometimes put a little ſaffron into it. This is found very good for the cure of colds and rheums.

SUGAR *of roſes*, is white ſugar clarified, and boiled into a conſiſtence in roſe-water. When boiled, they form it into lozenges, ſometimes into little grains, of the ſize of peas, by keeping it ſtirring till it is cold and dry. This is

is reputed good to ſoften and allay acrimonies of the lungs and breaſt.

It is univerſally allowed, that the Britiſh ſugar colonies are of the greateſt conſequence and advantage to the trade and navigation of Great Britain; but yet it may not be amiſs to ſtate to the public in what that advantage conſiſts; becauſe it may ſerve to ſet them in a better light, and give a different notion of the nature of that traffic, than what has hitherto been offered to the conſideration of thoſe whoſe particular ſtations appoint them to redreſs all manner of grievances.

By the beſt computation which can be made, the ſugar-colonies, on an average, annually produce 85,000 hogſheads of ſugar, of 1000 lb. wt. each, which uſually clear to the planter, when ſugars bear a middling price, 10 l. a hogſhead, amounting to 850,000 l. This ſum, or much the greateſt part of it, is ſpent in England, by the ſeveral proprietors of eſtates in the Weſt Indies, who live there; or is ſent out annually in the manufactures of Great Britain, either directly to the ſugar-colonies, or to the coaſt of Guinea, to purchaſe negroes for the uſe of theſe colonies.

Beſides this neat produce of ſugar, another great advantage ariſes from the ſugar-colony trade, and that is, the great number of ſhips and ſeamen, employed and maintained in the courſe of the Britiſh commerce with them. As near as can be calculated, there are 300 ſail of ſhips ſent from Great Britain, not to mention thoſe from other places, every year to the ſugar-colonies, which are navigated by about 4500 ſeamen; and the freight from the ſugars brought home amounts to 170,000 l. *per annum*; the duty and commiſſions to little leſs than 200,000 l. more, for the duty amounts to 4 s. 10 d. the hundred weight; which, upon the whole, is a good 1,200,000 l. a year profit and advantage to Great Britain. So that Sir Joſiah Child juſtly obſerved, "That it is in his Ma-"jeſty's power, and the parliament's, if they pleaſe, by "taking off all charges on ſugar, to make it more en-"tirely an Engliſh commodity than white herrings are "a Dutch commodity, and to draw more profit to the "kingdom thereby than the Dutch do by that; and "that, in conſequence thereof, all plantations of other "nations muſt in few years ſink to little or nothing."

At preſent, the Britiſh ſugar-iſlands are in a very bad and languiſhing condition, their duties high, their plantations poor, their ſoil worn out, and their fortifications deſtroyed: beſides, the French ſugar-iſlands are much larger, more fruitful, better inhabited, pay leſs duties, and have much greater encouragement from France, than the Britiſh colonies have from Great Britain.

If the Britiſh ſugar-iſlands, for want of being put into a poſture of defence, ſhould either be taken, as ſome have been, or moulder away, and come to ruin, it would be one of the greateſt blows the Britiſh nation could receive: it would then loſe the benefit of all their product imported home; it would loſe the exports of its woollen and other manufactures thither, to the amount of ſeveral hundred thouſand pounds a year; it would loſe in a great meaſure the trade to Guinea; it would loſe the maintaining and employing of many hundred ſhips, and many thouſand Britiſh ſeamen, every year; and, laſtly, it would loſe one of the moſt conſiderable and main branches of its funds; the deficiency of which muſt be made good, and the weight and burden fall entirely upon the land and trade of Great Britain.

Now, if it can be proved, that the Britiſh ſugar-colonies, upon a proper encouragement, might be improved ſufficiently to make as much more rum and ſugar as they do; it will follow, that the Britiſh ſugar-colonies may take off all the New England lumber.

Barbadoes, one of the Britiſh ſugar-colonies, is allowed to be at its perfection, and perhaps incapable of being further improved ſo as to increaſe its annual product.

Antigua is capable of further improvement, and may enlarge its product of ſugar, according to the beſt computations, at leaſt one-fifth part annually. As to the product of rum there, it may certainly be enlarged near one-half upon proper encouragement: for the rum it now makes is not quite one-half of its product of ſugar; that is to ſay, if Antigua makes 20,000 hogſheads of ſugar a year, its product of rum is not quite 10,000. But it is evident, from the experience of Barbadoes, that out of 20,000 hogſheads of ſugar, there ought to be made 14,000 hogſheads of rum; and this increaſe, both of ſugar and rum in Antigua, would certainly be made, if there was proper encouragement.

Montſerat, Nevis, and St. Chriſtopher's, for want of encouragement, ſeldom make one hogſhead of rum for three hogſheads of ſugar; whereas it is evident, by the experience of Barbadoes, that three hogſheads of ſugar ought to produce two hogſheads of rum; conſequently the product of rum in theſe three iſlands might be, upon proper encouragement, advanced to as much more as it now is. Add to this, the improvement to be made in thoſe iſlands, by which the quantity of ſugar would be increaſed; it will follow ſtill further, that the quantity of rum which thoſe iſlands are capable of making would be as much more as they make at preſent, and conſequently the demand for lumber would be proportionable.

Jamaica, the largeſt of all the Britiſh ſugar-colonies, nay bigger than all the reſt put together, is yet in its infancy; having now as much land uncultivated as would produce above three times more than it does at preſent, were it cultivated, as it certainly would be upon proper encouragement.

It appeared by the cuſtom-houſe books, that all the Britiſh colonies annually produce about 100,000 hogſheads of ſugar, and they ought in proportion to make 70,000 hogſheads of rum.

A gentleman, who reſided a long time in the Weſt Indies, has affirmed, that the Engliſh ſugar-colonies, under their preſent improvement, annually make 40,000 hogſheads of rum; and could make, had they a demand for them, above 50,000 hogſheads in the ſame ſpace of time, beſides what thoſe large tracts of uncultivated land would produce, if the inhabitants met with proper encouragement to till them; for in the ſugar-colonies, which lie at ſo great a diſtance from each other, and are rivals in this point of trade, by the production of the ſame commodities, a monopoly is impracticable. There is little or no intercourſe, or leſs commerce, between thoſe of them that are ſituated neareſt to the others, and no intercourſe at all between the remoteſt of theſe iſlands; becauſe the produce of them all being the ſame, there can be no exchange of commodities, and conſequently no commerce or intercourſe.

The average-price upon the muſcovado ſugars of different qualities in 1749, was 26 s. 6 d. the hundred weight; in 1750 it was 30 s. the hundred; in 1751 it was 29 s. in 1752 it was 32 s. and in 1753 the average-price was augmented to 40 s. the hundred weight, which was occaſioned by hurricanes in the ſugar-colonies.

Drawback on Britiſh refined ſugar. By the ſtatute of the 9th and 10th of William III. it was enacted, That upon the oath of the refiner, that it was produced from brown and muſcovado ſugars, which he verily believes were imported from the Britiſh plantations in America, the duty thereof duly paid at importation, and that the ſame was duly exported; and upon the ſearcher's certificate of the ſhipping and performance of other requiſites of law, according to the book of rates, there muſt be repaid out of the new ſubſidy, for every hundred weight exported, the ſum of 3 s.

By the 2d and 3d of Anne, that out of the one-third ſubſidy, for every 100 weight ſo exported, there ſhould be an allowance of 1 s.

By the 6th Geo. II. a further allowance of 2 s. was granted for every 100 weight exported. The two former allowances of 3 s. and 1 s. to continue during the new and one-third ſugar ſubſidies, on the importation of brown and muſcovado ſugars.

By the ſtatute of the 12th of George II. for granting a liberty to carry ſugars of the growth, produce, or manufacture of any of his Majeſty's ſugar-colonies in America, from the ſaid colonies directly to foreign parts, in ſhips built in Great Britain, and navigated according to law; it was enacted, That any of his Majeſty's ſubjects, in any veſſel built in Great Britain, and navigated according

cording to law, and belonging to his Majeſty's ſubjects, of whom the major part ſhould be reſiding in Great Britain, and the reſidue reſiding either in Great Britain, or ſome of the ſaid ſugar-colonies, and not elſewhere, that ſhould clear outwards in any port of Great Britain, for any of the ſaid colonies, might load in the ſaid colonies any ſugars, of the growth and manufacture of the ſaid colonies, and might carry the ſame to any foreign part of Europe; provided a licence was firſt taken out for that purpoſe under the hands of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms at London or Edinburgh, ſubject to ſuch regulations and conditions as are hereafter mentioned. That in ſuch caſe no tobacco, melaſſes, ginger, cotton, wool, indigo, fuſtic, or other dying wood, tar, pitch, turpentine, hemp, maſt-yards, bowſprits, copper ore, beaver-ſkins, or other furs, of the growth and manufacture of any Britiſh plantation in America, ſhould be taken on board ſuch ſhip, unleſs for the neceſſary proviſions in her voyage; and that ſuch ſhip, before ſhe proceeds to any foreign part, ſhould touch at ſome port in Great Britain; and that the maſter or commander ſhould deliver to the collector and comptroller of ſuch port, a true manifeſt, atteſted upon oath, or affirmation, of the lading, mentioning the marks, numbers, package, and contents of all the goods on board; and ſhould alſo bring back the ſaid licence, with a certificate indorſed, or affixed thereto, containing an account of the marks, number, package, contents, and ſorts of ſugar on board ſuch ſhip, in the manner hereafter directed; and that when ſuch ſhip hath diſcharged her lading, the danger of the ſeas and enemies excepted, ſhe ſhould return to Great Britain within eight months after ſhe has delivered her lading in any foreign part, and before ſhe returns to any of the plantations in America; and that in caſe ſuch veſſel ſhould take on board any merchandiſe, before her return to Great Britain, all ſuch merchandiſes, that ſhould remain on board the ſaid ſhip on her arrival in Great Britain, ſhould be entered and landed, in like manner as other ſhips importing goods into the kingdom, are obliged to do by the laws of the cuſtoms, or otherwiſe ſuch bond ſhould be forfeited. That one of the ſaid copies ſhould be tranſmitted to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in Great Britain, by whom the licence was granted, when the ſhip ſailed from Great Britain, and the maſter ſhould proceed from the ſaid colonies directly to Great Britain, without putting into any other port, unleſs forced by ſtreſs of weather; proof whereof ſhould be made on oath to the ſatisfaction of the commiſſioners; and, on return of ſuch ſhip to Great Britain, the maſter ſhould produce the ſaid licence to the commiſſioners, or to the collector of the port to which he ſhould arrive, with the endorſement or certificate annexed, as before directed; and ſhould alſo deliver a true manifeſt, expreſſing the marks and numbers, with the tale and ſorts of caſks of his lading, atteſted upon oath, or, if a quaker, by affirmation, before the collector and comptroller of ſuch port, who are empowered to adminiſter the ſame; and ſhall alſo make an entry of the quantities and ſorts of all the ſugars laden on board the ſaid ſhip at any of the ſaid colonies, and then remaining on board, and bound to foreign parts; which entry the ſaid collector or comptroller are to paſs without demanding any duties for ſuch ſugar, mentioned in the accounts; and ſhould alſo declare on oath or affirmation to what foreign ports he was bound with ſuch lading; then ſuch maſter ſhould be at liberty to proceed with all the goods on board, mentioned in the ſaid manifeſt, being none of the goods before enumerated, to any foreign port, without being obliged to land, or pay duty for the ſame, as aforeſaid; taking with him the ſaid licence, and a certificate under the ſeals of office, from the ſaid comptroller or collector, teſtifying that the ſaid ſhip had touched at ſuch port, and had in all reſpects complied with the directions of this act. But if any ſuch veſſel ſhould proceed to any part, without having firſt touched at ſome port in Great Britain, and having complied with the directions of this act, and having the ſame certified as aforeſaid; or if any of the goods before enumerated, beſides ſugars, ſhould be found on board, or carried by any ſuch veſſel to any foreign parts; then the liberty granted by ſuch licence ſhould become void; and ſuch veſſel, and alſo the maſter and all others concerned ſhould be liable to the ſame penalties, as they would have been liable to, if this act had not been made. That if the maſter, or perſon taking charge of ſuch veſſel, for which a licence has been granted, ſhould, on his arrival in any of the ſaid ſugar colonies, have delivered to the comptroller, and naval officer, the ſaid licence, with a certificate or bond being given in Great Britain as aforeſaid; and before he lades any goods, ſhould declare in writing upon oath or affirmation before any two of them, that the ſugars he intends to load are to be carried to ſome place to the ſouthward of Cape Finiſterre, then the ſaid maſter may, in caſe he has in all reſpects complied with the directions of this act, proceed thither directly with ſuch veſſel, taking with him ſuch licence, and oath, or affirmation, endorſed thereon by the collector, together with an account of the marks of ſugars laden, by virtue of ſuch licence, likewiſe endorſed thereon, or contained in a certificate annexed, in the manner as before directed; and may there land the ſame, without firſt touching at any port in Great Britain. But that in ſuch caſe the maſter ſhould, within eight months after landing the ſaid ſugars, and before ſuch veſſel ſhould go again to any of the plantations in America, return to ſome port of Great Britain, and there deliver his ſaid licence to the commiſſioners, or the collector and comptroller of ſuch port, with ſuch oath or affirmation endorſed thereon, and certificate annexed thereto as aforeſaid, together with a certificate from the conſul, or two known Britiſh merchants of good credit reſiding at the places where ſuch ſugars were landed, teſtifying the landing thereof as aforeſaid; and the maſter ſhould alſo make oath or affirmation before the collector to the truth of ſuch certificate.

By the 24th of K. Geo. II. the above act is to be in force till the 1ſt of September 1757.

SULPHUR, in natural hiſtory, a fat, unctuous ſort of mineral ſubſtance, fuſible, and inflammable by fire, and not diſſolub'e or miſcible in water; which is particularly called foſſil or mineral ſulphur, to diſtinguiſh it from the ſulphur of metals, or of the philoſophers.

Sulphurs make a particular claſs of foſſils, divided into ſolid and fluid. Solid ſulphurs are common ſulphur, or ſulphur properly ſo called, arſenic, and amber.

Liquid ſulphurs are aſphaltum, piſſaſphaltum, bitumen, petroleum, naphtha, and oleum terræ.

SULPHUR, properly ſo called, or *Brimſtone*, is of two kinds, vivum, and common ſulphur.

SULPHUR *Vivum*, *Native* or *Virgin Sulphur*, is that which is dug in this form out of the earth; being opake, and of a yellow or aſh colour; it eaſily takes fire, and, in burning, caſts a ſtrong ſulphurous ſmell. It is chiefly imported from Sicily, and is but little uſed, except in ſome galenical compoſitions, and to ſulphur-wine, in order to make it keep in carriage. It is found in great quantities in the neighbourhood of volcanos or burning mountains, as Veſuvius and Ætna; yet ſulphur has alſo its particular mines, and we have very good from ſeveral parts of Italy and Switzerland, tho' the beſt is that of Quito, and Nicaragua, in America.

Common SULPHUR, or that uſed in gun-powder, and on many other occaſions, is ſaid by ſome to be a compoſition of the native ſulphur with roſin, rolled up in cylindrical pieces. Tho' others aſſure us it is procured from the native ſulphur by means of fire and train oil, which diſſolves it when it is poured into moulds, and formed into thoſe cylinders in which we find it. This common ſulphur is either better or worſe, according to the refinery it comes from: that of Holland has had the repute for a long time; that of Venice is placed in the ſecond claſs; and in the third that of Marſeilles: but the order ſeems to have been ſince changed, and that from Marſeilles now claims the priority. It is choſen in large thick cylinders, of a golden yellow colour, very brittle, and when broke, appearing all brilliant, as if chryſtallized.

Beſides the uſe of ſulphur in the compoſition of gun-powder, whereof it is one of the three ingredients, and that which makes it take fire ſo readily, it is of ſome uſe in medicine

medicine, and more in chemiſtry. It is alſo uſed in whitening ſilken and woollen ſtuffs; to which end, the vapour thereof is contrived to be received by them.

Flowers of SULPHUR, are the pureſt and fineſt part of common ſulphur, gained by evaporation, by ſublimation, or burning it in pots made for that purpoſe; and gathered in the capital of the cucurbit, where the vapour ſticks.

The beſt flower of ſulphur is in cakes, or pieces, light, ſoft, friable, and rather white than yellow. If it is in powder it muſt be very fine, of a yellow colour, that is, both whitiſh and gilt at the ſame time; inſtead of which, we have frequently put upon us a vile ſulphur, mixed with ſtarch, or wheat flour, and ſometimes only ſulphur duſt well ſifted.

Magiſtery, balm, or milk of SULPHUR, is ſulphur diſſolved in a ſufficient quantity of water, with ſalt of tartar, and precipitated by means of ſpirit of vinegar, or ſome other acid. It is called milk of ſulphur from its whiteneſs; and balm of ſulphur, or of the lungs, from its excellent uſe in diſeaſes of the lungs and breaſt.

Raw and refined ſulphur, are ſold at Amſterdam by the quintal of 100 lb. the tare is purſuant to the weight, and the deductions are equally 1 *per cent.* for good weight and prompt payment. The price of raw ſulphur is 10 s. 6 d. ſterling the quintal; and that of refined 12 s. 3 d. ſterling.

Salt of SULPHUR, is a chemical preparation, very improperly ſo called; as being no other than ſal polychreſton, impregnated with ſpirit of ſulphur, and reduced to an acid ſalt by evaporating the humidity thereof. Some hold it a powerful febrifuge. See *Salt*.

Spirit of SULPHUR. See *Spirit*.

SULPHUR *of antimony*, is a diaphoretic tincture drawn from antimony, and ſalt of tartar, by ſeveral operations. See *Antimony*.

That drawn from the fæces of *crocus metallorum*, is by ſome called golden ſulphur.

SULPHUR *metallorum*, or *Sulphur of metals*, called alſo *Sulphur figens*, is uſed among chemiſts and alchymiſts for a peculiar matter, which enters the compoſition of all metals.

Metals are ſuppoſed to conſiſt of two eſſential parts or principals; mercury, as the baſis, or metalic matter; and ſulphur as the binder, or the cement which fixes the fluent mercury into a coherent malleable maſs. Some of the lateſt and beſt chemiſts, particularly Monſieur Homberg, will have this ſulphur to be no other than fire.

SULPHURATED *wine*. See *Wine*.

SULTAN, or *Soldan*. A title or appellation given to ſeveral Aſiatic princes, particularly the emperor of the Turks. It had its riſe under Mahmoud, ſon of Sebecteghin, the firſt emperor of the dynaſty of the Gaznevides, towards the cloſe of the 4th century of the æra of the Hegira, when that prince going to Segeſtan to reduce Kalaf, governor of that province, who affected the ſovereignty, Kalaf was no ſooner adverti ſed of his coming, than he went out to meet him, delivered the keys of his fortreſs, and owned him his Sultan, that is, his lord and commander. The title pleaſed Mahmoud ſo well, that he aſſumed it ever afterwards; and from him it paſſed to his deſcendants, and other Mahometan princes.

SULTANA. The wife of a Sultan; but it alſo denotes a ſtrong Turkiſh ſhip of war.

SULTANIN. A gold coin ſtruck at Cairo, and current throughout the Grand Signior's territories. See *Sequin*.

SUM, in mathematics, ſignifies the quantity that ariſes from the addition of two or more magnitudes, numbers, or quantities together: and it alſo implies a large parcel of money.

SUMACH. A drug uſed to dye in green; as alſo in the preparation of black morocco, and other leather. It conſiſts of the leaves and young branches of a ſhrub, not unlike the little ſervice tree: the leaves are longiſh, pennated, and hairy; the flowers grow in cluſters, and are red like roſes: the fruit is a kind of grape, of a very aſtringent quality, and its ſeed almoſt oval, incloſed in capſulæ of the ſame figure. The ancients uſed them inſtead of ſalt, to ſeaſon their meat, whence the Latins call the tree *rhus obſoniorum*: from its uſe in dreſſing of leather, it is alſo called *rhus coriaria*.

The beſt ſumach is that which is greeniſh, and new; Oporto, in Portugal, being the place which furniſhes the moſt, and generally ſpeaking the beſt.

SUMATRA. An iſland in the Indian ocean. See *Sunda* Iſlands.

SUMMER, or *Bermuda* Iſlands. See *Britiſh* America.

SUMMERS. A particular kind of herrings. See *Herring*.

SUNDA *Iſlands*, are ſituated in the Indian ocean, between 93 and 120 deg. of E. lon. and between 8 deg. N. and 8 deg. of S. lat. comprehending the iſlands of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Bally, Lomboe, and Banca: but the Portugueſe call them the South Iſlands, and include therewith the Moluccas and Philippines.

1. The iſland of *Borneo* is ſituated between 107 and 117 deg. of E. lon. and between 7 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. and 4 deg. of S. lat. the form of the iſland being almoſt round, and computed to be 2,500 miles in circumference, containing conſequently a greater number of acres than any other iſland in the known world. The Indian ocean ſeparates it from China and India on the north and north-weſt, and from the Philippine iſlands on the north-eaſt: the iſland of Celebes, or Macaſſer, lies on the ſouth-eaſt of Borneo, Java on the ſouth, and the iſland of Sumatra on the weſt.

The harbours of greateſt note, and to which Europeans uſually reſort, are Banjar Maſſeen, Succadana, and Borneo; but much more to Banjar Maſſeen than to either of the other; the greateſt quantities of pepper growing towards the ſource of that river, which falls into the ſea in 3 deg. 18 min. of S. lat.

The town of Banjar formerly ſtood about 12 miles up the river; but there is now no ſign of a town there, the inhabitants being removed to Tatas, about 6 miles higher.

The city of Borneo, formerly the reſidence of the principal ſultan, or king of the iſland, lies on the N. W. part of the iſland, in 4 deg. of N. lat. and is a very commodious harbour. The port of Succadana lies on the weſt-ſide of the iſland, in 15 min. of S. lat. and was formerly more reſorted to by Europeans than any other. Over againſt this, on the eaſt-ſide of the iſland, ſtands another ſea-port town, called Paſſeir, in 15 min. of S. lat. but it is not a place of any great trade.

One of the moſt conſiderable inland towns is Caytonge, whoſe Sultan is now the moſt potent prince in the iſland. This city lies about 100 miles up the river Banjar; and about 200 miles higher ſtands the town of Negaree, the reſidence of another ſultan.

The names of the other principal towns are, Tanjongbuoro, Sedang, Tanjongdatoo, Sambas, Landa, Piſagadan, Cota-panjang, Sampit, Tanjong, Selatan, Gonwarengen, and Pomanoocan.

The river Banjar, where European ſhips uſually lie, is as broad again as the Thames at Graveſend, towards the mouth; and the banks being planted with thick groves of evergreens renders the paſſage up it exceeding pleaſant.

The people of this iſland are divided into Mahometans and Pagans; the former inhabit the ſea-coaſts, and all the chief towns of trade; and the pagans, who are called Byayos, poſſeſs the inland country. The Banjareens, and other Moors, who inhabit the ſea-coaſts, are generally of a quick apprehenſion, extremely inquiſitive, and will learn any thing with a great deal of eaſe. The Byayos, who inhabit the woods and mountains, ſeldom apply themſelves to trade; being a robuſt warlike people, who ſpend their time chiefly in hunting, and looking after their cattle.

The goods which Europeans get from this country, are chiefly pepper, gold, and precious ſtones; as alſo ſome other valuable commodities. The goods fit to be imported here, are dollars, guns from 1 to 200 weight, ſheet lead, ſhowy calimancoes, knives, and other cutlery ware, iron bars, ſmall ſteel bars, hangers, the ſmalleſt ſort of ſpike nails, twenty-penny nails, graplings of about 40 lb. weight, red-leather boots, ſpectacles, clock-work, ſmall arms with braſs mounting, blunderbuſſes, ordinary horſe-piſtols, gun-powder, and looking-glaſſes.

The trade to Borneo might become as advantageous to the Engliſh as any trade whatever; becauſe Engliſh traders may meet the China fleet here, and be ſupplied with the goods of that country upon as eaſy terms as in

China: and, conſidering how much more time the voyage to China requires, the cuſtoms, port-charges, and other extraordinary ſums, extorted by the hoppos, or cuſtom-houſe officers, perhaps China goods may be had at a better hand here than in China. Beſides, about the latter end of September every year, the Maccaſſar praws come to Borneo, which, notwithſtanding the vigilance of the Dutch, ſtill bring over cloves, nutmegs, mace, gumboage, lignum aloes, caſſia, and other rich merchandiſe.

If ſhips arrive at Banjar Maſſeen the beginning of Auguſt, it is time enough to make their contracts, and to purchaſe the pepper of the laſt year's crop; which is better than that of the new crop, becauſe they have had full time to air it, and conſequently it will not loſe ſo much of the weight in the bringing over as the raw pepper does.

The Chineſe are to be looked upon as enemies in point of trade; but they muſt be treated with civility, for a trade may be carried on with them to advantage; ſeveral kinds of merchandiſe being to be had of them, which are not to be had of the natives.

The Chineſe are expert merchants, and underſtand the true value of every commodity; but the Banjareens are ignorant of the price of European goods, and Europeans muſt aſk at leaſt twice as much as they deſign to take; for tho' they aſſure the iſlanders they aſk but a ſmall profit, yet the natives having made them a compliment, and begged they would not be angry with them, will bid a fourth part perhaps, and never above half what is aſked: on the other hand, they will be ſure to aſk enough for what they ſell, and frequently ten times more than they take.

If they barter goods with Europeans, there is no relying on their ſamples, or their weights; but they muſt be examined; for the Chineſe have taught them to ſharp, and they are grown almoſt as expert as their maſters; nor nor do they reckon it any diſgrace if they are detected in attempting to overreach others.

The dragons blood produced in this country is the fineſt in the world. The country people expoſe it to ſale in ſmall drops about an inch long, every piece being wrapped up in leaves; but Europeans muſt inſiſt on having it without leaves, or they will be impoſed upon. The beſt is ſold at about 40 dollars the pecul, or about 7 s. 4 d. for 1 2 lb.

Jambee canes are ſold here for 4 dollars, or 14 s. 4 d. ſterling a hundred; and tho' they look very fair to the eye, they will often ſhrivel up in two or three days, and prove good for little. This happens when they are not cut in the right ſeaſon, or before their full growth, or when they are not rightly cured by the fire, and beeswax, whereby they harden the outward rind that it will not ſhrivel up.

If the natives offer Europeans gold in bars, they ought to be cut half thro', then broke and touched; for they will ſometimes ſo artfully cover a baſe metal with gold, that, if it be cut quite thro' with a chiſſel, it will draw the gold over with it, and the fraud remain undiſcovered. There is no artificial alloy in their head gold, which comes up in fineneſs to 22 caracts Engliſh; but the belly and foot gold are frequently mixed with iron duſt, or ſomething like it, being ſo taken up out of the ſand in their rivers; and they clear it of the iron by rubbing a loadſtone among the gold duſt, in a diſh, or large ſhell, the iron particles adhering to the load ſtone: but they are yet very deficient in the art of ſeparating metals; and therefore ſeldom or ever clear it as it ſhould be; ſo that it requires a great deal of care in the buyer, when he purchaſes any of this kind.

The higheſt coloured gold is eſteemed the beſt, while without alloy.

Their fine monkey bezoar is ſold for about five times the weight in ſilver; the beſt being of a greeniſh colour: theſe ſtones are from a penny-weight to an ounce, and ſometimes more; but the largeſt are thought to be goat-bezoar. The natives make a compound, which ſo nearly reſembles the right bezoar ſtone, that it is difficult to diſtinguiſh them; but the way to diſcover the fraud is by rubbing white lead, lime, or chalk, on a white paper, and afterwards rub the bezoar upon it; when, if it be right, it will change the white lead, chalk, &c. to a greeniſh colour. Here is alſo found a kind of bezoar, which being infuſed gives a pleaſant bitter to wine, and after the infuſion does not ſeem to be at all diminiſhed in ſubſtance. The beſt unrefined camphire is alſo ſaid to be produced in this country.

Their pepper is uſually at the rate of four or five dollars, or 18 s. ſterling the pecul, which is 132 lb.

The Chineſe are the only people who keep ſhops, and retail goods among them; their ſhops being furniſhed chiefly with ſilks, chints, callicoes, beteles, drugs, tea, China and Japan wares.

The inland part of the country is dry and mountainous; but upon the ſouth coaſts, for 100 miles one way, and 200 another, the country is all a ſtinking moraſs, being all overflowed in the rainy ſeaſon.

Rice is produced plentifully in the country, as alſo cocoa-nuts, lemons, oranges, citrons, plantanes, melons, bananas, pine-apples, and all other Indian fruits: they have alſo the cotton ſhrub, canes, rattans, and abundance of very fine timber. But what foreigners principally reſort this iſland for is their pepper, black and white: the black of three ſorts, and the firſt called Molucca or lout-pepper, which is the beſt; the ſecond Caytongee pepper, which is a middling ſort; and the third and worſt ſort Negaree pepper, of which they have much the greateſt quantity. This laſt is a ſmall hollow light pepper, and uſually very full of duſt; therefore it muſt be bought by weight, and not by meaſure, or the buyer will certainly be impoſed upon; and they will reſerve their Molucca, or heavy pepper, for thoſe who take it by weight: care muſt alſo be taken that they do not mix little black ſtones with the pepper, which are not eaſily diſcerned, neither will the garbling mill throw them out. The white pepper is double the price of the black.

In this country are alſo mines of iron and tin, with very good load-ſtone; and their mountains would afford great plenty of gold, if well wrought. The gold met with is of three ſorts; head, belly, and foot gold. The head, or Molucca gold, is in grains of the bigneſs of bay ſalt, and of a very irregular figure; it is purchaſed for eleven times the weight in ſilver, and frequently for leſs: the belly gold is a ſmaller ſort, like ſand, or filings, and ſold for ten times the weight of ſilver: the foot gold is much like this in appearance, but worſe, and ſold for nine times the weight in ſilver; however, the belly gold at theſe prices is moſt profitable.

This country is divided into ſeveral petty kingdoms; and when any prince grows more powerful than the reſt, he uſually brings his neighbours into a ſtate of dependance, and ſometimes obtains the name of king, or ſultan, of the whole iſland.

The only money of this country are dollars, half dollars, and quarter-dollars; except their caſh, which are rings of baſe metal ſtrung, that ſerve for ſmall matters.

The Banjareens will hardly take any dollars under 17 dwt. 9 gr. and it will be prudence to reſerve the heavieſt till laſt, for they will ſometimes refuſe ſuch.

Their weights are the catte, and the pecul; the catte being about 22 oz. and 100 making 1 pecul, or 132 lb. avoirdupois weight. Their leſſer weights are the tical, the mas, the tela, and the mataboorong, of which laſt 3 make 1 tela, 6 telas 1 mas, 16 mas 1 tical, and 1 tical 1 oz. 8 dwt. troy weight.

Their uſual meaſure is the ganton, which contains about a Wincheſter gallon.

2. The iſland of *Sumatra*, is ſituated between 93 and 104 deg. of E. lon. and between 5 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. and 5 deg. 30 min. of S. lat. extending from the N. W. to the S. E. 900 miles long, and from 100 to 150 broad; ſeparated from the continent of the further India by the ſtreights of Malacca on the N. E. and from the iſland of Java by the ſtreights of Sunda on the S. E.

The air of this iſland is generally very unwholſome, as it lies under the equinoctial; and, from the hotteſt ſultry weather, changing often ſuddenly to chilling cold.

There are ſome good roads for ſhipping in this iſland; but ſcarce

ſcarce any harbours. The chief towns, and which had every one of them formerly the honour of being ſtiled a kingdom, are Achen, Pedir, Pacem, Dely, Bancalis, Andragrary, Jamby, Palambam, Sillebar, Bencoolen, Manacabo, Padang, Indrapour, Poſſaman, Priaman, Ticou, Barras, and Daya: but Achen is the metropolis of the whole iſland, conſiſting of about 7 or 8000 houſes. Bencoolen, which ſtands on the S. W. part of the iſland, in 101 deg. of E. lon. and 4 deg. of S. lat. is eſteemed the moſt unhealthful of all the Engliſh ſettlements in India; but this was their principal ſettlement in Sumatra from the year 1685, to 1719, when there happened a general inſurrection of the natives, who cut off part of the garriſon, the reſt eſcaping in their boats to ſea.

Bencoolen is known at ſea by a high ſlender mountain that riſes 20 miles beyond it in the country, called the ſugar-loaf. Before the town there lies an iſland, within which the ſhipping uſually ride; and the point of Sillebar, another Engliſh ſettlement extending two or three leagues to the ſouthward of it, makes a large bay: beſides theſe marks, the old Engliſh fort, which fronted towards the ſea, might have been diſcerned when a ſhip came within ſeven or eight miles of the place.

Notwithſtanding the natives had thus driven the Engliſh from Bencoolen, they ſuffered them in about a years time to return again, and go on with the fortifications at Marlborough fort without oppoſition. It is true, there had been ſome Engliſh chiefs ſent thither who were not endued with ſo much diſcretion as they ought. Theſe gentlemen, by an imperious and aſſuming behaviour, had highly provoked the natives; but this being very tolerable, in compariſon of the tyranny of the Dutch exerciſed in every place where they prevailed, the Malays, upon the expulſion of the Engliſh, began to be under terrible apprehenſions, leſt the Dutch ſhould come and ſettle among them by force, and put an iron yoke upon their necks, as they had upon their neighbours; they ſoon therefore laid aſide their reſentment, and, overlooking their indiſcretions, gave all encouragement to them for ſettling among them: and it was very happy for the Engliſh they had removed from Bencoolen; for, beſides the unhealthy ſituation of the place, Marlborough fort was much more defenſible by its ſituation, in caſe of any miſunderſtanding happening again.

Beſides, the Engliſh ſettlements at Marlborough fort and Bencoolen, there are ſeveral others to the northward, as particularly Catoun, Ippoo, Bantall, and Mocho-mocho: Catoun lies about 40 miles to the northward of Bencoolen, Ippoo 35 farther north, and Bantall ſtands at leaſt 100 miles to the northward of Bencoolen; Mocho-mocho lies fartheſt north, not far from Indrapour, in the lat. of 2 deg. 20 min. ſouth: ſo that all the Engliſh ſettlements on the weſt coaſt lie between the 2d and 4th deg. of S. lat. or thereabouts.

To the northward of the Engliſh ſettlements on the weſt coaſt of Sumatra, ſtand the towns of Indrapour, Padang, Priaman, Ticou, Paſſaman, Batahan, Barras, and Daya. Indrapour is the firſt Dutch ſettlement to the northward of the Engliſh, and lies 2 degrees ſouth. Padang lies in 1 deg. 30 min. Priaman in 50 min. Ticou in 30 min. of S. lat and Paſſaman almoſt under the line. So that the Dutch ſettlements on the weſt coaſt extend from 2 deg. S. lat to the equator, and of theſe Padang is the principal; Batahan is 1 deg. to the northward of the line, Barras in 2 deg. 30 min. to the north, and Daya 4 deg. 50 min. north. Here, and in the reſt of the country to the northward of the equator, the king of Achen ſtill retains his ſovereignty; and it may be ſaid that no European nation is in poſſeſſion of his ports; but the ſouth parts of the iſland are ſo awed, and reſtrained of their liberty by the Dutch, that they dare not trade with any other people.

Achem is ſituated on the N. W. end of Sumatra, in 5 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. about half a league from the ſea, near a pleaſant river. When an Engliſh ſhip arrives at Achen, application is firſt made to the ſabandar, or governor of the place, for liberty of trade; and thoſe who go firſt on ſhore are examined by the guards at the great quala, or river's mouth, what country they are of, and their buſineſs; of which notice is immediately given to the proper officers, who ſettle the terms of commerce with all foreigners. The Engliſh are only required to take a ſolemn oath to obſerve the articles made between the court of Achen and Mr Henry Gray, who was once chief of the Engliſh factory in this city; the principal whereof were, that the Engliſh ſhould be allowed a free trade, and not be reſtrained of their liberties, or pay any other cuſtoms than the ordinary duty of the chop; that they ſhould have ground aſſigned them for a houſe, and warehouſe, which they might diſpoſe of at their departure; that the Engliſh ſhould not be ſubject to the laws of the country, but be governed by their own chief, and enjoy the exerciſe of their religion; and that they ſhould make the uſual preſents, and bring a letter from the chief of the place from whence they came to the ſabandar, certifying that they belong to the Engliſh company; they alſo ſwear to be faithful to the government while they remain at Achen: which oaths are taken before the ſabandar by ſome of the principal officers of the ſhip, liſting a ſhort dagger in a gold caſe three times to their heads, which is termed receiving the chop for trade, and muſt be performed with an air of gravity and ſerioufneſs, or it will give the government ill impreſſions of thoſe who come to trade thither.

The Engliſh had formerly a factory at Achen; but, finding it not to countervail the charge, it has been ſometime recalled: their ſupercargoes however, till very lately, were allowed greater privileges than any other nation; for all other foreigners pay 5, and ſometimes 8 *per cent.* cuſtom; but the Engliſh made only the ordinary preſents to the king and court, amounting to 16 or 17 ſaels in the whole.

In trafficking with theſe people, it is neceſſary to ſpecify what catty you intend to buy and ſell by; for theſe weights are very uncertain; and alſo at what rate you intend to receive, or pay the uncoined gold, which is much oftener uſed than coin.

The principal commerce of the iſland conſiſts in gold, ſilver, tin, copper, iron, diamonds and other precious ſtones, pepper, wax, honey, camphor, bezoar, caſſia, ſandal, ſulphur, rice, ſugar, ginger, and benjoin.

The gold is found particularly between Ticou and Manacabo, where the inhabitants gather it at the foot of the mountains, in trenches made on purpoſe for receiving the water of the torrents, which in the rainy ſeaſon ſweep away much of this metal; the people not knowing as yet the art of working in mines, or rather their natural indolence hindering them to engage in ſo painful a work. Thoſe who gather the gold have no trade with ſtrangers, and exchange it with their neighbours for divers merchandiſes; thoſe of Manacabo giving them arms, iron utenſils, or cotton cloths; and thoſe of Priaman, pepper, ſteel, ſalt, and Surat cloths.

Gold is alſo found at Jamby, Andragrary, and Padam. Almoſt the whole iſland, except the middle, produces pepper abundantly. In a mountain at Pedir, ſulphur is found; and near this town ooze that kind of reſin called the balſam of Sumatra: diamonds and precious ſtones are brought there from abroad, particularly from Borneo; and the other drugs and merchandiſes are found and cultivated in ſeveral parts of the iſland, eſpecially in the middle.

The great trade of the Europeans to the weſt coaſt of Sumatra is for pepper; but there are fine pepper plantations within 20 miles of the Engliſh ſettlements: for the pepper is brought down the rivers in boats to the factories; and, for the convenience of water-carriage, theſe plantations are uſually made upon a level ground near the banks of the ſame river, and muſt be in a very rich ſoil; the pepper plant requiring a ſupport like the vine.

The pepper which the Engliſh receive at Bencoolen, grows in the territories of two neighbouring Rajas; one of whom has his principal reſidence at Singledemond, which ſtands at the bottom of a large bay, 10 or 12 miles to the northward of Bencoolen; and the other at Buſar, about 10 miles up the country to the eaſtward of Bencoolen. The cuſtom the Engliſh pay for the pepper is 2 ſoocas, or half a dollar, for each bahar, conſiſting of 500 lb. great weight, or 560 pounds; and the inſtant the

pepper is weighed, and received by the company's factors, the owner receives his money for it, after the rate of 10 molocos, or Spaniſh dollars, of 3 s. 7 d. each, weighing 17 dwt. 12 gr. each for every bahar.

The iſland is governed by ſeveral petty princes, who are called ſultans, pangarans, and rajas: but the ſultan of Achen is the moſt conſiderable.

They have but two ſorts of money of their own coinage: the firſt is of lead, which they call caſh, and 1500 make a mas, or 15 s. ſterling, which is their gold coin. A quarter of a mas is called a pallam, or copong, which is imaginary; and 16 mas is one tael, or about 20 s. ſterling. Dollars and other Spaniſh money are current almoſt all over the iſland.

Their weights are the tael, 5 of which make a buncal, 20 buncals a catty, and 100 catty a pecul, or 132 lb. Engliſh avoirdupoiſe. Three pecul are a China bahar, or 396 lb.: but upon the weſt coaſt, particularly at Bencoolen, a bahar is 500 lb. great weight, or 560 lb. Engliſh.

3. The iſland of *Java*, is ſituated between 102 and 113 deg. of E. lon. and between 5 and 8 deg. of S. lat. being about 700 miles long from E. to W. and 100 broad; the iſland of Borneo lying on the north; the ſtreights of Bally on the eaſt; the Indian ocean on the ſouth; and the ſtreights of Sunda and Sumatra on the weſt.

As to the ſeaſons and monſons upon the north coaſt of Java, and the iſlands which lie on the ſame rhomb to the eaſtward as far as Solar and Tymore, the worſt weather is during the weſterly winds, which uſually begin the firſt week in November. In December it blows freſh, and the wet weather increaſes: in January the weather is at the worſt, both as to wind and rain, and continues much the ſame till the middle of February; after which the wind and rain abate till the latter end of March. In April the weather grows fair, and the winds are variable, with calms; but at the full and change of the moon there generally happen ſudden guſts of wind from the weſtward. About the firſt of May the eaſtern monſon may be ſaid to be ſettled, and in June and July often brings rain with it; but the eaſterly winds blow hardeſt when there is no rain; and this monſon for the moſt part affords clear wholſome weather, which continues till the latter end of September. In October the winds ſhift frequently, and the eaſterly winds blow faintly; but in the beginning of November the weſterly monſon ſets in again: tho' it is obſerved, that ſome years the monſons happen fifteen days ſooner or later than in others.

The currents conſtantly follow the winds here, and ſituated E. N. E. or W. S. W. as the monſon or trade wind does out at ſea.

When the weſterly winds and currents are ſtrongeſt in theſe ſeas, which is uſually in December, January, and part of February, it is in vain to endeavour to ſail againſt them, or indeed to coaſt along the ſhore; tho' there is good anchorage all along the coaſt of Java. The eaſterly winds, as well as the currents, are much more moderate; and ſhips frequently ſail againſt this monſon from Batavia to the iſland of Tymore, keeping in anchorage, and going between the iſland Madura and Java; for a ſhip may at any time come from the weſtward, thro' the ſtreights of Sunda to Batavia. On the Sumatra ſide theſe ſtreights are very deep, and in many places no anchorage; for which reaſon ſhips keep up on the Java ſide, where they may anchor in 20 or 30 fathom water, till they come near Batavia, and then they need not be concerned at its being a lee-ſhore, or dread the coming under 20 fathom.

The chief towns of this iſland are moſt of them on the north coaſt, of which Bantam lies the moſt weſterly: Batavia ſtands to the eaſtward of Bantam; and farther eaſt Charabon, Samarang, Japara, Roombong, Tuban, Sidaya, Jortan, and Surabaija. At the eaſt end of the iſland are the cities of Paſſarvan, Panuracan, and Palamboan. About the middle of the ſouth coaſt ſtands the city of Mataran, where the king, who bears that title ſtill, has his reſidence; but there are no other remarkable towns on this ſide the iſland, as it lies open to the ſouthern ocean, and does not afford that ſecurity to ſhipping as is to be found on the northern coaſt.

Bantam is ſituated in 105 deg. of E. lon. and 6 deg. of S. lat. once the capital of a large kingdom, and a port-town of great trade; where the Engliſh Eaſt India company had one of their factories; till the Dutch depoſed the king of Bantam, and expelled the Engliſh from thence, in the reign of King James II. in a time of full peace; ſince which time the Dutch have retained the poſſeſſion both of the city and kingdom, permitting one of the poſterity of the ancient kings to retain the name and ſhadow of royalty.

Batavia, by the Indians named Jacatra, and by the natives and Chineſe Calacka, or Calappa, as they call the fruit of the coco-trees, which are very common here, lies in 106 deg. of E. lon. and 6 deg. of S. lat. about 40 miles to the eaſtward of Bantam: it is ſituated at the bottom of a fine bay, in which there are 16 or 17 ſmall iſlands, that break the violence of the wind and waves, inſomuch that a thouſand ſail may ride here very ſecurely. Two large piers run out half a mile into the ſea, between which a hundred ſlaves are conſtantly employed, in taking up the mud and ſoil, which is waſhed out of the town, or the mouth of the river would be ſoon choaked up. The city is almoſt ſquare, regularly built, and about the bigneſs of Briſtol; being ſurrounded with a good wall, and defended by a ſtrong fort. The Dutch have brought many Chineſe, Malayans, Amboyneſe Topaſſes, Macaſſar Bugaſſes, Tymoreans, and other people, to Batavia; out of which ſeveral nations they have formed a regular body of troops of 12000 men, beſides their European forces to keep their ſubjects in awe.

The ſhipping of Java, before the Dutch built Batavia, was very inconſiderable: they had praws, or boats, indeed, that would ſail with incredible ſwiftneſs, but hardly any above 50 tuns. The Dutch, finding good oak growing upon the iſland, now build ſtout ſhips, and have ſeldom leſs than 20 or 30 men of war, with which they inſult all the princes in that part of the world.

No Europeans are ſuffered to trade to Batavia; but 15 or 20 ſail of Chineſe junks arrive there every year from 300 to 500 tons a piece, uſually in November or December, and return the beginning of June, whereby the Dutch are furniſhed with all the merchandiſe of China at an eaſier rate than they could by ſending their fleets thither.

Batavia is the greateſt magazine or ſtorehouſe of the Dutch Eaſt India company; where they import the merchandiſes of Japan, of the ſpice iſlands, Perſia, Surat, Bengal, and of the coaſts of Malabar and Coromandel, as well as every thing that Europe affords. One ſort of goods, which is ſpice, they barter for another all over the Indies; and having furniſhed themſelves with what is moſt valuable in the Eaſt, tranſport it into Europe, where all is converted into ready money: ſo far is their India trade from diminiſhing their treaſure, that it furniſhes them with more than all the trade of the world beſides.

All ſorts of mechanic arts flouriſh alſo at Batavia; but if the Dutch herein fall ſhort of the European workmen, it is where the work requires fine ſprings and movements; as in clocks and watches, which are hardly ever brought to a proper temper in hot countries.

The Dutch have ſlaves at Batavia from almoſt every country in Aſia; ſome are taken in war, others purchaſed of their parents, and many are born ſo; and ſlaves being as merchantable a commodity as any other in this part of the world, there are a kind of privateers in theſe ſeas, who will land upon a neighbouring ſhore, and carry off whole families of men, women, and children; nor does the purchaſer, whether European or Indian, ever demand how the ſeller came by them.

The next conſiderable town to Batavia, on the north coaſt of Java, is Charabon, which lies about 170 miles to the eaſtward of Batavia. A little farther eaſtward lyes Samarang and Japara; the latter of which was the metropolis of a large kingdom before the Dutch made themſelves maſters of it.

At the ſouth-eaſt end of Java is ſituated the kingdom and city

city of Palamboang, on a bay over againſt the iſland of Bally, and near the ſtreights of that name, in 8 deg. 30 min. of S. lat. There are ſeveral rivers which fall into the ſea on each ſide the town: and ſhips which happen to paſs this way, as the Engliſh Eaſt India men frequently do in their voyage home from Borneo, ſend their boats up theſe ſtreams over the bars at half tide, and bring off water and proviſions; but there is ſometimes a great ſurf runs aſhore, and makes it troubleſome watering here.

What has been ſaid of the commerce of the Javans, ſhould be likewiſe underſtood of the Chineſe, who are eſtabliſhed among them in great numbers, and divide this trade with the natives of the country.

There are ſeveral little iſlands to the northward of Java, where the Engliſh meet with very good refreſhments, at a much eaſier rate than at Batavia; thoſe moſt frequently mentioned being Madura and Carimon Java.

A little to the eaſtward of Java Major lies the iſland of Bally, or Leſſer Java; and farther, Lomboy, Combava, and ſeveral others, in moſt of which the Dutch have forts and ſettlements, and hence alſo frequently recruit their troops.

Before the Dutch were maſters of Bantam, the Javaneſe, who are naturally born for commerce, carried on themſelves a very conſiderable one, both foreign and domeſtic, which is now conſiderably diminiſhed; yet, notwithſtanding the endeavours of the Dutch to ſuppreſs it entirely, it always ſubſiſts, upon account of the number of harbours and ports in the iſland, where the company is not eſtabliſhed.

The places of their greateſt foreign trade are Sumatra, Siam, Malacca, Borneo, the Celebes, Bouton, the Moluccas, Banda, Solor, and Timor. But for the Moluccas, and the other iſlands thereon depending, which the Dutch are abſolutely maſters of, it is neceſſary that they take permits and paſſports from the company, who grant them with difficulty, and at great expences.

The Javaneſe trade alſo by ſea to Batavia; and it is even their greateſt commerce, upon account of the concourſe of different nations there from all parts of Aſia.

Their principal commerce conſiſts in rice, either for importation or exportion; yet ſome of them trade in all the productions of the iſland, as pepper, coco-nuts, oil, ſugar, arrack, ſeveral medicinal drugs, benjoin, ginger, copper, and gold. They bring back in exchange ſeveral ſorts of Coromandel, Bengal, and Surat ſilk ſtuffs, cotton cloths, covering for beds, mats, ſotas a kind of habit the Javan women are very fond of, lacca, tranſparent reſin, tortoiſe-ſhell, tin, lead, porcelain, tea, ſantal, and ivory. European merchandiſe, with cinnamon, nutmeg, and cloves, make alſo a part of their trade; but they purchaſe them from the Dutch of Batavia, unleſs they can clandeſtinely have nutmeg and cloves from the Moluccas and Banda.

The retail-commerce of the Javaneſe conſiſts in all ſorts of European and Aſiatic merchandiſe, ranged in their ſhops with great order and decency.

Thoſe of Bantam have three bazars opened every day at different times, and reſorted by a multitude of buyers and ſellers.

In theſe bazars, as almoſt throughout all Aſia, each kind of merchandiſe has its ſeparate quarter; and all the ſhops are kept equally by both ſexes of all ages; the Javaneſe from their early youth being accuſtomed to this manner of dealing, and learning from their parents, as an only maxim, not to be cheated, and to cheat others if poſſible; which they perfectly retain; no traders in the Indies being more crafty and unfaithful than the Javaneſe, who in this reſpect reſemble the Chineſe.

UNDERLAND. A port-town of Durham, ſituated in 1 deg. of W. lon. and 54 deg. 55 min. of N. lat. on the German ſea, at the mouth of the river Ware, 10 miles N. of Durham city.

UN*fire Office*. See *Inſurance*.

UPERCARGO. A perſon employed by merchants to go a voyage, to overſee their cargo and lading, and diſpoſe of it to the beſt advantage; particularly on board the East India ſhips.

UPERFINE, in the manufactories, a term uſed to expreſs the ſuperlative fineneſs of a ſtuff. Thus a cloth, or camblet, is ſaid to be ſuperfine when made of the fineſt wool, or when they are the fineſt that can be made.

The term is particularly uſed among gold wire-drawers, for the gold or ſilver wire, which, after being drawn through an infinite number of holes, each leſs and leſs, is at length brought to be no bigger than a hair.

SUPERINTENDANT, in the French cuſtoms, an officer who has the prime management and direction of the finances, or revenues, of the king: thus the cardinal de Richlieu made himſelf ſuperintendant of commerce.

SUPERNUMERARY. Something over and above a fixed number. In ſeveral of the offices are ſupernumerary clerks, to be ready on extraordinary occaſions. There are alſo ſupernumerary ſurveyors of the exciſe, to be ready to ſupply vacancies when they fall; who have only half pay.

SUPERVISOR, particularly in the exciſe, ſignifies a ſurveyor, or overſeer.

SUPPLIES, is a term for the annual grants made by the Britiſh parliament for the ſervices of the ſtate, and ſupport of the crown; which ſupplies include the land and malt tax, the money taken from the ſinking fund, and all the monies extraordinarily ariſing that are not appropriated, but left to the diſpoſition of parliament.

SURAT. A city and port-town of the Hither India, in Aſia, in the province of Guzarat, or Cambaya, ſituated on the river Tapte, 10 miles E. of the Indian ſea, 160 miles N. of Bombay, and as many S. of Cambaya city; lying in 72 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 38 min. of N. lat.

SURGEON. A perſon ſkilled in ſurgery or anatomy, who practiſes the ſetting broken limbs, curing wounds, &c.

SURGEONS *Company of London*. By the ſtatute of the 18th of Geo. II. it was enacted, That the incorporation of the barbers and ſurgeons of London, made by the act of the 32d of Henry VIII. ſhould be diſſolved and declared void: and that the members of the ſurgeons company, who were freemen, and approved ſurgeons within the rules thereof, and their ſucceſſors, ſhould thenceforth be a diſtinct body corporate, and commonalty perpetual; by the name of "Maſters, governors, and company of the art and ſcience of ſurgeons of London;" and by that name may implead and be impleaded, and purchaſe and enjoy lands, rents, and thelike, not exceeding 200 l. *per ann.* without incurring the penalties of the ſtatutes of mortmain. That the company may elect one principal maſter, or governor, two other governors or wardens, ten examiners of ſurgeons, and 21 perſons to be the court of aſſiſtants, to be qualified, admitted, and to continue in their offices, as by the bye-laws of the ſaid company ſhould be ordered and appointed: ſince which time they have erected a beautiful hall in the Old Bailey, with all proper apartments and conveniencies, for the due exerciſe of that profeſſion. See *Barbers* company.

SURINAM. The capital of the Dutch colonies and ſettlements in Guiana, in South America, lying in 56 deg. of W. lon. and 6 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. See *Dutch* America.

SURLO. A weight uſed in the Levant, particularly at Aleppo, weighing about 108 lb. avoirdupoiſe.

SURPLUSAGE, is ſometimes applied to matters of accompts, and denotes a greater diſburſement than the charge of the accomptant amounts to.

SURREPTITIOUS. See *Subreptitious*.

SURVEYING. The art or act of meaſuring lands; that is, of taking the dimenſions of any tract of ground, laying down the ſame in a map or draught, and finding the content or area thereof.

SURVEYOR. One that has the overſight and care of conſiderable works, lands, or the like. See *Superviſor*. Such are the ſurveyor-general of the king's manors; ſurveyor of the king's exchange; ſurveyor-general of the works; ſurveyor-general of the crown lands; and the like.

SURVEYOR *of the melting*, is an officer of the mint, whoſe buſineſs it is to ſee the bullion caſt out; and that it is not altered after the delivery of it to the melter.

SURVEYOR *of the navy*, is an officer whoſe buſineſs is to

know the ſtate of all ſtores, and ſee the wants ſupplied; to ſurvey the hulls, maſts, and yards, of ſhips; and to audit the boatſwains and carpenters account. See *Navy*.

SURVEYOR *of the ordnance*, is an officer, whoſe charge is to ſurvey all the king's ordnance, ſtores, and proviſions of war, in the cuſtody of the ſtore-keeper of the Tower of London, to allow all bills of debts, and to keep checks on labourers and artificers works.

SURVEYOR is alſo uſed for a gauger. And alſo for a perſon who meaſures and makes maps of lands. See *Surveying*.

SUTTLE-*Weight*. The pure or net weight of any ſort of goods, without caſk or wrapper.

SWABBER. The title of an inferior officer on board a man of war, whoſe office is to take care the ſhip be kept neat and clean. In order to this, he is to ſee her waſhed well once or twice a week at leaſt; eſpecially about the gun-wales and chains. He ought alſo to burn pitch or ſome ſuch thing now and then between decks, to prevent infection; and to acquaint the captain with ſuch of the men as are naſty and offenſive.

SWABIA. A circle of Germany. See *Germany*.

SWALLEY. A port-town of India, in the province of Cambaya, ſituated in 72 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 21 deg. 35 min. of N. lat. on the Indian ocean, 12 miles N. W. of Surat; where ſhips receive and deliver their merchandiſe for the merchants of Surat.

SWANSEY. A port-town of Glamorganſhire, ſituated in 4 deg. of W. lon. and 51 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. on Briſtol channel, 40 miles W. of Cardiff.

SWEDEN. Part of the ancient Scandinavia, is bounded by Norwegian Lapland towards the north; by the dominions of Moſcovy on the eaſt; by the Baltic ſea on the ſouth; and by Denmark and Norway on the weſt, lying between 10 and 30 deg. of E. lon. and between 56 and 69 deg. of N. lat. ſo that it muſt be 800 miles long from N. to S. and 500 broad from E. to W. But then within theſe bounds Finland is included, which was entirely conquered by the Ruſſians, under the late Czar Peter. However, the Ruſſians, by a late treaty of peace, have reſtored five of the provinces of Finland to the Swedes again; retaining only the diſtrict of Kexholm and Carelia, to the northward of the river Nye; and of theſe Sweden has made an abſolute ceſſion to Ruſſia, as well as of the reſt of the Swediſh dominions, to the ſouthward of that river, namely, of Ingria, Eſtonia, and Livonia, the richeſt and moſt commodious of all the Swediſh territories, and which that crown would never have parted with but upon the laſt neceſſity. See *Ruſſia*.

Part of the Swediſh Pomerania in Germany, with Bremen and Verden, have been alſo relinquiſhed to other powers by the Swedes; ſo that Sweden is now almoſt reduced within its ancient bounds. See *Germany*.

From the mountains in Sweden fall innumerable rivers, or torrents, not many of them navigable, on account of the rocks and cataracts which obſtruct their paſſage; they form however conſiderable lakes, the chief whereof are the Wener, and the Weter, each of them near 100 miles in length; and the Meller, whereon Stockholm ſtands. The ſeas of Sweden are the Sound, which divides Gothland and Schonen from Denmark; the Baltick, or Eaſt ſea, which flows between Sweden and Germany, and between Sweden and Livonia; the Bothnick bay, or Bodenzee, which ſeparates Sweden from Finland; and the gulph of Finland, which divides Finland from Livonia; but of the latter, the Ruſſians have, in a manner, the dominion at preſent, being poſſeſſed of Wybourg, Peterſburg, Narva, Revel, and indeed of almoſt all the other ports upon it.

The ſix grand provinces of Sweden, are, 1. Gothland, or Gothia. 2. Sweden, or old Sweden proper. 3. Swediſh Lapland. 4. Finland. 5. The Swediſh dominions in Germany; which were lately Pomerania, Bremen, and Verden; but, as theſe were conquered by the Danes and their allies in the late war, Sweden reſigned her intereſts in Bremen and Verden, to King George I. Elector of Hanover, and her right in Stetin to the King of Pruſſia; ſo that there remains little in poſſeſſion of the Swede in Germany except Stralſund, and the territory about it, lying over againſt the iſle of Rugen. 6. The iſlands of Sweden, which are very numerous, the chief being thoſe of Gothland, Oeland, Aland, Huena, Rugen, and Uſedom: as for the iſlands of Oeſel, Dago, and the other iſlands on the coaſt of Livonia, theſe were reſigned by Sweden to Ruſſia, with Livonia itſelf, by the late peace.

Gothland, is again ſubdivided into the provinces of Eaſt Gothland, Weſt Gothland, Smaland, Wermeland, Dalia, Schonen, Bleking, and Halland. The chief towns of Gothland are Lunden, or Lund, the metropolis of Schonen, ſituated in 56 deg. of N. lat. and about 30 miles E. of Copenhagen, being now upon the decline. Malmo, a port-town about 12 miles S. of Lunden, being a good harbour, and well fortified. Landskroon, 16 miles N. W. of Lunden. Helſenburg, ſituated on the Sound, almoſt oppoſite to Elſenore. Chriſtianople, a port-town on the Baltic. Carelſcroon, where the royal navy is uſually laid up, ſituated on a little iſland upon the coaſt of Bleking, and joined to the continent by a long bridge. Calmar, a port-town, and place of pretty good trade, 20 miles N. of Carelſcroon. Weſterwick, a port-town, 50 miles N. of Calmar. Jenkoping, ſituated at the weſt-end of the lake of Weter. Halmſtadt, a port-town about 60 miles N. of Lunden. Gottenburg, the capital of Weſt Gothland, ſituated in 11 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 58 deg. of N. lat. on the coaſt of the Schaggerac, near the entrance of the Baltic, 200 miles S. W. of Stockholm, and 150 N. of Copenhagen: it is a well fortified town, with a good harbour; and, being to the northward of the Sound, is of great conſequence to Sweden, becauſe a trade may be carried on from thence, without being obliged to pay any duties to Denmark. Beſides theſe, there are the towns of Scara, 80 miles N. of Gottenburg; Lidkoping, on the S. ſide of the lake Wener; Marienſtat, on the ſame lake; Daleburg, on the Wener, 45 miles N. of Gottenburg; Carolſtat, on the Wener; Linkoping, 90 miles N. of Calmar; Suderkoping, 20 miles E. of Linkoping; and Norkoping, ſituated on the banks of a lake, between Linkoping and Suderkoping.

SWEDEN *Proper*, or *Old Sweden*, is divided into the provinces of Uplandia, Sudermonia, Weſtmania, Nericia, Geſtricia, Helſingia, Dalecarlia, Medelpedia, Angermania, Jemptia, and Weſt Bothnia. The chief town is Stockholm, the metropolis of the kingdom, ſituated on ſeveral ſmall iſlands in the lake of Meller, near the Baltic, in 18 deg. of E. lon. and 59 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. being 300 miles N. E. of Copenhagen, 900 N. E. of London, and 400 W. of Peterſburgh. The acceſs to it by ſea is extremely difficult, on account of the great number of ſmall iſlands which lie before the entrance of the harbour, and ſecure it from any inſults by ſea. It is neither walled nor fortified by art; nor is there much occaſion for either. The harbour is as ſpacious and ſecure as moſt in Europe, and ſhips of the greateſt burthen may ride cloſe to the keys: but then it is difficult to get in or out of the harbour, which is in a manner blocked up by the ice four or five months of the year: the different winds alſo, which are requiſite to carry a fleet out, demand a great deal of time; and there is no tide to help them; ſo that an enemy may deſtroy the whole coaſts before the Swedes can put to ſea: to prevent which, moſt part of the royal navy is laid up in the harbour of Carelſcroon. The city extends over the whole iſland of Stockholm; being only an Engliſh mile and half in circumference; but the ſuburbs, on the adjacent iſlands, are much larger; and the whole is computed to contain about 30,000 inhabitants: for beſides the iſland of Stockholm, there are five other ſmall iſlands built upon, and joined to it by bridges; being Ridderſholm, Koningſholm, Hogalandſholm, Schipſholm, and Ladduggrſtand. Stockholm has not been built much above 300 years; being till then a barren iſland, inhabited only by two or three fiſhermen, when a caſtle was built upon it, to prevent the incurſions of the Ruſſians: ſoon after the court removed thither from Upſal, and Stockholm became the metropolis of the kingdom, as alſo the greateſt town of trade in Sweden, as it is at preſent.

The other moſt remarkable places in proper Sweden are Upſal, ſituated in 17 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 60 deg. of N. lat. 40 miles N. of Stockholm, in the middle of a large plain, on the river Sala; being the only archbiſhopric in

in any Lutheran country. Enkoping ſtands on the north ſide of the lake of Meller, 40 miles W. of Stockholm. Nykoping, a pretty good harbour on the Baltic, 50 miles S. of Stockholm. Stregnes, 30 miles N. of Nykoping. Orebro, ſituated between the lake of Wener and Meller. Oroſia, or Weſteras, ſituated on the northſide of the Meller, 30 miles S. W. of Upſal. Gevelia, on the Bothnic gulph, 50 miles N. of Upſal. Hundſwickwald, on the ſame gulph, 80 miles N. of Gevalia. Indal, 40 miles N. of Hundſwickwald. Hernoſand, on the gulph of Bothnia, 90 miles N. of Hundſwickwald. Uma, 80 miles N. of Hernoſand. Torne, ſituated at the bottom of the Bothnic bay, on the confines of Lapland. Lida, 80 miles W. of Hernoſand. Hedmora, 60 miles N. W. of Upſal. Falun, and Reſundt.

SWEDISH *Lapland*, lies to the N. of Proper Sweden, and is ſubdivided into 5 parts, Torne Lapmark, Kimi Lapmark, Lula Lapmark, Pitha Lapmark, and Uma Lapmark; being ſo denominated from certain rivers which riſe in, or run through, each province, into Bothnia, and afterwards diſcharge themſelves into the Bothnic bay; there being a town at the mouth of each river, of the ſame name with the province from whence it flows. This province extends ſo far to the N. that very few have travelled over it. The town of Torne ſtands upon a little iſland, at the mouth of the river, in 22 deg. 45 min. of E. lon. and 65 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. 400 miles N. of Stockholm.

Finland lies ſouth of Swediſh Lapland, and is deſcribed under Ruſſia. See *Ruſſia*.

The SWEDISH *dominions in Germany* conſiſt now only of ſome part of the Upper or Swediſh Pomerania, bounded by the Baltic towards the north; by the Lower, or Brandenburgh Pomerania towards the eaſt; by the marquiſate of Brandenburgh towards the ſouth; and by Mecklenburgh on the weſt. The principal Swediſh town, ſince the Swedes were deprived of Stetin, Bremen and Verden, is Stralſund, ſituated on the ſhore of the Baltic, oppoſite the iſle of Rugen, in 13 deg. 22 min. of E. lon. and 54 deg. 23 min. of N. lat. 65 miles E. of Wiſmar, 80 N.W. of Stetin, and 40 N. E. of Roſtock. See *Germany*. The laſt grand diviſion of the Swediſh dominions conſiſts of the iſlands belonging to that kingdom, which are all of them ſituated in the Baltic. Aland is ſituated at the mouth of the Bothnic bay; having no town upon it, except Tiketo; and the villages were all reduced to aſhes by the Ruſſians in the late war. The iſland of Gothland is ſituated about 60 leagues to the weſtward of Livonia, being about 30 leagues in length, and 12 in breadth; the chief town whereof is Wiſby, or Viſburg: the harbour is large; but the piers being deſtroyed, it is almoſt choaked up with ſand: there are ſeveral good ports both on the eaſt and weſt ſide of the iſland, and the country is agreeably diverſified with meadow and arable land: they alſo dig free ſtones here, and a kind of grey marble, not unlike granate. The iſland of Oeland is a little to the eaſtward of the continent of Gothland; about 25 leagues long, and 4 broad, the chief town whereof is Bornholm. Oxen, horſes, and fallow deer, abound in this iſland, which conſiſts chiefly of paſture ground. Huena is a ſmall iſland in the Sound, the chief town whereof is Urainberg. The iſland of Rugen, ſituated over againſt Stralſund, in the Upper Pomerania, is 30 miles long, and as many broad; but ſo indented with creeks and bays of the ſea, that there is no part of it a league diſtant from the coaſt. There is no walled town in this iſland, but it abounds in grain and cattle. The iſlands of Uſedom and Wollin lie to the ſouthward of Rugen, on the coaſt of Pomerania, in which there is no great town, nor any thing elſe remarkable. The paſſage between theſe two iſlands is narrow, and known by the name of the Swin Sound. The iſlands of Dagoe and Oeſel, belong to Ruſſia: and there are alſo reputed to be ſix thouſand leſſer iſlands on the coaſt of Sweden.

The Swedes are of a good ſtature, and robuſt conſtitutions; qualified by nature and education for enduring hardſhips and fatigue, rather than for undertaking any thing of art or curioſity. The nobility apply themſelves chiefly to a military life; the gentry will not condeſcend to accept employments in the church, to practiſe law or phyſic, or exerciſe any trade; and ſuch who follow mercantile affairs will rather do the drudgery, than dive into the myſtery of commerce or manufactures; ſo that, in whatever requires ingenuity and dexterity, they are obliged to be ſerved by ſtrangers.

The whole year in Sweden is divided into two ſeaſons; winter and ſummer: for the ſpring and autumn are of ſo ſhort duration, that they ſcarce deſerve any conſideration. They have ſtrawberries, raſberries, and ſuch kind of fruit growing upon every rock, during the three ſummer months; and they have alſo apples, pears, plumbs and cherries; with plenty of all kinds of roots. Their woods conſiſt chiefly of fir, pines, beech, birch, alder, juniper, and ſome oak, particularly in the province of Bleking; and the trees grow in moſt places ſo thick, that they are not paſſable. Their cattle are of a ſmall ſize: but the horſes of Finland are valued beyond thoſe of Germany. Their ſheeps wool is coarſe, and only fit to make cloathing for the common people. Their wild beaſts are bears, wolves, elks, deer, foxes, hares, and ſquirrels; of which the three laſt change their colour to white in the winter, as they do in Ruſſia. They have plenty of fowl, both wild and tame. Their lakes and rivers are well ſtored with variety of good fiſh; particularly ſalmon, pearch, trouts, tench, pikes, and many others; of which the ſtreamling, a fiſh ſomething leſs than a pilchard, is very common, being ſalted, barrelled up, and ſent to all parts of the country: they alſo ſalt up their ſalmon, and large pikes; which ſerve them for food in the winter when their waters are frozen up, and no freſh fiſh to be had: beſides, they have ſeal, and ſome other fiſh in the Bothnic gulph, of which they make great quantities of train oil.

The principal part of the Swediſh manufactures conſiſts in what is made of copper and iron; of which they have valuable mines. There is alſo a mine of ſilver, whoſe ore yields about 4 *per cent.* and requires great pains to refine it; though it produces about 20,000 crowns of fine ſilver yearly, of which the king has the pre-emption, paying one fourth leſs than the real value. The great copper mine of Dalecarlia is 80 fathom deep, and of a great extent, yielding annually the value of 200,000 l. ſterling, of which the king has a 4th part in kind, and of the remainder a duty of 25 *per cent.* when exported unwrought. There are a great number of iron mines and forges; particularly in the mountainous part of the country, where they have the convenience of water-falls to turn their mills; from which, beſides what ſerves for their own uſe, they export annually to the value of 300,000 l. ſterling in iron to foreign countries. There is a fair held every year at Oretro, where the citizens of Stockholm and Gottenburg chiefly reſort; having the privilege of buying up the iron of the bruck-patrons, or maſters of the iron works; and ſelling it to foreigners, who have not the privilege of buying it at the firſt hand.

The Swedes formerly, either through pride or indolence, ſuffered their copper and iron ore to be carried into foreign countries, and wrought abroad: ſo that the Hanſe towns monopolized this branch of trade till about the time of the reformation; for the ore was carried to Dantzic, and Pruſſia, where it was forged into bars; which is the reaſon that the Engliſh ſmiths ſtill call foreign iron Dantzic or ſpruce iron. The Swediſh nation owes its greateſt improvements in this manufacture to thoſe ingenious mechanics who were driven out of the Low Countries, by the Duke of Alva, at the beginning of the reformation: for theſe people, not being allowed the liberty of their religion at home, tranſported themſelves to Sweden, where they erected forges, and other conveniencies, for the making of iron guns, wire, and all manner of manufactures of copper, braſs, and iron; which are ſtill chiefly carried on by the deſcendants of thoſe people.

The exports from Sweden, beſides their hard ware, are pitch, tar, maſts, deals, and wooden ware: they have alſo endeavoured to ſet up the ſilk and woollen manufactures; in the latter of which they have in ſome meaſure ſucceeded. However, the Swedes import from abroad

woollen

woollen cloth, ſilk, ſtuffs, wine, brandy, ſugar, ſpices, tobacco, paper, linen, and other merchandiſe, which uſually balance their exportations, and ſometimes exceed them.

Almoſt all the commerce of Sweden is carried on at Stockholm; ſtrangers having not the liberty of trading in the Bothnic gulph; nor the ſubjects of the crown the liberty of carrying their merchandiſe elſewhere than to the capital.

The Swedes themſelves import moſt of their merchandiſe to Holland, Spain, Portugal, and France; bringing great cargoes of wine, brandy, and ſalt from France, eſpecially in the time of a war.

The Engliſh and Dutch are thoſe who trade moſt to Sweden; the former upon account of their woollen cloths, and the latter on account of their ſpice. The trade of the Dutch is notwithſtanding the more conſiderble; particularly ſince in ſome reſpects they have made themſelves maſters of the copper mines of the kingdom, and the pitch and tar made there; which therefore are almoſt as cheap at Amſterdam as at Stockholm.

Strangers are allowed to unload at Stockholm the merchandiſes they bring there, without paying the duties, but as they ſell them; and it is in their power, if they cannot diſpoſe of their goods, to bring them back aboard their ſhips to ſell them elſewhere, paying only a duty of one half *per cent.*

The duties of entry upon merchandiſe are ſo exceſſive at Stockholm, that the generality of ſtrangers are diſguſted at bringing any there; and it is certain, if the Swedes underſtand well their intereſt, they would find more advantage in the moderation of theſe duties, than they do by keeping them ſo high; becauſe they would eaſily gain by the quantity of merchandiſe, and ſhipping entering their ports, what they would ſeem to loſe by lowering them, ſhould even the product of their cuſtomhouſe not increaſe by a conduct ſo proper for keeping on footing a conſiderable commerce in a ſtate.

An idea of theſe exceſſive duties may be had by thoſe raiſed upon French wines, brandy, and ſalt.

Wines pay 60 rixdollars, or 14 l. ſterling *per* ton duty of entry.

Brandy, 12 rixdollars, or 2 l. 13 s. 6 d. ſterling *per* barique.

Salt, 18 rixdollars, or 4 l. 4 s. 6 d. ſterling *per* laſt.

The revolutions which happened in Livonia, Pomerania, and the dutchy of Bremen, by the war in the north, gave birth to ſeveral pieces of writing, whereby it was inſinuated that Peter the Great Czar of Muſcovy, formed the deſign of ruining the commerce of other nations in the Baltic, and engroſſing it all to himſelf.

The letter, ſuppoſed to be written by the merchants of Hamburg, and Dantzick, to thoſe of London, and Amſterdam, gives a plan thereof pretty well imagined, and places the center of this new Ruſſian commerce in the city of Peterſburg, where it would be eaſy to tranſport on one ſide all the merchandiſe of the Eaſt, the empires of Turky and Perſia, by the junction of the Tanais and Volga; and by conducting alſo a canal from the latter as far as the great lake of Ladoga, which falls into the Baltic; as alſo on the north ſide all thoſe of Archangel, by the river Onega, which, made to run into the ſmall lake of Kargapol, may be eaſily joined with a river which falls into the great lake of Onega that empties itſelf into the Ladoga by the river Sueri.

Theſe junctions made, and paſſages eſtabliſhed, the Baltic is ſuppoſed to be overſpread with Ruſſian ſhips built at Petersburg, and in the ports of Livonia, which are to exclude all other European nations from the entrance of the Sound, and to bring all the merchandiſes of the Eaſt and North to Holland, and England, where the Engliſh and Dutch, who have diſtributed them for ſo long a time among other nations, with ſuch immenſe profits, will be obliged to receive them from the hands of the Muſcovites, at whatever price they ſhall think proper.

However, it does not appear that the Ruſſians have any ſuch intention.

The trade of the Swedes to England is held to be moſt beneficial to them; as it takes off their own manufactures, and brings them in return near two thirds in money. See *Balance* of Trade.

Their moſt diſadvantageous trade is that to France, which furniſhes them only with ſilks, and other trifles, to ſupply their vanity; taking off but little of their native commodities.

The college, or board of trade, at Stockholm, which conſiſts of a treaſurer and four counſellors, has the direction of their commerce, and determines all matters in relation to trade. The bank of Stockholm is of great advantage to their trade; as the merchants uſually make their payments to each other by bills drawn upon it; which ſaves them the trouble of tranſporting money from place to place; and this is no ſmall convenience in Sweden, where payments are frequently made in copper money, that require a wheel-barrow, or a cart, to bring home any conſiderable ſum.

The Swedes, as well as ſome other nations, have followed the example of the Engliſh, by eſtabliſhing an act of navigation, whereby foreigners are prohibited to import any goods but what are of the product of their country; which affects the Dutch more than the Engliſh, as they are the common carriers of Europe, tranſporting the effects of one country to another, and having little or nothing of their own growth. But if the Britiſh nation could improve its plantations in America, ſo as to be ſupplied with naval ſtores from thence, it is no matter how little they dealt with any of the northern powers, who at preſent receive chiefly ready money from Great Britain; becauſe, they either work ſome woollen cloths themſelves, or purchaſe the reſt at other markets, where the cloth is not ſo good, but can be had at a cheaper rate.

The royal navy of Sweden is now inferior both to that of Denmark, and to that of Ruſſia: however, ſeveral large ſhips are built in Sweden, and ſold to the French.

The public revenues of this kingdom annually amount to about a million ſterling; of which the cuſtoms produce about a fourth part, and the demeſne lands a third.

SWEEP, in the ſea-language. The ſeamen call the mould of the ſhip, when ſhe begins to compaſs in at the rung-heads, the ſweep of her, or the ſweep of the futtock.

SWEEPING *at ſea*, ſignifies dragging along the ground, at the bottom of the ſea or channel, with a three fluked grapnel, to find ſome hawſer or cable which is ſlipped from an anchor.

SWEETS, in the Engliſh cuſtoms, is a denomination for all kinds of made wines.

SWITZERLAND, including the country of the Griſons, and its other allies, is bounded by that part of Alſace called the Suntgaw, the Black foreſt, and part of the circle of Suabia towards the north; by the country of Tyrol on the eaſt; by the duchies of Savoy and Milan, and the provinces of Bergamo and Breſcia in Italy towards the ſouth; and by the country of Burgundy, or Franche-Comte in France, towards the weſt; extending in length from eaſt to weſt about 260 miles, and in breadth from north to ſouth upwards of 100 miles; there being ſome parts of Italy and Gaul annexed to it, which were not included in the antient Helvetia.

The country lies between 45 and 48 deg. of N. lat. and may be divided into three parts; Switzerland Proper, or the 13 cantons; the ſubjects of Switzerland, or the conquered countries; and the allies of Switzerland. The 13 cantons, according to their precedency, are Zurich, Bern, Lucern, Uri, Switz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, Bazil or Baſle, Friburg, Soluthurn, Schaffauſen, and Appenzel; of which the proteſtant cantons are Zurich, Bern, Bazil, and Schaffauſen, with above two thirds of the canton of Glaris, and more than half of Appenzel; the reſt being all Roman catholics.

The ſources of many great rivers are found in or near this country, from whence it is generally concluded to be the higheſt land in Europe; particularly the Rhine, the Rhone, the Danube, the Adda, the Ticino, the Lintz, the Aar, the Ruſs, the Inn, and innumerable other leſſer ſtreams; there being not a valley but is watered by a rivulet. There are alſo a great number of noble lakes, where ſome might deſerve the name of ſeas; particularly thoſe of Conſtance and Geneva, being near 60 miles in length

and 12 in breadth; as alſo thoſe of Neufchattel, Zurich, and Lucerne, almoſt of equal magnitude; and beſides the lakes in the vallies, there is one on the top almoſt of every mountain. There are alſo all over the country, as well on the hills as in the valleys, abundance of fine woods, and whole foreſts of pine and fir trees, which if they lay nearer the ſea, would be ineſtimable. There are alſo ſome groves of oaks and elms, but deal is moſt generally uſed both for building and firing; there being no great plenty of the other.

If the Switzers were not the beſt huſbandmen in Europe, many of their valleys would ſcarce bear any thing; and, as it is, the cold tempeſtuous ſeaſons about harveſt frequently deſtroy all the fruits of their labour. In the cantons of Lucerne, Ury, Switz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, they have not corn enough for the ſubſiſtence of the natives, and in ſome of them none at all: and tho' the ſurplus which the other cantons produce might ſupply them if it came to maturity, yet the mountains which ſurround them are ſuch magazines of hail, rain, and tempeſts, that the fruits of the earth are frequently blaſted by ſtorms, or killed by cold rains, and ſometimes they loſe their harveſt entirely; for which reaſon in plentiful years they lay up their corn in magazines, to prevent a famine among the common people in times of dearth.

Switzerland alſo produces wine of ſeveral ſorts, of which two are preferred above the reſt; the firſt white, produced in the Pais de Vaud, upon the banks of the lake of Geneva; the ſecond red, growing in the county of Neufchattel: but the ſame misfortune frequently happens to their vines as to their corn fields, the vintage being often ſpoiled by unſeaſonable weather. The Switzers abound in good cattle of all kinds; and have not only ſufficient for their own uſe, but drive a great trade with them in the neighbouring countries, eſpecially with their horſes. Veniſon they have in abundance, and all manner of fowls, wild and tame; they have alſo wild hogs, and goats of various kinds, particularly bouquetins, and chamois, which they reckon among their veniſon, and it is of the ſkin of the chamois that the ſhammy leather is made. Their lakes alſo abound in excellent fiſh, particularly trouts of an extraordinary ſize.

It is ſaid that there are ſome veins of ſilver, lead, iron, and copper, in their monntains; but either none of them are wrought, or they receive little benefit from them. They have alſo plenty of black marble with white veins and ſpots in it; and great quantities of cryſtal on the tops of the mountains and ſides of the rocks; being of two kinds, the one clear and tranſparent, the other pale and cloudy; and in the Valais they meet with a kind of bituminous coal.

France, Germany, Italy, and Holland, are the principal countries with which Switzerland entertains the moſt conſiderable commerce.

France ſupplies it with the corn of Alſace, the ſalt of Franche-Comté, the wines of Burgundy, gold and ſilver works, Lyons ſilks, and ſeveral woollen ſtuffs manufactured in the provinces that border upon the cantons of Switzerland.

It has from Germany all kinds of haberdaſhery ware, and particularly from Nuremberg great ſtores of hard-ware, as alſo leather from Frankfort.

Italy, eſpecially Piedmont and Savoy, ſend to it ordinary ſilks, orgenzins, and ferrets either ſpun or otherwiſe.

Laſtly, from Holland are brought to it cloths, ſerges, flannels, camblets, callicoes, muſlins, cambricks, cottons, ivory, medicinal drugs, dying ſtuffs, ſpice, tea, chocolate, train-oil, Ruſſia leather, and ſilk India ſtuffs.

The merchandiſes of the growth of Switzerland, or which are wrought in its manufactures, are Zurich crapes all of wool, others half wool and half ſilk, others of all numeros; linens of St. Gall, whereof great parcels are ſent into Germany, France, Spain, and Italy; ſeveral ſmall woollen ſtuffs, cheeſes, wool, white cattle, and horſes, which are greatly eſteemed, either for the cavalry, or for the ſervice of the artillery. The towns of the moſt extenſive commerce in Switzerland are Zurich, Zurzach, a bourg famous for its fairs, Schaffauſen, Bern, St. Gall, and Baſle or Bazil.

St. Gall is a town of Switzerland, 5 miles weſt of the lake of Conſtance. See *St. Gall.*

The principal commerce of this town conſiſts in its manufacture of linens, which trade is there ſo conſiderable, as to put the weavers upon a par with the nobility; ſo that they make with the gentlemen the firſt of the twelve tribes whereof the town is compoſed: beſides, manufactures of ſmall woollen ſtuffs alſo flouriſh there.

The external commerce of all theſe Swiſs towns is very conſiderable; yet it muſt be confeſſed, that if the trade they entertain with France is not ſo extenſive as that with ſome others of their neighbours, it is notwithſtanding both more profitable, and more honourable than any other, by reaſon of the great number of privileges which the French monarchs have granted in general to the whole Helvetic nation, and in particular to its traders.

The chief privileges the Switzers enjoy in France are the right of naturalization, which puts them upon an equality in all reſpects with the native French; the freedom of the fairs of Lyons, which they may exerciſe, and extend 15 days beyond the ordinary franchiſe, a thing not granted to any other nation, not even to the French; the entire remittance of ſeveral duties of importation for their manufactures; the liberty of buying up yearly certain quantities of the corn of Alſace, and other neighbouring provinces of France. Laſtly, the ſame privilege with regard to the ſalt of Franche-Comté, and ſome others, which may be ſeen in the different treaties made between France and the Swiſs cantons, in the reigns of Charles VII. and Lewis XII.

Geneva. The city of Geneva is very conſiderable on account of its antiquity, advantageous ſituation, the great number of its inhabitants, and eſpecially by its great commerce. It lies within the bounds of Savoy, and is allied with the cantons of Fribourg, Berne, and Zurich. See *Geneva.*

Its correſpondence with the traders of Marſeilles and Amſterdam, facilitates for it an intercourſe by ſea; and there is ſcarce a part of the earth, howſoever diſtant, where the nations of Europe ſend ſhipping, but ſome of the Genevians are met with, either in quality of factors, or trading on their own account; ſeveral even freighting entire ſhips, or purchaſing them for long voyages.

As to the commerce by land, the moſt conſiderable is that with France; particularly with Lyons; and next with Italy, Germany, and Holland.

The impreſſion of books at Geneva is in reputation; yet the printers are found fault with for not uſing good paper, and not being exact enough in the corrective part: however, the commerce of books is one of the richeſt carried on there.

The making of clocks is alſo pretty good there, and comes next to that of London, and Paris.

The manufactures moſt in repute there, are gold and ſilver lace; ribbons either of gold, ſilver, ſilk, or even ſimple thread; ſilk ſtuffs, with various kind of jewellers work, and trinkets.

Beſides all theſe merchandiſes manufactured at Geneva, ſtrangers may find there ſeveral others, which the Genevians have from their neighbours; as all kinds of Italian ſilks, Lyons taffetas, other ſilks ſtuffs of the ſame place, callicoes, muſlins, cambrics, fine linens, porcelain, tea, and chocolate brought there by the Dutch; laſtly, all kinds of drugs and ſpices that come from Marſeilles.

SYNDIC, in government and commerce, an officer in ſeveral countries intruſted with the affairs of a city, or other community, who calls meetings, makes repreſentations and ſolicitations to the miniſtry, or magiſtracy, according to the exigence of the caſe. The ſyndic is appointed to anſwer and account for the conduct of the body; makes and receives propoſals for the advantage thereof; controuls and corrects the failings of particular perſons of the body, or at leaſt procures their correction at a public meeting. In effect, the ſyndic is, at the ſame time, both agent and cenſor of the community. Almoſt all the companies in Paris, as the univerſity, and com-

 panies

panies of arts and trades, have their ſyndics; as have moſt of the cities of Provence and Languedoc.

SYNDIC is alſo uſed for a perſon appointed to ſollicit ſome common affair, wherein he himſelf has a ſhare; as happens particularly among ſeveral creditors of the ſame debtor, who fails or dies inſolvent.

The chief magiſtrate of Geneva is alſo called ſyndic; where there are four ſyndics choſen every year, the eldeſt of whom preſides in the council of twenty five, which is the chief council of the city, wherein all affairs are diſpatched, both civil and political: thus the other three elect cannot all come at the office till the four years end; ſo that the ſyndicate rölls among ſixteen perſons, all choſen out of the council of twenty-five.

SYRA. An iſland of the Turkiſh Archipelago. See *Turkiſh* Iſlands.

SYRACUSE. A city and port-town of Sicily, in the province of Valde Noto, ſituated in 15 deg. 5 min. of E. lon. and 37 deg. 25 min. of N. lat. on a fine bay of the Mediterranean, on the eaſt coaſt of the iſland, 65 miles S. of Meſſina.

SYROP, in pharmacy, an agreeable liquor, or compoſition of a moderately thick conſiſtence, made of juices, tinctures, or waters of fruits, flowers, or herbs boiled up, and ſweetened with ſugar or honey, and taken either for health or pleaſure.

There are various kinds of ſyrops, denominated from the various fruits they are extracted from; as ſyrop of violets, of elder, of poppies, and the like; emetic ſyrops, lienteric, and antinephritic ſyrops: chologogue, phlegmagogue ſyrops, and others.

SYROP *of Sapor*, is an ancient medicament, the baſe whereof is apples, with juices of bugloſs, aniſe, and ſaffron; thus called by Sapor king of Perſia, who overcame the emperor Valerian, ſuppoſed to be the inventor thereof.

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TABACCO. See *Tobacco*.

TABAGO. One of the neutral Caribbee iſlands, lying in 59 deg. of W. lon. and in 11 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 120 miles ſouth of Barbadoes.

TABARCA. An iſland on the coaſt of Barbary, in Africa, ſituated in 8 deg. of E. lon. and 36 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 50 miles weſt of Tunis.

TABBY, in commerce. A kind of coarſe taffety watered; which is manufactured like the common taffety, excepting that it is ſtronger and thicker, both in the woof and warp. See *Taffety*.

The watering is given by means of a calender; the rolls being either of iron or copper, variouſly engraven; which, bearing unequally on the ſtuff, render the ſurface thereof unequal, ſo as to reflect the rays of light differently.

TABBYING. The paſſing the ſtuff under a calender, to make the repreſentation of waves thereon, as on tabby. It is uſual to tabby mohairs and ribbands; but this tabbying is performed without the addition of any water or dye, and furniſhes the modern philoſophers with a ſtrong proof that colours are only appearances.

TABELLA, or *Tablet*, in pharmacy. A ſolid kind of electuary, or confection, made of dry ingredients, uſually with ſugar, and formed into little flat morſules, or ſquares, more uſually called lozenges, ſometimes morſelli, or troches; powders, fruits, and ſalts, being diſſolved in ſugar, and made into tabulæ, like thoſe of the juice of liquorice, for colds.

TABELLIO, in the Roman law. A ſcrivener; a kind of office often confounded with notary: yet the two differed in this, that the notaries only drew up, and kept the minutes of acts and inſtruments on paper, and in notes, or ſhort-hand; whereas the tabelliones delivered them engroſſed fairly on parchment, and in full executory form; alſo putting the ſeals to contracts, and rendering them authentic: but the domeſtic clerks of theſe tabelliones, who at firſt wrote under them, in proceſs of time, came to be called notaries. See *Notary*.

Paſquier obſerves, that the tabelliones at Rome were public ſlaves, appointed for the keeping of contracts made between private perſons. According to Loyſeau, a contract wrote by a notary, was not perfect or obligatory, till the tabellio had wrote it fair; after which the parties ſubſcribed it, that is, they wrote at the bottom that they approved the contents; for ſignatures were not then in uſe.

TABLE-*diamond*. See *Diamond*.

TABLE-*mountain*, at the Cape of Good Hope. The moſt northern cape or promontory of Africa, which here forms a bay called Table bay.

TABLES *of logarithms and rhumbs*, are uſed in geometry and navigation.

Loxodromic TABLES, are tables wherein the difference of longitude, and quantity of the way run in any rhumb, are exhibited to every ten minutes of every degree of the quadrant variation of the latitude. See *Rhumb*.

TACAMACHA, or *Tacamahaca*. A kind of reſinous gum, diſtilling from the trunk of a very large tree, growing in New Spain; but in greateſt abundance in the iſland of Madagaſcar.

This tree is not unlike the poplar, only bigger and taller, its leaves ſmall and green, its fruit red, of the ſize of walnuts, exceedingly reſinous, and containing a ſtone like peaches. The wood of the tree makes good timber for ſhips, and the gum it yields ſerves for their caulking; though its chief uſe is in medicine.

TAF

There are three kinds of Tacamacha; the ſublime, called alſo tacamacha in the pod; tacamacha in maſs; and tacamacha in tears. The firſt is the natural reſin, as it oozes of itſelf, without any inciſion made in the tree; the good is dry, reddiſh, tranſparent, of a bitter taſte, and a ſtrong ſmell, reſembling that of lavender. The iſlanders gather it in little gourds, divided in two, and covered with a palm-leaf.

The tacamachas in tears, and in the maſs, are thoſe which flow from the tree by inciſions: they muſt be choſen dry and clear, and their ſmell reſembling that of the firſt kind.

Gum Tacamacha, is found good for digeſting and diſſolving tumours, and aſſuaging pains. Burnt upon coals, it is reckoned good for hyſteric fits in women, and likewiſe applied to the belly in form of a plaſter. Some apply it to the temples in the ſame manner, and to the nape of the neck, for pains in the head, defluxions of rheum upon the throat, and inflammation of the eyes, as alſo in the tooth-ach. It is of ſo ſubtile and penetrating a nature, that it is greatly uſed in external applications, to ſuppurate and diſperſe tumours, and is eſteemed effectual in thoſe that are ſcrophulous. It is alſo uſed externally in arthritical pains with ſucceſs: in effect, the Indians uſe it for all kinds of pains; and Schroder affirms, that he has ſeen intolerable pains in the leg removed by it.

TACK *about*, in navigation. A term uſed at ſea, when a ſhip's head is brought about, ſo as to lie the contrary way. To effect this, they firſt make her ſtay; which done, ſhe is ſaid to be paid: they then let riſe and hale; that is, let the lee-tack riſe, and hale aſt the ſheets, and ſo trim all the ſails by a wind as they were before.

TACKLE, or *Tackling*, in navigation, includes all the ropes or cordage of a ſhip, with their furniture, whereby the ſails are managed.

TACKLES, are more properly uſed for ſmall ropes running in three parts, having at one end a pendant, with a block faſtened to them, or elſe a lannier; and at the other end a block and hook, to hang goods upon that are to be heaved into the ſhip, or out of it. There are ſeveral kinds of tackles; as the boat-tackle, ſerving to hoiſt the boat in and out; the tackles belonging to the maſts, ſerving as ſhrouds, to keep the maſts from ſtraining; the gunners tackles, with which the ordnance are hoiſted in and out; and the like.

TACKLE *porters*. See *Porters*.

TAEL, called by the Portugueſe *Telle*, and by the Chineſe *Leam*, is a ſmall Chineſe weight, making about 1 ounce 2 drams avoirdupois; and is particularly uſed at Canton, where 16 taels make 1 catis, and 100 catis the pic, each pic making 125 pounds avoirdupois.

TAEL, is alſo a Japaneſe money of accompt; which likewiſe, as well as at China, may paſs for a real coin; a tael of Japaneſe ſilver being worth about 1 s. 10 d. ſterling.

TAFFAREL, or *Tafferel*, in a ſhip. The uppermoſt part, frame, or rail, abaft, over the poop.

TAFFETY. A kind of fine ſilken ſtuff; having uſually a remarkable luſtre, or gloſs. See *Silk*, *Alamode*, and *Luſtring*.

Taffetas noir luſtre, is our alamode; and *non luſtre*, is our luſtring.

There are taffeties of all colours; ſome plain, others ſtriped, with gold, ſilver, and ſilk; others chequered, others flowered, others in the Chineſe point, others the Hungarian; with various others, to which the mode, or the caprice of the workmen, give ſuch whimſical names, that it would be as difficult as it is uſeleſs to rehearſe them; beſides that, they ſeldom hold beyond the year in

which they roſe. The old names of taffeties, and which ſtill ſubſiſt, are taffeties of Lyons, of Spain, of England, of Florence, and of Avignon.

The chief conſumption of taffeties is in womens dreſſes for ſummer, in linings, ſcarves, coifs, window-curtains, and the like.

There are three things which contribute chiefly to the perfection of taffeties, the ſilk, the water, and the fire. The ſilk is not only to be of the fineſt kind, but it muſt be worked a long time, and very much, before it is uſed. The watering, beſides that it is to be given very ſlightly, ſeems only intended to give that fine luſtre, by a peculiar property not found in all waters. Laſtly, the fire which is paſſed under it to dry the water, has its peculiar manner of application, whereon the perfection of the ſtuff very much depends.

Octavio May, of Lyons, is held the firſt author of the manufacture of gloſſy taffeties; and tradition tells us the occaſion of it. Octavio, it ſeems, going backwards in the world, and not able to retrieve himſelf by the manufacture of taffeties, ſuch as were then made, was one day conſidering on his misfortunes, and, in muſing, chanced to chew a few hairs of ſilk which he had in his mouth. His reverie being over, the ſilk he ſpit out ſeemed to ſhine, and on that account engaged his attention. He was ſoon led to reflect on the reaſon; and, after a good deal of thought, concluded that the luſtre of that ſilk muſt come, 1ſt, From his having preſſed it between his teeth; 2dly, From his having wet it with his ſaliva, which had ſomething glutinous in it; and, 3dly, From its having been heated by the natural warmth of his mouth. All this he executed upon the next taffeties he made; which immediately acquired immenſe riches to himſelf, and to the city of Lyons the reputation it ſtill maintains, of giving the gloſs to taffeties better than any other city in the world.

Herb TAFFETIES. See *Herb* taffeties.

TAFFOUSSA, or *Tafouſi*. A medicinal drug, found in the kingdoms of Camboya and Siam; being eſteemed greatly by the Chineſe, and other eaſtern nations; who make it one of the principal merchandiſe of their cargo of return from Camboya and Siam.

TAGUS. The largeſt river of Spain, which riſes on the confines of Arragon, and runs S. W. through the provinces of New Caſtile and Eſtramadura; paſſing by the cities of Aranjuez, Toledo, and Alcantara: it then croſſes Portugal, and forms the harbour of Liſbon, where it is about three miles over, and falls into the Atlantic ocean eight or ten miles below that city.

TAIL, or *Taile*, is uſed for what is vulgarly called a tally. See *Tally*.

TAINE. A port-town of Scotland, lying in 3 deg. 45 min. of W. lon. and 58 deg. of N. lat. ſituated on the frith of Dornock, in the ſhire of Roſs, oppoſite to the town of Dornock, 12 miles north of Cromarty.

TAITCHEU. A city and port-town of China, in Aſia, lying in 121 deg. of E. lon. and 29 deg. of N. lat. ſituated on the coaſt of the Pacific ocean, 260 miles S. E. of Nanking.

TAKE *and Leave*, in the ſea-language. The ſailors ſay, a ſhip can take and leave upon her when ſhe will, when ſhe ſails ſo well that ſhe can come up with another, or out-ſail her at pleaſure.

TALAMONE. A port-town of Tuſcany, ſituated in 11 deg. 50 min. of E. lon. and 42 deg. 33 min. of N. lat. on the coaſt of Del Preſidii, 15 miles north of Orbitello, ſubject to Spain.

TALC, or *Talk*, in natural hiſtory. A ſhining, ſquamous, fiſſile ſpecies of ſtone, eaſily ſeparable into thin tranſparent ſcales or leaves.

Antiently talc was found in Spain, but afterwards in Egypt and Cappadocia; as alſo in Arabia and Africa: at preſent they dig it in the Alps and Apennines, in ſeveral mountains in Germany, and even in England, particularly in Northamptonſhire.

Two kinds of talc are uſually diſtinguiſhed; namely, white talc of Venice, and red of Muſcovy; to which may be added parget, or the Engliſh talc.

That from Venice is the moſt eſteemed; which is brought in large, ſhining, greeniſh ſtones; but becomes white, and exceedingly tranſparent when wrought. It appears greaſy to the touch, though there is ſcarce any ſtone drier; yet it pulverizes with difficulty, nor is it eaſily calcined. Its chief uſe is as a ſcreen or cover for paintings in miniature and crayons, for which purpoſe thin ſlices thereof are uſed. It is ſometimes alſo uſed for a fucus; in order to which, by reaſon of the difficulty of pulverizing it, they content themſelves to raſp it with the ſkin of a ſea-dog, and to paſs the raſping through a ſieve. Pliny, in his natural hiſtory, lib. 36. cap. 22. obſerves, that the Romans not only uſed it for window-lights, but they alſo paved the circus with the ſame.

The talc brought from Muſcovy is uſually reddiſh in the ſtone; but it ſeldom comes to England otherwiſe than in leaves, which are very hard, ſmooth, gloſſy, and exceedingly tranſparent. It is found in quarries in Ruſſia and Perſia, and is uſed there to make lanthorns, to cover paintings, and the like.

Some chemiſts, and other empirics, have held, that talc might be uſed for many more important purpoſes; and pretend to draw from it that precious oil, ſo much boaſted of by the antients, particularly the Arabs, called oil of talc, which is ſuppoſed a wonderful coſmetic, and preſerver of the complexion: but the truth is, the word talc, among them, ſignified no more than an equal diſpoſition of the humours, which keep the body in good temperament, and perfect health.

Now, as nothing contributes more than health to the preſerving of beauty, this has given occaſion to the chemiſts to ſearch this oil of talc, which is to maintain the body in this diſpoſition, and to engage the ladies to be at the expence of the ſearch.

Some have alſo pretended, that yellow or red talc contained the ſeeds of gold; and that a menſtruum might be drawn from it, to tranſmute metals into gold or ſilver, to fix mercury, and the like; but this is mere charletanery.

TALE. The number or account of any thing.

TALE, is uſed both as a money of accompt, and as a weight, in China; the former being 10 mace, or 100 candarins, or 1000 caxas, or 6 s. 8 d. ſterling; and the latter being 10 mace, or 100 candarins, or 4 ounces and 10 drams.

TALENT. A quantity of gold or ſilver, particularly uſed among the Jews; weighing, according to ſome writers, 114 lb. 15 dwt. troy; though, by others, only 113 lb. 6 oz. 1 dram, 10 gr. and 7 dwt. In ſilver it is eſtimated at 342 l. 3 s. 9 d. ſterling; and in gold 5475 l. ſterling.

TALLAGE. A certain rate, according to which barons and knights were anciently taxed by the king for the expences of the ſtate; and inferior tenants by their lords, on certain occaſions.

This latter tallage of the cuſtomary tenants, was ſometimes fixed and certain, and ſometimes at the pleaſure of the lord; though it was alſo ſometimes compounded for.

Tallages were anciently called cuttings; which name is ſtill retained in Ireland, though in a different ſignification; but tallage, ſays Sir Edward Coke, is a general name, including all taxes.

TALLOW. A ſort of animal fat, melted down and clarified; there being ſcarce any animal that tallow may not be prepared from; but thoſe which yield the moſt, and whereof the moſt uſe is made, are the horſe, bullock, ſheep, hog, goat, deer, bear, and viper: ſome of which tallows, or fats, are uſed in medicine; moſt of the reſt being uſed in making ſoap, and the dreſſing of leather; but chiefly in the making of candles.

By the acts paſſed in the 18th Elizabeth, and 13th and 14th Charles II. tallow, and raw hides, ſhipped with an intent to be tranſported, are forfeited, with treble the value, a year's impriſonment of the maſters and mariners, and loſs of their goods and chattels, if they know of it, and of the ſhip, if with the owners knowledge. Owners, maſters, or mariners, diſcovering within three months after their return, or knowledge thereof, are to be acquitted.

TALLOW-CHANDLER. A perſon who makes candles with tallow.

TALLOW-CHANDLERS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters patent of the 2d of Edward IV. in 1463, by the name of The maſter and keepers, and commonalty of the art and myſtery of tallow-chandlers of the city of London; who anciently not only dealt in candles, but likewiſe in oil, vinegar, butter, hops, ſoap, and other things; at which time great frauds were committed by adulterating oil; for the preventing whereof this company was, by act of parliament, impowered to ſearch the ſame, and to deſtroy all ſuch as ſhould be found bad; but, no reward being aſcertained for the ſearchers, it was ſoon neglected.

Great abuſes being committed in other goods wherein this company dealt, occaſioned them to apply to Queen Elizabeth, for a power to redreſs the ſame; which they obtained by letters-patent, when the execution thereof was vigorouſly oppoſed by the court of lord mayor and aldermen.

This company is governed by a maſter, 4 wardens, and 38 aſſiſtants, with a livery of 170 members; who, when admitted, pay a fine of 15l. and have a ſtately hall on Dowgate-hill, wherein they treat of their affairs.

TALLOW-TREE, in China, is a tree growing in great plenty in that country, which produces a ſubſtance like tallow, and ſerving for the ſame purpoſe. It is about the height of a cherry-tree, bearing leaves in form of a heart, of a deep, ſhining red colour, and the bark very ſmooth. Its fruit is incloſed in a kind of pod, or cover, like a cheſnut, and conſiſts of three round white grains, of the ſize and form of a ſmall nut, each having its peculiar capſula, and within a little ſtone, which is encompaſſed with a white pulp, that has all the properties of true tallow, both as to conſiſtence, colour, and even ſmell: accordingly, the Chineſe make their candles of it; which would doubtleſs be as good as thoſe in England, or any part of Europe, if they knew how to puriſy their vegetable tallow, as well as Europeans do the animal tallow: but all the preparation they give it, is to melt it down, and mix a little oil with it, to make it ſofter, and more pliant. It is true, their candles made of it yield a thicker ſmoak, and a dimmer light, than ours; but thoſe defects are owing, in a great meaſure, to the wicks, which are not of cotton, but only a little rod, or ſwitch of dry light wood, covered with the pith of a ruſh, wound round it; which being very porous, ſerves to filtrate the minute parts of the tallow, attracted by the burning-ſtick, that by this means is kept alive.

TALLY, or *Taillie*. A piece of wood, whereon retail traders uſe to ſcore or mark, by notches or inciſions, the ſeveral quantities of goods they deliver out on credit, to ſave the trouble of writing down ſo many little articles in books.

Each ſcore conſiſts of two pieces of wood, or rather of a ſingle piece cleft length-wiſe, the parts whereof falling in with one another, the things delivered are ſcored on both at the ſame time, the ſeller keeping one, and the buyer the other.

Tallies are taken as evidences in courts of juſtice, as much as books; and the ancient way of keeping all accompts was by tallies; the debtor ſtill keeping one part, and the creditor the other.

There are three kinds of tallies mentioned in the Engliſh ſtatutes, and long uſed in the exchequer.

TALLIES *of loans*. One part whereof is kept in the exchequer, and the other part given to particular perſons, in lieu of an obligation for the money they have lent to the government on acts of parliament. This laſt part is called the ſtock, and the former the counter-ſtock, or counter-tail.

The tallies are numbered, bear the perſon's name, and the ſum lent: thus we ſay, the tallies number have been paid, diſcharged; tallies are riſen, fallen, 4, 5, 6, and the like.

TALLIES, or *Tailes of debt*, are a kind of acquittances for debts paid the king: as for example, the univerſity of Cambridge pays yearly 10l. for ſuch things as are by charter granted them in fee-farm. He that pays this, receives a taile or tally for his diſcharge; with which, or a note of it, he repairs to the clerk of the pipe, and there for the tally receives a full diſcharge on parchment.

TALLYMAN. One who ſells goods to the poorer ſort of people on credit, to be paid a little at a time by weekly payments.

TALWOOD. See *Fuel*.

TAMARINDS. A kind of medicinal fruit, of a tart agreeable taſte, brought from the Eaſt as well as the Weſt Indies; being called by ſome Indian dates, and by others the Indian acacia. The tree which yields it, called by the Indians tamarinds, and the Portugueſe tamarindos, is not unlike the aſh, or walnut-tree; its leaves reſemble thoſe of female fern, and its flowers are joined 8 or ten together, like thoſe of the orange-tree. Its fruit is in a pod, the length of a finger, and the thickneſs of the thumb, covered at firſt with a green rind, which afterwards becomes brown, and contains a blackiſh acid pulp, among which are found ſeeds reſembling lupines. It is this pulp alone that is brought to us, and uſed in medicine.

Tamarinds muſt be choſen big, of a jet colour, a briſk taſte, not too dry, and ſuch as have not been laid in the cellar, nor falſified with molaſſes of ſugar and vinegar. They are found laxative, cooling, and good to quench thirſt. In burning fevers, they are preſcribed to moiſten and cool the mouth.

TAMBAC, or *Tambaqua*. A mixture of gold and copper, which the people of Siam hold more beautiful, and ſet a greater value, on than gold itſelf. Some travellers ſpeak of it as a metal found in its peculiar mines; but upon what authority, is not known. The Abbé de Choiſy, in his journal of Siam, doubts whether it may not be the electrum or amber of Solomon. The ambaſſadors of Siam brought ſeveral works in tambac to Paris, in the reign of Lewis XIV. which were not found ſo beautiful as was expected.

TAMLING. A name given by the Siameſe to a kind of money and weight, called by the Chineſe tael. See *Tael*. The tael of Siam is about one half lighter than the Chineſe; ſo that the Siameſe cati is worth but 8 Chineſe taels, and 20 Siameſe taels but one Chineſe cati.

TAMMY. A ſtrong ſort of worſted ſtuff, or wove manufacture.

TAN. The bark of the oak, chopped, and ground, by a tanning-mill, in a coarſe powder, to be uſed in the tanning, or dreſſing of ſkins.

New tan is the moſt eſteemed; for when old it loſes a deal of its effect, in condenſing or cloſing the pores of the ſkins; ſo that the longer the ſkins are kept in tan, the greater ſtrength and firmneſs they acquire. In effect, not only the bark, but every part of the oak-tree, of what age or growth ſoever, and even oaken coppice, cut in barking-time, makes as good tan as the beſt bark; which muſt be well dried in the ſun, houſed dry, and kept ſo. To uſe it, the greater wood may be ſhaved ſmall, or cleft in little pieces by a tanning-engine for the purpoſe; this done, it is well dried again on a kiln, and then ground by the mill; but where oak is ſcarce, thorns may ſupply the defect. See *Tanning*.

TANAIS. A river. See *Don*.

TANDAGA. One of the moſt eaſterly of the Philippine iſlands in Aſia, lying in 124 deg. of E. lon. and 12 deg. of N. lat. ſubject to the King of Spain. See *Philippine* iſlands.

TANG, is a kind of fine, plain, or flowered muſlin, brought by the Engliſh from the Eaſt Indies; the piece being 16 ells in length, and 3-4ths in breadth.

TANGA. A money of account uſed in ſome parts of the Eaſt Indies, particularly at Goa, and upon the coaſt of Malabar.

There are two ſorts of tangas, the one of good, and the other of bad alloy; the tanga of good is by 1-5th more than the bad; ſo that if 4 tangas of good be given for the pardao xerafin, 5 of the bad muſt be given for the ſame.

TANGIER. A port-town of Africa, in the empire of Morocco, and kingdom of Fez, lying in 7 deg. of W. lon. and 35 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. ſituated on the ſtraits of Gibraltar. It was the capital of the ancient

Mauritania Tingitana, taken from the Moors by the Portugueſe, and by them transferred to Charles II. King of England, in 1661, when he married the Princeſs Catharine, Infanta of Portugal; but the King being at a great charge in keeping up the fortifications, and maintaining a numerous garriſon againſt the continual attacks of the Moors, the works were blown up and demoliſhed, and the garriſon withdrawn from thence in 1683.

TANI. The better kind of the two ſilks brought by Europeans from Bengal; the other, called monta, being only ferret.

TANJEBS. A kind of muſlin, brought from the Eaſt Indies, particularly from Bengal; the piece being generally 16 ells in length, and 3-4ths in breadth.

TANJEBS, are alſo a kind of muſlin handerchiefs, edged with ſilk, brought from the Eaſt Indies.

TANNING. The preparing of ſkins or hides in a pit, with a tan and water, after having firſt taken off the hair, by ſteeping them in lime-water. See *Tan*, and *Hide*.

Method of TANNING *cows, calves, and horſe hides.* The ſkin being flead off the carcaſs, if it is intended to be kept, is ſalted with ſea-ſalt and alum, or with a kind of ſaltpetre called natron: if it is not for keeping, the ſalting is ſaved, as being of no uſe, but to prevent the hide from corrupting before it can be conveniently carried to the tan-houſe. Whether the hide has been tanned or not, the tanner begins with taking off the horns, the ears, and the tail; after, it is thrown into a running water for 30 hours, to waſh off the blood and other impurities adhering to the inſide. This done, it is laid over-night in a lime-pit, already uſed; whence it is taken, and left to drain 3 or 4 days on the edge of the pit; then it is returned to a ſtrong lime-pit for two days, and taken out for four, and thus for ſix weeks alternately, taken out, and put in, twice a week. At the ſix weeks end, it is put into a freſh pit, where it continues 8 days, and is taken out for ſo many, and this alternately for a year or eighteen months. Every freſh lime-pit they throw the ſkins into, is ſtronger and ſtronger. At five or ſix weeks end the tanner ſcrapes off the hair on a horſe, with a knife made for the purpoſe. After a year or eighteen months, when the hair is perfectly gone, he carries it to the river to waſh, and takes off any remains of fleſh and filth on the ſide of the hair. The ſkin is now covered over with tan, as it is ſtretched in the pit, and water let in upon it. If the ſkin be ſtrong, five coverings of tan will be required; for weaker, 3 or 4 will ſuffice. When the hides are ſufficiently tanned, they are taken out of the pit to be dried, by hanging in the air; though, in Champagne, the tanners give the firſt preparation with barley inſtead of lime.

TANNING-*mill*. See *Mill*.

TAORMINA. A port-town of Sicily, ſituated in 15 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 38 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. in the province of Demona, 18 miles S. of Meſſina.

TAPER, denotes a kind of ſmall wax-candle, placed in a candleſtick, and burnt at ſeveral proceſſions, or in other church-ſolemnities. See *Candle*.

Tapers are made of different ſizes; in ſome places, as in Italy, they are cylindrical; but in England, France, and moſt other countries, they are conical, or taper, whence poſſibly their name; unleſs we rather chuſe to derive taper in the adjective ſenſe from the ſubſtantive *taper*, in the Saxon tapen, or tapon, *cereus*, a wax-candle. Both kinds are pierced at bottom for a pin in the candleſtick to enter.

TAPESTRY, or *Tapiſtry*. A curious kind of manufacture, ſerving to adorn a chamber, or other apartment, by hanging or lining the walls thereof. Some uſe the word tapeſtry as a general name for all kinds of hangings, whether woven or wrought with the needle; and whether of ſilk, wool, linen, leather, or paper, in which they are countenanced by the etymology of the word, formed from the French *tapiſſer*, to line, or of the Latin *tapes*, the cover of a bed: but, in the common uſe of our language, the term is now appropriated to a kind of woven hangings, of wool and ſilk, frequently raiſed and enriched with gold and ſilver, repreſenting the figures of men, animals, and landſkips.

The invention of tapeſtry ſeems to have come from the Levant; and what makes this more probable is, that formerly the workmen concerned herein, were called, at leaſt in France, ſarazins, or ſaraſinois.

It is ſuppoſed that the Engliſh and Flemiſh, who were the firſt that excelled herein, might bring the art with them from ſome of the croiſades, or expeditions againſt the Saracens.

Be this as it will, it is certain thoſe two nations, particularly the Engliſh, were the firſt who ſet on foot this noble and rich manufacture in Europe, now one of the fineſt ornaments of palaces, baſilicæ, and churches. Hence, if they be not allowed the inventors, they have at leaſt the glory of being the reſtorers of ſo curious and admirable an art, as gives a kind of life to wools and ſilks, in no reſpect inferior to the paintings of the beſt maſters. It was late before the French applied themſelves to tapeſtry; the firſt eſtabliſhment of that kind was under Henry IV. in the year 1607, in the fauxbourg St. Michael; but this fell with the death of that prince. Under Lewis XIV. the manufacture was retrieved by the care and addreſs of the great Mr. Colbert, to whom the eſtabliſhment of the Gobelins is owing, a royal tapeſtry manufacture, which has produced works in this kind ſcarce inferior to the fineſt Engliſh or Flemiſh tapeſtry, either with regard to the deſign, the colours, or the ſtrength. See *Gobelins*.

The tapeſtry-men diſtinguiſh two kinds of work, namely, tapeſtry of the high and low; though the difference is rather in the manner of working, than in the work itſelf, which is in effect the ſame in both; only the looms, and conſequently the warps, are differently ſituated; thoſe of the low warp being placed flat, and parallel to the horizon; and thoſe, on the contrary, of the high warp, erected perpendicularly.

The Engliſh formerly excelled all the world in their tapeſtry of the high warp; and they yet retain their former reputation, though with ſome little change: their low warps are ſtill admired; but as for the high ones, they are quite laid aſide.

The French have three conſiderable tapeſtry-manufactures beſide that of the Gobelins, the firſt at Aubuſſon in Avergne, the ſecond at Felletin in the Upper Marche, and the third at Beauvois; which were all equally eſtabliſhed for the high and the low warp; but have all laid aſide the former, excepting the Gobelins. There are admirable low warps in Flanders, generally exceeding thoſe of France; but the chief, and almoſt only Flemiſh manufactories, are at Bruſſels, Antwerp, Oudenarde, Liſle, Tournay, Bruges, and Valenciennes.

At Bruſſels and Antwerp they ſucceed both in human figures, in animals, and landſkips; both with regard to the deſigning, and the workmanſhip. At Oudenarde their landſkips and animals are good, but their human figures bad. Liſle, and the other cities named, come behind Oudenarde. The French manufacture of Felletin does tolerably well in landſkips, Aubuſſon in figures, and Beauvois in both.

There are but two things to add; the firſt, that this high warp goes on much more ſlowly than the low warp, and takes almoſt double; the ſecond, that all the difference the eye can obſerve between the two kinds conſiſts in this, that in the low warp there is red fillet, about 1-12th of an inch broad, running on each ſide from top to bottom, which is wanted in the high warp.

What is very remarkable in the manufacture of the low warp, and which is common to it with the high, is, that it is all wrought on the wrong-ſide; ſo that the workman cannot ſee the right-ſide of his tapeſtry till the piece is finiſhed and taken out of the loom.

A manufactory of tapeſtry has been lately eſtabliſhed at Fulham in Middleſex, under the direction of Mr. Priſcot; but it does not ſeem to be properly encouraged.

TAPSEL. A ſtriped coarſe cotton cloth, uſually blue, brought from the Eaſt Indies, particularly from Bengal; the piece is 10 ells in length, and 3-4ths in breadth; being one of the beſt merchandiſes the Europeans can bring to the coaſts of Guinea for the negro trade.

TAQUIS. Cotton cloths manufactured at Aleppo, and in its neighbourhood.

TAR, or *Tarr*. A groſs, pitchy liquor, iſſuing from the trunks of old pines, or firs. See *Pitch*.

When theſe trees are on the turn, and only fit for burning, they cut off the bark all round towards the root; and through theſe inciſions, there continues flowing for a conſiderable time a blackiſh liquor, which is the tar. When this ceaſes, it is a ſure indication the pine is quite dead, and only fit for the fire. The chief uſe of tar, is for the coating and caulking of ſhips; and it alſo ſerves to make roſin. See *Roſin*.

TARAGON. A city and port-town of Spain, in the province of Catalonia, lying in 1 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 41 deg. 6 min. of N. lat. ſituated on the Mediterranean ſea, 45 min. S. W. of Barcelona.

TARANTO. A port-town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, ſituated in 18 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 40 deg. 32 min. of N. lat. on the gulph of Otranto, 45 miles weſt of the city of Otranto.

TARE *and Tret*, in commerce, is any defect, waſte, or diminution in the weight, the quantity, or the quality of goods; the ſeller being uſually to account to the buyer for the tare and tret. See *Tret*.

TARE, is more particularly uſed for an abatement, or deduction, in the price of the commodity, on account of the weight of the cheſts, caſks, bags, and frails. See *Diſcount*.

The tare is very different in different merchandiſes, and in ſome there is none at all allowed. It is a thing much more regarded in Holland, than in England, or elſewhere. Mr. Ricard, treating of the commerce of Amſterdam, obſerves, that the tares are one of the moſt conſiderable articles a merchant is to be acquainted with, if he would trade with ſecurity. Sometimes the tare is, as it were, regulated by cuſtom; but generally, to avoid all diſpute, the buyer and ſeller make a particular agreement about it. It may be here neceſſary to add, from the fore mentioned author, ſome inſtances of tares allowed at Amſterdam; referring the reader, for a more ample account, to his *Negoce d'Amſterdam*, edit. 1722.

Spaniſh wools are ſubject to a kind of double tare; for, firſt, they deduct the tare marked on the bales, and after that 24 lb. tare for every every 175 lb. weight, beſide the rebate for prompt payment. Indeed, for the common wools, the ſeller will ſeldom allow above 14 *per cent.* for the whole tare; for which reaſon the bargain is to be agreed on before.

Tare of Roman allum is 4 lb. *per* ſack.
— of Iriſh beef and butter, 20 *per cent.*
— of crude borax, 15 lb. *per cent.*
— of cinnamon, 17 lb. the burthen.
— of capers, 33 *per cent.*
— of white pepper, 40 lb. *per* barrel.
— of black pepper, 5 lb.

The tares and allowanees now in the practice in the port of London are as follow.

A.

Allum, in caſks, tare 12 lb. *per cent.*
Aſhes, called pot-aſhes, 10 lb. *per cent.*
Argol, in caſks, 14 lb. *per cent.*

B.

Backs for chimneys of half a hundred weight, and downwards, to be accounted ſmall, and all above that weight large.
Baſket-rods, the bundle, 3 feet about at the band.
Barilla, in double ſerons, 314 lb. weight, tare 28 lb.
Battery, in fats, tare 8 lb *per cent.*
Books unbound, 800 make a maund.
Brimſtone, in caſks, tare 8 lb. *per cent.*
Briſtles, in fats, about 500 lb. weight, tare 84 lb.
Bulruſhes, the load 60 bundles.

C.

Capers, for tare 1-3d part.
Cheſts of iron, large, 1 yard 1-4th long.
——— middle, 1 yard long,
——— ſmall, 1-4th of a yard.
Cochineel, in cheſts covered with ſkin, about 100½, tare 50 lb.

D.

Drugs. Aloes ſocotrina, in cheſts, about 300½, tare 80 lb.
Epatica, in gunny, about 100, 8 lb.; about 2 or 300 weight, 14 lb.
Antimony, in caſks, tare 6 lb. *per cent.*
Argentum ſublimatum, or quickſilver, in boxes, barrels, and leather, about 100 and a quarter, and 100 and a half, for tare 36 lb.
——— in barrels, the ſame weight, 14 lb.
Aſſa fœtida, in baſkets, about a quarter of a hundred, for tare 3 lb. *per* baſket.
Benjamin, in cheſts, about 300½, 90 lb.; in gunny, about 100 weight, 8 lb.; about 200 and 300, 14 lb.
Bole, in caſks, for tare 8 lb. *per cent.*
Camphire, in tubs, about half or three quarters of a hundred, for tare 18 lb.
Carraway ſeeds, in canvas bales, about 300 weight, tare 10 lb.
Cardamoms, in bales, about 200 weight, 14 lb.
Cinabrium, or vermillion, in tubs, about 300½, tare 36 lb.
Coloquintida, in cheſts, tare 1-3d.
Cubebs, in bags, tare 4 lb.
Green ginger, in jars, about 100 weight, tare 28 lb.
Iſinglaſs, in fats, about 300½ or 400 weight, for tare 84 lb.
Jujubes, in fats, tare 16 lb. *per cent.*
Lack, gum and ſeed, in gunny, about 100, 7 lb.; 2 or 300, 14 lb.
Myrrh, in cheſts, from 300½ to 400 weight, for tare 92 lb.
Olibanum, in gunny, 2 or 300 weight, for tare 14 lb. 100 weight, tare 8 lb.
Pitch, called Burgundy pitch, in ſtands, about 200¾, tare 56 lb.
Prunelloes, in boxes, about 14 lb. weight, for tare 3 lb. *per* box.
Tinckul, in duppers, about 100 or 100¼, for tare 16 lb.; about 100½, 20 lb.
Turmerick, in gunny, about 100½, 14 lb. tare; about 100 weight, for tare 10 lb.
Verdigreaſe, in leather, about a quarter of a hundred and 14 lb. for tare 3 lb.
Vitriolum Romanum, in duppers, about 100 weight, 14 lb.

F.

Flax, the laſt to contain 1700 weight.
Feathers, for tare 4 lb. *per cent.*
Fruit, in baſkets, for tare 4 lb. *per* baſket.

G.

Grocery. Galls, in double bags, from Aleppo and Smyrna, for tare 7 lb. *per* double bag; in ſingle bags, 4 lb. *per* bag.
Almonds, in caſks, tare 14 lb. *per cent.*; in bags, 4 lb. *per* bags; in ſerons and bags, about 200 weight, for tare 18 lb. and ſo proportionably.
Aniſeeds, in ſerons and bags, about 300¾, for tare 18 lb.
——— from Smyrna, with felts, about 300½, for tare 20 lb. without felts, the ſame weight, 14 lb.
Cinnamon, in gunny, about three quarters of 100, for tare 12 lb.
Currants, in buts and caroteels, for tare 16 lb. *per cent.* in quarterol, 20 lb. *per cent.*; in bags, about 400 weight, 10 lb. *per* bag.
Figs, in barrels, tare 14 lb. *per cent.*
Mace, in caroteels, about 6 or 700 weight, for tare 70 lb.
Pepper, in bags, for tare 4 lb. *per* bag, about 300.
Prunes, in puncheons, or uncertain caſks, 19 lb. *per cent.*
Raiſins, in frails, tare 6 lb. *per* frail.
——— of Lippera, in barrels, about 100 weight, 14 lb. tare.
——— ſolis, in caſk, tare 12 lb. *per cent.*
Sugar, in bales, from India, 36 lb. tare; in cheſts, 1-3d part; in caſks, 1-6th; in caſks, St. Thome, 1-5th part;

part; loaf-ſugar, in caſks, with paper, thread, and ſtraw, for tare 16 lb. *per cent.*; ſugars in caniſters, for tare 1-6th.

H.

Harneſs-plates, or breaſts, to be accounted for iron doubles.

Hemp, called ſteel-hemp, in fats, for tare 14 lb. *per cent.*

Hair, called goats hair, in canvas, for tare 4 lb. *per cent.*

Hops, in bags, for tare, 4 lb. *per cent.*

I.

Indico, in cheſts, covered with ſkins, about 100¾, for tare 48 lb.

—— in bales, with skins, about 100½, 16 lb.

K.

Kettle fats, for tare 8 lb. *per cent.*

L.

Lattin, or round bottoms, in fats, for tare 8 lb. *per cent.*

Linen, Flemiſh and Dutch meaſure, to be allowed 2 *per cent.* except Gentiſh meaſure brown, to which add 5 *per cent.*

M.

Madder, in bales great and ſmall, ſingle and double bags, for tare 28 lb.; in fats, for tare 10 lb. *per cent.*

O.

Oils, in certain casks, 1 in 20 allowed for leakage, under 10 none; in candy-barrels, tare 29 *per* barrel; in uncertain casks, 28 *per cent.* 7½ lb. make a gallon, 252 gallons make a tun.

S.

Safflower, in bales, about 600 weight, for tare 84 lb. in bags, from 200 to 300, 16 lb. *per* bag.

Saltpetre, in cask, tare 12 lb. *per cent.* in gunny, about 100¼, tare 16 lb.

Sumach, in bags, about 300½, 10 lb.; from 200 to 300, for tare 8 lb.; about 700 weight, 14 lb.

Silk thrown, or orgazine, and raw. In ſhort bales of Bolognia, with ſear-cloth, and cotton-wool, about 200 weight, tare 28 lb.; in long bales, with ſear-cloth and cotton-wool, the ſame weight, 30 lb.

In Naples bales, with ſear-cloth, about 200 weight, 18 lb.; tangot of Naples, about 100½, with ſear-cloth, tare 14 lb. and ſo downwards proportionally.

In Meſſina bales, double canvas, thrown and raw, about 200 weight, 10 lb.; with ſear-cloth and cotton-wool, the ſame weight, 22 lb.

In long bales of Aleppo, with cotton-wool, about 300¼, and downwards to 200¼, for tare 32 lb

In fangots of Aleppo, about 200¼ or 200½, with cotton-wool, 24 lb.

In fangots of Aleppo, about 100¾ or 200, tare 20 lb.; about 100¼, or 100¾, 18 lb.

Ardas ſilk of Aleppo, in ſhort bales, with cotton-wool, from 300¼ to 200¾, for tare 30 lb.

Of Smyrna and Cyprus, about 300 weight and upwards, for tare 16 lb.; downwards to 200 weight, 14 lb. from 200 downwards, 12 lb.

In bales of Perſia, 200¼, 20 lb.

Smalts, or powder-blue, in casks, for tare 10 lb. *per cent.*

Sope, called Caſtile ſope, in double ſerons, about 300 weight, for tare 30 lb.; in ſingle ſerons, the ſame weight, 26 lb.; in cheſts, about 200½ or 300 weight, 40 lb.

Succads, in cheſts, about 100½, 40 lb. tare.

T.

Tallow, from Ruſſia and Ireland, in casks, for tare 12 lb. *per cent.*

Teazels, the half pack contains 10,000.

Siſters-Thread, to have no allowance.

Thread, called whited brown, outnal, and black and brown, or bridges, to have allowance of 6 *per cent.* for want of weight; Spaniſh, in barrels, about 200¼, for tare 28 lb.; in half barrels, about 100¼, 18 lb.; in potaccoes, without canvas, 14 lb.; in potaccoes, covered with canvas, 16 lb.; and in potaccoes, covered with skins, 26 lb.

Tobacco, Virginia, in hogſheads, weighing under 300 weight, for tare 70 lb.; from 300 to 400, 80 lb. from 400 to 500, 90 lb. from 500 weight and upwards, 100 lb.

—Barbadoes, in rolls upon ſticks, about a quarter of a hundred, 6 lb. *per* ſtick.

—Bermudas, in cheſts, 20 lb. *per cent.*; in casks, about 300 weight, tare 60 lb.; about 200½ and downwards 200, or 100¾, 50 lb.

Turpentine, in casks, tare 1-5th part.

W.

Wire of Lattin, and iron in casks, for tare 6 lb. *per cent.*

Wool, called beaver-wool, in hogſheads and brizles, for tare 75 lb.; in crobies, tare the cover, which is 1-3d of the whole; cotton-wool, for tare 4 d. *per cent.*; Spaniſh, in bales, for cloth, about 200 weight, for tare 28 lb.; ditto, in bales for felts, about 200¼, the ſame; Segovia, Spaniſh, for felts, for about 200 tare 15 lb. Lambs, Eſtridge, and Poliſh, for tare 4 lb. *per cent.*

Wormſeeds, in bales, with felts, from Smyrna, about 300¼, tare 24 lb.; from Aleppo with cotton-wool, 24 lb.

Y.

Yarn, called cable-yarn, in winch from Ruſſia, for tare 28 lb.; cotton-yarn, in bales from India, about 300½, for tare 43 lb.; in bags from Turkey, for tare 5 lb. *per cent.*; grogram, and mohair-yarn, in bales from Aleppo, with cotton-wool, 28 lb. tare, and ſo downward proportionably; from Smyrna with felts, about 400 weight, 28 lb.; without felts, about the ſame weight, 18 lb.; in fangots, without felts, about 100¾, or 200, for tare 14 lb.; with felts, skins, and cottons, 16 lb.; without felts, about 100½, 12 lb.; linen-yarn in fats, tare 12 lb. *per cent.*

TARE, or *Tarre*, is alſo a ſmall ſilver coin of India, current on the coaſt of Malabar; 16 tares being equivalent to 1 fanon, a ſmall piece of gold, worth 7 d. ſterling. *Tare of heads*, is a term at Smyrna for one of the tares in each bale of ſilk, which is 40 drachms *per* batman in the Ardaſſine ſilk, and 20 in the fine.

TARIF, or *Tariff*, book of rates. A table, or catalogue, drawn uſually in alphabetical order, containing the names of ſeveral kinds of merchandiſe, with the duties or cuſtoms to be paid for the ſame, as ſettled by authority, and agreed on between the ſeveral princes and ſtates that hold commerce together. See *Duties*, and *Cuſtoms*.

TARIFFA. A port-town of Spain, in the province of Andaluſia, ſituated in 6 deg. 15 min. of W. lon. and 36 deg. of N. lat. at the entrance of the ſtraits of Gibraltar, 18 miles weſt thereof, and 24 north of Tangier.

TARIN. A ſilver coin of Sicily, being 120 pichilis, or 3 1/13 d. ſterling.

TARIN, is alſo a money of accompt uſed in Naples, Sicily, and Malta. At Naples the tarin is worth about 8 d. ſterling; and at Malta 20 grains, which is much the ſame.

TARKU. A port-town of Perſia, in the province of Chirvan, and territory of Dagiſtan, ſituated in 51 deg. of E. lon. and 42 deg. of N. lat. on the weſt ſide of the Caſpian ſea, 300 miles N. E. of Tauris, and as much S. of Aſtracan.

TARNANTAN-CHAVONIS. A very white clear muſlin, or cotton-cloth, brought from the Eaſt Indies; the piece being 6 ells and a half in length, and 3-4ths in breadth.

TARNISHING. A diminution of the natural luſtre of any thing, eſpecially a metal.

Gold and ſilver, when tarniſhed, reſume their brightneſs, by ſetting them over the fire with certain leys.

Copper, braſs, and pewter, that are tarniſhed, recover their luſtre with tripoli and pot-aſhes.

TAROTS. A ſort of playing cards, uſed by the Spaniards, Germans, and ſome other foreigners; which, inſtead of being marked with hearts, diamonds, ſpades, and clubs, have cups, deniers, ſwords, and ſticks, called by the Spaniards copas, dineros, eſpadillas, and baſtos.

TARPAULIN, or *Tarpawling*, is a piece of canvas, well pitched and tarred over, to keep off the rain from any place. The term is alſo uſed in deriſion for a perſon bred at ſea, and educated in the mariners art.

TARRACE, *Tarraſs*, or *Terrace*. A coarſe ſort of plaiſter,

plaiſter, or mortar, durable in the weather; chiefly uſed to line baſons, ciſterns, wells, and other reſervoirs of water.

TARTANE. A kind of bark, uſed for fiſhing and carriage; having neither a raiſed poop nor prow, but uſing oars: they are common in the Mediterranean, having only a main-maſt and a mizzen, with triangular ſails. When a tartane puts up a ſquare ſail, it is called a ſail of fortune.

TARTAR, in chemiſtry. A kind of ſalt which riſes from wines, and, ſticking to the top and ſides of the caſks, forms a cruſt, which hardens to the conſiſtence of a ſtone. Tartar, ſays an ingenious author, has the juice of the grape for its father, fermentation for its mother, and the caſk for its matrix.

Its goodneſs rather depends on the number of repeated fermentations, which is made by a ſucceſſion of new wines in the ſame cask for ſeveral years, than on the ſoil or climate where the wine is produced. It is either white or red, according to the colour of the wine it is raiſed from. That brought from Germany is the beſt, as being taken out of thoſe great tuns, ſome whereof hold a thouſand pipes of wine; ſo that the ſalt has time to come to its conſiſtence, which is one of the chief qualities to be regarded in tartar. That of Montpelier is the next in order; then that of Lyons and Paris. The white tartar is preferable to the red, being really better, as containing leſs of the droſſy, or earthy part. The marks of good tartar of either kind, are its being thick, brittle, brilliant, and little earthy.

Tartar is of conſiderable uſe among dyers, as ſerving to diſpoſe the ſtuffs to take their colours the better.

The chemiſts make abundance of preparations from tartar; as cream, or cryſtal of tartar, which is nothing but tartar powdered, and reduced by means of boiling water, a ſtraining bag, and a cellar, into little chryſtals. See *Cream* of tartar.

Salt of TARTAR, is made of tartar waſhed, ground, purified, and calcined, by a reverberatory fire; or it is made by pulverizing what remains in the retort after the diſtilation of tartar, and calcining it as above by a reverberatory fire, to make it yield its ſalt, when put into hot water. On the one or the other of theſe preparations, they pour a great quantity of hot water, to make a lee of it, which they filtrate and evaporate by a ſand-heat, till the fixed ſalt be found at the bottom of the veſſel, which is the alkali, or fixed ſalt of tartar.

Oil of TARTAR, is the ſalt of tartar expoſed to the air for ſome days, in an open veſſel, in a moiſt place, till it diſſolves into an oil; though it is improperly called an oil, being no more than a diſſolved ſalt. Oil of tartar *per deliquium*, is held the beſt counter-poiſon to corroſive ſublimate.

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TARTARY, part of the ancient Scythia, is bounded by the frozen ocean on the north; the eaſtern ocean, and the land of Jeſſo, on the eaſt; by China, India, Perſia, and the Caſpian ſea, on the ſouth; by the river Oby, and an imaginary line drawn from thence to the mouth of the Volga, on the weſt.

Tartary may be divided into north and ſouth; and the north part again into Chineſian Tartary on the eaſt, and Muſcovite Tartary on the weſt. Southern Tartary may be thrown into four large diviſions, namely, Mogul Tartary, and Thibet, on the eaſt; and the Calmucks, and Uſbeck Tartars, on the weſt. There are alſo the Circaſſian Tartars, and Tartars of Aſtracan, which lie farther weſt; but theſe are included in Muſcovite Tartary, being for the moſt part ſubject to the Ruſſian empire.

Muſcovite Tartary is generally held to extend as far eaſtwards as the river Argun, in 105 deg. of E. lon. and the weſtern boundary, from the mouth of the Tanais, lies in the 39th deg. of lon: ſo that Muſcovite Tartary takes up about 4400 miles in length, and is about 1800 in breadth; which, with the Ruſſian dominions in Europe, makes it a country of the largeſt extent in the known world ſubject to one prince.

The principal rivers are the Oby, the Volga, the Jeniſa, the Jeniſka, the Lena, and the Argun.

The ſeas of that part of Aſiatic Tartary which belongs to Ruſſia, are the frozen ocean, and the gulph of Mangaſia; both which lie on the north of it. Beſides theſe, there are ſeveral great lakes in the country, as that of Baikal, ſome hundreds of miles in length, and between 20 and 30 broad, of clear freſh water, into which the river Selinga empties itſelf. All that part of Muſcovite Tartary, which lies to the eaſtward of the river Oby, may be comprehended under the general name of Siberia; though the north-weſt part of it frequently goes by the name of Samoieda, and the north-eaſt part of it is called the country of the Oſtiacks.

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On the north-ſide of the ſtraits of Waigats, and the gulph of Mangaſia, lies Nova Zembla, or New-land, which the Dutch call the iſland of Waigats.

Along the river Irtis, to the ſouth-eaſt of Tobolski, live ſome hords of Mahometan Tartars, who are wealthy in cattle, having numerous flocks and herds. They have their own princes; but pay a tribute to Ruſſia of ſables, fox-skins, and other furs.

Beyond this people, in the great deſert of Baraba, live certain hords, called the Barbanisky Tartars. In winter they hunt for ſables; but in ſummer remove to the banks of their rivers, and employ their time in fiſhing.

A man may purchaſe any thing they have for a little tobacco, as they ſcarce know the uſe of money. Their cloaths are made of pieces of fur patched together; and they alſo pay tribute to Ruſſia.

At Tomskoi, to the eaſtward of this country in the road to China, there are plenty of fiſh, corn, and other proviſions. They have alſo a particular kind of furs, which the Ruſſians call Telansky Bielky, as white as ſnow, and larger than any other. The neighbouring mountains alſo yield lead, iron, and copper; and the Swediſh priſoners, who were confined in this part of the country, relate that gold-duſt has been found in ſeveral places.

Beyond the river Jenſeiska, in the road to China, live the Kamski Tartars; and more eaſterly the Bratskoy Tartars, who are a more ſubſtantial people; a private man being frequently maſter of 4 or 500 horſes, and a proportionable number of other cattle.

The government of Ruſſia monopolizes almoſt all the Siberian commodities; under which denomination are comprehended, not only ſuch things as are of the produce of Siberia, but whatever comes through that country from China. The produce of Siberia is principally the ſkins of foxes, ſables, hyenas, ermins, lynxes, and other furs; Chineſe gold and ſilks; and the teeth of a beaſt called maman, not unlike elephants teeth. The governors of towns, upon the leaſt ſuſpicion, will take to pieces the very carriages, to prevent the carrying off of any gold-duſt: but if a paſs be obtained from the governor of Siberia, which is not very difficult to get, a merchant may purchaſe almoſt any thing.

Since the defeat of the Swedes at the battle of Pultowa, Siberia has been greatly improved in the knowledge of mechanic arts, and the politer ſciences; becauſe the

part; loaf-ſugar, in caſks, with paper, thread, and ſtraw, for tare 16 lb. *per cent.*; ſugars in caniſters, for tare 1-6th.

H.

Harneſs-plates, or breaſts, to be accounted for iron doubles.

Hemp, called ſteel-hemp, in fats, for tare 14 lb. *per cent.*

Hair, called goats hair, in canvas, for tare 4 lb. *per cent.*

Hops, in bags, for tare, 4 lb. *per cent.*

I.

Indico, in cheſts, covered with ſkins, about 100¾, for tare 48 lb.

—— in bales, with skins, about 100½, 16 lb.

K.

Kettle fats, for tare 8 lb. *per cent.*

L.

Lattin, or round bottoms, in fats, for tare 8 lb. *per cent.*

Linen, Flemiſh and Dutch meaſure, to be allowed 2 *per cent.* except Gentiſh meaſure brown, to which add 5 *per cent.*

M.

Madder, in bales great and ſmall, ſingle and double bags, for tare 28 lb.; in fats, for tare 10 lb. *per cent.*

O.

Oils, in certain casks, 1 in 20 allowed for leakage, under 10 none; in candy-barrels, tare 29 *per* barrel; in uncertain casks, 28 *per cent.* 7½ lb. make a gallon, 252 gallons make a tun.

S.

Safflower, in bales, about 600 weight, for tare 84 lb. in bags, from 200 to 300, 16 lb. *per* bag.

Saltpetre, in cask, tare 12 lb. *per cent.* in gunny, about 100¼, tare 16 lb.

Sumach, in bags, about 300½, 10 lb.; from 200 to 300, for tare 8 lb.; about 700 weight, 14 lb.

Silk thrown, or orgazine, and raw. In ſhort bales of Bolognia, with ſear-cloth, and cotton-wool, about 200 weight, tare 28 lb.; in long bales, with ſear-cloth and cotton-wool, the ſame weight, 30 lb.

In Naples bales, with ſear-cloth, about 200 weight, 18 lb.; tangot of Naples, about 100½, with ſear-cloth, tare 14 lb. and ſo downwards proportionally.

In Meſſina bales, double canvas, thrown and raw, about 200 weight, 10 lb.; with ſear-cloth and cotton-wool, the ſame weight, 22 lb.

In long bales of Aleppo, with cotton-wool, about 300¼, and downwards to 200¾, for tare 32 lb

In fangots of Aleppo, about 200¼ or 200½, with cotton-wool, 24 lb.

In fangots of Aleppo, about 100¾ or 200, tare 20 lb.; about 100¼, or 100¾, 18 lb.

Ardas ſilk of Aleppo, in ſhort bales, with cotton-wool, from 300¼ to 200¾, for tare 30 lb.

Of Smyrna and Cyprus, about 300 weight and upwards, for tare 16 lb.; downwards to 200 weight, 14 lb. from 200 downwards, 12 lb.

In bales of Perſia, 200¼, 20 lb.

Smalts, or powder-blue, in casks, for tare 10 lb. *per cent.*

Sope, called Caſtile ſope, in double ſerons, about 300 weight, for tare 30 lb.; in ſingle ſerons, the ſame weight, 26 lb.; in cheſts, about 200½ or 300 weight, 40 lb.

Succads, in cheſts, about 100½, 40 lb. tare.

T.

Tallow, from Ruſſia and Ireland, in casks, for tare 12 lb. *per cent.*

Teazels, the half pack contains 10,000.

Siſters-Thread, to have no allowance.

Thread, called whited brown, outnal, and black and brown, or bridges, to have allowance of 6 *per cent.* for want of weight; Spaniſh, in barrels, about 200¼, for tare 28 lb.; in half barrels, about 100¼, 18 lb.; in potaccoes, without canvas, 14 lb.; in potaccoes, covered with canvas, 16 lb.; and in potaccoes, covered with skins, 26 lb.

Tobacco, Virginia, in hogſheads, weighing under 300 weight, for tare 70 lb.; from 300 to 400, 80 lb. from 400 to 500, 90 lb. from 500 weight and upwards, 100 lb.

—Barbadoes, in rolls upon ſticks, about a quarter of a hundred, 6 lb. *per* ſtick.

—Bermudas, in cheſts, 20 lb. *per cent.*; in casks, about 300 weight, tare 60 lb.; about 200½ and downwards 200, or 100¾, 50 lb.

Turpentine, in casks, tare 1-5th part:

W.

Wire of Lattin, and iron in casks, for tare 6 lb. *per cent.*

Wool, called beaver-wool, in hogſheads and brizles, for tare 75 lb.; in crobies, tare the cover, which is 1-3d of the whole; cotton-wool, for tare 4 d. *per cent.*; Spaniſh, in bales, for cloth, about 200 weight, for tare 28 lb.; ditto, in bales for felts, about 200¼, the ſame; Segovia, Spaniſh, for felts, for about 200 tare 15 lb. Lambs, Eſtridge, and Poliſh, for tare 4 lb. *per cent.*

Wormſeeds, in bales, with felts, from Smyrna, about 300¼, tare 24 lb.; from Aleppo with cotton-wool, 24 lb.

Y.

Yarn, called cable-yarn, in winch from Ruſſia, for tare 28 lb.; cotton-yarn, in bales from India, about 300½, for tare 43 lb.; in bags from Turkey, for tare 5 lb. *per cent.*; grogram, and mohair-yarn, in bales from Aleppo, with cotton-wool, 28 lb. tare, and ſo downward proportionably; from Smyrna with felts, about 400 weight, 28 lb.; without felts, about the ſame weight, 18 lb.; in fangots, without felts, about 100¾, or 200, for tare 14 lb.; with felts, skins, and cottons, 16 lb.; without felts, about 100½, 12 lb.; linen-yarn in fats, tare 12 lb. *per cent.*

TARE, or *Tarre*, is alſo a ſmall ſilver coin of India, current on the coaſt of Malabar; 16 tares being equivalent to 1 fanon, a ſmall piece of gold, worth 7 d. ſterling.

Tare of heads, is a term at Smyrna for one of the tares in each bale of ſilk, which is 40 drachms *per* batman in the Ardaſſine ſilk, and 20 in the fine.

TARIF, or *Tariff*, book of rates. A table, or catalogue, drawn uſually in alphabetical order, containing the names of ſeveral kinds of merchandiſe, with the duties or cuſtoms to be paid for the ſame, as ſettled by authority, and agreed on between the ſeveral princes and ſtates that hold commerce together. See *Duties*, and *Cuſtoms*.

TARIFFA. A port-town of Spain, in the province of Andaluſia, ſituated in 6 deg. 15 min. of W. lon. and 36 deg. of N. lat. at the entrance of the ſtraits of Gibraltar, 18 miles weſt thereof, and 24 north of Tangier.

TARIN. A ſilver coin of Sicily, being 120 pichilis, or 3 1/13 d. ſterling.

TARIN, is alſo a money of accompt uſed in Naples, Sicily, and Malta. At Naples the tarin is worth about 8 d. ſterling; and at Malta 20 grains, which is much the ſame.

TARKU. A port-town of Perſia, in the province of Chirvan, and territory of Dagiſtan, ſituated in 51 deg. of E. lon. and 42 deg. of N. lat. on the weſt ſide of the Caſpian ſea, 300 miles N. E. of Tauris, and as much S. of Aſtracan.

TARNANTAN-CHAVONIS. A very white clear muſlin, or cotton-cloth, brought from the Eaſt Indies; the piece being 6 ells and a half in length, and 3-4ths in breadth.

TARNISHING. A diminution of the natural luſtre of any thing, eſpecially a metal.

Gold and ſilver, when tarniſhed, reſume their brightneſs, by ſetting them over the fire with certain lees.

Copper, braſs, and pewter, that are tarniſhed, recover their luſtre with tripoli and pot-aſhes.

TAROTS. A ſort of playing cards, uſed by the Spaniards, Germans, and ſome other foreigners; which, inſtead of being marked with hearts, diamonds, ſpades, and clubs, have cups, deniers, ſwords, and ſticks, called by the Spaniards copas, dineros, eſpadillas, and baſtos.

TARPAULIN, or *Tarpawling*, is a piece of canvas, well pitched and tarred over, to keep off the rain from any place. The term is alſo uſed in deriſion for a perſon bred at ſea, and educated in the mariners art.

TARRACE, *Tarraſs*, or *Terrace*. A coarſe ſort of

plaiſter, or mortar, durable in the weather; chiefly uſed to line baſons, ciſterns, wells, and other reſervoirs of water.

TARTANE. A kind of bark, uſed for fiſhing and carriage; having neither a raiſed poop nor prow, but uſing oars: they are common in the Mediterranean, having only a main-maſt and a mizzen, with triangular ſails. When a tartane puts up a ſquare ſail, it is called a ſail of fortune.

TARTAR, in chemiſtry. A kind of ſalt which riſes from wines, and, ſticking to the top and ſides of the caſks, forms a cruſt, which hardens to the conſiſtence of a ſtone. Tartar, ſays an ingenious author, has the juice of the grape for its father, fermentation for its mother, and the caſk for its matrix.

Its goodneſs rather depends on the number of repeated fermentations, which is made by a ſucceſſion of new wines in the ſame cask for ſeveral years, than on the ſoil or climate where the wine is produced. It is either white or red, according to the colour of the wine it is raiſed from. That brought from Germany is the beſt, as being taken out of thoſe great tuns, ſome whereof hold a thouſand pipes of wine; ſo that the ſalt has time to come to its conſiſtence, which is one of the chief qualities to be regarded in tartar. That of Montpelier is the next in order; then that of Lyons and Paris. The white tartar is preferable to the red, being really better, as containing leſs of the droſſy, or earthy part. The marks of good tartar of either kind, are its being thick, brittle, brilliant, and little earthy.

Tartar is of conſiderable uſe among dyers, as ſerving to diſpoſe the ſtuffs to take their colours the better.

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Swediſh officers, who were baniſhed there, having no means left for their ſubſiſtence, were obliged to turn their genius this way; and it is ſurpriſing to what a degree of perfection they arrived in their reſpective employments.

Circaſſian TARTARY, is bounded by Aſtracan, and the Caſpian ſea, towards the eaſt; by Georgia, and Dageſtan, towards the ſouth; by the river Don, the Palus Meotis, and the Black ſea, towards the weſt; and by Ruſſia, towards the north. The inhabitants generally acknowledge themſelves dependent on the empire of Ruſſia; though ſuch as lie next to Perſia, and Turky, may be reckoned under the dominion of the one or other of theſe empires: but nothing is more common, than to put themſelves ſometimes under the protection of one prince, and ſometimes under another. Their moſt conſiderable town is Terki, ſituated in 52 deg. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 41 min. of N. lat. which is inhabited chiefly by Ruſſians; for the Tartars live in tents; and the greateſt traffic of the country ſeems to be in young ſlaves, which they take in their excurſions; though they make no manner of ſcruple of ſelling their own children into Turky and Perſia, eſpecially their daughters, who will part with their parents without any reluctance; having been frequently entertained with relations of the preferment of thoſe who have been ſold before them to princes and baſhaws; as alſo that ſome of them have arrived to the honour of ſultanas, in the harams of the Grand Signior and the King of Perſia.

The country of the *Calmuck Tartars*, is bounded by Siberia, on the north; Mongul Tartary, on the eaſt; Thibet, and Uſbec Tartary, on the ſouth; and the Caſpian ſea, and the kingdom of Aſtracan, upon the weſt. The inhabitants are not under any one ſovereign, but are divided into ſeveral hords, or tribes; though, for the moſt part, they are in amity with Ruſſia, and many of them tributary to it. During the winter, they hunt ſables, martins, ermins, and other beaſts which afford furs. In the reign of the late Czar, they traded to Aſtracan, and to Tobolski, the capital of Siberia, with tea and China goods; bringing with them alſo great quantities of very fine ſalt, which their country afforded; receiving Ruſſia leather, and iron-ware, in exchange, and ſome money. But the Czar commanded one of his generals to march into their country, and take poſſeſſion of their ſalt-works, and build a fort there; which the Calmucks ſo highly reſented, that they forebore to reſort to the fair of Tobolski ever ſince. They alſo choked up the mouth of the river Duria, which falls into the Caſpian ſea, where the Muſcovites uſed to come in ſearch of gold-duſt.

Uſbec Tartary, is bounded by the country of the Calmucks, towards the north; by Thibet, towards the eaſt; by the Mogul's empire, towards the ſouth; and by the kingdom of Perſia, and the Caſpian ſea, towards the weſt. The chief town is Samarcand, ſituated in 66 deg. of E. lon. and 40 deg. of N. lat.; the inhabitants of the country, like their neighbours, being at this day divided into ſeveral hords or tribes, who have their reſpective princes.

Perſia, and India, are ſupplied from this country with their beſt ſoldiers; it being from hence that India is alſo furniſhed with the moſt ſerviceable horſes, camels, and other cattle.

The *Mongul Tartars* have Muſcovite and Chineſian Tartary, on the north; the great ſtep, or deſert, which ſeparates them from China, on the eaſt; Thibet, on the ſouth; and Calmuck Tartary, towards the weſt: but they have little to diſtinguiſh them from the Uſbec, except their religion.

Thibet Tartary, is bounded by the Calmucks, and Mongalia, towards the north; by China, towards the eaſt; by India, on the ſouth; and Uſbec, on the weſt. Theſe people, as they border upon China, imitate the Chineſe in their cuſtoms and manners; but are governed by their reſpective princes, and are perpetually in motion with their flocks and herds.

There are ſome other countries in Europe, which ſtill retain the name of Tartary: but theſe are ſeparated from the others by the Palus Meotis, and the Black ſea; being Little Tartary, Crim Tartary, and Budziac Tartary; which are all ſubject to Turky.

TASOT, is the 24th part of the cobit, or Surat ell; each taſot containing ſomewhat more than an inch; ſo that the cobit is about two feet.

TASSO, or *Tharſus*. One of the ſmalleſt iſlands in the Turkiſh Archipelago, or Egean ſea, ſituated in 27 deg. of E. lon. and 40 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. near the coaſt of Romania, or Thrace, 30 miles north of Lemnos, and 40 S. E. of Conteſſa.

TAUGHT, or *Taut*, in the ſea-language, is the ſame as tight, ſtiff, or faſt: thus they ſay, ſet taught the ſhrouds, the ſtays, or any other ropes, when they are too ſlack or looſe.

TAUNT. A ſea-term: when the maſts of a ſhip are too tall for her, the ſailors ſay, ſhe is taunt-maſted.

TAWING, or *Skinning*. The art or manner of preparing or dreſſing skins in white, to fit them for uſe in ſeveral manufactures, particularly gloves and purſes.

All kinds of ſkins may be tawed; but it is chiefly thoſe of horſes, ſheep, lambs, kids, and goats, that are uſed to be dreſſed this way; theſe laſt being the fitteſt for gloves.

Method of tawing. The wool or hair being well got off the skins, by means of lime, they are laid in a large vat of wood or ſtone ſet in the ground, full of water, wherein quick-lime has been ſlaked; where they continue a month or ſix weeks, as the weather is more or leſs hot, or as the skins are required to be more or leſs ſoft and pliant

TAY. A river of Scotland, which divides it into north and ſouth Scotland, riſing from the loch or lake of Tay, in Broadalbin, in the ſhire of Perth; it then runs eaſt through Athol; afterwards turns S. E. dividing the county of Angus from that of Fife; and falls into the frith of Tay.

TAYLOR. A man who cuts out cloth, and makes it into cloaths, fit for perſons to wear.

TAYLORS *company*. See *Merchant*-taylors.

TAX. A public impoſition, or rate, ſet upon perſons or things. See *Cuſtoms*, *Duties*, *Exciſe*, and *Subſidy*.

The ancient tax was what the ſubſidy is at preſent, excepting that the tax is now fixed to a certain ſum, being the 15th part of the place anciently valued at; whereas the ſubſidy is variable, as occaſion offers; and that the tax was levied upon the cities and towns, but the ſubſidy on perſons. See *Subſidy*.

Anciently the tax ſeems to be impoſed by the King at his pleaſure: but Edward I. bound himſelf, and his ſucceſſors, from that time forward, not to levy it without the conſent of the realm.

The people of France were ſtrangers to tallies, or taxes, till the time of St. Lewis; when they were firſt impoſed in form of ſubſidies, neceſſary for the ſupport of the war in the holy land; there being extraordinary levies, which were raiſed by capitation, but were afterwards made perpetual under Charles VII. and Philip the Fair.

Taxes are not to be laid upon the neceſſaries of life; but on things that ſerve for luxury, curioſity, ornament, and pomp. So that whenever exceſs is chaſtiſed, the greateſt burden falls upon the rich and powerful; while labourers and mechanicks, who are a branch of the commonwealth, whom it is moſt our intereſt to ſupport, are relieved and made eaſy. It is in ſome meaſure a reformation, to render luxuries expenſive. The greateſt evil in taxes and royal revenues, proceeds from the receivers and collectors; for oftentimes they lay heavier burdens, than the revenue itſelf; nor do ſubjects bear any thing with ſo much reluctance, as the oppreſſion of officers in collecting the duties.

If the wars Great Britain engaged in were abſolutely neceſſary for us to carry on in the manner we did; ſurely, every man in England, had he foreſeen the conſequence, would have ſubmitted to a juſt and equal pound-rate upon his annual income, whether from land, trade, or buſineſs; rather than ſubject himſelf, the trade, and people of his country, to ſo many dangers and difficulties, by obliging our rulers to raiſe taxes upon conſumption. Nay, this would have been for the particular intereſt of every man in the kingdom; for it might be demonſtrated, that from

a pound rate of 2 s. in the pound only, juſtly and equally aſſeſſed, and effectually carried into execution, we ſhould, with moderate taxes upon luxury, ſo as not to occaſion ſmuggling, have raiſed more money annually than the war coſt us, even in the laviſh manner it was carried on; whereas it is now generally admitted that every man in the kingdom one with another, pays 8 s. in the pound, on account of our taxes upon conſumption.

But when that which we call a land-tax was firſt thought of, there were many miſtakes in the methods propoſed for carrying it into execution, particularly that of laying the whole upon the landlord; whereas one moiety only ſhould have been laid upon the land, and the other upon the tenant. It will be ſaid, that a tax upon the tenant is really a tax upon the landlord, becauſe it diſables the tenant from paying ſuch a high rent as he otherwiſe might: but does not a tax of equal amount, upon conſumption, produce the ſame effect? In this reſpect, therefore, they are equal. What then muſt be the conſequence of a tax on conſumption of quadruple the amount? And, in general, we ought to conſider, that a tax, like every other burden, is the more eaſily borne the more ſhoulders it is put on, unleſs put on ſuch ſhoulders as cannot bear any part of it; for then you are forced to bear the bearer, as well as his ſhare of the burden: which will always be the conſequence of laying taxes upon workmen, labourers, and ſervants, or upon any thing they muſt neceſſarily conſume; for ſuch taxes only ſerve to enhance the price of labour, and conſequently the price of every thing thereby produced; which of courſe leſſens our exportation, and injures every branch of our trade.

Many other miſtakes might be pointed out; but perhaps ſome of the courtiers of thoſe days deſigned, that this method of raiſing money ſhould not prove effectual, in order to reduce us to the neceſſity of taxing conſumption: firſt, Becauſe ſuch taxes muſt always lie heavy upon trade, fiſheries, and manufactures, and conſequently prevent our being ſuch formidable rivals to the the Dutch: 2dly, Becauſe ſuch taxes increaſe the power of miniſters, and give them the abſolute diſpoſal of large ſums of money; as they have the power not only of naming the officers employed in the collection, but of appointing what number of officers, and what ſalaries, they think fit. Theſe are reaſons for ſuch an opinion; and the then Marquis of Halifax ſeems to have been of the ſame opinion; as appears from a tract of his, publiſhed in the hiſtory of England, by an impartial hand.

The deſign of the court, therefore, being to render taxes upon conſumption neceſſary, they gave themſelves no trouble about the aſſeſſment that was to be made, in order to raiſe money by a pound-rate: but, on the contrary, connived at moſt of the lands in the kingdom, being aſſeſſed at leſs than half their yearly value; and at aſſeſſing ſtock in trade, inſtead of aſſeſſing the yearly profits, made by trade, or any other ſort of employment; as to both which, indeed, they were warranted by the practice of former times; but the circumſtances of the nation were now very different. In former times, before the reſtoration, or rather before the civil wars, in the reign of Charles I. annual taxes were not neceſſary. Our aids and ſubſidies, 10ths and 15ths, were granted only on particular occaſions, when war, or any other misfortune, required an extraordinary public expence; and as war was then generally but of ſhort duration, theſe taxes did not often require to be annually renewed: but now, when we muſt have annual taxes, ſuch taxes muſt be impoſed either upon conſumption, or upon annual profits. It is therefore ridiculous to talk of ſtock in trade; becauſe ſome employments require a great ſtock, and yet may yield but very little profits; and others yield a great annual profit, without any ſtock. As experience is the beſt inſtructor, it is eaſy to ſhow the miſchiefs that muſt be brought upon a free trading country by taxes upon conſumption, eſpecially when raiſed by exciſes.

Theſe miſchiefs every thinking man in the kingdom is now ſenſible of; but our landed gentlemen having once got their eſtates aſſeſſed at ſuch an undervalue, they would never think of effectual methods of taxing any other ſort of yearly income; becauſe, if they had, they muſt have conſented to a new aſſeſſment, and indeed to frequent aſſeſſments of their own eſtates; and as taxes upon conſumption give miniſters ſuch an addition of power, it is not to be expected that they will ever think of raiſing money for the public ſervice by any other method.

This is the true cauſe of our having ſo long, and ſo obſtinately perſiſted in this method of raiſing the neceſſary and annual ſupplies. It is true, that by this method the people are not ſo ſenſible of the public expences, or of what they pay towards them, eſpecially as every tax is mortgaged as ſoon as impoſed: but for this very reaſon every honeſt man ought to be againſt it; for the people ought always to be made ſenſible of both; becauſe they will then look more narrowly into the public accompts; they will be more cautious of involving themſelves in war; they will prevent miniſters engaging in any wild and deſtructive ſchemes, or periſhing in them, after experience has ſhown them to be impracticable; for any man of parts will allow, that by this method alone it was poſſible for our miniſters to bring the nation under ſuch a load of debts, as are incredible to a ſtranger to enumerate. See National *Debt*.

It is therefore only proper to ſubjoin a liſt of ſuch things as are either charged with high duties at their importation, or high exciſes at home, being ſuch as every family almoſt is either more or leſs obliged to make uſe of, and then leave it to the judgment and deciſion of every conſidering man, whether this matter is over-rated or not.

Velvets, and all foreign wrought ſilks, lace, callicoes, muſlins, and all foreign linen, all foreign wines, arrack, rum, and brandy; all home diſtilled ſpirits, beer, ale, cyder, mum, perry, ſweet wines, and vinegar, china-ware, wrought-plate, wire, cards, and dice; hides, leather, parchment, vellum, paper, paſteboard, whale-fins, and oil; coffee, tea, and chocolate; cinnamon, cloves, nutmegs, mace, ginger, and pepper; all manner of apothecaries drugs; almonds, raiſins, plumbs, and all ſorts of grocery-ware; moloſſes, ſugar, ſoap, candles, ſnuff, ſtarch, tobacco, ſalt, and hops.

Now, when we take a view of this formidable liſt, and conſider the large quantities of ſome of theſe things which are uſed and conſumed in the families of noblemen, gentlemen, tradeſmen, merchants, ſhopkeepers, and farmers, and that no family can ſubſiſt without the uſe and conſumption of many others of them, we may be tempted to think, that the calculation is too low, which places it at an average of 20 s. a year each perſon, and at 14 l. a year each family, taking one family with another. See *Land*, and *Manufacture*.

TAXERS. Two officers yearly choſen in Cambridge, to ſee the gauge of all weights and meaſures obſerved. The name had its riſe from taxing and rating the rents of houſes, which was anciently the duty of their office.

TCHEOUZE. A kind of Chineſe taffety, pretty cloſe, and ſo pliable as not to be folded when preſſed; and the conveniency of waſhing it like linen, occaſions its uſe for the ſame purpoſes.

TEA, *Thea*, or as the Japaneſe call it *Tcha*. The leaf of a tree or ſhrub, growing in ſeveral provinces of China, Japan, and Siam, whoſe infuſion is in general uſed as a drink. The plant affects vallies, the feet of mountains, and a ſtony ſoil.

Its ſeed is uſually ſown in places expoſed to the ſouth, and bears three years after; the root reſembles that of the peach-tree; the leaves are green, longiſh at the point, pretty narrow, an inch and a half in length, and jagged all around.

The flower is much like that of the wild-roſe; the fruit is of different forms, ſometimes round, ſometimes long, ſometimes triangular, of the ordinary ſize of a bean, containing two or three peas of a mouſe-colour, including each a kernel; theſe peas being the ſeeds by which the plant is propagated.

The tree is of various heights from 1 foot to 100; and there are ſome which two men cannot fathom, while others ſcarce exceed the feebleſt ſhrub in a garden. The beſt time to gather the leaves of tea, is while they are ſmall,

ſmall, young, and juicy; when gathered, they are paſſed over the ſmoak of boiling water, to moiſten them; then they are laid on copper-plates, which are heated; and thus the leaves drying, they are curled up in the manner they are brought to Europe; though it is very rare to find the tea perfectly pure, the Chineſe always mixing other herbs with it, to increaſe the quantity. Indeed the price it is ſold at among them is reaſonable enough; being uſually about 3 d. ſterling a pound, and never more than 9 d. The Chineſe know nothing of imperial tea, flower of tea, and many other names, which are uſed in Europe to diſtinguiſh the goodneſs, and the price of this faſhionable commodity; and yet, beſide the common tea, they diſtinguiſh two other kinds, the voui and the ſoumlo, which are reſerved for people of the firſt quality, and thoſe who are indiſpoſed.

There are two general ſorts of tea in Europe:

Green TEA, being the common tea of the countries where it grows, which F. le Compte calls bing-tree, and ſays it is gathered from the plant in April. This is held a very good digeſtive, and a little corroſive; giving a pale greeniſh tincture to water, and its leaves are much twiſted.

The ſecond is,

Bohea TEA, which is the voui tea, or bou tea of the Chineſe. F. le Compte makes this only to differ from the green tea, by its being gathered in March, a month before it, and while in the bud; hence the ſmallneſs of the leaves, as well as the depth of the tincture it gives the water. Others take it for the tea of ſome particular province; the ſoil being found to make an alteration in the properties of it, as much as the ſeaſon of gathering. There is alſo a red tea, called honan tcha, which tinges the water of a pale red, and is ſaid to be extremely digeſtive; by means whereof the Tartars are ſaid to be able to feed on raw fleſh. It has an earthy taſte, and much the leaſt agreeable of them all; but ſcarce known in England.

Tea is to be choſen green, of the briskeſt ſmell, as whole as poſſible, and the greateſt care taken that it has not been expoſed to the air to pall and evaporate. The drink tea is made in China, and throughout the greateſt part of the Eaſt, after the ſame maner as in Europe, by infuſing the leaves in boiling water, and drinking the infuſion hot. Indeed, with us, it is uſual to temper its bitterneſs with ſugar, of which the orientals uſe little or none. However, the Japaneſe are ſaid to prepare their liquor ſomewhat different, by pulveriſing it, and ſtirring the powder in hot water, drinking it as Europeans do coffee. The Chineſe are always making tea, eſpecially at meals, which is the chief treat wherewith they regale their friends. The moſt moderate take it at leaſt three times a day, others ten times, or more; and yet it is computed the conſumption of tea among the Engliſh and Dutch is as great in proportion as among the Orientals; though, in France, the uſe of tea is much declined, and coffee is now become the prevailing liquor.

The properties of tea are ſtrangely controverted, and the eaſtern nations are altogether as much poſſeſſed with them as the Europeans; but it is perhaps becauſe imagination bears as great a ſway there as here. The reaſon why the gout and ſtone are unknown in China, is aſcribed to the uſe of this plant; which is ſaid further to cure indigeſtions of the ſtomach, to carry off a debauch, and to give new ſtrength for drinking; as alſo to diſpel wind, and cure the vapours.

Sim. Pauli, phyſician to the King of Denmark, in an expreſs treatiſe on this plant, endeavours to ſhew, that theſe virtues aſcribed to it in the Eaſt are local, and hold not with the inhabitants of Europe. According to him, thoſe paſt their fortieth year ſhould never uſe it, as being too deſiccative; that tea has no other virtues but thoſe of betony; and adds, with Bauhin, that it is only a ſpecies of myrtle, found in Europe as well as the Indies. But this opinion is refuted by Pechlin, in a treatiſe of tea; where he maintains, that it is good to prevent ſcorbutic diſeaſes, and that its gentle aſtringent virtues ſtrengthen the tonic motions of the inteſtines; but he blames the drinking it with milk, and eſpecially after a full meal, or after much wine.

By an act of the 11th of George I. tea may not be imported but from the place of its growth, though formerly exported from hence, or upon any other pretence, upon forfeiture thereof.

By the 12th of George I. tea ſeized, which cannot be ſold at a public ſale for 5 s. *per* pound, may be burnt, or otherwiſe deſtroyed; and the ſeizer rewarded as the commiſſioners ſhall think fit, not exceeding 18 d. *per* pound.

By the 14th of George II. any dealers in tea, who ſhall dye, fabricate, or manufacture any ſloe-leaves, liquorice-leaves, or leaves of tea that have been uſed, or of any other tree, ſhrub, or plant, in imitation of tea, or ſhall mix or dye ſuch leaves with Terra Japanica, ſugar, meloſſes, clay, logwood, or any other ingredients or materials, or ſhall ſell, or expoſe to ſale, or have in their poſſeſſion any ſuch leaves, are to forfeit 10 l. for every pound weight.

The ſmuggling of tea being a great detriment to the public revenue, an act of parliament was paſſed in 1745 for reducing this duty to one-half what it was before, which brought a great increaſe to the revenue: for, before this period, the tea-revenue had been gradually ſinking from 200,000 l. a year to about 140,000 l.; which laſt ſum aroſe from about 600,000 lb. weight only of tea, being all that then paid duty: but, ſince the act, the ſtate of the revenue ſtands thus:

	lb. of tea.	Exciſe.	Cuſtom.	
1746,	1,900,000	200,000	28,000	
1747,	2,000,000	210,000	28,000	
1748,	2,600,000	280,000	50,000	—Here commenced the 5 *per cent.* on dry goods.
1749,	2,700,000	280,000	50,000	
1750,	2,700,000	280,000	50,000	
1751,	2,800,000	310,000	58,000	
1752,	3,000,000	315,000	58,000	
1753,	3,200,000	325,000	58,000	
In 8 years	20,900,000	2,200,000	380,000	
		380,000		

L. 2,580,000 total exciſe and cuſtom.

So that deducting 1,120,000 l. from this total for eight years, at 140,000 l. *per annum*, the revenue has benefited by this act 1,460,000 l. in eight years, excepting only the 5 *per cent.* on dry goods, which took place in 1747.

TEAZEL, or *Fullers thiſtle*. A plant uſed by the fullers, cloth-workers, and ſtocking-weavers. See *Fuller*.

TECCALIS. A weight uſed in the kingdom of Pegu, where 100 teccalis make about 40 ounces avoirdupois.

TEES. A river which riſes on the confines of Cumberland; and running eaſtward, divides the county of Durham from Yorkſhire, falling into the German ſea below Stockton.

TAGAPATAN. A port-town of the Hither India, in Aſia, lying in 76 deg. of E. lon. and 8 deg. of N. lat. near Comorin, the moſt ſouthern promontory of that peninſula, 80 miles ſouth of Cochin, and 160 miles N.W. of Columbo in Ceylon, where the Dutch have a factory.

TEIRCE. The third part of a pipe of wine, containing 42 gallons.

TELA. A kind of coin, or rather a gold medal, ſtruck at the coronation of every Perſian King, and diſtributed among the people; being of the ſame weight with the German gold ducats; but of no currency in commerce, and worth more or leſs, purſuant to their ſcarcity, or the deſire of perſons for them; though there are alſo telas ſtruck in the beginning of every new year.

TELARSKI-*Bielki*. A ſort of very white fur brought from Siberia, and ſome other Ruſſian territories, of an extraordinary ſize; being much eſteemed by the Muſcovites, who reſerve them almoſt all for the warehouſes, and uſe of their ſovereign: however, ſeveral of this ſort paſs into China.

TELESCOPE. An optical inſtrument, conſiſting of ſeveral glaſſes, or lenſes, fitted into a tube; through which remote

remote objects are ſeen as if nigh at hand. In teleſcopes, the lens, or glaſs, turned towards the object, is called the object-glaſs, and that next the eye the eye-glaſs; though, if the teleſcope conſiſts of more than two lenſes, all but that next the object, are called eye-glaſſes. The invention of the teleſcope is one of the nobleſt and moſt uſeful theſe ages have to boaſt of; by means whereof the wonders of the heavens are diſcovered to us, and aſtronomy brought to a degree of perfection, of which former ages could have no notion.

The diſcovery is rather owing to chance than to thought; ſo that we are rather indebted to the good fortune of the diſcoverer, than to his ſkill or ability: on which account it concerns us the leſs to know who it was firſt diſcovered this admirable invention. It is certain it muſt be caſual, ſeeing the theory it depends upon was not then known. However, none of the firſt artificers made teleſcopes above a foot and a half; it being Marius in Germany, and Galileo in Italy, who firſt made long ones, fit for celeſtial obſervations.

Teleſcopes are of various kinds, diſtinguiſhed by the number of their lenſes or glaſſes, and denominated from their particular uſes; as the terreſtrial or land teleſcope, the celeſtial or aſtronomical teleſcope; to which may be added, the Galilean or Dutch teleſcope, the reflecting teleſcope, and the aerial teleſcope. Galileos', or the Dutch teleſcope, conſiſts of a convex object-glaſs, and a concave eye-glaſs; which, of all others, is the moſt ancient form, being the only kind made by the inventors Galileo and Huygens.

Aſtronomical teleſcope, conſiſts of an object-glaſs and eye-glaſs, both convex; and has its name from being wholly uſed in aſtronomical obſervations.

Land-teleſcope, or *day-teleſcope*, of more than two lenſes, commonly of a convex object-glaſs, and three convex eye-glaſſes; or a teleſcope that exhibits objects, yet different from that of Galileo; which has its name from being uſed to view objects in the day-time, on or about the earth.

The *reflecting teleſcope*, inſtead of lenſes, conſiſts chiefly of mirrors, and exhibits remote objects by reflection inſtead of refraction; which inſtrument is the invention of the great Sir Iſaac Newton.

Aerial teleſcope, is a kind of aſtronomical inſtrument, the lenſes whereof are uſed without a tube. However, in ſtrictneſs, this is rather a particular manner of mounting long teleſcopes for celeſtial obſervations in the night-time, whereby the trouble of long unwieldy tubes is ſaved, than any particular kind of teleſcope, contrived by the great Huygens.

Teleſcopial ſtars, are ſuch as are not viſible by the naked eye, but diſcoverable only by the help of a teleſcope; all ſtars leſs than the 6th magnitude being teleſcopic to a middling eye.

TELLE. See *Tael*.

TELLER. An officer in the exchequer; of which there are four; whoſe buſineſs is to receive all monies due to the crown, and thereupon to throw down a bill through a pipe into the tally-court, where it is received by the auditor's clerks, who attend there to write the words of the ſaid bill on a tally, and then deliver it to be entered by the clerk of the pells, or his clerk. See *Exchequer*, and *Tally*.

The tally is then ſplit or cloven by the two deputy-chamberlains, who have their ſeals; whilſt the ſenior deputy reads the one part, and the junior examines the other with the other two clerks.

The tellers places are in the King's gift; and they have, beſides their chief clerks, or deputy, four other clerks, for the diſpatch of buſineſs.

TELLICHERRY. A port-town on the Malabar coaſt, in the Hither India, ſituated in 75 deg. of E. lon. and 12 deg. of N. lat. 30 miles north of Calicut; having an Engliſh factory, ſubject to Bombay.

TELLONG. A weight uſed at Anjengo, on the Malabar coaſt, in India; being 16 lb. avoirdupois.

TEMAN. A liquid meaſure uſed at Mocha in Arabia: 32 memeedas make the teeman, and each memeeda is 3 Engliſh pints.

TEMIN. A term in the Levant for the French pieces of 5 ſols; which, at the requeſt of the French ambaſſador, were cried down at Conſtantinople, upon account of their adulteration by other Europeans.

TEMPERING, in the mechanic arts. The preparing of ſteel and iron ſo as to render them more compact, hard, and firm, or even more ſoft and pliant, according to the reſpective occaſions. See *Iron*, and *Steel*.

Theſe metals are tempered by plunging them, while red hot, in ſome liquor prepared for the purpoſe; ſometimes pure water is uſed for that purpoſe; and, in effect, lockſmiths and blackſmiths ſcarce ever uſe any other: ſometimes a compoſition of various juices or liquors is uſed, which differs according to the manner and experience of the workman; ſuch as vinegar, mouſe-ear water, nettle, or Spaniſh raddiſh water, the water oozing from broken glaſſes, ſoot, ſalt, oil, diſtilled wine, and ſal armoniac. To harden and temper Engliſh, Flemiſh, and Swediſh ſteel, you muſt give them a pretty high heat; then ſuddenly quench them in water to make them hard; but Spaniſh and Venice ſteel requires only a blood-red heat before it is quenched.

If the ſteel is brittle, or too hard for an edge-tool, let it down by rubbing a piece of grindſtone or whetſtone hard upon the rock, to take off the ſcurf; then brighten, or heat it in the fire; and, as it grows hotter, you will ſee the colour change by degrees, coming firſt to a ſtraw, or light goldiſh colour, then to a darker goldiſh colour, and at laſt to a blue colour. The light gold colour is for files, cold chiſſels, and punches, to cut or punch iron and ſteel; the dark gold colour for punches to uſe on braſs, copper, or the like; and the blue colour gives the temper for ſprings.

TENBY. A port-town of Pembrokeſhire, ſituated in 4 deg. 45 min. of W. lon. and 51 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. on the Briſtol channel, 8 miles eaſt of Pembroke.

TENDER, in a legal ſenſe, ſignifies as much as to offer, or endeavour the performance of any thing, in order to ſave the penalty or forfeiture incurred by non-performance. Thus, to tender rent, is to offer it at the time and place where and when it ought to be paid; which will ſave the condition for that time, though the landlord refuſe to accept it.

TENDER, in the ſea-language, is a veſſel attending on ſome other larger and more conſiderable ones. See *Boat*.

TENEDOS. One of the ſmalleſt iſlands of the Turkiſh Archipelago, ſituated in 27 deg. of E. lon. and 39 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. near the coaſt of the Leſſer Aſia, a little weſt of the ruins of Troy.

TENERIF. One of the largeſt of the Canary iſlands, ſituated in 17 deg. of W. and 28 deg. of N. lat. in the Atlantic ocean, 350 miles weſt of Morocco in Africa. See *Canary* iſlands.

TENT, among vintners. A ſort of rich red Spaniſh wine.

TENTER. A machine uſed in the cloth-manufactory, to ſtretch out the pieces of cloth and ſtuff, or only to make them even, and ſet them ſquare.

This machine is uſually about four feet and a half high, and for length exceeds that of the longeſt piece of cloth; conſiſting of ſeveral long ſquare pieces of wood, placed like thoſe which form the barriers of a manege, but ſo as the lower croſs-piece of wood may be raiſed or lowered, as is found requiſite, to be fixed at any height, by means of pins. Along the croſs-pieces, both the upper and under one, are hooked nails, called tenter-hooks, driven in from ſpace to ſpace.

TEPIS. A cotton and ſilk ſtuff manufactured in the Eaſt Indies; being from five to ſeven ells in length, and 2-3ds in breadth.

TERCERA. One of the largeſt of the Azores, or Weſtern iſlands, lying in 28 deg. of W. lon. and 39 deg. of N. lat. in the Atlantic ocean, almoſt in the mid-way between the continents of Europe and America. See *Azores*.

TERINDANNES. A muſlin, or fine cotton cloth, brought from the Eaſt Indies, particularly from Bengal; the pieces being 16 ells in length, and 3-4ths in breadth.

TERKI. A port-town of Circaſſia, in Aſia, ſituated in

52 deg. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. on a river of the ſame name, near the Caſpian ſea; being the frontier-town of the Ruſſians againſt Perſia, 100 miles north of Derbent, and 140 ſouth of Aſtracan.

TERNATE. The moſt northerly of the Molucca or Clove iſlands, in the Indian ſeas, in Aſia, ſituated in 125 deg. of E. lon. and 1 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. a little weſt of the iſland of Gilolo, and 100 miles eaſt of the iſland of Celebes, or Macaſſar; being in poſſeſſion of the Dutch. See *Moluccas*.

TERRA *a Terra*. Galleys, and other veſſels, are ſaid to go *terra a terra*, when they never go far from the coaſt.

TERRA DEL FOGO. An iſland of South America, bounded by the ſtraits of Magellan, on the north; by the Atlantic ocean, on the eaſt; and by the South ſea, on the ſouth and weſt; being of a triangular figure, the baſe whereof is the ſtrait of Magellan. It is 300 miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and about as much from north to ſouth, the point or ſummit of the pyramid lying in 80 deg. of W. lon. and 57 deg. 30 min. of S. lat. This is the moſt ſouthern cape or promontory of South America, about which all ſhips ſail at preſent into the Pacific ocean, inſtead of going through the ſtraits of Magellan, as the firſt diſcoverer did, who gave his name to that ſtrait. Terra del Fogo is a mountainous, woody country, the tops of the mountains being almoſt always covered with ſnow. There are ſome good harbours on the coaſt, where ſhips may lie ſecure from ſtorms, which theſe ſeas are very much ſubject to; but our mariners chuſe to keep at a diſtance from the land, in their paſſage round Cape Horn, that they may have ſea-room, rather than come near it. There are ſome few inhabitants on the iſland, as there are upon the continent on the north ſide of the ſtraits, who are repreſented as a brave hardy race, naturally of dark olive complexions; painting both their faces and bodies, and having no other cloathing but a mantle they make of the ſkins of animals, and a cap of feathers: they live in little huts, which they make with the boughs of trees, eating what they take in hunting and fiſhing. Their arms are bows and arrows, pointed with ſharp flints or bones; and their nets made of the ſinews of animals, or the fibres of the bark of ſome trees. Their country ſeems to have little in it to invite foreigners to ſettle among them; at leaſt the Europeans have thought fit, hitherto, to leave them to their natural liberty, as well as the natives of the oppoſite continent of Patagonia. See *Spaniſh* America.

TERRA FIRMA, in geography, is uſed for a continent, in contra-diſtinction to iſlands. See *Continent*.

TERRA FIRMA, is alſo a province of New Spain. See *Spaniſh* America.

TERRA MERITA, in Latin *Curcuma*, called alſo ſaffron of the Indies, Malabar, and Babylon, is a root which ſerves for dying yellow, being of that colour both within and without, and like ginger in figure and thickneſs; its leaves are broad, long, and green, with flowers like blades of corn.

It is brought from the Eaſt Indies, and the iſland of Madagaſcar; but it ſhould be choſen thick, new, reſinous, hard to be broken, heavy, and not worm-eaten.

TERRAQUEOUS. An epithet given to our globe or earth, conſidered as conſiſting of land and water, which together conſtitute one maſs.

Mr. Derham obſerves, that the diſtribution of land and water is admirable; the one being laid over the other ſo ſkilfully all the world over, that there is a juſt equipoiſe or balance of the whole globe. Thus the northern balances the ſouthern; and the American continent is a counterpoiſe to the Eurepean, African, and Aſiatic. See *Ocean*.

TERRA SAPONARIA, is the Latin name for a kind of glazed earth, which may ſerve inſtead of ſoap for the ſcowering of wool.

TERRA SIGILLATA, called alſo *Lemnian earth*. See Terra *Sigillata*.

TERRIS *et catallis tentis ultra debitum levatum*. A writ judicial, for the reſtoring lands or goods to a debtor, who is diſtrained beyond the quantity of the debt.

TERVERE. A port-town of the United Netherlands,

in the province of Zealand, ſituated in 3 deg. 35 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 38 min. of N. lat. on the N. E. coaſt of the iſland of Walcheren, 4 miles N. E. of Middleburg, once ſubject to the Prince of Orange; but the ſtates have lately deprived him of it.

TESCARET, or *Theskere*, is a term in the Levant port-towns, particularly at Smyrna, for a certificate given by the cuſtomhouſe-officers, when the duties of entry have been paid for merchandiſe; by virtue of which certificate they are to paſs free throughout the extent of the farm, or diſtrict, where they have paid; for in other ports, as in Cairo, they are to pay new duty.

TEST, among chemiſts and refiners. The ſame with cupel, or coppel, an inſtrument uſed in the purifying of gold and ſilver.

TESTACEOUS, in natural hiſtory. An epithet given to a ſpecies of fiſh, which are covered with a ſtrong thick ſhell, as tortoiſes, oyſters, and pearl-fiſh. See *Fiſh*. In ſtrictneſs, however, teſtaceous is only applied to fiſh whoſe ſtrong and thick ſhells are entire, and of a piece; thoſe which are ſoft, thin, and conſiſt of ſeveral pieces jointed, as the lobſter, being called *cruſtaceous*.

But, in medicine, all preparations of ſhells, and ſubſtances of the like kind, are called teſtaceous powders; ſuch are powders of crabs eyes and claws, hartſhorn, and pearl. Dr. Quincy, and others, ſuppoſe the virtue of all teſtaceous powders to be alike; that they ſeldom or never enter the lacteals; but that the chief of their action is in the firſt paſſages; in which caſe they are of great uſe in abſorbing acidities. Hence they become of uſe in fevers, and eſpecially in rectifying the many diſtempers in children, which generally owe their origin to ſuch acidites.

TESTICACO. A great lake of Peru in America, more than 200 miles in circumference, ſituated in the province of Callao; the towns ſituated on this lake being eſteemed the moſt delightful abodes in South America.

TESTOON. A ſilver coin of Italy: the teſtoon of Venice is 648 pichilis, or 1 s. $5\frac{163}{184}$ d. ſterling; that of Naples is 120 quatrins, or 1 s. 4 d. ſterling; that of Rome is 96 quatrins, or 1 s. 6 d. ſterling; that of Bologna is 180 quatrins, or 1 s. 6 d. ſterling; and that of Genoa is 360 deniers, or 1 s. $3\frac{1}{5}$ d. ſterling.

But the teſtoon is alſo a ſilver coin of Portugal, being 100 rees, or $6\frac{3}{4}$ d. ſterling; and 48 teſtoons make the moidore, or 1 l. 7 s. ſterling.

TETUAN. A town of the empire of Morocco in Africa, ſituated in 6 deg. 35 min. of W. lon. and 35 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. about 60 miles S. E. of Tangier, 8 miles from the bay of Tetuan, juſt within the ſtraits of Gibraltar. See *Morocco*.

TEUTONIC. Something belonging to the Teutones, an ancient people of Germany, inhabiting chiefly along the coaſts of the German ocean.

TEUTONIC *language*, is the ancient language of Germany, which is ranked among the mother-tongues, and now called the German or High Dutch; being diſtinguiſhed into Upper and Lower. The Upper has two notable dialects: 1. The Scandian, Daniſh, or perhaps Gothic; to which belong the languages ſpoke in Denmark, Sweden, Norway, and Iceland: 2. The Saxon; to which belong the ſeveral languages of the Engliſh, Scotch, Friſian, and thoſe on the north of the Elbe. To the Lower belong the Low Dutch and Flemiſh, ſpoke through the Netherlands.

TEUTONIC *order*. A military religious order of knights eſtabliſhed towards the cloſe of the 12th century, and thus called becauſe conſiſting principally of Germans or Teutons.

This order was maſter of all Pruſſia, and built the cities of Elbing, Marienbourg, Thorn, Dantzick, Koningſberg, and ſome others. As the order grew in power, the knights took more ſtate on them; and at length, inſtead of friars, brothers, as at firſt, would be called knights. Though the grand maſter, Conrade Zolnera of Rotenſteine, oppoſed this innovation, his ſucceſſor Conrade Wallerod not only approved it, but procured himſelf to be treated with honours only rendered to the greateſt princes. Diviſions being got into the order, the Kings

of Poland made their advantage of them; for the Pruſſians revolted; and, after ſeveral wars between the knights and the Poles, the former yielded to King Caſimire the Upper Pruſſia, and did homage to him for the Lower. Laſtly, at the time of the reformation, Albert Marquis of Brandenburgh, then grand maſter, becoming a Lutheran, renounced the dignity of grand maſter, diſſolved the commanderies, and drove the knights out of Pruſſia: moſt of the knights followed his example, and embraced the reformation; the reſt transferring the ſeat of their order to Margentheim, or Marendal, in Franconia, which they ſtill retain. They there elected Walter of Cromberg their grand maſter, formed a proceſs againſt Albert, and the Emperor put him to the ban of the empire. The order, however, could never recover their domains; but are now little more than the ſhadow of what they formerly were, having only three or four commanderies, ſcarce ſufficient for the ordinary ſubſiſtence of the grand maſter and the knights.

TEXEL. An iſland of Holland, ſituated in 4 deg. 25 min. of E. lon. and 53 deg. 12 min. of N. lat. at the entrance of the Zuyder ſea, parted from the continent of Holland by a narrow channel, through which moſt ſhips bound for Amſterdam paſs. See *United* Provinces.

TEXTURE, properly denotes the arrangement and coheſion of ſeveral ſlender bodies or threads interwoven, or entangled among each other, as in cloths, ſtuffs, and the webs of ſpiders.

THAMALAPATRA, called ſometimes *Malabatrum*, is the leaf of a tree, which grows in the Eaſt Indies, and enters the compoſition of the theriaca.

THAMES. A great navigable river of England, compoſed chiefly of the rivers Iſis and Thame; of which the Iſis is much the larger, and runs the longer courſe, riſing on the confines of Glouceſterſhire, a little ſouth-weſt of Cirenceſter, and at Lechlade becomes navigable; from whence it continues its courſe north-eaſt to Oxford, where it receives the Charwell; from Oxford it runs ſouth-eaſt to Abington, and thence to Dorcheſter, where it receives the Thame, and continues its courſe ſouth-eaſt by Wallingford to Reading; after which it viſits Marlow and Windſor, and from thence runs eaſt by Brentford and Richmond to London; continuing the ſame courſe to the ſea, and receiving the river Medway near the mouth of it. The Thame is but a ſmall river, which, riſing near Tring in Hertfordſhire, croſſes the county of Bucks, and falls into the Iſis at Dorcheſter, before which it is a ſmall unnavigable ſtream.

THANET. A little iſland of Eaſt Kent, formed by the branches of the river Stour and the ſea.

THAPSIE. A plant of an extraordinary acrimonious nature, which only enters violent remedies; and is of two ſorts, white and black. The white has leaves like fennel, with yellow flowers, and a broad ſeed: it is alſo called grey turbit; and fraudulent apothecaries ſubſtitute it in the place of the real turbit. The black is different only in colour from the white. See *Turbit*.

THELONIUM, ſignifies toll. See *Toll*.

Breve eſſendi quieti de thelonio, is a writ lying for the citizens of a city, or burgeſſes of a town, that have a charter or preſcription to free them from toll, againſt the officers of any town or market, who would conſtrain them to pay it, contrary to the grant or preſcription.

THERIACA, in medicine. A name given by the ancients to various compoſitions, eſteemed good againſt poiſons; but now chiefly reſtrained to what, by way of diſtinction, is called theriaca andromachi, or Venice treacle; which is a compound of no leſs than 64 drugs, prepared, pulverized, and reduced, by means of honey, into a liquid electuary; the baſis, or foundation of the compoſition, being viper's fleſh. M. Charas has wrote a particular hiſtory of the animals, plants, and minerals, entering the compoſition of this remedy, which is found ſovereign againſt the bites of venomous beaſts, and in the wind-colic; being alſo uſed in intermitting fevers, and in caſes requiring perſpiratives and diaphoretics; alſo in continual fevers, eſpecially ſuch as are malignant, and where the pulſe is low and ticking; in the ſmall pox, and meaſles: and, as moſt of the ingredients thereof are very hot, it is proper to be given in diſeaſes, where the natural heat is weak and languid. Andromachus, Nero's phyſician, paſſes for the inventor of theriaca; at leaſt it was he who gave the firſt deſcription thereof in elegiac verſes; his ſon did the ſame in proſe, and Democrates in iambic. Anciently the treacle made at Venice had all the reputation; and many people ſtill retain the ancient prejudice: but it is now prepared at Montpelier, Paris, and London, with as much advantage as at Venice.

There is another vulgar kind of theriaca, called *diateſſaron*; becauſe only conſiſting of four ingredients.

Treacle-water, and treacle-vinegar, are found good preſervatives againſt putrid air, whether by being only ſmelt, or rubbing the wriſts, temples, and noſe therewith.

THERMOMETER. An inſtrument ſhewing, or rather meaſuring, the increaſe and decreaſe of the heat and cold of the air.

THERMOSCOPE. An inſtrument ſhewing the changes happening in the air, with reſpect to heat and cold.

THIMELA. A plant, whoſe root is ranked among the number of medicinal drugs.

The leaves of the thimela are green, thick, and glutinous, not unlike thoſe of the olive-tree; and it produces a fruit of the bigneſs of a grain of pepper, which is green at firſt, and of a beautiful red when ripe. Its root is light, and fibrous, reddiſh on the outſide, and white within; of an agreeable taſte when firſt put into the mouth, but cauſtic, and exceeding hot, when it remains there for ſome time. It is uſed in France for purging the head, and drawing off defluxions from the eyes; but the beſt ſort is that of Languedoc.

THISTLE. A name common to ſeveral plants; whoſe flowers conſiſt of ſeveral little, longiſh, narrow leaves, ranged cloſe together in a ſort of head; and whoſe proper leaves are uſually ſquammoſe and prickly; but the moſt known of theſe plants is the bleſſed thiſtle. See *Fuller*.

THLAPSI. A plant, which grows in the ſouthern provinces of France; being of two ſorts; one riſing about a foot in height, whoſe leaves are of a deep blue; the flowers white, and the ſeed yellow, bordering upon red: the other has not ſo high a ſtalk; but, in all other reſpects, is like the firſt, except that its ſeed is entirely yellow.

The ſeed of the thlapſi of the firſt kind, which ſhould be choſen new, clean, reddiſh, ſharp, and poignant, is proper for medicine; for, when pulveriſed, and taken faſting, it is reputed ſovereign for diſſolving the ſtone in the bladder, curing the gout, and expelling coagulated blood in the breaſt or ſtomach.

THOMAS, *St.* An iſland in the Atlantic ocean, ſituated under the equator, in 8 deg. of E. lon. 240 miles N.W. of the city of Loango in Africa; and, with four other adjacent iſlands, is ſubject to the King of Portugal; all of which furniſh ſhipping with water and proviſions as they paſs by; but are not conſiderable on any other account. The iſland of St. Thomas, which the negroes of the coaſt of Africa call *Poncas*, took its name from the diſcovery the Portugueſe made of it, towards the middle of the 16th century, on St. Thomas's day.

The ſituation of St. Thomas, though under the line, appeared ſo commodious to the Dutch for the commerce of Angola, and the other neighbouring coaſts, that they twice made themſelves maſters of it, firſt in 1610, and next in 1641; but they could not maintain themſelves there, and were obliged to abandon it to the Portugueſe, after laying the iſland deſolate with fire and ſword. The Portugueſe were the firſt who inhabited and cultivated St. Thomas; but at preſent the negroes exceed them in number, and could eaſily poſſeſs themſelves of the iſland, had not their natural cowardice, and habitude to ſlavery, rendered them incapable of ſuch an enterprize.

Sugar canes and ginger grow there as well as in any other part of the world, and make the principal object of the interior commerce of the iſland; for the harveſt of both, notwithſtanding the great heats, never fail once a month. There are 45 or 50 ſugar-mills, which have each their month for working; and, from all the iſlands, are ex-

ported yearly for Portugal, about a hundred thouſand arobes of ſugar, each arobe weighing 32 lb. avoirdupois.

The other merchandiſe of the growth or manufacture of the iſland are ſeveral cotton ſtuffs fit for the negro-coaſt trade; fruits, particularly that called cola, which is a kind of nut reſembling the taſte of a cheſnut, and bartered with great profit in the kingdoms of Angola and Congo.

The European merchandiſe brought by the Portugueſe to St. Thomas, are Dutch and Rouen linens, threads of all colours, ſerges, ſilk ſtockings, Leyden camblets, Niſmes ſerges, hatchets, and other iron utenſils, ſalt, oil of olives, copper veſſels, pitch, and tar, cordage, ſugar-mills, brandy, all ſorts of diſtilled liquors, Canary wine, olives, capers, flour, butter, and cheeſe.

Beſides the great iſland, ſome pilots give the general name of *the iſlands of St. Thomas*, to ſeveral other iſlands, which are very near, and even others at a good diſtance. Of theſe iſlands, the principal are Prince's iſland, Fernando-Po, Aſcenſion, Anaboa or Anabon, and even St. Helen, though at a conſiderable diſtance.

As to the four firſt, they have little trade; and the ſhips, on their way to the Eaſt Indies, put in there only for water and wood, or the fiſhing of turtle, when they want proviſions, or have a great many ſick aboard; though Anaboa may be excepted, where the Portugueſe eſtabliſhed a trade in the cotton, which they gather there in abundance; as alſo in hogs, veniſon, fowls, and ſeveral excellent fruits, as oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, cocos, and ananas; to which may be added, millet, and Turky corn.

St. THOMAS, is alſo a city of India, on the coaſt of Coromandel, 3 miles ſouth of Fort St. George, ſituated in 80 deg. of E. lon. and 13 deg. of N. lat. ſubject to Portugal.

St. THOMAS. See *Daniſh* America.

THORA. A plant, which grows on the higheſt mountains, and is a kind of aconite, whoſe poiſon is very dangerous. Its leaves are long, firm, and indented, ſupported by very ſlender ſtalks; and its flowers are of a yellow colour, compoſed only of four leaves.

Nature has prepared for it a counterpoiſon in another kind of aconite, called, upon account of its ſpecific property, anthora; whoſe root has two ſhort diviſions, very bitter, white within, brown without, and fibrous. Its ſtalk riſes about two feet in height, its leaves reſemble the claws of a lark, and its flowers a head covered with a helmet; its ſeeds being blackiſh, and wrinkled, incloſed within membranous pods.

The anthora, beſides its ſpecific virtue againſt thora, is reputed ſovereign againſt the biting of mad dogs, and the colic.

THORNEY *iſland*, is an iſland ſituated in a bay of the Eaſt channel, between Chicheſter and Portſmouth.

THOULON, or *Toulon*. A port-town of Provence in France, ſituated in 6 deg. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 5 min. of N. lat. on a bay of the Mediterranean ſea, 400 miles S. E. of Paris, 25 miles S. E. of Marſeilles, and 80 miles S. W. of Nice. This is the moſt ſecure and capacious harbour of any port in France, where the largeſt ſhips of the royal navy are built and ſtationed: there are vaſt magazines of all manner of naval ſtores, and timber for ſhipping, with fine docks and yards for the fitting out and furniſhing ſhips of war. See *France*.

THOULOSE, or *Touloſe*. A city of France, capital of the province of Languedoc, lying in 1 deg. 5 min. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the river Garonne, 90 miles W. of the Mediterranean, 60 N. of the Pyrenees, and 300 S. of Paris. See *France*.

THREAD. Small twine, of flax, wool, or ſilk, ſpun or twiſted together, for making cloth and ſtuffs, and for ſewing things together. See *Gold* and *Silver* thread, *Flax*, and *Hemp*.

THRYLING. A ſmall money, uſed at Hamburgh, 48 of which make the ſchilling Lubs, or $1\frac{1}{8}$ d. ſterling; and 1536 make the dollar, or 3 s. ſterling.

THYME. A ſmall odoriferous herb, too well known to require a deſcription; but a very agreeable oil is extracted from its leaves and flowers.

TIBER. A great river of Italy, which runs from north to ſouth through the Pope's territories, paſſing by Perugia and Orvietto; and having viſited Rome, falls into the Tuſcan ſea at Oſtia, 15 miles below the city.

TIBIR. A name given to gold-duſt in ſeveral parts of the coaſts of Africa.

TIBOSE. One of the rupees current in the Mogul's territories, worth the double of the rupee Gaſana, which makes about 1 s. 3 d. ſterling.

TICAL. A ſilver coin, ſtruck and current in the kingdom of Siam, weighing 3 drams 23 grains, and worth about 1 s. 4 d. ſterling.

The tical is alſo a weight uſed in the ſame kingdom, weighing exactly as much as the tical coin; but the Siameſe call it baat, the word tical being Chineſe.

TICKET. A note, piece of coin, metal, or the like, ſo made as not to be eaſily counterfeited; by which a perſon is admitted to ſee a comedy, tragedy, ball, opera, or the like; alſo to receive money for ſervice done on ſhipboard: alſo a label to put on goods, and bags of money, to know the value, quantity, or ſort: likewiſe a piece of ſtamped ſilver, worn by the licenſed porters in the city of London, that, if they ſhould go away with any parcel of money, goods, or parcels, with which they are entruſted, upon application to their proper office, their ſureties ſhall be obliged to make good the damage, ſo that it does not exceed 300 l. See *Porter*.

TIDE, or *Tides*. Two periodical motions of the waters of the ſea, called alſo the flux and reflux, or ebb and flow. See *Flux*.

When the motion of the water is againſt the wind, it is called a windward tide; when wind and tide go the ſame way, leeward tide; and when it runs very ſtrong, it is called a tide-gate.

To tide over, or up into any place, is to go in with the tide, either ebb or flood, as long as it laſts; then to ſtay at anchor all the time of the contrary tide, and thus to ſet in again with the return of the next tide. It is ſaid to flow tide and half-tide, when the tide runs three hours in the offing longer than it does by the ſhore; but by longer, they do not mean more hours, only, that if it is high water aſhore at 12, it will not be ſo in the offing till 3. If it ebb and flow longer, they ſay it runs half-tide and half-quarter. When the moon is in the firſt and third quarter, that is, when ſhe is new and full, the tides are high and ſwift, and called ſpring-tides; when ſhe is in the ſecond and laſt quarter, the tides are lower and ſlower, and called neap-tides.

A table, ſhewing, by the moon's age, the time of high water at ſome of the principal ports in Great Britain.

The moon's age.		*London, Tinmouth, Whitby.*		*Birlington Bay.*		*Scarbor. 2. Tide, Severn.*		*Newcaſtle, Falmouth, Dartm.*	
Days.		h.	m.	h.	m.	h.	m.	h.	m.
1	16	3	48	4	33	5	18	6	3
2	17	4	36	5	21	6	6	6	51
3	18	5	24	6	9	6	54	7	39
4	19	6	12	6	57	7	42	8	27
5	20	7	0	7	45	8	30	9	15
6	21	7	48	8	33	9	18	10	3
7	22	8	36	9	21	10	6	10	51
8	23	9	24	10	9	10	54	11	39
9	24	10	12	10	57	11	42	12	27
10	25	11	0	11	45	12	32	1	15
11	26	11	48	12	33	1	28	2	3
12	27	12	36	1	21	2	6	2	51
13	28	1	24	2	9	2	54	3	39
14	29	2	12	2	57	3	42	4	27
15	30	3	0	3	45	4	30	5	15

The

The moon's age.		Queenbor. Southampt. Portſm.		Rocheſter, W. end of Nore.		Graveſend, Downs, Blackn.		Dundee, St. Andr. Belliſle.	
Days.		h.	m.	h.	m.	h.	m.	h.	m.
1	16	12	48	1	33	2	18	3	3
2	17	1	36	2	21	3	6	3	51
3	18	2	24	3	9	3	45	4	39
4	19	3	12	3	57	4	42	5	27
5	20	4	0	4	45	5	30	6	15
6	21	4	48	5	33	6	18	7	3
7	22	5	36	6	21	7	6	7	51
8	23	6	24	7	9	7	54	8	39
9	24	7	12	7	57	8	42	9	27
10	25	8	0	8	45	9	30	10	15
11	26	8	48	9	33	10	18	11	3
12	27	9	36	10	21	11	6	11	51
13	28	10	24	11	9	11	54	12	39
14	29	11	12	11	57	12	42	1	27
15	30	12	0	12	45	1	30	2	15

Phenomena of the TIDES. The ſea is obſerved to flow, for certain hours, from ſouth towards north; in which motion or flux, laſting about ſix hours, the ſea gradually ſwells; ſo that entering the mouths or rivers, it drives back the river-waters towards their heads or ſprings.

After a continual flux of ſix hours, the ſea ſeems to reſt for about a quarter of an hour; when it begins to ebb or retire back again from north to ſouth for ſix hours more; in which time the water ſinks, and the rivers reſume their natural courſe. After a ſeeming pauſe of a quarter of an hour, the ſea again begins to flow as before, and thus alternately: ſo does the ſea ebb twice a day, and flow as often; but not in the ſame hours thereof. Now, 12 hours 50 minutes is a lunar day; that is, the moon paſſes the meridian of the earth later and later each day by 50 minutes. So that the ſea flows as often as the moon paſſes the meridian, both the arch above, and that below the horizon; and ebbs as often as ſhe paſſes the horizon, both the eaſtern and weſtern point thereof.

This further agreement is found between the moon and the ſea, that the tides, though conſtant, are not equal; but are greateſt, when the moon is in conjunction, or oppoſition to the ſun, and leaſt when in quadrature thereto. Laſtly, thoſe tides are the greateſt, which happen in the new and full moon, at the times of the equinoxes. The ſame things are obſerved throughout moſt of the coaſts of Europe; only the tides are ſo much the leſs, and happen the later, as the coaſts are more northerly. Theſe phenomena of the tides are admirably accounted for from the principle of gravitation. All required to their ſolution is, that the earth and moon, and every particle thereof, mutually gravitate towards each other.

The ingenious Kepler indeed, long ago, conjectured this to be the occaſion of tides: "If, ſays he, the earth "ceaſed to attract its waters towards itſelf, all the wa- "ter of the ocean would riſe and flow into the moon; "the ſphere of the moon's attraction extends to our "earth, and draws up the water." Thus thought Kepler, in his *Introd. ad Theor. Mart.*; and his ſurmiſe, for it was then no more, is now abundantly verified by Dr. Halley, from the Newtonian Principles.

In effect, there are two tides every day from the action of the ſun, as there are in the lunar day from that of the moon, all governed by the ſame laws; only thoſe cauſed by the ſun are much leſs than thoſe of the moon; becauſe though the ſun is ten thouſand times bigger than both the earth and the moon, yet he is at ſo immenſe a diſtance, that the earth's diameter bears no proportion thereto: hence the different tides depending on the particular actions of the ſun and moon are not diſtinguiſhed, but confounded. The lunar tide is ſomewhat changed by the action of the ſun; and this change varies every day, by reaſon of the inequality of the natural and lunar day.

Since the greateſt tides about the equinoxes ariſe from the ſun and moon being in the equinoctial, and thoſe about the ſolſtices from the ſun and moon being in the tropics; for this reaſon, thoſe greateſt tides about the equinoxes are greater than thoſe about the ſolſtices; ſince the greater the circle is, wherein the waters move, the greater is their agitation. And if the moon ſtood ſtill in the pole, the ſwelling would become immoveable about the pole, and the high water be fixed therein.

Since the tides are ſomewhat changed by the libration of the waters, which uſe to retain a motion impreſſed upon them for ſome time; for this reaſon the higheſt tides are not preciſely in the very conjunction and oppoſition of the moon, but two or three tides afterwards.

Since the greateſt of the two tides happening in every diurnal revolution of the moon, is that wherein the moon is neareſt the zenith, or nadir; for this reaſon, while the ſun is in the northern ſigns, the greater of the two diurnal tides in our climates, is that ariſing from the moon above the horizon; for when the ſun is in the ſouthern ſigns, the greateſt is that ariſing from the moon below the horizon.

Such would the tides regularly be, if the earth was covered with the ſea very deep; but, by reaſon of the ſhoalneſs of ſome places, and the narrowneſs of the ſtraits in others, by which the tides are propagated, there ariſes a great diverſity in the effect, not to be accounted for, without an exact knowledge of all the circumſtances of the places, ſuch as the poſition of the land, and the breadth and depth of the channels. For a very ſlow and imperceptible motion of the whole body of water, where, for example, it is two miles deep, will be ſufficient to raiſe its ſurface 10 or 12 feet in a tide's time; whereas, if the ſame quantity of water was to be conveyed through a channel of 40 fathoms deep, it would require a very great ſtream to effect it in ſo large inlets as are the channel of England, and the German ocean; whence the tide is found to ſet ſtrongeſt in thoſe places where the ſea grows narroweſt, the ſame quantity of water being in that caſe to paſs through a ſmaller paſſage. This is moſt evident in the ſtraits between Portland, and Cape la Hogue in Normandy, where the tide runs like a ſluice; and would be yet more between Dover and Calais, if the tide coming round the iſland did not check it. And this force being once impreſſed upon the water, continues to carry it above the level of the ordinary height in the ocean, particularly where the water meets a direct obſtacle, as it does in St. Maloes; and where it enters into a long channel, which running far into the land, grows very ſtrait at its extremity, as it does in the Severn ſea at Chepſtow and Briſtol.

This ſhoalneſs of the ſea, and the concurrent continents, are the reaſons that, in the open ocean, high water is not at the time of the moon's appulſe to the meridian; but always ſome hours after it, as is obſerved on all the weſtern coaſt of Europe and Africa, from Ireland to the Cape of Good Hope; in all which a ſouth-weſt moon makes high water; and the ſame is reported to hold in the weſt of America. It would be endleſs to recount all the particular ſolutions, which are eaſy corollaries from this doctrine; as, why the lakes and ſeas, ſuch as the Caſpian ſea, the Mediterranean ſea, the Black ſea, and the Baltic, have no ſenſible tides? for lakes, having no communication with the ocean, can neither increaſe nor diminiſh their water, whereby to riſe and fall; and ſeas that communicate by ſuch narrow inlets, and are of ſo great an extent, cannot, in a few hours time, receive and empty water enough to raiſe or ſink their ſurface any thing ſenſibly.

To demonſtrate the excellency of this doctrine, the example of the tides in the port of Tunking in China, which are ſo extraordinary, and different from all others, may ſuffice. In this port, there is but one flood and ebb in 24 hours; and twice in each month, when the moon is near the equinoctial, there is no tide at all, but the water is ſtagnant; yet, with the moon's declination, there begins a tide, which is greateſt when ſhe is in the tropical ſigns; only with this difference, that when the moon is to the northward of the equinoctial, it flows when ſhe is above the earth, and ebbs when ſhe is under, ſo as to make high water at moon-ſetting, and low water at moon-riſing: but, on the contrary, the moon being to the ſouthward, makes high water at riſing, and

low water at ſetting, ebbing all the while ſhe is above the horizon.

The cauſe of this odd appearance is ſuggeſted by Sir Iſaac Newton, to ariſe from the concurrence of two tides; the one propagated, in ſix hours, out of the great South ſea, along the coaſt of China; the other out of the Indian ſea, from between the iſlands, in 12 hours, along the coaſts of Malacca and Camboya. The one of theſe tides being produced in north latitude is, as has been ſaid, greater, when the moon being to the north of the equator, is above the earth, and leſs when ſhe is under the earth. The other of them, which is propagated by the Indian ſea, being raiſed in ſouth latitude, is greater when the moon declining to the ſouth is above the earth, and leſs when ſhe is under the earth. So that of theſe tides, alternately greater and leſſer, there comes always ſucceſſively two of the greater, and two of the leſſer together every day; the high water falling always between the arrival of the two greater floods, and the low water between the times of the arrival of the two leſſer floods: beſides, the moon coming to the equinoctial, and the alternate floods becoming equal, the tide ceaſes, and the water ſtagnates; but when ſhe has paſſed to the other ſide of the equator, thoſe floods, which in the former order were the leaſt, now becoming the greateſt, that which before was the time of the high water, now becomes low water, and the converſe. So that the whole appearance of theſe ſtrange tides is, without any forcing, naturally deduced from theſe principles, and is a great argument for the certainty of the whole theory.

TIDEWAITERS, or *Tidemen*. Certain officers belonging to the cuſtomhouſe, appointed to watch or attend on ſhips coming from abroad, to ſee that nothing is landed till the cuſtoms be paid. See *Cuſtom*.

They are thus called, becauſe they go aboard the ſhips at their arrival in the mouth of the Thames, or other rivers, and come up with the tide.

TIDOR. One of the Molucca or Clove iſlands, ſituated in 125 deg. of E. lon. and 1 deg. of N. lat. 100 miles E. of the iſland of Celebes. See *Molucca* iſlands.

TIERCE, or *Teirce*. A meaſure of liquid things, as cyder, wine, oil, or the like, containing the third part of a pipe, or 42 gallons. See *Meaſure*, and *Gallon*.

TIGER. A wild and fierce animal, whoſe eyes are brilliant, neck ſhort, teeth and nails very ſharp, and ſkin variegated with ſeveral ſpots.

Of all the eaſtern countries, they are moſt abundantly met with on the coaſt of Malabar in India; and they are of three ſorts, diſtinguiſhed by their ſize.

The ſmalleſt is like a large Spaniſh cat, whoſe cries are terrible, and like the bellowing of an ox.

The tiger of the ſecond kind is as large as a ſheep, or ſmall calf, and is the moſt common, very cruel, but not ſo much as the third kind, which is called the royal tiger, and is as big as a ſmall horſe.

The ſkins of all ſorts of tygers are much of the ſame colour; and their agreeable variety makes them of a conſiderable value.

TIGHT. The ſeamen ſay a ſhip is tight, when ſhe is ſo ſtaunch as to let in but little water; which is known by the ſmell of the water pumped out: for if ſhe lets in but little, it will always ſtink; if otherwiſe not.

TIGRIS. A river of Turky in Aſia, which riſes in the mountains of Armenia; and running ſouth, divides Diarbeck or Meſopotamia, from Curdeſtan, the ancient Aſſyria; it then paſſes by Bagdat, and joins the Euphrates in Eyraca Arabic, the ancient Chaldea; the united ſtream falling into the gulph of Perſia, below Baſſora, ſuppoſed to be the river which encompaſſed paradiſe.

TILE. See *Tyle*.

TILLER *of a ſhip*, is a ſtrong piece of wood, faſtened to the rudder, called alſo the *helm*. The name is chiefly given to that which ſerves for the helm in a boat, and which in a ſhip would be called the helm.

TILLING, in gardening and agriculture. A moving or ſtirring of the ground with the plough or ſpade; which being performed on the ſurface, enters to a certain depth, and makes the lower and upper parts change place; by which means the goodneſs of the earth is kept from being ſpent in feeding ill plants.

TIMBER, includes all kinds of felled and ſeaſoned woods, uſed in the ſeveral parts of building, as carpentery, joinery, and turnery.

The kinds of timber are numerous; but it is neceſſary to mention only ſome of the moſt uſeful and uſual.

1. The oak; the uſes whereof need no enumerating; for to endure all ſeaſons and weathers, there is no wood like it: hence its uſe in pales, ſhingles, poſts, rails, and boards. For water-works it is ſecond to none; and where it lies expoſed both to air and water, there is none equal to it: but its chief uſe is in ſhipbuilding.

2. Elm; this felled between November and February, is all ſpine or heart, and no ſap; but of ſingular uſe in places where it is always wet or dry: its toughneſs alſo makes it of uſe to the wheelwrights, and millwrights; nor muſt it muſt be omitted, that its not being liable to break and fly in chips, makes it fit for dreſſers and planks to chop on.

3. Aſh, whoſe uſe is almoſt univerſal; it is good for building, or other occaſions, where it may lie dry; it ſerves the carpenter, cooper, turner, wheelwright, plough-wright, and gardener; as alſo, at ſea, for oars, hand-ſpikes, and various other uſes.

4. Beech; its chief uſe is in turnery, joinery, upholſtery, and the like; as being of a clean, white, fine grain, not apt to bend nor ſlit; yet it is ſometimes, eſpecially of late, uſed for building-timber, and, if it lie conſtantly wet, is judged to outlaſt oak.

5. Fir, commonly known by the name of deal, and of late much uſed in building, eſpecially within doors, for ſtairs, floors, wainſcot, and moſt ſorts of ornament.

6. Walnut-tree, which is of univerſal uſe, except for the outſides of buildings: there is none better for joiners uſe, on account of its curious brown colour; for which it is preferred to beech, and is indeed leſs ſubject to worms.

7. Cheſnut-tree; which, next to oak, is the timber moſt ſought after by carpenters and joiners; being very laſting.

8. Service-tree, uſed in joinery, as being of a delicate grain, and fit for curioſities; yielding alſo beams of a conſiderable bigneſs for building.

9. Poplar, abele, and aſpen, all aquatics, differing very little from one another, are much uſed of late inſtead of fir; looking full as well, and being tougher and harder.

10. Alder, much uſed for ſewers, or pipes, to convey water; when always wet, it grows hard like a ſtone; but where ſometimes wet, and ſometimes dry, it rots preſently.

Felling of TIMBER. The ſeaſon uſually commences about the end of April, in regard the bark then riſes the more freely; ſo that where a quantity of timber is to be felled, the ſtatute requires it to be done then, for the advantage of tanning. See *Tanning*.

However, the opinions and practice of authors are very different as to the beſt ſeaſon for felling timber. Vitruvius recommends an autumnal fall, others adviſe December and January. Cato was of opinion, that trees ſhould have borne their fruit before felled, at leaſt their fruit ſhould be firſt ripe; which falls in with the ſentiments of Vitruvius.

In effect, though timber unbarked is the moſt obnoxious to worms, yet we find the wild oak, and many others, if felled too late, when the ſap begins to be proud, to be very ſubject to worms; whereas, about mid-winter, it is neither caſts, rifts, nor twines. It would be happy therefore, if a method of tanning without bark could be invented, that trees, being felled more early, the timber might be the better ſeaſoned.

The ancients had a great regard to the age of the moon in the felling their timber. Pliny orders it to be in the very article of the change; which happening on the laſt day of the winter-ſolſtice, the timber, ſays he, will be immortal.

TIMBER-*trees*. The wood of timber, before it be felled, particularly that of oak.

TIMBER-*meaſure*. Timber is uſually meaſured or eſtimated by the load or tun, which is a ſolid meaſure containing 40 feet of round timber, or 50 of hewn timber.

ber. The denomination of *load*, we ſuppoſe, ariſes hence, that 40 or 50 ſolid feet of ſuch timber weighs about a tun, that is, 20 hundred weight, which is uſually accounted a cart-load.

In meaſuring round timber for ſale, they uſually caſt away an inch out of the ſquare for bark, if oak; ſo that if a tree is 10 inches ſquare, they only account as if 9; but for aſh, elm, beech, and the like, an inch is too much.

TIMBER, or *Timmer of furs*, as ermins, martens, ſables, and the like, denotes 40 ſkins, or 20 couple; but of other ſkins ſix ſcore.

TIMMIN. A ſmall ſilver coin current in the iſland of Scio, and worth about 2 d. ſterling.

TIMOR. An iſland in the Indian ocean, in Aſia, ſituated between 122 and 126 deg. of E. lon. and between 8 and 10 deg. of S. lat. ſaid to have gold mines; in poſſeſſion of the Dutch, as are the reſt of the iſlands between this and Java. See *Celebes*.

TIN. A whitiſh metal, ſofter than ſilver, yet much harder than lead.

The chemiſts hold tin a ſpecies of imperfect metal, generated of two different ſeeds, that of ſilver, and that of lead; which renders it a kind of compound of both; accordingly, it is frequently found in both lead and ſilver mines.

Tin, however, has its proper mines; of which Cornwall and Devonſhire are an abundant evidence, the greateſt part of the tin conſumed in Europe being procured from thence; and Camden even ſuppoſes this abundance of tin in thoſe two counties to have given the original denomination of Britain to the whole country. In the Syriac language, *varatanac* ſignifies the land of tin; from which Bochart derives the name Britain.

The principal characters or properties of tin, enumerated by Boerhaave, are, that it is the lighteſt of all metals; very little ductile or elaſtic; the moſt fuſible and volatile of all metals; ſcarce diſſoluble by acids, unleſs the weaker ſorts; and eaſily and intimately miſcible with other metals, the ductility whereof becomes diminiſhed by ſuch mixture. The ſame author concludes, that ſulphur is a prevailing ingredient in tin, and deduces ſeveral of its particular properties therefrom. He adds, that, could the metal be perfectly purged of this heterogeneous ſulphur, it is probable it would be found no other than ſilver.

Several authors have before obſerved a great conformity, in many particulars, between the two metals; as, that both grow bitter when diſſolved by acids; that, when fuſed together, there is ſcarce any ſeparating them again, not even by lead. Beſides, Mr. Boyle, and others, give us ſeveral inſtances of ſilver being actually produced in conſiderable quantity from tin-ore.

Yet ſome naturaliſts judge the analogy greater between tin and lead, contending that tin is only lead under a leſs degree of coction; but if there are ſome marks of agreement between them, there are as many of diſagreement. The calx of tin, for inſtance, eaſily fuſes and vitrifies; but that of lead, not without the utmoſt difficulty. If tin and lead be mixed by a vehement fire, a vehement colluctation enſues, and they both run into a calx; to which may be added, that tin is eaſily vitrified, but lead with much labour.

The working of the tin-mines is very hard and difficult, not only by reaſon of the great depth to which the veins deſcend, even as low as 60 fathom; but alſo becauſe the rocks through which paſſages are frequently to be cut, are often ſo hard, that the workmen cannot dig a foot in a week. Nor is the ſoft ſhaking earth found in the tin-mines much leſs inconvenient to the workmen, both by reaſon of the fetid malignant vapours it exhales, and of the current of waters ſo frequently met with herein; all which inconveniencies render it impracticable for the workmen to continue their buſineſs above four hours together.

The mineral ſtone or ore being dug, and drawn out of the mine, is there broke to pieces with large iron mallets; then brought to a ſtamping mill, where it is ſtill pounded ſmaller with ſtampers, much like thoſe of paper-mills; and the water paſſing through it, waſhes away the earthy parts, leaving the metal behind; the lotion being repeated twice, to make the better ſeparation. When this is done, they dry it in a furnace on iron plates, and grind it very fine in a craſing-mill; then waſh it again, and dry it; in which ſtate the metallic matter is called block-tin. To convert it into white tin, they carry it to a furnace, or blowing-houſe, where, by means of a charcoal fire, kept up by great bellows worked with water, it is ſmelted: after paſſing all theſe preparations, and becoming cold, they forge it, which is the laſt operation. The droſs, or ſcoria ſcummed off the tin infuſion, being melted down with freſh ore, runs into metal; and even the caſualty, which is the matter waſhed and ſeparated from the metal in the mill, being thrown up in heaps, after reſting 6 or 7 years, may be brought over again, and yield as good tin as any of that of Germany.

The workmen diſtinguiſh ſeveral kinds of tin; as moor-tin, which is the beſt ſort, a fool whereof weighs 80 pounds; mine-tin, which is the next, a fool thereof weighing about 52 or 50 pounds. The tin got from the ſoft or gravelly earth, they call pryan-tin, to diſtinguiſh it from that got from the ſtones, which is as good again. Two pounds of block tin, when melted, yield one of white.

Method of aſſaying TIN. To find whether tin is ſoft and ductile, or harſh and brittle, there are two kinds of aſſays; the firſt is by putting the tin into a mould of caſt braſs, and there melting it. If the metal is harſh, it will come out heavier than before; otherwiſe it would be lighter. The ſecond is, by caſting the melted tin into a little mould, made of the thunder-ſtone. This mould has a little canal of moderate length, which conducts the water into a cavity, capable of containing half a billiard-ball: if the tin is harſh, it appears whitiſh towards the entry of the mould; otherwiſe it is tinged ſuperficially with a very faint bluiſh brown.

For the uſe of tin in the compoſition of pewter, ſee *Pewter*.

By the analyſes made of tin, they hold it compounded of earth, ſulphur, a metallic ſalt, and mercury. The chief chemical preparations from it are, ſalt of tin, flower of tin, and diaphoretic of tin.

The importation of Engliſh tin is prohibited in France, by an arret of the 12th of April 1723, in favour of the Siameſe and Malacca tin, imported by the French Eaſt India company.

By the 25th and 33d of Henry VIII. tin-wares made of, or mixed with tin, as platters, diſhes, ſaucers, pots, baſons, ewers, flaggons, goblets, ſalts, ſalt-ſellers, ſpoons, or any other thing made of tin or pewter, may not be bought or bartered for, upon forfeiture thereof, and the value.

TIN-*Plate-worker*, or *Tinman*, an artificer who works in tin, and makes all manner of utenſils of that metal.

TIN-*Plate-workers company* of *London*, was incorporated by letters patent of the 22d of Charles II. dated the 29th of December 1670, by the name of The maſter, wardens, aſſiſtants, and commonalty of the art and myſtery of tin-plate-workers of the city of London; who conſiſt of a maſter, two wardens, and 20 aſſiſtants; but have neither hall nor livery.

Calx of TIN, is the metal reduced into powder, either by of fire, or by being diſſolved in an acid menſtruum, and precipated with an alcali.

Ceruſs of TIN, is a white powder procured from tin, of which a fucus is made, called Spaniſh white. This ceruſs is not made with vinegar, as that of lead is: but with the urine of a young perſon: the powder is alſo uſed to colour delft ware.

Diaphoretic of TIN, is fine tin and regulus of antimony, melted firſt together, and then both with ſaltpetre; whence, after various lotions, is drawn a powder, held to be ſovereign againſt many diſeaſes.

Flower of TIN, is a kind of white coſmetic, or paint for the complexion, drawn with ſal armoniac, by means of a ſublimation.

Salt of TIN, or of *Jupiter*, is tin calcined, and diſtilled vinegar poured thereon, from which, by means of fire, and

then

then of a cool place wherein it is put, a very white ſalt is drawn.

TIN-*Glaſs*, or *Tin of Glaſs*, is what is properly call biſmuth. See *Biſmuth*.

TINCTURE, in pharmacy and chemiſtry, a ſeparation of the finer or more volatile parts of a mixed body, made by means of a proper menſtruum, diſſolving the ſame.

TINCTURE, is more properly uſed for an extract of part of the ſubſtance of a body, eſpecially its virtue and colour; which are hereby communicated to the menſtruum.

The tincture of metals, ſo much talked of by the chemiſts and alchemiſts, are not proper tinctures; being only diſſolutions, wherein the metal is divided and attenuated to a greater degree than it is in its natural and ordinary diſſolvent.

There are cephalic tinctures, antiſcorbutic tinctures, ſtomachic tinctures, anticolic tinctures, and invigorating tinctures; as alſo tinctures drawn from roſes, from corals, and the like.

TINE. A river compoſed of two rivers; the one called North Tine, which riſes on the borders of Scotland; and the other South Tine, which riſes on the confines of Cumberland; the firſt running S. E. and the other N. E. uniting their waters at Hexham, and continuing to run E. divide the counties of Durham and Northumberland, paſſing by Newcaſtle, and falling into the German ſea at Tinmouth.

TINF. See *Tinſe*.

TINIAN. See *Marian* Iſlands.

TINMOUTH. A port-town of Northumberland, ſituated on the German ſea at the mouth of the river Tine, in 1 deg. of W. lon. and 55 deg. of N. lat. 7 or 8 miles E. of Newcaſtle, near which the ſhips take in their lading of coals and ſalt.

TINNING. The covering or lining of any thing with melted tin, or with tin reduced to a very fine leaf. See *Tin*.

Looking-glaſſes are foliated or tinned with thin tables of beaten tin, the whole bigneſs of the glaſs, applied and faſtened thereto by means of quickſilver.

Kettles, ſaucepans, and other kitchen utenſils, are tinned with melted tin; as alſo locks, bits, and ſpurs, with leaf tin, by help of fire.

TINO. An iſland of the Turkiſh Archipelago, ſituated in 26 deg. of E. lon. and 37 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. 60 miles W. of Samos.

TINSE. A ſilver coin of Poland, worth 9 d. ſterling; 6 tinſes making the rixdollar of 4 s. 6 d. ſterling.

TINTENAQUE. A kind of copper brought from China; being the beſt of all the copper produced in the mines of this great empire: but little of it is imported to Europe; the Dutch, who drive on a conſiderable trade thereof, reſerving it all for the Eaſt, where they exchange it for the richeſt merchandiſe. Some think that it is this copper which enters the compoſition of the famous tambac. See *Tambac*.

TIRE, or as the ſeamen pronounce it *Tier*, of guns, is a row of guns placed along a ſhip's ſide, either above, upon deck, or below: the former of which are called the upper tire, the latter the lower tire.

TISSUE. A name given by the manufacturers of gold, ſilver, and ſilk cloth, to all gold or ſilver ſtuffs, full and plain, without flowers and faſhion: but ſome alſo uſe it as a general appellation for all gold and ſilver cloths.

TITHES. The tenth part of all profits or fruits, both predial, perſonal, and mixt.

Perſonal TITHES. Are thoſe due or accruing from the profits of labour, art, trade, navigation, and induſtry of man.

Predial TITHES. Thoſe which ariſe either from the fruits of the ground; as corn, hay, underwood, flax, and hemp: or from the fruits of trees, as apples, pears, plumbs, and cherries; or from the produce of the garden.

Mixt TITHES, are ſuch as ariſe from beaſts, and other animals fed with the fruits of the earth; as cheeſe, milk, lambs, calves and fowls.

Predial TITHES, again, are either great or ſmall.

Great TITHES, are thoſe of corn, hay, and wood.

Small TITHES, are of thoſe which are predial; and thoſe of milk, wool, cheeſe, lambs, and the like, which are mixt.

The tithes of lands newly broke up and cultivated, are called *decimæ novales*, and always belong to the vicar, as well as the ſmall tithes.

TNEK. An edged muſlin for the making of cravats; brought by the Engliſh from the Eaſt Indies; of 16 ells in length, and 3-4ths in breadth.

TOBACCO. A medicinal herb, not known in Europe till after the diſcovery of America by the Spaniards; and firſt imported about the year 1560: but the Americans of the continent called it petun; and thoſe of the iſlands yoli: the Spaniards, who gave it the the name tabaco, took it from Tabaco, a province of Yucatan, where they firſt found it, and firſt learned its uſe.

The French, at its firſt introduction among them, gave it ſeveral names; as nicotiana, or the embaſſador's herb, from John Nicot, the ambaſſador of Francis II. in Portugal, who brought ſome of it with him from Liſbon, which he preſented to a grand prior of the houſe of Lorrain, and to Catherine de Medicis; whence it was alſo called queen's herb, and grand prior's herb. They alſo gave it other names, which are now all reduced to the original name tabaco, or tobacco, from Tabaco, given it by Hernandez de Toledo, who firſt ſent it into Spain and Portugal.

Culture and preparation of TOBACCO. Tobacco is cultivated in ſeveral parts of America, particularly in the Caribbee iſlands, Maryland and Virginia, where they are obliged to mix aſhes with the ſoil, to prevent its riſing too thick. After ſowing, they water it every day; and, on very hot days, cover it up, to prevent its being ſcorched by the ſun. When it is riſen to a convenient pitch, they tranſplant it, as Europeans do lettice; only at a diſtance of three feet, and in a ſoil prepared with great care: when replanted, it is kept continually weeding, the ſtem frequently cleanſed, and the loweſt leaves, with the ſuckers it puts forth, taken off; that 10 or 15 of the fineſt leaves may have all the nouriſhment. The leaves thus reſerved being ripe, which is known by their breaking when bent, the ſtalks are cut and left to dry two or three hours in the ſun; after which they are tied two by two, and hung up on ropes under a ſhed to be dried by the air. When the leaves are ſufficiently dried, they are pulled from off the ſtalks, and made up into little bundles; which, being ſteeped into ſea-water, or for want thereof, in common water, are twiſted in manner of ropes, and the twiſts formed into rolls, by winding with a kind of mill, around a ſtick; in which condition it is imported into Europe, where it is cut by the tobacconiſts for ſmoaking, formed into ſnuff, and the like.

Beſides the tobacco of the Weſt Indies, there are conſiderable quantities cultivated in the Levant, the coaſts of Greece, and the Archipelago, the iſland of Malta, Hungary, and Italy. The marks of good twiſt tobacco, are a fine ſhining cut, an agreeable ſmell, and that it has been well kept.

Tobacco is taken by way of ſnuff, as a ſternutatory, or as a maſticatory, by chewing it in the mouth, or by ſmoaking it in a pipe.

Sig. Paulli, phyſician to the king of Denmark, in an expreſs treatiſe on tobacco obſerves, that the merchants frequently lay it in bog-houſes, that, by becoming impregnated with the volatile ſalt of the excrements, it may be rendered the briſker, more fetid, and ſtronger.

About 200 ſail of Britiſh ſhipping, and a proportional number of mariners, are annually employed in the trade to the tobacco colonies, which take from the mother country about 300,000 l. a year in Britiſh manufactures; and the balance of the general trade of the nation receives about 600,000 l. a year from the tobacco exported to different parts of Europe; however, the article of tobacco is, perhaps, more burthened and oppreſſed with duties than any other commodity whatſoever; for, when the ſubſidy of 1747 took place, it amounted to 4 l. on a hogſhead of tobacco, which was not worth above 5 l. to the planter; and though the real value of tobacco, in the hands of the planter, is not worth above two pence, or two pence halfpenny a pound, the duty on importation amounts to above ſix pence a pound.

By the ſtatute of the 12th of Q. Anne, tobacco, not of the

the Britiſh plantations. The impoſt having been ſecured at importation, if the importer is afterwards deſirous to diſcharge his bond before the expiration of the firſt fifteen months, he is to be allowed a diſcount after the rate of 10 l. *per cent. per annum*, for ſo much of the ſaid fifteen months as remain unexpired.

By the 10th and 11th of Will. III. imported from the Britiſh plantations on the continent of America, in bulk, or otherwiſe than in caſks, cheſts, or caſes, containing each two hundred weight, or 224 lb. at the leaſt, is forfeited, and 6 d. *per* pound weight, exccept ſmall quantities for the crew's ſmoaking: 2-3ds to his majeſty, and 1-3d to the ſeizer or ſuer.

By the 9th of Geo. I. the importer of tobacco of the Britiſh plantations may, if he is not willing to pay ready money, become bound with one or more ſufficient ſureties, to be approved by the collector and comptroller of the port of importation, in one or more bonds, for payment of the additional duty, new ſubſidy, 1-3d ſubſidy and impoſt, within eighteen months, to commence at the end of thirty days after the maſter's report of the ſhip, or from the merchant's entry within thoſe thirty days, which ſhall firſt happen.

If after ſuch ſecurity be given for payment of the duties in eighteen months, the importer be deſirous to diſcharge his bond in ready money, any time before the expiration thereof, he ſhall be abated upon ſuch bond ſo much as the diſcount, at the rate of 7 l. *per cent. per annum*, ſhall amount unto, in proportion to the time unexpired.

Damaged or mean is not to have any allowance, either at the ſcale or otherwiſe; but upon the merchant's refuſing to pay the duty, he may ſeparate ſuch damaged tobacco, by cutting off, from the hogſheads, ſo much as he ſhall refuſe to pay or ſecure cuſtom for; and any three or more of the principal officers of his majeſty's cuſtoms, ſhall cauſe ſuch tobacco to be burnt or deſtroyed: but the ſtalks may not be ſeparated from the leaves, on pretence that the ſame is damaged or mean tobacco.

Having received damage on board by ſtreſs of weather at ſea, or by the ſhip's being on ſhore in Great Britain, or by any accident after her arrival in port; the chief officers of the cuſtoms may allow the importer one halfpenny *per* pound; upon his refuſing to pay or ſecure the duties, and ſeparating it from the ſound in order to be burnt, or deſtroyed by the officers: ſo as ſuch allowance does not exceed 30 s. upon any one ſingle hogſhead.

Allowance for draught at the ſcale, to be only 8 lb. upon every hogſhead of 350 lb. or more. Which allowance is not to be deducted upon exportation.

By the 6th of Q. Anne, only tobacco of the Britiſh plantations, that has paid the duties, and been manufactured in Great Britain, may be conſumed on board Britiſh ſhips of war in any part of Europe; upon forfeiture of their reſpective places of the commanders, or purſers, and 3 s. *per* pound weight.

Tobacco of the growth of Europe, or mixed therewith, may not be ſold or delivered to the ſeamen on board any of his majeſty's ſhips of war.

By the 12th of Geo. I. the ſtalks or ſtems ſtripped from the leaf, may not be imported; and upon ſeizure and condemnation, the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms may cauſe them to be publickly burnt, allowing the ſeizer 1 d. *per* pound weight, clear of all charges of condemnation.

By the 9th of Geo. I. the ſtalks or ſtems, when ſeparated from the reſt of the leaf, and exported by themſelves, are not to have any drawback.

Exported in any package, but caſks of three hundred weight or more; is not to be allowed any drawback, except tobacco cut or rolled.

By the 8th of Q. Anne, exported in ſhips under the burthen of 20 tons, is not to be allowed any drawback.

By the 6th of Geo. I. Exported to Ireland. If, upon producing a certificate, leſs appears to be landed there than ſhipped from hence, an allowance not exceeding 2 *per cent.* may be made for waſte during the voyage.

Entered for other foreign parts, if landed in Ireland, is forfeited, and double the drawback; and the debenture for the drawback is to be void.

Entered out for any other place than Ireland; the exporter is to ſwear that the ſame is not landed in any part of Great Britain or Ireland.

By the 12th of Geo. I. ſeized for being prohibited, or for non-payment of duty, after condemnation, is to be publickly ſold, at ſuch places as the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms ſhall think proper. The ſeizer is to be allowed 1-3d part of the public groſs ſale, free from all charges of condemation and ſale.

Tobacco that will not ſell for the duties, may be burnt, or otherwiſe deſtroyed; and the ſeizer rewarded as the commiſſioners ſhall think proper, not exceeding 1 d. *per* pound.

By the ſtatutes of the 12th, 15th, and 22d of Cha. II. and 5th of Geo. I. tobacco may not be planted in Great Britain, Ireland, Guernſey, or Jerſey; upon forfeiture thereof or the value, and 40 s. for every rod or pole of ground planted; one half to the king, and one half to the ſuer: and alſo 10 l. more; one third to the king, one third to the poor of the pariſh, and one third to the ſuer; except in phyſic gardens; and not exceeding half a rod in any one garden.

By the ſtatute of the 1ſt of Geo. I. leaves of walnut-trees, hops, ſycamore, or any other leaves, herbs, plants, or materials, may not be cut into the form, or in imitation of any of the uſual ſizes or cuts of tobacco of the Britiſh plantations, or coloured or cured to reſemble ſuch tobacco for ſale, or knowingly ſold or offered to ſale as ſuch tobacco; upon forfeiture of 5 s. *per* pound weight.

Such leaves, &c. may not be exported with intent to obtain a drawback as for tobacco; upon forfeiture of 5 s. *per* pound weight, beſides former penalties.

They may, with all engines, utenſils, and tools, be ſearched for, and ſeized by officers of the cuſtoms, at ſeaſonable hours, and with a warrant from the juſtices; who at their quarter-ſeſſions are to determine ſuch ſeizure, and after condemnation, cauſe them to be burnt.

Servants employed in cutting, manufacturing, &c. or ſelling them; upon conviction before two juſtices, may be committed to the houſe of correction, there to remain not exceeding 6 months.

By the ſtatute of the 24th of K. Geo. II. the dealers in tobacco were put under ſome reſtrictions, little better than thoſe of exciſe.

TOBACCONIST. A dealer in tobacco.

TOBACCO-*pipe*. An inſtrument made of clay, for ſmoaking tobacco.

TOBACCO-*pipe-maker*. A perſon who makes tobacco pipes to ſmoak tobacco.

TOBACCO-*pipe-makers company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 15th of Charles II. dated the 29th of April 1663, by the ſtile of The maſter, wardens, aſſiſtants, and fellowſhip of the company of pipe-makers of the cities of London and Weſtminſter: who have a maſter, two wardens, and 18 aſſiſtants; but neither livery nor hall.

TOBAGO. A ſmall iſland in the bay of Panama, in South America, ſituated in 82 deg. of E. lon. and 8 deg. of N. lat. about 18 miles S. of the city of Panama, and ſupplies that city with fruit and garden ſtuff, ſubject to Spain.

TOBAGO, is alſo one of the neutral Caribbee iſlands.

TOCAT. A city of Aſiatic Turky, ſituated in 37 deg. of E. lon. and 41 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. the capital of the province of Amaſia, anciently part of the kingdom of Pontus, 100 miles S. of Sinope, and the Black ſea, and 250 S. W. of Trebiſond.

TOCOUY, called by the Spaniards *Lienzo de la Terra*, a ſort of coarſe linen manufactured in Spaniſh America, which ſerves the Indians and Negroes.

TOD *of Wool*, is mentioned in the ſtatute of the 12th of Charles II. as a weight containing 28 pounds, or two ſtone, at 14 pounds the ſtone.

TOILET. A fine cloth of linen, ſilk, or tapeſtry, ſpread over the table in a bed-chamber, or dreſſing-room, to undreſs and dreſs upon. They are now made of ſatin, velvet, brocade, and point de France; but anciently were much plainer; whence the name, which is formed from the French, *toilette*, a diminutive of *toile*, any thin ſtuff.

TOISE. A French meaſure, containing ſix of their feet, or a fathom.

TOL-BOOTH, or *Toll-booth*, a place in a city where goods are weighed, to aſcertain the duties or imports thereon.

TOLESBURG. A port town of Livonia, ſituated in 26 deg. of E. lon. and 59 of N. lat. on the gulph of Finland, 60 miles weſt of Narvâ, ſub. to Ruſſia.

TOLL. A Saxon term which, has two acceptations: 1. The liberty of buying and ſelling within the bounds of a manor. 2. The tax or cuſtom paid for paſſage, or for vending goods in a market, fair, or the like. Some records make mention of toll-thoro, or thorough-toll, which is money paid for paſſage in or through ſome highways, or over ferries and bridges. Toll-travers, for paſſing or driving cattle over a private man's ground. Toll-turn, or turn-toll, paid at the return of beaſts from fairs and markets, tho' they were not ſold.

By the ancient law, the buyers of corn and cattle in fairs and markets, ought to pay toll to the lord of the market, in teſtimony of the contract lawfully made there in open market; becauſe private contracts were held unlawful.

Some interpret toll, a liberty, as well to take, as to be free from toll; for that they who are enfeoffed with toll, are cuſtom free. Of this freedom from toll, the city of Coventry boaſts an ancient charter, granted them by Leofrick, or Luriche, earl of the Mercians, in the time of Edward the Confeſſor, who at the importunity of Godeva, his lady, granted this freedom to the city.

TOLL, is alſo the ſmalleſt weight, and meaſure uſed on the coaſt of Coromandel in India; 24 of which make the ceer, and 40 ceers the maund of 25 lb. avoirdupoiſe.

TOLLER. The Swediſh copper rix-dollar, being half a foot in length, 1 foot in breadth, and 1 inch in thickneſs; of the value of a ſilver rixdollar, or 1 s. 6 d. $\frac{2}{3}$ ſterling.

TOLU. A port town of Terra Firma in America, ſituated in 77 deg. of W. lon. and 9 deg. 30 m. of N. lat. on a bay of the north-ſea, 100 miles S. W. of Carthagena.

TOLU, balſam. See *Balſam.*

TOMAN, or *Touman.* A kind of imaginary money, uſed among the Perſians in the keeping of their books, and to facilitate the reduction of money in the payment of conſiderable ſums.

The toman conſiſts of 50 abaſſis, or 100 mamoudi's, or 200 ſhahees, or 10,000 dinars, which amounts to about 3 l. 6 s. 8 d. ſterling.

Dr. Herbelot derives the word from the language of the Moguls, where it ſignifies the number 10,000. Eben Arabſchah ſays, that the word touman, when uſed to expreſs a weight, or money, contains 10,000 ſilver Arab drachmas, called metcal, which are a third lighter than the Attic.

TOMIN. A ſmall weight uſed in Spain, and Spaniſh America, for weighing gold; 8 tomins making the caſtillan, and 6 caſtillans and 2 tomins the ounce.

TOMOLO, or *Tomalo.* A corn meaſure uſed at Naples, as alſo in ſome other parts of Italy; making about one third of the Paris ſeptier, and 19 ſeptiers of Paris being equal to 10 $\frac{3}{4}$ quarters of London.

TON. See *Tun.*

TONALCHILES, one of the four kinds of pepper, brought by Europeans from Guinea.

TONNAGE. See *Tunnage* and *Cuſtoms.*

TONNINGEN. A port-town of Sleſwick, or South Jutland; ſituated in 8 deg. 40. min. of E. lon. and 54 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. near the German ſea at the mouth of the river Eyder, 34 miles W. of Gottorp, ſubject to the Duke of Holſtein. See *Denmark.*

TONQUIN. A kingdom of the further India. See *India.*

White TONQUIN. A ſilk ſtuff, uſually white; brought from China.

TONSA. See *Japaneſe* iſlands.

TONSBURG. A port town of Norway, in the province of Aggerhuys; ſituated in 10 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 59 of N. lat. on the Scaggerack ſea, 30 miles W. of Frederickſtat, ſubject to Denmark.

TOOLS. Simple and popular inſtruments, uſed in the more obvious operations; and particularly in the making of other more complex iſtruments: tools being divided into edge-tools, ſpring-tools, and pointed tools.

By the ſtatute of the 23d of Geo. II. for preventing the exportation of tools, or utenſils made uſe of in the woollen and ſilk manufactures, from G. Britain or Ireland into foreign parts; it was enacted, That if any perſon of G. Britain, or Ireland, ſhould, upon any pretence whatſoever, load or put on board any veſſel, not bound directly to ſome port or place in G. Britain or Ireland, or to ſome other dominions of the crown of G. Britain, any tools or utenſils, or any parts or parcels thereof uſed in, or proper, for either the ſilk or woollen manufactures, he ſhould forfeit the ſame, and 200 l.

That if the captain, or maſter of any veſſel, or boat, in G. Britain or Ireland, ſhould knowingly permit any of the ſaid tools, ſo prohibited to be exported, to be put on board his ſhip or veſſel, he ſhould forfeit 100 l. And if ſuch ſhip or veſſel belongs to the king, the captain or maſter thereof ſhould forfeit 100 l. and his employment; as alſo be incapable of any office under the crown.

TOPAZ. A ſort of gem or precious ſtone; the third in order after the diamond; being tranſparent, of a beautiful yellow, or gold colour, very hard, and takes a fine poliſh. It is the true chryſolite of the ancients, found in ſeveral parts of the Indies, in Ethiopia, Arabia, Peru, and Bohemia. The oriental topazes are moſt eſteemed, whoſe colour borders on the orange; thoſe of Peru are ſofter, but their colour much the ſame: the yellow of thoſe of Bohemia is a little blackiſh, being the ſofteſt of all, and their poliſh the coarſeſt. Thoſe of Madagaſcar were in much eſteem, but are now held good for little. Tavernier mentions a topaz, in the poſſeſſion of the Great Mogul, weighing 157 carats, which coſt 20,300 l. ſterling: and Boetius de Boot, in his treatiſe of precious ſtones, affirms to have ſeen, in the cabinet of the emperor Rudolphus, whoſe phyſician he was, a topaz above three feet long, and ſix inches broad; but, probably, it might be ſome marble, a little tranſparent, of a topaz colour. This gem is eaſily counterfeited; and there are factitious ones, which to the eye do not come behind the natural. The topaz, if we may believe the ancients, has very ſingular virtues; but thoſe are now in diſcredit: and yet the topaz is of ſome uſe in medicine, reduced into an impalpable powder and applied in water. Some ſay it takes its name from an iſland in the Red-ſea, of the ſame name, where it was firſt found by Juba, king of Mauritania; but it was known to the Hebrews before, as appears from the 118th pſalm.

TOPICS, in medicine, are commonly uſed for what are otherwiſe called external remedies; that is, ſuch as are applied outwardly to ſome particular diſeaſe, or painful part; ſuch as plaiſters, cataplaſms, bliſters, unguents, ſalves, and collyriums.

TOPSHAM. A port-town of Devon; ſituated in 3 deg. 40 min. of W. lon. and 50 deg. 37 min. of N. lat. on the river Ex, four miles S. of the city of Exeter, and about as much N. of the Engliſh channel.

TOQUE. A term in China, for the manner of valuing the ſtandard or fineneſs of ſilver, divided into toques, as in England into penny-weights. The fineſt ſilver is of 1 toques, and the coarſeſt of 24; under which none is current in trade.

TOQUE, is alſo a muſlin, brought from the Eaſt Indies, particularly from Bengal; the piece being 16 ells in length and $\frac{7}{12}$ and half an ell in breadth.

TOQUE, is likewiſe a money of accompt, uſed at Judda, and in ſome other parts of the coaſt of Africa, where the Bouges, or Coris, are received in the negroe trade. A toque of Bouges being compoſed of 40 of theſe ſhells. See *Cari*

TORBAY. A fine bay in the Britiſh channel, on the coaſt of Devon, a little E. of Dartmouth, formed by the two capes called Bury-point and Bob's-noſe.

TORCELLA. A port-town of Spain, in the province of Catalonia; ſituated in 2 deg. 50 min. of E. lon. and deg. of N. lat. on the Mediterranean ſea, at the mouth of the river Ter, 15 miles E. of Gironne.

TORCH. A ſort of luminary; being properly a ſtick of fir, or other reſinous or combuſtible matter, as pine, linden, more or leſs thick and long, which being lighted yield a kind of gloomy brightneſs; and are uſed in ſome church ceremonies, particularly at the proceſſions of the holy ſacraments; as alſo at the interment of the poor people

people. Formerly, they were uſed at the funerals of thoſe of the firſt rank; but tapers and flambeaux are now introduced in their ſtead.

TORMENTILLA. A plant brought from the Alps, and Pyreneans, whoſe root is tubercular, garniſhed with ſmall filaments, reddiſh or brown on the outſide; its taſte ſharp and ſtyptic, being in medicine as a ſudorific, and excellent in the dyſentery.

TORNADO, or *Turnado*. A violent and ſudden guſt of wind, from all points of the compaſs, frequent on the coaſt of Guinea.

TORNE. A river, riſing on the confines of Norwegian Lapland, which runs from the N. W to the S. E. thro' the province of Torne, falling into the bottom of the Bothnic gulph at the town of Thorne; being a very large rapid river, with a great many cataracts in it.

TORRES. A port-town in Spain, in the province of Granada; ſituated in 4 deg. 16 min. of W. lon. and 36 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. on the mediterranean, 45 miles S. W. of Granada.

TORREFACTION, in pharmacy. A kind of roaſting or aſſation, wherein a drug is laid to dry, on a metalline plate placed over coals, till it becomes friable to the fingers.

TORRID-*Zone*, that tract of earth lying under the line, and extending on each ſide to the two tropics, or to 23 deg. and a half of lat. The ancients believed it uninhabitable; but, from the late navigations, we know that the exceſſive heat of the day there is tempered by the coldneſs of the night.

TORTOISE-*ſhell*, the ſhell, or rather the ſcales of a teſtaceous animal, called a tortoiſe or turtle, uſed in inlaying, and in various other works, ſuch as for ſnuff-boxes, and combs. There are two kinds of Tortoiſes, the land, and the ſea tortoiſe; the land tortoiſe, again, is of four kinds, namely, the freſh tortoiſe, the caretta, the cahohanna, and the lager-hu; but it is only the caretta which furniſhes that beautiful ſhell, ſo much admired in Europe; and it is the under ſhell alone which is uſed. The whole ſpoils of the caretta conſiſt in 13 leaves or ſcales, 8 of them flat, and five a little bent: of the flat ſort, there are 4 large ones, about a foot long, and 7 inches broad.

The beſt tortoiſe-ſhell is thick, clear, and tranſparent, of the colour of antimony, ſprinkled with brown and white; but, when uſed in marquetry, the workmen give it what colour they pleaſe, by means of coloured leaves which they put underneath.

In generation, Rondeletius obſerves, the embraces of the male and female ſea-tortoiſe continue for a whole lunar month; and that they ſquirt water out of their noſtrils in the ſame manner with the dolphin. On the Braſilian ſhore, they are ſaid to be ſo big, as ſometimes to dine fourſcore men; and that in the Indian ſea, the ſhells ſerve the natives for boats. De Laet obſerves, that in the iſland of Cuba, they are of ſuch a bulk, that they will creep along with five men on their backs: and the iſland of Aſcenſion is remarkable for great quantities of them, which afford a good ſupply for navigators to the Eaſt Indies.

TORTUGA. An iſland in the American ocean; ſituated in 73 deg. of W. lon. and 20 deg. of N. lat.

TORTUGA. Another iſland in the American ocean, near the coaſt of Terra Firma; ſituated in 64. deg. of W. lon. and 11 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 40 miles W. of the iſland of Margaretta, about 30 miles in circumference; being a barren iſland, and only valuable for the great quantities of ſalt made here, from whence it has taken its name of Salt-Tortuga, which abounds in tortoiſes, as the other Tortuga does.

TOSA. A port-town of Spain, in the province of Catalonia; ſituated in 2 deg. 46 min. of E. lon. and 41 deg. 35 min. of N. lat. 37 miles N. E. of Catalonia.

TOTTED. A good debt to the king, is, by the foreign appriſer, or other officer in the exchequer, noted for ſuch, by writing the word Tot, which is as much as to ſay, *tot pecuniæ regi debentur*; whence it is ſaid to be totted: alſo that which is paid is to be totted.

TOUANSE. A Chineſe kind of ſatin, either plain, flowered or figured with birds, trees and clouds.

TOUCH *the wind*, in the ſea language, is when the ſteerſman at the helm is bid to keep the ſhip as near the wind as may be.

TOUCHSTONE. A black, ſmooth, gloſſy ſtone, uſed to try metals upon. The ancients called it *lapis lydius*, or the Lydian ſtone, from Lydia, a country of Aſia minor, whence it was brought; but the moderns call it touchſtone, in regard the proof they make of metals, chiefly ſilver, is by touching or rubbing the metal to be tried on this ſtone, and comparing the colour of the mark it leaves thereon, with the mark of another piece of metal of the ſame ſpecies, whoſe goodneſs has been aſcertained.

TOUL. A city of Lorrain; ſituated in 5 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 48 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. on the river Moſelle, 12 miles W. of Nancy, ſubject to France.

TOULON. See *Thoulon*.

TOURC, or *Turq*. A ſilver coin current in Lorrain, worth about 9 d. ſterling.

TOURS. A city in France, in the province of Orleanois, capital of Tourain; ſituated in 45 min. of E. lon. and 47 deg. 25 min. of N. lat. on the river Loyre.

TOW. Whatever is drawn or dragged, after a ſhip or boat, with a rope, is called a tow, or ſaid to be towed.

TOWAGE. The haling or drawing a ſhip or barge, by men or beaſts, or another boat or ſhip faſtened to her, in order to make her enter a port, aſcend a river, or the like. The term is alſo uſed for money, or other recompence, given by bargemen to the owner of the ground next the river where they tow a barge or other veſſel, for the liberty of paſſing along the ſide thereof.

TOWN. A place furniſhed with houſes and inhabitants, ſome bigger, and ſome leſſer. To conſtitute a town, there muſt either be now, or was there formerly, a church, with celebration of divine ſacraments, and burials; and tho' a town may through length of time, become ſo decayed, as to have no houſes remaining, yet, in law, it is ſtill a town. In England and Wales, there are 8,803 towns, or thereabouts. A town is the genus, and a borough the ſpecies, but every town is not a borough. See *Borough* and *City*.

Freedom of a TOWN. See *Freedom*.

Hanſe TOWN. See *Hanſe*.

TOYS. Play-things, to pleaſe children: alſo any ſort of trifling curioſities, furniſhed either by art or nature.

TRADE, *traffic* or *commerce*. Or the act or art of dealing, ſelling, and exchanging commodities, bills, and money. See *Exchange* and *Commerce*.

Balance of TRADE. See *Balance*.

Rules for TRADE. See *Commerce*.

TRADE and *Plantation-office*. An office kept at the N. E. corner of Kingſtreet, Weſtminſter, which is under the direction of 8 commiſſioners, whoſe buſineſs it is to examine the cuſtom-houſe accompts of all the goods and merchandize, exported and imported from and to the ſeveral ports of the kingdom, as well as from foreign parts; thereby to inform the government, in reſpect to the advantages and diſadvantages of the trade of the nation, with the ſeveral kingdoms and ſtates beyond ſea, in regard to the balance of trade; and alſo to encourage the Britiſh plantations abroad, by endeavouring to diſcover what branches of trade are the moſt conducive to their reſpective intereſts, as well as that of the kingdom.

TRADE-*winds*. Denote certain regular winds at ſea, blowing either conſtantly the ſame way, or alternately this way and that: thus called from their great uſe in navigation, and the Indian commerce. The trade-winds are of different kinds; ſome blowing 3 or 6 months of the year one way, and then the like ſpace of time the oppoſite way, very common in the Indian ſeas, and called monſoons. Others blow conſtantly the ſame way; ſuch is that general wind between the tropics; which, off at ſea, is found to blow all the day long from Eaſt to Weſt. See *Wind*.

Dr. Liſter has made a conjecture, in the philoſophical tranſactions, that the tropical or trade-winds ariſe, in great part, from the daily and conſtant breath of a ſea-plant, called the Sargoſſa, or Lenticula marina, which grows in great quantities from 36 to 18 deg. of N. lat. and elſewhere upon the deepeſt ſeas. For the matter

of

of wind, coming from the breath of one only plant, muſt needs be conſtant and uniform; whereas the great variety of trees and plants at land, furniſhes a confuſed matter of winds. Hence, he adds, it is, that theſe winds are briſkeſt about noon; the ſun quickening the plant moſt about that time, and cauſing it to breathe faſter and more vigorouſly. Laſtly, the direction of this wind from eaſt to weſt, he attributes to the general current of the ſea; for a gentle air is obſerved to be conſtantly led along with the ſtream of a river; nor muſt it be omitted, that every plant is in ſome meaſure a heliotrope, and bends itſelf, moving after the ſun, and conſequently emitting its vapour that way; ſo that the direction of the trade-wind is, in ſome meaſure, owing to the courſe of the ſun.

Dr. Gordon has another hypotheſis: the atmoſphere, which ſurrounds the earth, and moves along with it in its diurnal motion, he ſuppoſes to keep pace therewith; that part of it, at leaſt, which is near the earth, if the remoter part ſhould be judged to loſe ground: if then, there were no changes in the gravity of the atmoſphere, he ſuppoſes it would always go along with the earth from weſt to eaſt in an uniform motion, altogether inſenſible to us; but the portion of the atmoſphere under the line being extremely rarified, its ſpring expanded, and ſo its gravity and preſſure much leſs than the neighbouring parts of the atmoſphere, it is incapable of the uniform motion towards the eaſt, and muſt therefore be preſſed weſtwards, which makes the continual breeze from weſt to eaſt between the tropics.

TRADING-*Company*. See *Company*.

TRAFALGAR-*Cape*, or *Cape Trafalgar*. A point or promontory of Spain, in the province of Andaluſia; ſituated in 6 deg. 26 min. of W. lon. and 36 deg. of N. lat. at the entrance of the ſtraits of Gibraltar, 30 miles S. of Cadiz.

TRAFFIC. See *Trade* and *Commerce*.

TRAGACANTH, *Gum-dragon*. A kind of gum, oozing out at inciſions made in the trunk and larger branches of a plant, or little ſhrub, of the ſame name.

The naked hillocks of mount Ida in Candia, Mr. Tournefort tells us, produce a deal of the plant tragacanth, or goats-thorn, which gives the gum ſpontaneouſly towards the end of June, and in the following months, when the nutricious juice of the plant, thickened by the heat, burſts moſt of the veſſels it is contained in. This juice coagulates in threads, which make their way into the pores of the bark; where, being puſhed forwards by new juice, they get through the bark, and are at length hardened in the air, either into little lumps, or into twiſted pieces in form of little worms. The plant grows alſo in ſeveral places of the Levant, particularly about Aleppo. The gum is of different colours and qualities; ſome being white, ſome greyiſh, ſome red, and ſome almoſt black: but the white is the beſt, which muſt be choſen clear, ſmooth, and twiſted worm-like. It diſſolves eaſily in any aqueous menſtruum, to which it will give the conſiſtence of a ſyrup, in the ſmall proportion of a dram to a pint. It is ſmooth and ſoftening, therefore good to obtund the acrimony of any humour; which makes it of ſervice in ſuch coughs as proceed from catarrhs, and defluxions of rheum. It is alſo very ſtrengthening in ſome ſeminal weakneſſes, and prevalent againſt the whites in women.

TRAGEA, in pharmacy. An aromatic powder, groſly beaten, and mixed with ſugar, taken by way of carminative.

TRAIL-*Board* in a ſhip, is a carved board on each ſide of her beak, which reaches from the main ſtem to the figure, or the brackets.

TRAIN-*Oil*. The oil procured from the blubber of whales. See *Oil*.

TRAMBLING, of tin ore, among miners, is the waſhing of it very clean, which is done with a ſhovel, and in a frame of boards.

TRAMEL. An inſtrument, or device, ſometimes of leather, more uſually of rope, fitted to a horſe's legs, to regulate his motion, and form him to an amble.

TRANI. A city and port-town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, and territory of Barri; ſituated in 18 deg. of E. lon. and 41 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. on the gulph of Venice, 20 miles W. of Barri.

TRANSFER, in *Commerce*. An act whereby a perſon ſurrenders his right, intereſt, or property in any thing, moveable or immoveable, to another. But the term is principally uſed in the commerce of ſtocks, for the aſſigning and making over ſubſcriptions or ſhares therein, to ſuch as purchaſe them of the proprietors. In the South-Sea company book, Eaſt India, and others, transfers are made, by eraſing the former proprietors names, and entering the ſtock in the name of the purchaſer, under his proper letter of the alphabet; and, in order to transfers, it is required the party bring another with him to ſwear he is the perſon to whom the ſtock is entered; counterfeits in this caſe, being, by act of parliament, made capital.

TRANSFUSION. The art of pouring liquor out of one veſſel into another.

In the frequent preparations of chemiſtry and pharmacy, there are frequent transfuſions of ſpirits, liquors, and ſyrups.

TRANSIRE, in the ſtat. of the 14th of Car. II. is uſed for a cuſtom-houſe warrant, to let paſs: from the verb, *tranſeo*, I go forth.

TRANSMARINE. Something that comes from, or belongs to, the parts beyond ſea.

TRANSOM, in a ſhip, is a piece of timber which lies athwart the ſtern, between the two faſhion pieces, directly under the gun-room-port.

TRANSPLANTATION, in *Agriculture* and *Gardening*. The art of removing trees or plants from the places where they were ſowed or bred up, and planting them in others.

In the tranſplanting of foreſt trees, care muſt be taken to preſerve the roots, and even the fine hairs and filaments thereof, with the earth that ſticks thereto; theſe filaments being the mouths that ſuck the nouriſhment, and transfuſe it to the tree. The pits or foſſes, into which trees are tranſplanted, ſhould be left open for ſome time before-hand; that the rain, froſt, and ſun, may diſſolve the compacted ſalt, render the earth friable, and qualify it for nouriſhing the tree.

Pliny was of opinion, that no tree ſhould be removed under two, or above three years old. Cato would have none tranſplanted leſs than five fingers in diameter; but we are now able to tranſplant trees of all ages and ſizes, without danger.

The common rules for tranſplanting, are, 1. The lighter the ſoil is, the deeper are the trees to be planted. 2. If the ſoil is gravel, or ſand, mix clay with it, and *vice verſa*. 3. The beſt ſeaſon is in October or February, in warm moiſt and clear weather. 4. The large roots to be abated, to prevent the neceſſity of digging too deep; but the ſmall fibrous ones to be ſpared. 5. In taking up the trees, to obſerve how the roots grow, and in tranſplanting, to diſpoſe them in the ſame order, and place the tree to the ſame aſpect. 6. To defend young trees after tranſplantation both from the wind and ſun, till the roots are fixed, and begin to ſhoot. 7. If the ſoil the tree is tranſplanted into is good, it ſhould not be topped, but all the boughs lopped to one ſingle one, the moſt upright and promiſing among them: but if the ſoil is poor, they ſhould be topped; and when they are ſhot out again, all the branches ſhould be lopped off to one.

TRANSPORT, is a perſon who is ſent, or tranſported from his native country, to ſome of the American provinces, for committing ſome felony or miſdemeanour: tho' there are ſome tranſports who voluntarily ſell or indent themſelves, as ſervants, for a certain term, in the plantations.

TRANSPORT-*Ship*, is a veſſel uſed to convey proviſions, corn, ſoldiers, and warlike ſtores.

TRANSPORTATION. The act of conveying, or carrying a thing from one place or country to another. See *Exportation*.

In matters of commerce, tranſportation is of equal import with re-exportation; or the taking up of commodities in one foreign ſtate or kingdom, bringing them hither, and paying duties for them, and then conveying them into ſome other foreign ſtate; by which it is diſtinguiſhed from importation, and exportation, where the commodities are

are either carried originally out of, or brought finally into our own kingdom. Our tranſportation or re-exportation of wool, butter, hides, tallow, herrings, beef, and ſalmon, which we tranſport from Ireland to other colonies and provinces, being the concerns of our merchants, and paying duties to his majeſty, have been reckoned at 300,000 *l. per annum.*

But it would be tedious to enumerate our tranſportations from Denmark, Sweden, Spain, Portugal, the Streights, Turkey, and Guinea; yet the moſt conſiderable is from the Eaſt Indies. In the infancy of that trade, and in the year 1613, of pepper only, beſides what we conſumed at home, we tranſported in one year, to other countries, after it had paid duty here, to the value of 200,000 *l.* and of late years our exportation of what we bring from thence, after we have ſupplied ourſelves, has been computed at 300,000 *l.* ſterling. See *Navigation* and *Commerce*.

TRANTERY. In ſome cuſtoms, denotes the money ariſing by amerciaments of ale-ſellers and victuallers, for breaking the aſſize of bread and ale, particularly at Luſton, and other manors in Herefordſhire. See *Aſſize*.

TRAPANO. A city and port-town in Sicily; ſituated in 12 deg. 8 min. of E. lon. and 38 deg. of N. lat. on the W. part of the iſland; 30 miles from Palermo, being a ſecure harbour, and one of the laſt places the Romans took from the Carthaginians in this iſland.

TRAPEZOND, or *Trebiſond*. A city and port-town of Aſiatic Turky; ſituated in 42 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 42 deg. 26 min. of N. lat. in the province of Amaſia, on the Black Sea; being a large town, and once a fine harbour; but can only receive ſmall veſſels at preſent.

TRAVADO. A ſudden or impetuous wind, or hurricane, frequent in the Atlantic ocean, between Braſil and Africa, and about the Cape of Good Hope: before this ſtorm, it is very calm, when there appears a ſmall cloud, called by the ſeamen an ox-eye, over one of the peaks of the promontory; which, falling lower, covers the whole ſummit: upon ſight of this, the mariners furl their ſails, and get from the ſhore with the utmoſt expedition, to avoid its fury; for, of a ſudden, a terrible wind ruſhes from the top of the mountain, and deſtroys all ſhips within its reach: but thoſe whirlwinds that ſurprize travellers in the deſerts of Arabia, ſeem to be of the ſame nature.

TRAVEMUND. A port-town of Germany, ſubject to the duke of Holſtein; ſituated in 10 deg. 45 min. of E. lon. and 44 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the Baltic ſea, at the mouth of the river Trave, 10 miles N. E. of Lubeck.

TRAVERSE, in *Navigation*, is the variation or alteration of a ſhip's courſe, occaſioned by the ſhifting of the winds and currents. See *Courſe*.

Traverſe ſailing is uſed, when a ſhip, having ſet ſail from one port to another, whoſe courſe and diſtance from the port ſailed from is given or known, is, by reaſon of winds or other accidents, forced to ſhift, and ſail on different courſes, which are to be brought into one courſe, to learn, after ſo many turns and windings, the true courſe and diſtance made from the place ſailed from, and the true point or place where the ſhip is, that ſo, the wind coming fair, it may be known how to ſhape a courſe for the place intended. See *Sailing*. This may be performed geometrically two ways; firſt, by drawing two meridians, thro' the extremity of every courſe, parallel to the firſt meridian, or North and South line, at firſt made, and ſetting of every courſe with a ſweep of 60, as if it were a queſtion in plain ſailing. You may alſo let fall perpendiculars to every new meridian, from the point that the ſhip ſailed to upon that courſe; by which you have the courſe, diſtance, difference of latitude, and departure to every courſe.

To work a TRAVERSE *by the tables of difference of latitude and departure*. This is the principal uſe thoſe tables are intended for; and the way of working a traverſe hereby, is equal to the beſt for exactneſs, and ſuperior in point of expedition. Make a little table with ſix columns, the firſt for the courſe, the ſecond for the diſtance, and the third for the northing, the fourth for the ſouthing, the fifth for the eaſting, and the ſixth for the weſting: then find the difference of the latitude, with the departure to every courſe, and ſet them in their proper columns; as, where the courſe is northerly, ſet the diſtance of the latitude under northing, or in the north column; and, where the difference is ſoutherly, ſet the difference of latitude in the ſouth column. Again, where the courſe is eaſterly, ſet the departure in the eaſt column; and, when weſterly, ſet it in the weſt column: then, adding up each column by itſelf, ſubtract the north and ſouth columns, the leſſer from the greater, the remainder is the ſouthing made good: alſo ſubtract the eaſt and weſt columns, the leſſer from the greater, the remainder is the eaſting or weſting made good; then you have the difference of latitude and departure given, to find the courſe and diſtance.

TRAW. A port-town of Dalmatia; ſituated in 17 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 10 min. of N. lat. on the gulph of Venice, 15 miles E. of Spaletto, ſubject to Venice.

TREACLE, in pharmacy. A medicine that expels poiſon. The manner of compoſition is various, according to the application: but in common, it means only that thick conſiſtence of droſſy matter, that ſugar-bakers extract in their refining or making loaf-ſugar, which is frequently eaten like butter ſpread upon bread; and by ſome is made into drink. See *Theriaca*.

TREASURER. An officer, to whom the treaſure of a prince or corporation is committed to be kept, and duly diſpoſed of in payment of the officers and other expences. Of theſe there are a great variety: his majeſty of Great Britain, in quality of elector of Brunſwick, is arch-treaſurer of the Roman empire. In the ſtates of Poland, are two grand treaſurers, that of the kingdom of Poland, and that of the dutchy of Lithuania. In England, the principal officers under this denomination are the lord high-treaſurer, the treaſurer of the houſhold, treaſurer of the navy, of the wardrobe, and of the king's chamber.

Lord High TREASURER of *England*, is the third great officer of the crown, under whoſe charge and government all the king's revenue is kept in the exchequer.

He receives the office by delivery of a white ſtaff to him by the king, and holds it during the king's pleaſure; but, anciently, he received it by delivery of the golden keys of the treaſury. He has the check of all the officers any ways employed in collecting impoſts, cuſtoms, tributes, or other revenues of the crown. He has the gift of all the cuſtomers, comptrollers, and ſearchers places, in all the ports of London, and the nomination of the eſcheators in every county. See *Cuſtom*-houſe.

He alone, or others in commiſſion with him, lets leaſes of all the crown lands, and gives warrants to certain perſons of quality to have their wine cuſtom free. The ancient yearly ſalary was 383 *l.* but of late is ſaid to have been 8000 *l.* though this office is now in commiſſion.

TREASURER of the *Navy*, is an officer who receives money out of the exchequer, by warrant from the lord high-treaſurer, or the lords commiſſioners executing that office; and pays all charges of the navy, by warrant from the principal officers of the navy.

TREASURY. The place wherein the revenues of a prince are received, preſerved, and diſburſed. In England, the treaſury is a part of the exchequer, and by ſome called the lower exchequer. The officers of the lower exchequer are, the lord treaſurer, a chancellor, a ſecretary, two chamberlains, an auditor, four tellers, a clerk of the pells, uſher of the receipt, a tally cutter, and others.

Lords of the TREASURY. Inſtead of one ſingle director and adminiſtrator of his majeſty's revenues, under the title of lord high treaſurer, it is frequently thought proper to put that office in commiſſion; that is, to appoint ſeveral perſons to diſcharge it, with equal authority, under the title of lords commiſſioners of the treaſury.

TREATY. A covenant between ſeveral nations, or the ſeveral articles or conditions ſtipulated and agreed upon between ſovereign powers. There are treaties of peace, of marriage, of confederacy, of neutrality, of capitulation, and of commerce and navigation.

TREATIES of *Commerce*, are uſually followed by various tarifs, to adjuſt the duties of exportation and importation of merchandizes into the reſpective dominions of the contracting powers.

TREATIES, in general, are concluded either with enemies,

or friends, or neuters, and tend to compoſe all differences of princes at war, or to reſtore the commerce of kingdoms and ſtates.

In all treaties, it is a maxim, that the power of the one party, and the other, ought to be equal; nor ſhall they be held firm till ratified. But there are alliances contracted between princes and ſtates, unequal in honour and power; being treaties made with thoſe ſtates which give or take penſions.

By the laws of alliances, princes may aid particular and common allies, if wronged by any one ally; though he, who is not comprehended in the treaty of alliance, cannot be defended againſt him who is allied, without breach of the alliance; therefore, mediation in ſuch caſes is the only hope of the oppreſſed: but if this has not its effect, and they put themſelves into the protection of the mediator, they become in the nature of his ſubjects; when that prince is obliged to their defence, even againſt his allies; and this is by natural right in theſe caſes.

Some perſons would judge of treaties, as lawyers do of contracts; and ſay, that as a private man is not bound by that which he has promiſed by force or fear; ſo it ought to take place among princes, and in treaties which are made between ſovereigns: but that would be unjuſt and ridiculous; for it were in effect to baniſh faith from all public negociations; and there is no treaty, but what is uſually made in arms, by force, or through fear, to loſe either life, or goods, or liberty, or the ſtate; which are cauſes of juſt fear, and may ſhake the moſt conſtant perſons.

Princes, who neither love nor hate any thing, ſeem generally inclined to neutrality; and, in that, govern themſelves in their friendſhips, according to their intereſts. This neutrality may be of two kinds; the one with alliance with either party; the other without, which is what is properly ſo called: the firſt is governed by the treaty of neutrality; the latter by the diſcretion of the neuter prince, whoſe carriage ought always to be ſuch, as that he may not give the leaſt ſuſpicion of inclining more to one than to another. And the advantages of neutrality are, that the neutral prince, or republic, is honoured and reſpected of both parties, and, by the fear of his declaring againſt one of them, remains arbitrator of others, and maſter of himſelf.

In the year 1652, the Dutch, being engaged in a war with England, were glad to take advantage of the miſunderſtandings which then aroſe between this country and Denmark; and ſo concluded a particular treaty of alliance with Frederick the III. then reigning in that kingdom: and the effect of this good underſtanding between the Danes and the Dutch, viſibly appeared by another treaty entered into by thoſe two powers, at Copenhagen, in the following year. But notwithſtanding this ſtrict union with the king and crown of Denmark, the Hollanders beginning very ſoon to be weary of the war with this country, were obliged to relinquiſh all other advantages, to conclude a treaty of peace; of which treaty, for the ſatisfaction of the curious, here follows an abſtract of the moſt material articles.

Abſtract of a treaty of peace and union between Oliver Cromwell, *as protector of* England, *and the* United Provinces *of the* Low-Countries.

That, in the firſt place, it is agreed, granted and concluded, That from this day forward, there ſhall be a true, firm, and inviolable peace, ſincere friendſhip, and a nearer and ſtraiter affinity, confederation, and union, between the republic of England, and the States General of the United Provinces of the Low-Countries, and the lands, regions, and cities ſituate under their juriſdiction without diſtinction, and between their people and inhabitants, of any degree whatſoever.

That ſuch as attempt to diſturb the peace of either ſtate, ſhall be reputed enemies.

That the ſubjects of either ſtate ſhall freely travel through, and trade to all the dominions of the other in Europe, without prejudice of the laws and cuſtoms of particular places.

That as well the ſhips of war, as the other ſhips of the United Provinces, meeting with the ſhips of war of this ſtate in the Britiſh ſeas, ſhall ſtrike their flag, and lower their top-ſail, in the ſame manner as that has been performed in any former time, under any government whatſoever.

That for the better ſecurity and encouragement of trade, all pirates be duly puniſhed in the dominions of either ſtate; and the effects ſeized in their cuſtody, reſtored to the right owners, if any can be found.

That the merchants, mariners, ſailors, and pilots, &c. of neither ſtate, nor their ſhips, goods or effects, ſhall not be detained or arreſted, or forced into the ſervice of the other, without an abſolute neceſſity; in which caſe too, ſatisfaction ſhall be given for the ſame.

The following articles of this treaty, after inſiſting upon the Dutch doing juſtice on all thoſe concerned in killing the Engliſh at Amboyna, only contain ſome ſtipulations for receiving the king of Denmark into it, and for procuring the reſtitution of ſome Engliſh effects ſeized in that country, and reparation of damage, &c.

On the reſtoration of King Charles the II. to his dominions, a marine treaty was concluded between that king and the States General of Holland; in which they compoſed all ancient differences: and in the year 1667, a treaty of peace and alliance, with certain articles relating to commerce, &c. was concluded and agreed upon between the aforeſaid King Charles the II. and the States General; but as the firſt eighteen articles of the treaty have no relation to marine affairs, and the 19th being the ſame with the 13th article of the precedent treaty, already inſerted; it is neceſſary to begin at the 20th article of this treaty, in the order it is found in the original.

Some extraordinary articles relating to commerce and marine affairs, in a treaty of peace and alliance concluded between King Charles *the II. and the* States General *of* Holland, *the 21ſt of* July 1667.

XX. And for the greater freedom of commerce and navigation, it is agreed and concluded, That the ſaid king of Great Britain, and the ſaid States General, ſhall not receive into their havens, cities, and towns, nor ſuffer that any of the ſubjects of either party do receive pirates or ſea-rovers, or afford them any entertainment, aſſiſtance, or proviſion; but ſhall endeavour that the ſaid pirates and ſea-rovers, or their partners, ſharers and abettors, be found out, apprehended, and ſuffer condign puniſhment, for the terror of others: and all the ſhips, goods, and commodities piratically taken by them, and brought into the ports of either party, which can be found, although they be ſold, ſhall be reſtored to the right owners; or ſatisfaction ſhall be given, either to their owners, or thoſe who by letters of attorney ſhall challenge the ſame; provided the right of their propriety be made to appear in the court of admiralty by due proofs, according to law.

XXI. It ſhall not be permitted to the ſubjects of the ſaid king of Great Britain, and the inhabitants of the kingdoms and countries under his obedience, or to the inhabitants and ſubjects of the ſaid United Provinces, to do or offer any hoſtility or violence to each other, either by land or ſea, upon any pretence whatſoever: and conſequently, it ſhall not be lawful for the ſaid ſubjects, or inhabitants, to get commiſſions or letters of repriſal, from any prince or ſtate with whom either of the confederates is at difference, or in open war; and much leſs, by virtue of ſuch letters, to moleſt or damnify the ſubjects of either party. Neither ſhall it be lawful for any foreign private men of war, that are not ſubject to one or the other party, having commiſſions from any other prince or ſtate, to equip their ſhips in the harbours of either of the aforeſaid parties, or to ſell or ranſom their prizes, or any other way to truck, as well the ſhips and goods, as any other lading whatſoever. And it ſhall not be lawful for them to buy any victuals, but what ſhall be neceſſary to bring them to the next port of that prince, from whom they obtained their ſaid commiſſions. And if, perchance, any of the ſubjects of the ſaid King of Great Britain, or of the ſaid States General, ſhall buy, or get to themſelves by truck, or any other way, ſuch ſhip or goods which have been taken from the ſubjects of the one or the other party; in ſuch caſe, the ſaid ſubjects ſhall be bound to reſtore the ſaid ſhip or goods to the proprietor without any delay, and without any compenſation or reimburſement

of money, paid or promiſed for the ſame; provided that they make it appear, before the council of the ſaid King of Great Britain, or before the States General, that they are the right owners or proprietors of them.

XXII. That in caſe the King of Great Britain, or the ſaid States General, make any treaty of amity or alliance with any other kings, republics, princes, or ſtates, they ſhall therein comprehend each other and their dominions, if they deſire to be therein comprehended; and ſhall give to the other notice of all ſuch treaties of friendſhip or alliance.

XXIII. That in caſe it happens, during this friendſhip, confederacy, and alliance, that any thing ſhall be done or attempted by any of the ſubjects or inhabitants of either party againſt this treaty, or any part thereof, by land, ſea, or freſh waters, nevertheleſs this amity and alliance between the ſaid nations, ſhall not thereby be broken or interrupted, but ſhall remain and continue in its full force; and that only thoſe particular perſons ſhall be puniſhed, who have committed any thing againſt this treaty, and none elſe; and that juſtice ſhall be rendered, and ſatisfaction given to all perſons concerned, by all ſuch who have committed any thing contrary to this treaty, by land or ſea, or other waters, in any part of Europe, or any places within the Streights, or in America, or in any lands, iſlands, ſeas, creeks, bays, rivers, or any places on this ſide the Cape of Good Hope, within twelve months ſpace after juſtice ſhall be demanded; and in all places whatſoever on the other ſide of the ſaid Cape, within eighteen months next enſuing, after demand of juſtice ſhall be made in manner aforeſaid. But, in caſe the offenders againſt this treaty do not appear, and ſubmit themſelves to judgment, and give ſatisfaction within the reſpective times above expreſſed, proportionably to the diſtance of the places, they ſhall be declared enemies of both parties, and their eſtates, goods, and revenues whatſoever ſhall be confiſcated, for the due and full ſatisfaction of the injuries and wrongs by them offered; and their perſons alſo, when they come within the dominions of either party, ſhall be liable unto ſuch puniſhments as every one ſhall deſerve for his reſpective offences.

XXIV. That the ſubjects of the ſaid King of Great Britain, and thoſe under his juriſdiction, may freely and ſecurely travel in all the provinces of the Low countries and dominions of the States General in Europe, and through them, by ſea or land, paſs to other places there or beyond them; and through all quarters of the United Provinces, cities, forts or garriſons whatſoever, which are in any parts of the ſaid provinces, or elſewhere in their dominions in Europe, as well they themſelves exerciſing trade in all thoſe places, as their agents, factors, and ſervants, may go armed or unarmed; but if armed, not above forty in company, as well without their goods and merchandizes as with them, whereſoever they pleaſe. The people alſo and inhabitants of the United Provinces ſhall enjoy the ſame liberty and freedom in all the dominions of the ſaid King in Europe; provided that they and every of them do, in their trade and merchandizing, yield obedience to the laws and ſtatutes of either nation reſpectively.

XXV. That in caſe the merchant-ſhips of the ſubjects of either nation ſhall by ſtorm, pirates, or any other neceſſity whatſoever, be driven into any haven of either dominion, they may depart ſecurely at their pleaſure, with their ſhips and goods, without paying any cuſtoms or other duties; provided they break no bulk, nor ſell any thing: and they ſhall not be ſubject to any moleſtation or ſearch, provided they don't receive on board any perſons or goods, nor do any thing elſe contrary to the laws, ordinances, or cuſtoms of the places, where they, as aforeſaid, ſhall happen to arrive.

XXVI. That the merchants, maſters of veſſels, and ſeamen, of either party, their ſhips, goods, wares, or merchandizes, ſhall not be arreſted or ſeized in the lands, havens, roads, or rivers of the other, to ſerve at war, or any other uſe, by virtue of any general or ſpecial command; unleſs upon an extraordinary neceſſity, and that juſt ſatisfaction be given for the ſame; but ſo as the ſame ſhall not derogate from the ſeiſures and arreſts duly made in the ordinary courts of juſtice of either nation.

XXVII. That the merchants on both ſides, their factors and ſervants, and alſo the maſters of ſhips and other ſeamen, as well going as returning by ſea and other waters, as alſo in the havens of either party, or going on ſhore, may carry and uſe, for the defence of themſelves and goods, all ſorts of weapons, as well offenſive as defenſive; but, being come into their lodgings or inns, they ſhall there lay by, and leave their arms, until they are going on board again.

XXVIII. That the men of war, or convoys of either nation, meeting or overtaking at ſea any merchant-ſhip or ſhips, belonging to the ſubjects or inhabitants of the other, holding the ſame courſe, or going the ſame way, ſhall be bound as long as they keep one courſe together, to protect and defend them againſt all and every one who would ſet upon them.

XXIX. That if any ſhip or ſhips of the ſubjects or inhabitants of either nation, or of a neuter, be taken by a third party in the harbours of either, not being a ſubject or inhabitant of either nation, they, in or out of whoſe haven or juriſdiction the ſaid ſhips ſhall be taken, ſhall be bound to endeavour with the other party, that the ſaid ſhip or ſhips be purſued, brought back, and reſtored to the owners; but all this ſhall be done at the charges of the owners, or whom it concerns.

XXX. That ſearchers, and other like officers, on both ſides, ſhall regulate themſelves according to the laws of either nation, and ſhall not impoſe or demand more than they are allowed by their commiſſions or inſtructions.

XXXI. That if any injury be done by either nation, or the ſubjects or inhabitants of the ſame, againſt the ſubjects or inhabitants of the other, or againſt any of the articles of this preſent treaty, or againſt common right; yet nevertheleſs, no letters of repriſal, marque, or countermarque, ſhall be granted by either ſide, till juſtice has been firſt demanded according to the ordinary courſe of law; but, in caſe juſtice be there denied or delayed, then the ſaid King of Great Britain, and the ſaid States General, or commiſſioners of that nation whoſe ſubjects or inhabitants have ſuffered the wrong, ſhall publicly require juſtice from the other party, where it was ſo denied or delayed, or from that power appointed to hear and decide ſuch difference, that there may be a friendly compoſure, or due proceſs at law: but, if ſtill there happen more delays, and neither juſtice be adminiſtred, nor ſatisfaction given, within three months after ſuch demand, that then letters of repriſal, marque, or countermarque, may be granted.

XXXII. It is alſo agreed, If at any time it happen, that the difference now compoſed between his ſaid majeſty and the States General, ſhould feſter, and break out again in open war; that then thoſe ſhips, merchandizes, or any kind of moveables of either party, which ſhall be found to be and remain in the ports, and under the command of the adverſe party on either ſide, ſhall not be confiſcated, or made obnoxious to any inconvenience; but the ſpace of ſix months ſhall be allowed to the ſubjects and inhabitants of either party, that they may have leiſure to tranſport from thence the aforementioned things, and any thing elſe that is theirs, whither they ſhall think fit, without any kind of moleſtation.

XXXIII. That they who have obtained private commiſſions from either party, before they receive ſuch commiſſions, ſhall give good and ſufficient ſecurity before the judge of the court where they receive their commiſſions, &c. that they ſhall do no damage or injury to the ſubjects or inhabitants of either ſide.

XXXIV. It is alſo agreed and concluded, that the ſubjects and inhabitants of either party ſhall always have free acceſs to each other's ſea-ports, there to remain, and from thence to depart with the ſame freedom; and not only with their merchant-ſhips and lading, but alſo with their men of war, whether they belong to the ſaid King or States General, or unto ſuch as have obtained private commiſſions, whether they arrive thro' violence or tempeſt, or other caſualty of the ſeas, or to mend their ſhips, or to buy proviſion; ſo they exceed not the number of eight men of war, when they come there voluntarily, nor remain or abide longer in the havens or places adjacent, than they ſhall have a juſt cauſe to repair their ſaid

ſhips, or to buy victuals or other neceſſaries: and if a greater number of men of war ſhould, upon occaſion, deſire to come into ſuch ports, they ſhall in no caſe enter thereinto, until they have firſt obtained leave from thoſe to whom the ſaid havens do appertain, unleſs they be forced ſo to do by ſtorm, or ſome other neceſſity, to avoid the danger of the ſea: in which caſe alſo, they ſhall preſently make known the cauſe of their coming unto the governor or chief magiſtrate of the place, and ſhall ſtay no longer than ſuch governor or chief magiſtrate ſhall permit them; and ſhall not do any acts of hoſtility, or other prejudice in the aforeſaid havens, during their abode there.

Articles touching navigation and commerce, betwen King Charles *the II. and the* States General *of the* United Netherlands, *concluded at the* Hague, *the 7th of* Feb. 1667-8.

I. All the ſubjects and inhabitants of Great Britain may, with all ſafety and freedom, ſail and traffic in all the kingdoms, countries and eſtates, which are or ſhall be in peace, amity, or neutrality with Great Britain, without being troubled or diſquieted in that liberty by the ſhips of war, gallies, frigates, barques, or other veſſels belonging to the States General, or any of their ſubjects, upon occaſion and account of any hoſtilities which may hereafter happen between the States General, and the aboveſaid kingdoms, countries and eſtates, or any of them, which are or ſhall be in peace, amity, or neutrality with Great Britain.

II. This freedom of navigation and traffic, ſhall extend to all ſorts of merchandize, except thoſe of contraband.

III. This term of contraband goods is underſtood to comprehend only all ſorts of fire-arms, and their appurtenances; as cannon, muſquets, mortar-pieces, petards, reſts, bandaliers, powder, match, ſaltpetre, bullets, pikes, ſwords, morions, head-pieces, coats of mail, halberts, javelins, horſes, great ſaddles, holſters, belts, and other utenſils of war, called in French *Aſſortiſſemens ſervant à l'Uſage de la Guerre.*

IV. In this quality of contraband, theſe following ſhall not be comprehended; corn, wheat, or other grain, and pulſe; oils, wines, ſalt, or generally any thing that belongs to the nouriſhment and ſuſtenance of life; but they ſhall remain free, as other merchandize and commodities not comprehended in the precedent article; and the tranſportation of them ſhall be permitted even unto places in enmity with the States General, except ſuch cities and places as are beſieged, blocked up, or inveſted.

V. It has been agreed, for the due execution of what is aboveſaid, That the ſhips and barques of the Engliſh, laden with merchandize, being entered into any port of the ſaid States General, and purpoſing to paſs from thence to the ports of the enemies, ſhall be only obliged to ſhew unto the officers of the port of the ſaid States, out of which they would go, their paſſports, containing the ſpecification of the lading of their ſhips, atteſted and marked with the ordinary ſeal of the officers of the admiralty of thoſe places from whence they firſt came, whither they are bound, all in uſual and accuſtomed form; after which ſhewing of their paſſports in the form aforeſaid, they may not be diſquieted, nor ſearched, detained or retarded in their voyages, upon any pretence whatſoever.

VI. The ſame courſe ſhall be uſed, in regard of the Engliſh ſhips and veſſels which ſhall come into any roads of the countries under the obedience of the ſaid States, not intending to enter into the ports, or being entered thereinto, not to unlade and break bulk; which ſhips may not be obliged to give an account of their ladings, but in caſe of ſuſpicion that they carry unto the enemies of the ſaid States any contraband goods as aforeſaid.

VII. And in caſe of any ſuch apparent ſuſpicion, the ſaid ſubjects of his Majeſty ſhall be obliged to ſhew, in the ports, their paſſports in the form ſpecified.

VIII. But if they were come within the roads, or were met in the open ſea by any of the ſaid States ſhips, or private men of war, of their ſubjects; for avoiding of all diſorder, the ſaid ſhips of the United Provinces, or their ſubjects, ſhall not come near within cannon-ſhot of the Engliſh, but ſhall ſend out their long-boat, and cauſe only two or three men to go on board the Engliſh ſhips or veſſels, unto whom the paſſports and certificates of the propriety of the ſhips, ſhall be ſhewn by the maſter or captain of the Engliſh ſhip, in the manner above ſpecied, according to the form of the ſaid certificates, which ſhall be inſerted at the end of this treaty; by which paſſport and certificate proof may be made, not only of the lading, but alſo of the place of abode and reſidence of the maſter or captain, and name of the ſhip itſelf; to the end, that, by theſe two ways, it may be known whether they carry contraband goods, and that the quality as well of the ſaid ſhip, as of its maſter or captain, may ſufficiently appear; unto which paſſports and certificates entire faith and credit ſhall be given. And to the end their validity may be the better known, and that they may not be in any ways falſified and counterfeit, certain marks and counter-ſigns of his Majeſty and the States General ſhall be given unto them.

IX. And in caſe any merchandize and commodities of thoſe kinds, which are before declared to be contraband and forbidden, ſhall by the means aforeſaid, be found in the Engliſh ſhips or veſſels, bound for the ports of the ſaid States enemies, they ſhall be unladen, judicially proceeded againſt, and declared confiſcate before the judges of the admiralty of the United Provinces, or other competent officers; but ſo that the ſhip and veſſel, or other freed or allowed goods, merchandiſe, and commodities found in the ſaid ſhip, may not for that cauſe be in any manner ſeized or confiſcated.

X. It is further agreed and covenanted, That whatſoever ſhall be found laden by his Majeſty's ſubjects, upon any ſhip of the enemies of the ſaid States, altho' the ſame were not contraband goods, ſhall yet be confiſcate, with all that ſhall be found in the ſaid ſhip, without exception or reſervation: but on the other ſide alſo, all that ſhall be found in the ſhips belonging to the King of Great Britain's ſubjects, ſhall be free and diſcharged, altho' the lading or part thereof, belong to the ſaid States enemies, except contraband goods; in regard whereof ſuch rule ſhall be obſerved, as has been ordered in the precedent articles.

XI. All the ſubjects and inhabitants of the ſaid United Provinces, ſhall reciprocally enjoy the ſame rights, liberties, and exemptions, in their trade and commerce, upon the coaſts, and in the ports, roads, ſeas, and eſtates of his ſaid Majeſty, which his Majeſty's ſubjects ſhall enjoy in thoſe of the ſaid States, and in open ſea; it being to be underſtood, that the equality ſhall be mutual every way on both ſides, even in caſe the ſaid States ſhould hereafter be in peace, amity, and neutrality, with any kings, princes, and ſtates, who ſhould become enemies to his ſaid Majeſty; ſo that either of the parties are mutually to uſe the ſame conditions and reſtrictions, expreſſed in the articles of this preſent treaty, with regard to trade and commerce.

XII. And the more to aſſure the ſubjects of the ſaid States, that no violence ſhall be offered them by the ſhips of war belonging to his Majeſty of Great Britain, or his ſubjects, all the captains of the King's ſhips, and all his Majeſty's ſubjects that ſend out private men of war, ſhall be charged and enjoined not to moleſt or endamage them in any thing whatſoever, upon pain of being puniſhed, and made anſwerable, in their perſons and goods, for all coſts and damages, until due reſtitution and reparation be made.

XIII. And for this cauſe, the captains of privateers and capers ſhall from henceforth every one of them be obliged, before they go out, to give good and ſufficient ſecurity, before competent judges, in the ſum of fifteen hundred pounds, &c. that they will make full ſatisfaction for any injuries or wrongs they may commit in their courſes at ſea, and for their officers under them, that ſhall violate this preſent treaty, and the orders and proclamations of his Majeſty, which ſhall be publiſhed by virtue and in conformity to the regulation therein made; and upon pain of forfeiting their ſaid commiſſions and licences: which ſhall in like manner be practiſed by the ſubjects of the ſaid States General.

XIV. If it ſhould happen, that any of the ſaid captains ſhould make prize of veſſels laden with contraband goods,

goods, the ſaid captains may not open the cheſts, mails, packs, bags, or caſks; or ſell, exchange, or otherways alienate them, until they have landed the ſame in the preſence of the judges or officers of the admiralty, and an inventory is by them made of the ſaid goods found in the ſaid veſſels; unleſs the contraband goods making but a part of the lading, the maſter of the ſhip ſhould be content to deliver the ſaid contraband goods unto the ſaid captain, and to purſue his voyage; in which caſe, the ſaid maſter ſhall by no means be hindered from continuing his courſe and the deſign of his voyage.

XV. His Majeſty being deſirous that the ſubjects of the ſaid States may be uſed, in all countries under his obedience, as favourably as his own ſubjects, will give all neceſſary orders, that judgments and decrees upon prizes, which ſhall happen to be taken at ſea, may be given with all juſtice and equity, by judges not ſuſpected or concerned in the matter under debate; and his Majeſty will give preciſe and effectual orders, that all decrees, judgments, and orders of juſtice, already given and to be given, may be readily and duly executed according to the tenor of the ſame.

XVI. And when the ambaſſadors of the ſaid States General, or any other of their public miniſters reſiding in his Majeſty's court, ſhall make complaint of the judgments which ſhall be given, his Majeſty will cauſe a review to be made of the ſaid judgments in his council, to examine whether the order and precautions contained in the preſent treaty have been followed and obſerved, and to provide for the ſame according to right and equity; which ſhall be done within the ſpace of three months at the fartheſt: nevertheleſs neither before the firſt judgment nor after it, during the time of the review, the goods and effects which are reclaimed, may not be ſold or unladed, unleſs it be with the conſent of the parties intereſted, to avoid the ſpoiling of the ſaid commodities, if they be periſhable.

XVII. When proceſs ſhall be moved in the firſt or ſecond inſtance, between thoſe that have taken the prizes at ſea, and the perſons intereſted therein, and the ſaid intereſted perſons ſhall come to obtain a favourable judgment or decree, the ſaid judgment or decree ſhall have its execution upon ſecurity given, notwithſtanding the appeal of him that took the prize; but the ſame ſhall not hold on the contrary where the ſentence goes againſt the claimers. And that which is ſaid in this preſent and in the precedent articles, for the cauſing of good and ſpeedy juſtice to be done unto the ſubjects of the United Provinces, in the matter of prizes taken at ſea by his Majeſty's ſubjects, ſhall be underſtood and practiſed by the States General, in regard of prizes taken by their ſubjects from thoſe of his Majeſty.

XVIII. But ſince the conveniencies and inconveniencies of things and agreements cannot be diſcovered but in procedure of time, and by obſervations drawn from mutual experience; it is therefore agreed between the ſaid King of Great Britain and the ſaid Lords, the States of the United Netherlands, That at any time hereafter, when both parties ſhall ſo think it fitting, certain commiſſioners, by each party reſpectively choſen, ſhall meet by the common conſent of both; who ſhall make it their care and buſineſs to ſupply whatever ſhall be found wanting in the aforementioned articles, to change or limit what ſhall not be convenient and commodious for both, and fully to compleat a farther treaty, both concerning theſe things, and all other the laws of navigation.

A treaty marine, between King Charles *the II. and the Lords the* States General *of the* United Netherlands, *concluded at* London, *the firſt day of* December 1674.

I. That it ſhall be lawful for all and every the ſubjects of the moſt ſerene and mighty prince, the King of Great Britain, with all freedom and ſafety to ſail, trade, and exerciſe any manner of traffic in all thoſe kingdoms, countries, and eſtates which are, or at any time hereafter ſhall be in peace, amity, or neutrality with his ſaid Majeſty; ſo that they ſhall not be any ways hindered or moleſted in their navigation or trade, by the military forces, nor by the ſhips of war, or any other kind of veſſels whatſoever, belonging either to the high and mighty lords the States General of the United Netherlands, or to their ſubjects, upon occaſion or pretence of any hoſtility or difference which now is, or hereafter ſhall happen between the ſaid lords the States General, and any princes or people whatſoever, in peace, amity or neutrality with his ſaid Majeſty: and likewiſe, That it ſhall and may be lawful for all and every the ſubjects of the ſaid lords the States General of the United Netherlands, with all freedom and ſafety to ſail, trade and exerciſe in any manner of traffic in all thoſe kingdoms, countries and eſtates which are, or at any time hereafter ſhall be in peace, amity, or neutrality with the aforeſaid lords the States; ſo that they ſhall not be any ways hindered or moleſted in their navigation or trade, by the military forces, or by the ſhips of war, or any other kind of veſſels whatſoever, belonging either to the moſt ſerene and mighty King above mentioned, of to his ſubjects, upon occaſion or pretence of any hoſtility or difference, which now is, or ſhall hereafter happen between his ſaid Majeſty and any princes or people whatſoever in peace, amity, or neutrality with the ſaid lords the States.

II. Nor ſhall this freedom of navigation and commerce be infringed by occaſion or cauſe of any war, in any kind of merchandizes, but ſhall extend to all commodities that ſhall be carried in time of peace; thoſe only excepted which follow in the next article, and are comprehended under the name of contraband.

III. Under this name contraband or prohibited merchandizes, ſhall be comprehended only arms, pieces of ordnance, with all implements belonging to them, fire-balls, powder, match, bullets, pikes, ſwords, lances, ſpears, halberts, guns, mortar-pieces, petards, granadoes, muſquet-reſts, bandaliers, ſaltpetre, muſquets, muſquet-ſhot, helmets, corſlets, breaſt-plates, coats of mail, and the like kind of armature, ſoldiers, horſes, and all things neceſſary for the furniture of horſes, holſters, belts, and all other warlike inſtruments whatſoever.

IV. Theſe merchandizes following ſhall not be reckoned among prohibited Goods, viz. All kind of cloth, and all other manufactures woven of any kinds of wool, flax, ſilk, cotton, or any other materials; all ſorts of cloathing and veſtments, together with the materials whereof they uſe to be made; gold and ſilver, as well coined as not coined; tin, iron, lead, copper, and coals; as alſo wheat, barley, and all other kinds of corn or pulſe; tobacco, and all kinds of ſpices, ſalted and ſmoaked fleſh, ſalted and dried fiſh, butter and cheeſe, beer, oils, wines, ſugars, and all ſorts of ſalt, and in general, all proviſion which ſerves for the nouriſhment and ſuſtenance of life; likewiſe all kinds of cotton, hemp, flax, and pitch; and ropes, ſails, and anchors; alſo maſts and planks, boards and beams of wood of what ſort ſoever; and all other materials requiſite for the building or repairing ſhips, but they ſhall be wholly reputed among free goods; even as all other wares and commodities which are not comprehended in the precedent article; ſo that the ſame may be freely tranſported and carried by the ſubjects of his ſaid Majeſty, even unto places in enmity with the ſaid States, as alſo on the other ſide, by the ſubjects of the ſaid States, to places under the obedience of the enemies of his ſaid Majeſty; except only towns or places beſieged, environed, or inveſted.

V. And that all manner of differences and contentions on both ſides, by ſea and land, may ceaſe and be utterly extinguiſhed; it is agreed, That all kinds of ſhips and veſſels whatſoever, belonging to the ſubjects of his ſaid Majeſty, entering or being entered into any road or port under the obedience of the lords the States, and purpoſing to paſs from thence, ſhall be only obliged to ſhew unto the officers acting in the ports of the ſaid States, or to the captains of the States ſhips, or of private men of war, if any happen there to be, their paſſport, commonly called a ſea-brief, in the form directed, nor ſhall any money, or any thing elſe be exacted from them under that pretence. But if any ſhip belonging to the ſubjects of his Majeſty of Great Britain, ſhall, in the open ſea, or elſewhere out

of the dominions of the ſaid States, meet the ſhips of war of the ſaid lords the States, or private men of war of their ſubjects, the ſaid ſhips of the lords the States, or of their ſubjects, ſhall keep at a convenient diſtance, and ſend out their boat, and it ſhall be lawful for them only with two or three men, to go on board the ſhips and veſſels of the ſubjects of his Majeſty, that the paſſport, or ſea-brief, of the propriety thereof according to the form herein ſpecified, may be ſhewn to them by the captain or maſter of ſuch ſhip or veſſel belonging to the ſubjects of his Majeſty; and the ſhip which ſhall ſhew the ſame ſhall freely paſs, and it ſhall not be lawful to moleſt, ſearch, detain or divert the ſame from her intended voyage: and all the ſubjects of the lords the States ſhall enjoy in all things, the ſame liberty and immunity, they, in like manner, ſhewing the paſſports, or ſea-briefs, made according to the form preſcribed at the end of this treaty.

VI. But if any ſhip or veſſel belonging to the Engliſh, or other ſubjects of his Majeſty, ſhall be met making into any port in enmity with the lords the States; or on the other ſide, if any ſhip belonging to the United Provinces of the Netherlands, or other ſubjects of the States, ſhall be met in her way making into any port under the obedience of the enemies of his ſaid Majeſty, ſuch ſhip ſhall ſhew not only a paſſport, or ſea-brief, according to the form preſcribed, wherewith ſhe is to be furniſhed, but alſo her cocquets expreſſing the contents of the goods on board, given in the uſual form, by the officers of the cuſtoms in the port from whence ſhe came; whereby it may be known whether ſhe is laden with any merchandizes prohibited by the third article of this treaty.

VII. But if by the ſhewing the aboveſaid cocquets expreſſing the contents of the goods on board, ſo given in uſual form by the ſaid officers of the cuſtoms in the port from whence ſhe came, concerning the ſhewing whereof it is above agreed, either party ſhall diſcover any kind of merchandizes, which in the third article of this treaty are declared to be contraband or prohibited, conſigned to any port under the obedience of their enemies, it ſhall not be lawful to open the hatches of ſuch ſhip in which the ſame ſhall happen to be found, whether ſhe belongs to the ſubjects of his Majeſty, or of the lords the States; nor to unlock, or break open cheſts, mails, packs, or caſks in the ſame, nor to convey away the leaſt part of the merchandizes, before the whole be firſt landed in the preſence of the officers of the admiralty, and inventoried; neither ſhall it be any ways lawful to ſell, exchange, or otherwiſe to alienate the ſame, until ſuch prohibited goods, are rightfully and lawfully proceeded againſt, and that the judges of the admiralty have, by their reſpective ſentences, confiſcated the ſame. Provided always, That as well the ſhip itſelf, as the reſt of the commodities found in the ſame, which by this treaty are to be reputed free, ſhall not, upon pretence of their being infected by ſuch prohibited goods, be detained, much leſs confiſcated, for lawful prize: and if not the whole, but a part only of the lading conſiſt of contraband or prohibited commodities, and the maſter of the ſhip ſhall be willing and ready to deliver them to the captor who ſeized the ſame, in that caſe, the captor ſhall not compel the ſhip to go out of her courſe, to any port he thinks fit, but ſhall forthwith diſmiſs ber, and upon no account hinder her from freely proſecuting her deſigned voyage.

VIII. It is further agreed, That whatſoever ſhall be found laden by his Majeſty's ſubjects, upon any ſhip belonging to the enemies of the lords the States, altho' the ſame be not of the quality of contraband goods, may be confiſcated; but on the contrary, all that which ſhall be found in the ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of his Majeſty, ſhall be accounted clear and free, although the whole lading, or any part thereof, by juſt title of propriety ſhall belong to the enemies of the ſaid lords the States, except always contraband goods, which being intercepted, all things ſhall be done therein according to the meaning and direction of the precedent articles; and, by the ſame reaſon, whatſoever ſhall be laden by the ſubjects of the lords the States, in any ſhip belonging to the enemies of his Majeſty, although the ſame be not of the quality of contraband goods, may be confiſcated: but, on the other ſide, all that which ſhall be found in the ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of the lords the States, ſhall be accounted clear and free, although the whole lading, or any part thereof, by juſt title of propriety, ſhall belong to the enemies of his ſaid Majeſty, except always contraband goods, which being intercepted, all things ſhall be done according to the meaning and directions of the precedent articles. And leſt any damage ſhould by ſurprize be done to the one party who is in peace, when the other party ſhall happen to be engaged in war; it is provided and agreed, That a ſhip belonging to the enemies of the one party, and laden with goods of the ſubjects of the other party, ſhall not infect or render the goods liable to confiſcation, in caſe they were laden before the expiration of the terms and times hereafter mentioned, after the declaration or publication of any ſuch war, viz. If the goods were laden in any port or place between the places or limits called the Soundings and the Naz in Norway, within the ſpace of ſix weeks after ſuch declaration; of two months between the ſaid place, the Soundings, and the city of Tangier; and ten weeks in the Mediterranean ſea; or within the ſpace of eight months in any other country or place of the world. So that it ſhall not be lawful to confiſcate the goods of the ſubjects of his majeſty, taken or ſeized in any ſhip or veſſel whatſoever, of any enemy of the lords the States, upon that pretence, but the ſame ſhall be without delay reſtored to the proprietors, unleſs they were laden after the expiration of the ſaid terms of time reſpectively: but ſo, that it may not be lawful for them afterwards to carry to enemies ports, the ſaid merchandizes which are called contraband, and for the reaſon aforeſaid, ſhall not be liable to confiſcation: neither on the other ſide, ſhall it be lawful to confiſcate goods of the ſubjects of the lords the States, taken or ſeized in any ſhip or veſſel whatſoever of an enemy of his Majeſty, upon that pretence; but the ſame ſhall be forthwith reſtored to the proprietors thereof, unleſs they were laden after the expiration of the ſaid terms of time reſpectively; but ſo, that it may not be lawful for them afterwards to carry to enemies ports, the ſaid merchandizes that are called contraband, and for the reaſon aforeſaid, ſhall not be liable to confiſcation.

IX. And the more to aſſure the ſubjects of his Majeſty, and of the ſaid States, that no injury ſhall be offered to them by the ſhips of war, or private men of war of either ſide, all the captains of the ſhips, as well of his Majeſty as of the ſaid States, and all their ſubjects who ſhall ſet out private men of war, and likewiſe their privileged companies, ſhall be enjoined not to do any injury or damage whatſoever to the other; which if they do, they ſhall be puniſhed, and moreover be liable to ſatisfy all coſts and damages, by reſtitution and reparation, upon pain and obligation of perſon and goods.

X. For this cauſe, all the commanders of private men of war, ſhall from henceforth be obliged, before they receive their commiſſions, to enter before a competent judge, good and ſufficient ſecurity by able and reſponſible men, who have no part or intereſt in ſuch ſhip, in the ſum of fifteen hundred pounds ſterling, or ſixteen thouſand five hundred gilders; and when they have above one hundred and fifty men, then in the ſum of three thouſand pounds pounds ſterling, or three and thirty thouſand gilders; that they will give full ſatisfaction for any damages or injuries whatſoever, which they or their officers, or others in the ſervice, ſhall commit in their courſes at ſea, contrary to this preſent treaty, or any other whatſoever, between his Majeſty and the ſaid States, and upon pain of revocation and annulling their ſaid commiſſions; in which it ſhall be always inſerted, that they have given ſuch ſecurity as aforeſaid: and likeways it is agreed, That the ſhip itſelf ſhall be alſo liable to make ſatisfaction for injuries and damages done by her.

XI. His Majeſty and the ſaid States, being deſirous that the ſubjects of each other may be mutually treated in all countries under their obedience reſpectively, with the like kindneſs

kindneſs as their own ſubjects, will give all neceſſary and effectual orders, that the judgments upon prizes taken be given according to the rule of juſtice and equity, by judges beyond all ſuſpicion, and not any way concerned in the cauſe under debate; and his Majeſty and the ſaid States will likewiſe give ſtrict orders that all ſentences already given, and which ſhall be hereafter given, be, according to the tenor thereof, duly put in execution, and obtain their effect.

XII. And whenſoever the ambaſſadors of the lords the States, or any other their publick miniſters, reſident at the court of his moſt ſerene Majeſty of Great Britain, ſhall complain of the unjuſtneſs of ſentences which have been given, his Majeſty will cauſe the ſame to be reviewed and examined in his council, that it may appear whether the orders and precautions preſcribed in this treaty have been obſerved, and have had their due effect; and will alſo take care that the ſame be fully provided for, and that right be done to the party complaining, within the ſpace of three months: and likewiſe when the ambaſſadors, or other public miniſters of his Majeſty, reſident with the States, ſhall complain of the unjuſtneſs of ſentences, the ſaid States will cauſe a review and examination thereof to be made in the aſſembly of the States General, that it may appear whether the orders and precautions preſcribed in this treaty, have been obſerved, and have had their due effect; and they will likewiſe take care that the ſame be fully provided for, and that right be done the party complaining, within the ſpace of three months. Nevertheleſs, it ſhall not any ways be lawful to ſell or unlade the goods in controverſy, either before the ſentence given, or after it, during the review thereof on either ſide, unleſs it be with the conſent of the perſons intereſted.

XIII. A ſuit being commenced between the takers of prizes on the one part, and the claimers thereof on the other, and a ſentence or decree being given for the party reclaiming; the ſaid ſentence or decree, upon ſecurity given, ſhall be put in execution, notwithſtanding the appeal made by him that took the prize, which ſhall not be obſerved, in caſe the ſentence ſhould be given againſt the claimers.

XIV. And whereas the maſters of merchant ſhips, and likewiſe the mariners and paſſengers, ſometimes ſuffer many cruelties and barbarous uſages, when they are brought under the power of ſhips which take prizes in time of war, the takers in an inhuman manner tormenting them, thereby to extort from them ſuch confeſſions as they would have to be made: it is agreed, That both his Majeſty, and the lords the States General, ſhall, by the ſevereſt proclamations or placarts, forbid all ſuch heinous and inhuman offences; and as many as they ſhall by lawful proofs find guilty of ſuch acts, they ſhall take care that they be puniſhed with due and juſt puniſhments, and which may be a terror to others; and ſhall command, that all the captains and officers of ſhips, who ſhall be proved to have committed ſuch heinous practices, either themſelves, or by inſtigating others to act the ſame, or by conniving while they were done, ſhall, beſides other puniſhments to be inflicted proportionably to their offences, be forthwith deprived of their offices reſpectively: and every ſhip brought up as prize, whoſe mariners or paſſengers ſhall have ſuffered any torture, ſhall forthwith be diſmiſſed and freed, with all her lading, from all further examination and proceeding againſt her, as well judicial as otherways.

XV. It is alſo agreed, that the like ſeverity of puniſhments ſhall be inflicted upon thoſe, who contrary to the one and twentieth article of the treaty of peace, concluded at Breda, ſhall take commiſſions from enemies, to ſeize the ſhips of either ally or party, contrary to what is provided in the ſaid article.

As the articles foregoing theſe, touching navigation and commerce, between his Majeſty and the States, were concluded for their reſpective dominions in Europe; ſo it here appears, that this treaty of marine, was agreed to for regulating their naval affairs all over the world: and after the concluſion of this treaty with Holland, another of the like nature was made with France, which is proper to be inſerted; whereby the reader may ſee th intereſts and advantages of both countries are much the ſame.

A marine treaty between King Charles *the II. and* Lewis *the XIV. the moſt Chriſtian King, concluded at* St. Germains en Laye, *the 24th day of* Feb. 1676-7.

I. That it ſhall and may be lawful for all and every the ſubjects of the moſt ſerene and mighty prince the King of Great Britain aforeſaid, with all freedom and ſafety to ſail, trade, and exerciſe any manner of traffick in all thoſe kingdoms, countries, and eſtates, which are, or at any time hereafter ſhall be in peace, amity, or neutrality with his ſaid Majeſty; ſo that they ſhall not be any ways hindered or moleſted in their navigation or trade, by the military forces, nor by the ſhips of war, or any other kind of veſſels whatſoever, belonging either to the moſt Chriſtian King, or to his ſubjects, upon occaſion or pretence of any hoſtility or difference which now is, or hereafter ſhall happen between the ſaid moſt Chriſtian King, and any princes or people whatſoever, in peace, amity, or neutrality, with the ſaid King of Great Britain; and likewiſe, that it ſhall and may belawful for all and every the ſubjects of the ſaid moſt Chriſtian King, with all freedom and ſafety to ſail, trade, and exerciſe any manner of traffick in all thoſe kingdoms, countries, and eſtates, which are, or at any time hereafter ſhall be in peace, amity, or neutrality, with the aforeſaid moſt Chriſtian King; ſo that they ſhall not be any ways hindered or moleſted in their navigation or trade, by the military forces, nor by the ſhips of war, or any other kind of veſſels whatſoever, belonging either to the King of Great Britain abovementioned, or to his ſubjects, upon occaſion or pretence of any hoſtility or difference which now is, or ſhall hereafter happen between his Majeſty, and any princes or people whatſoever, in peace, amity, or neutrality, with the ſaid moſt Chriſtian King.

II. Nor ſhall this freedom of navigation and commerce be infringed, by occaſion or cauſe of any war, in any kind of merchandiſes; but ſhall extend to all commodities which ſhall be carried in time of peace; thoſe only excepted, which follow in the next article, and are comprehended under the name of contraband.

III. Under this name of contraband, or prohibited merchandiſes, ſhall be comprehended only arms, pieces of ordnance, with all implements belonging to them, fireballs, powder, bullets, pikes, ſwords, lances, ſpears, halberts, guns, mortar-pieces, petards, grenadoes, muſquetreſts, bandeliers, ſaltpetre, muſquets, muſquet-ſhot, helmets, corſlets, breaſt-plates, coats of mail, and the like kind of armature, ſoldiers, horſes, and all things neceſſary for the furniſhing of horſes, holſters, belts, and all other warlike inſtruments whatſoever.

IV. Theſe merchandiſes following ſhall not be reckoned among prohibited goods, *viz.* all kind of cloth, and all other manufactures woven of any kind of wool, flax, ſilk, cotton, or any other materials; all ſorts of clothing and veſtments, together with the materials whereof they are made; gold and ſilver, as well coined as not coined, tin, iron, lead, copper, and coals; alſo wheat and barley, and all other kind of corn or pulſe; tobacco, and all kind of ſpices; ſalted and ſmoaked fleſh, ſalted and dried fiſh, cheeſe, butter, beer, oils, wines, ſugars, and all ſorts of ſalt; and in general, all proviſion which ſerves for the nouriſhment and ſuſtenance of life; likewiſe all kind of cotton, hemp, flax, and pitch; ropes, ſails, and anchors, maſts and planks, boards and beams of what ſort of wood ſoever, and all other materials requiſite for the building or repairing ſhips; but they ſhall be wholly reputed amongſt free goods, as well as all other wares and commodities which are not comprehended in the next precedent article; ſo that the ſame may be freely tranſported and carried by the ſubjects of the moſt ſerene King of Great Britain, not only from one neutral place to another neutral place, or from a neutral port or place

to

to a place in hoſtility with the moſt Chriſtian King, or from any place in hoſtility with him to a neutral place; but alſo from one place in enmity with the ſaid moſt Chriſtian king, to another port or place in enmity with him; be it that ſuch ports or places do belong to the ſame prince or ſtate, or to ſeveral princes or ſtates with whom the moſt Chriſtian King ſhall happen to be in war: and in like manner, that the ſame may be freely tranſported by the ſubjects of the moſt Chriſtian King, not only from one neutral place, to another ſuch place, or from a neutral port or place, to a place in hoſtility with the King of Great Britain, or from a place in hoſtility with him, to a neutral place; but alſo from one place in enmity with the King of Great Britain, to another port or place in enmity with him; be it that ſuch ports or places do belong to the ſame prince or ſtate, or to ſeveral princes or ſtates, with whom the King of Great Britain ſhall happen to be in war; except only towns or places beſieged, invironed, or inveſted, in French, *Blocquees ou Inveſties.*

V. And that all manner of differences and contentions on both ſides, by ſea and land, may from henceforth ceaſe, and be utterly extinguiſhed; it is agreed, that all kind of ſhips and veſſels whatſoever, belonging to the ſubjects of his ſaid Majeſty of Great Britain, entering or being entered into any road or port under the obedience of the moſt Chriſtian King, and purpoſing to paſs from thence, ſhall be only obliged to ſhew unto the officers acting in the ports of the ſaid moſt Chriſtian King, or to the captains of the moſt Chriſtian King's ſhips, or private men of war, if any happen there to be, their paſſport, commonly called a ſea-brief; nor ſhall any money, or any thing elſe be exacted from them under that pretence: but if any ſhip, belonging to the ſubjects of his Majeſty of Great Britain, ſhall, in the open ſea, or elſewhere, out of the dominions of the moſt Chriſtian King, meet the ſhips of war of the moſt Chriſtian King, or private Men of war of his ſubjects, the ſaid ſhips of the ſaid moſt Chriſtian King ſhall keep at a diſtance, and only ſend out their boat; and it ſhall be lawful for them only, with two or three men, to go on board the ſhips and veſſels of the ſubjects of his Majeſty of Great Britain, that the paſſport, or ſea-brief, of the propriety thereof may be ſhewn to them by the captain or maſter of ſuch ſhip or veſſel, belonging to the ſubjects of his ſaid Majeſty of Great Britain; and the ſhip which ſhall ſhew the ſame, ſhall freely paſs: and it ſhall not be lawful to moleſt, ſearch, detain, or divert the ſaid ſhip from her intended voyage. And all the ſubjects of the moſt Chriſtian King ſhall enjoy, in all things, the ſame liberty and immunity, they, in like manner, ſhewing their paſſport or ſea-brief.

VI. But if any ſhip or veſſel belonging to the Engliſh, or other ſubjects of his Majeſty of Great Britain, ſhall be met by any man of war making into any port in enmity with the moſt Chriſtian King; or on the other ſide, if any ſhip belonging to the moſt Chriſtian King, or other ſubjects of the ſaid moſt Chriſtian King, ſhall be met in her way making into any port under the obedience of the enemies of his ſaid Majeſty of Great Britain, ſuch ſhip ſhall ſhew not only a paſſport or ſea-brief, wherewith ſhe is to be furniſhed, but alſo her cocquets, expreſſing the contents of the goods on board, given in the uſual form, by the officers of the cuſtoms in the port from whence ſhe came; whereby it may be known, whether ſhe is laden with any merchandiſes prohibited by the third article of this treaty.

VII. But if, by ſhewing the aboveſaid cocquets, expreſſing the contents of the goods on board, given in the uſual form by the officers of the cuſtoms in the port from whence ſhe came, concerning the ſhewing whereof it is above agreed, either party ſhall diſcover any kind of merchandiſes, which in the third article of this treaty are declared to be contraband or prohibited, conſigned to any port under the obedience of their enemies, it ſhall not be lawful to open the hatches of ſuch ſhip in which the ſame ſhall happen to be found, whether ſhe belongs to the ſubjects of his Majeſty of Great Britain, or of the moſt Chriſtian King; nor to unlock or break open the cheſts, mails, packs, or caſks in the ſame; nor to convey away any the leaſt part of the merchandiſes, before the whole be firſt landed in the preſence of the officers of the admiralty, and inventoried: neither ſhall it be any ways lawful to ſell, exchange, or otherwiſe to alienate the ſame, until ſuch prohibited goods are rightfully and lawfully proceeded againſt; and that the judges of the admiralty have, by their reſpective ſentences, confiſcated the ſame: provided always, that as well the ſhip itſelf, as the reſt of the commodities found in the ſame, which by this treaty are to be reputed free, ſhall not upon pretence of their being infected by ſuch prohibited goods, be detained, much leſs confiſcated for lawful prize, though if not the whole, but a part only of the lading conſiſts of contraband or prohibited commodities, and that the maſter of the ſhip ſhall be willing and ready to deliver them to the captor, who ſeiſed the ſame; in that caſe, the captor ſhall not compel the ſhip to go out of her courſe, to any port he thinks fit, but ſhall forthwith diſmiſs her, and upon no account hinder her from freely proſecuting her deſigned voyage.

VIII. 'Tis farther agreed, that whatſoever ſhall be found laden by the ſubjects of his Majeſty of Great Britain, upon any ſhip whatſoever belonging to the enemies of the moſt Chriſtian King, although the ſame be not of the quality of contraband goods, may be confiſcated: but, on the contrary, all that which ſhall be found in the ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of his Majeſty of Great Britain, ſhall be accounted clear and free, although the whole lading, or any part thereof, by juſt title of property, ſhall belong to the enemies of the moſt Chriſtian King; except contraband goods, which being intercepted, all things ſhall be done according to the meaning and direction of the precedent articles. And, by the ſame reaſon, whatſoever ſhall be found laden by the ſubjects of the moſt Chriſtian King, in any ſhip whatſoever belonging to the enemies of his Majeſty of Great Britain, although the ſame be not of the quality of contraband goods, may be confiſcated: but on the other ſide, all that which ſhall be found in the ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of the moſt Chriſtian King, ſhall be accounted clear and free, altho' the whole lading, or any part thereof, by juſt title of propriety, ſhall belong to the enemies of his Majeſty of Great Britain; except always contraband goods, which being intercepted, all things ſhall be done therein according to the meaning and direction of the precedent articles. And leſt any damage ſhould, by ſurpriſe, be done to the one party who is in peace, when the other party ſhall happen to be engaged in war, it is provided and agreed, that a ſhip belonging to the enemies of the one party, and laden with the goods of the ſubjects of the other party, ſhall not infect, or render the goods liable to confiſcation, in caſe ſuch ſhip were laden before the expiration of the terms and times hereafter mentioned, after the declaration and publication of any ſuch war, viz. If the goods were laden in any port or place, between, &c. within the ſpace of, &c. and between, &c. as in the foregoing treaty with Holland, ſo that it ſhall not be lawful to confiſcate the goods of the ſubjects of his Majeſty of Great Britain, taken or ſeiſed in any ſhip or veſſel whatſoever of any enemy of the moſt Chriſtian King, upon that pretence; but the ſame ſhall be without delay reſtored to the proprietors, unleſs they were laden after the expiration of the ſaid terms of time reſpectively; but ſo, that it may not be lawful for them afterwards to carry to enemies ports, the ſaid merchandiſes which are called contraband; and for the reaſon aforeſaid ſhall not be liable to confiſcation: neither, on the other ſide, ſhall it be lawful to confiſcate the goods of the ſubjects of the moſt Chriſtian King, taken or ſeiſed in any ſhip or veſſel whatſoever of an enemy of his Majeſty of Great Britain, upon that pretence; but the ſame ſhall be forthwith reſtored to the proprietors thereof, unleſs they were laden after the expiration of the ſaid terms of time reſpectively; but ſo, that it may not be lawful for them afterwards to carry to enemies ports, the ſaid merchandiſes which are called contraband; and for the reaſon aforeſaid ſhall not be liable to confiſcation.

IX.

IX. And the more to assure the subjects of his Majesty of Great Britain, and of the most Christian King, that no injury shall be offered to them by the ships of war, or private men of war, of either side, all the captains of the ships, as well of his Majesty of Great Britain, as of the most Christian King, and all their subjects who shall set out private men of war, and likewise their privileged companies, shall be enjoined not to do any injury or damage whatsoever to the other; which if they do, they shall be punished, and moreover be liable to satisfy all costs and damages, by restitution and reparation, upon pain and obligation of person and goods.

X. For this cause, all the commanders of private men of war shall from henceforth be obliged, before they receive their commissions, to enter before a competent judge good and sufficient security, by able and responsible men, who have no part or interest in such ship, in the sum of 1500 l. sterling, or 16,500 livres; and when they have above 150 men, then in the sum of 3000 l. sterling, &c. that they will give full satisfaction for any damages or injuries whatsoever, which they or their officers, or others in their service, shall commit in their courses at sea, contrary to this present treaty, or any other whatsoever between his Majesty of Great Britain and the said most Christian King, and upon the pain of revocation and annulling their said commissions; in which it shall be always inserted, that they have given such security as aforesaid: and likewise it is agreed, that the ship itself shall be also liable to make satisfaction for injuries and damages done by her.

XI. His Majesty of Great Britain, and the most Christian King, being desirous that the subjects of each other may be mutually treated in all countries under their obedience respectively, with the like kindness as their own subjects, will give all necessary and effectual orders, that judgments upon ships and merchandise taken at sea, be given according to the rule of justice and equity, by judges beyond all suspicion, and not any ways concerned in the cause under debate: and his Majesty of Great Britain, and the Most Christian King, will likewise give strict orders, that all sentences already given, and which shall hereafter be given, be according to the tenor thereof duly put in execution, and obtain their effect.

XII. And whensoever the ambassadors, or other public ministers of the King of Great Britain, residing in the court of the most Christian King, shall complain of the injustness of sentences which have been given concerning ships or merchandise taken at sea, and belonging to the subjects of the King of Great Britain; then the said most Christian King, on demand of the said ambassadors, or ministers of the King of Great Britain, shall cause the said sentences to be reviewed and examined in his privy council, and shall confirm or revoke the sentences so given; and likewise the said most Christian King shall take care that right be done to the party complaining, within the space of four months, to be accounted from the day of making such demand. In like manner, if the ambassadors, or other public ministers of the most Christian King, residing in the court of the King of Great Britain, shall complain of the injustness of sentences which have been given concerning ships or merchandise taken at sea, belonging to subjects of the most Christian King, the said King of Great Britain shall forthwith commissionate under his great seal, nine of his privy council, to adjudge such matters, and to confirm or revoke the sentences wheresoever given: and the said commissioners shall meet within the space of one month, from the day of delivering the complaint; and likewise the King of Great Britain shall take care, that right be done the party complaining, within the space of three months, to be computed from the first day of the meeting of the said commissioners.

XIII. A suit being commenced between the takers of prizes on the one part, and the claimers thereof on the other, and a sentence or decree being given for the party reclaiming, the said sentence or decree, upon security given, shall be put in execution, notwithstanding the appeal made by him that took the prize; which shall not be observed in case the sentence shall be given against the claimers.

XIV. And whereas the masters of merchant-ships, and likewise the mariners and passengers, do sometimes suffer many cruelties and barbarous usages, when they are brought under the power of ships which take prizes in time of war, the takers, in an inhuman manner, tormenting them, thereby to extort from them such confessions as they would have to be made; it is agreed, that both his Majesty of Great Britain, and the most Christian King, shall by the severest proclamations, or edicts, forbid all such heinous and inhuman offences; and as many as they shall by lawful proofs find guilty of such acts, they shall take care that they be punished with due and just punishments, and which may be a terror to others; and shall command, that all captains of ships, &c. who shall be proved to have committed such heinous practices, &c. shall be deprived of their offices; and every ship so brought up as prize, &c. shall be forthwith dismissed, &c.

XV. It is also agreed, that the like severity of punishment shall be inflicted upon those who shall take commissions from enemies, to seize the ships of either ally or party.

After this marine-treaty between Great Britain and France, there is none other wherein England is concerned, till the time of King James II. who, in the year 1685, renewed all former alliances with the Dutch, and particularly fix several treaties.

The treaty made at the general peace of Ryswick is the next that occurs; but it relates only to France and Holland, by which the French and Dutch may freely frequent with their ships and merchandises, the countries, lands, towns, ports, and places of each other, with equal privileges, and without paying any other or greater duties in each others countries, than the natural subjects of the country. As to the treaties with Spain, they are as follow.

The treaty of peace and friendship, between the crowns of Great Britain *and* Spain, *concluded at Madrid, the* $\frac{13}{23}$ *day of May, in the year of our Lord* 1667.

I. It is agreed and concluded, that, from this day forward, there shall be, between the two crowns of Great Britain and Spain, a general, good, sincere, true, firm, and perfect amity, confederation, and peace, which shall endure for ever, and be observed inviolably, as well by land as by sea and fresh waters; and also between the lands, countries, kingdoms, dominions, and territories, belonging unto, or under the obedience of either of them; and that their subjects, people, and inhabitants, respectively, of what condition, degree, or quality soever, from henceforth reciprocally, shall help, assist, and shew to one another all manner of love, good offices, and friendship.

II. That neither of the said Kings, nor their respective people, subjects or inhabitants within their dominions, upon any pretence, may, in public or secret, do or procure to be done, any thing against the other, in any place, by sea or land, nor in the ports or rivers of the one or the other, but shall treat one another with all love and friendship; and may by water and by land freely and securely pass into the confines, countries, lands, kingdoms, islands, dominions, cities, towns, villages, walled or without wall, fortified or unfortified, their havens and ports, where hitherto trade and commerce hath been accustomed, and there trade, buy, and sell, as well of and to the inhabitants of the respective places, as those of their own nation, or any other nation that shall be or come there.

III. That the said Kings of Great Britain and Spain shall take care that their respective people and subjects from henceforward do abstain from all force, violence, or wrong; and if any injury shall be done by either of the said Kings, or by the people or subjects of either of them, to the people or subjects of the other, against the articles of this alliance, or against common right, there shall not therefore be given letters of repriſal, marque,

or counter-marque, by any of the confederates, until ſuch time as juſtice is ſought and followed in the ordinary courſe of law. But if juſtice be denied or delayed, then the King whoſe people or inhabitants have received harm, ſhall aſk it of the other, by whom, as is ſaid, the juſtice ſhall have been denied or delayed, or of the commiſſioners that ſhall be by the one King or the other appointed to receive and hear ſuch demands, to the end that all ſuch differences may be compounded in friendſhip, or according to law. But if there ſhould be yet a delay, or juſtice ſhould not be done, nor ſatisfaction given within ſix months after having the ſame ſo demanded, then may be given letters of repriſal, marque, or counter-marque.

IV. That between the King of Great Britain and the King of Spain, and their reſpective people, ſubjects, and inhabitant, as well upon ſea as upon land and freſh waters, in all and every their kingdoms, lands, countries, dominions, confines, territories, provinces, iſlands, plantations, cities, villages, towns, ports, rivers, creeks, bays, ſtreights, and currents, where hitherto trade and commerce hath been accuſtomed, there ſhall be free trade and commerce, in ſuch way and manner, that without ſafe conduct, and without general or particular licence, the people and ſubjects of each other may freely, as well by land as by ſea and freſh waters, navigate, and go into their ſaid countries, kingdoms, dominions, and all the cities, ports, currents, bays, diſtricts, and other places thereof; and may enter into any port with their ſhips laden or empty, carriage or carriages wherein to bring their merchandiſe, and there buy and ſell what and how much they pleaſe, and alſo at juſt and reaſonable rates provide themſelves with proviſions, and other neceſſary things for their ſubſiſtence and voyage; and alſo may repair their ſhips and carriages, and from thence again freely depart with their ſhips, carriages, goods, merchandiſe, and eſtate, and return to their own countries, or to ſuch other places as they ſhall think fit, without any moleſtation or impediment, ſo that they pay the duties and cuſtoms which ſhall be due, and ſaving to either ſide the laws and ordinances of their country.

V. *Item*, It is likewiſe agreed, that for the merchandiſes which the ſubjects of the King of Great Britain ſhall buy in Spain, or other the kingdoms or dominions of the King of Spain, and ſhall carry in their own ſhips, or in ſhips hired or lent unto them, no new cuſtoms, toll, tenths, ſubſidies, or other rights or duties whatſoever, ſhall be taken or increaſed, other than thoſe which in the like caſe the natives themſelves, and all other ſtrangers, are obliged to pay; and the ſubjects aforeſaid buying, ſelling, and contracting for their merchandiſes, as well in reſpect of the prices, as of all duties to be paid, ſhall enjoy the ſame privileges which are allowed to the natural ſubjects of Spain, and may buy and lade their ſhips with ſuch goods and merchandiſes; which ſaid ſhips being laden, and cuſtoms paid for the goods, ſhall not be detained in port upon any pretence whatſoever; nor ſhall the laders, merchants, or factors, who bought and loaded the goods aforeſaid, be queſtioned after the departure of the ſaid ſhips, for any matter or thing whatſoever concerning the ſame.

VI. And to the end that the officers and miniſters of all cities, towns, and villages, belonging to either, may neither demand nor take from the reſpective merchants and people, greater taxes, duties, ſtipends, recompences, gifts, or any other charges, than what ought to be taken by virtue of this treaty; and that the ſaid merchants and people may know and underſtand with certainty what is ordained in all things touching this, it is agreed and concluded, that tables and liſts ſhall be put up at the doors of the cuſtomhouſes and regiſtries of all the cities, villages, and towns of or appertaining to one or the other King where ſuch rights, and exciſes, or cuſtoms are uſually paid; in which, how much, and of what quality ſuch rights, cuſtoms, ſubſidies, and payments, either to the Kings, or any the aforeſaid officers, are allowed, ſhall be put down in writing, declaring as well the ſpecies of what is imported, as what is carried out. And if any officer, or any other in his name, upon any pretence whatſoever, in public or ſecret, directly or indirectly, ſhall aſk or receive of any merchant, or other perſon reſpectively, any ſum of money, or other thing, by the name of right, due, ſtipend, allowance, or recompence, though it be by the way of voluntary donative, more or otherwiſe than aforeſaid, the ſaid officer, or his deputy, being in ſuch manner guilty, and convict before a competent judge in the country where the crime is committed, ſhall be put in priſon for three months, and ſhall pay thrice the value of the thing ſo received; of which the half ſhall be for the King of the country where the crime is committed, and the other half for the denunciator; for the which he may ſue his right before any competent judge of the country where it ſhall happen.

VII. That it ſhall be lawful for the ſubjects of the King of Great Britain to bring out, and carry into Spain, and all or any lands and dominions of the King of Spain, where heretofore they have uſed trade and commerce, and trade there with all kind of merchandiſe, cloths, manufactures, and things of the kingdom of Great Britain, and the manufactures, goods, fruits, and kinds of the iſlands, towns, and plantations, to him appertaining, and what ſhall have been bought by Engliſh factors on this ſide, or farther on the other ſide of the cape of Buena Eſperança, without being enforced to declare to whom, or for what price they ſell their ſaid merchandiſe and proviſions, or being moleſted for the errors of the maſters of the ſhips, or others, in the entry of the goods; and at their pleaſure to return again out of the dominions of the King of Spain, with all or any goods, eſtates, and merchandiſe, to any of the territories, iſlands, dominions, and countries of the King of England, or to any other place, paying the rights and tributes mentioned in the antecedent chapters; and the reſt of all their lading which is not brought to land, they may detain, keep, and carry away in their ſaid ſhip or ſhips, veſſel or veſſels again, without paying any right or impoſition whatſoever for it, as if therewith they had never been within any bay or port of the Catholic King. And all the goods, eſtates, merchandiſe, ſhips, or other veſſels, with any things introduced into the dominions or places of the crown of Great Britain as prizes, and judged for ſuch in the ſaid dominions and places, ſhall be taken for goods and merchandiſe of Great Britain, comprehended ſo by the intention of this article.

VIII. That the ſubjects and vaſſals of the moſt ſerene King of Great Britain may bring and carry to all and ſingular the dominions of the King of Spain, any fruits and commodities of the Eaſt Indies; it appearing by teſtimony of the deputies of the Eaſt India company in London, that they are of, or have come from the Engliſh conqueſts, plantations, or factories, with like privilege, and according to what is allowed to the ſubjects of the United Provinces, by the royal cedulas of Contravando, bearing date the 27th of June and the 3d of July 1663, and publiſhed on the 30th of June and 4th of July the ſame year. And for what may concern both the Indies, and any other parts whatſoever, the crown of Spain doth grant to the King of Great Britain, and his ſubjects, all that is granted to the united ſtates of the Low Countries and their ſubjects, in their treaty of Munſter 1648, point for point, in as full and ample manner as if the ſame were herein particularly inſerted, the ſame rules being to be obſerved whereunto the ſubjects of the ſaid united ſtates are obliged, and mutual offices of friendſhip to be performed from one ſide to the other.

IX. That the ſubjects of the King of Great Britain, trading, buying, and ſelling in any of the kingdoms, governments, iſlands, ports, or territories of the ſaid King of Spain, ſhall have, uſe, and enjoy all the privileges and immunities which the ſaid King hath granted and confirmed to the Engliſh merchants that reſide in Andaluſia, by his royal cedulas or orders, dated the 19th day of March, the 26th day of June, and the 9th day of November 1645; his Catholic Majeſty, by theſe preſents, reconfirming the ſame as a part of this treaty between the two crowns. And to the end that it be maniſeſt to all, it is conſented, that the ſaid ſchedules, as to the whole ſubſtance thereof, be paſſed and transferred to the body of the preſent articles, in the name and fa-

vour of all and ſingular the ſubjects of the King of Great Britain, reſiding and trading in any places whatſoever within his Catholic Majeſty's dominions.

X. That the ſhips, or any other veſſels that ſhall belong to the King of Great Britain, or his ſubjects, navigating into the King of Spain's dominions, or any of his ports, ſhall not be viſited by the judges of counterband, or by any other officer or perſon, by his own, or by any other authority; nor ſhall any ſoldiers, armed men, or other officers or perſons be put on board any of the ſaid ſhips or veſſels; nor ſhall the officers of the cuſtomhouſe of the one or the other party, ſearch in any veſſels or ſhips belonging to the people of the one or the other, which ſhall enter into their regions, dominions, or reſpective ports, until their ſaid ſhips or veſſels are unladen, or until they have carried on ſhore all the lading and merchandiſe which they declare they reſolve to diſembark in the ſaid port; nor ſhall the captain, maſter, or any other of the company of the ſaid ſhips be impriſoned, or they or their boats detained on ſhore; but, in the interim, officers of the cuſtomhouſe may be put on board the ſaid veſſels or ſhips, ſo they exceed not the number of three for each ſhip, to ſee that no goods or merchandiſe be landed out of the ſaid ſhips or veſſels, without paying ſuch duties as by theſe articles either party is obliged to pay; which ſaid officers are to be without any charge to the ſhip or ſhips, veſſel or veſſels, their commanders, mariners, company, merchants, factors, or proprietors. And when it happens that the maſter or owner of any ſhip ſhall declare the whole lading of his ſaid ſhip is to be diſcharged in any port, the entry of the ſaid lading ſhall be made in the cuſtomhouſe, after the uſual manner; and if, after the entry made, any other goods be found in the ſaid ſhip or ſhips, more than what are contained in the ſaid entry, eight working-days ſhall be allowed them on which they may work, which ſhall be reckoned from the day they began to unlade, to the end that the concealed goods may be entered, and the confiſcation of them prevented: and in caſe that in the time limited, the entry or manifeſtation of them ſhall not have been made, then ſuch particular goods only, which ſhall be found as aforeſaid, though the unlading be not finiſhed, ſhall be confiſcated, and not any other; nor ſhall other trouble be given, or puniſhment inflicted, on the merchant or owner of the ſhip; and when the ſhips or veſſels are reladen, they may have freedom to go out again.

XI. That the ſhip or ſhips appertaining to the one or the other King, or to their reſpective people and ſubjects, that ſhall enter into any ports, lands, or dominions of the one or the other, and ſhall diſcharge any part of their goods and merchandiſes in any port or haven, being conſigned with the reſt to other places within or without the ſaid dominions, ſhall not be obliged to regiſter or pay the rights of any other goods or merchandiſe, than of that which they ſhall unlade in the ſaid port or haven, nor be conſtrained to give bond for the goods they ſhall carry to other places, nor any other ſecurity, if it be not in caſe of felony, debt, treaſon, or other capital crime.

XII. Whereas the one moiety of the cuſtom of all foreign goods and merchandiſes imported into England, is allowed and returned back to the importer, if the ſaid goods be exported out of the ſaid kingdom within twelve months after the firſt landing, upon oath made that they are the ſame goods which paid cuſtom inwards; and that if they be not reſhipped within the ſaid twelve months, yet they may at all times be exported without paying any cuſtom or duty outwards; it is therefore agreed, That if any the ſubjects of the King of Great Britain ſhall hereafter land any goods or merchandiſe, of what growth or nature ſoever they be, in any of the ports of his Catholic Majeſty, and having entered them, and paid the cuſtom which by this treaty ought to be paid, and ſhall afterwards deſire to tranſport them, or any part of them, to any other place whatſoever, for a better market, it ſhall and may be lawful for him or them ſo to do freely, without paying, or being demanded, any other cuſtom or duty at all for the ſame; he or they making oath, if required thereunto, that they are the ſame goods for which cuſtom was paid at the landing: and in caſe that the ſubjects, people, and inhabitants of the dominions of either part ſhall unlade, or have in any city, town, or village reſpectively, any goods, merchandiſe, fruits, or eſtates, and have paid the cuſtoms due, according to what hath been declared; and after that, not being able to put them off, ſhall reſolve to remit them to ſome other city, town, or village of the ſaid dominions, they may not only do it without difficulty or impediment, and without paying other rights than what were due at their entry; but likewiſe the cuſtom or rights ſhall not be paid again in any other part of the ſaid dominions, bringing certificates from the officers of the cuſtomhouſe, that they were paid before in the due form. And the chief farmers and commiſſioners of the King of Spain's rents in all places, or ſome other officer or officers to be appointed for that purpoſe, ſhall at all times permit and ſuffer the tranſportation of all ſuch goods and merchandiſes from place to place, and give ſufficient certificate to the owners thereof, or their aſſigns, of their having paid their cuſtom at their firſt landing, whereby they may be carried to, and landed at any other port or place of the ſaid juriſdiction, free from all duties or impediments whatſoever, as aforeſaid, ſaving always the right of any third perſon.

XIII. That it ſhall be lawful for the ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of the one or the other King, to anchor in the roads or bays of either, without being conſtrained to enter into port; and in caſe they be neceſſitated to enter thereinto, either by diſtreſs of weather, fear of enemies, pirates, or any other accident, in caſe the ſaid ſhips be not bound to an enemy's port, and carrying thither contraband goods, whereof, without ſome clear proof, they ſhall not be queſtioned, it ſhall be lawful for the ſaid ſubjects to return to ſea freely when they pleaſe, with their ſhips and goods, ſo as they do not break bulk, or expoſe any thing to ſale; and that when they caſt anchor, or enter the ports aforeſaid, they be not moleſted or viſited; and it ſhall ſuffice, that in this caſe they ſhew their paſſports, or ſea-papers; which being ſeen by the reſpective officers of either King, the ſaid ſhips ſhall return freely to ſea without any moleſtation.

XIV. And if any ſhip or ſhips belonging to the ſubjects and merchants of the one or the other, entering into bays, or in the open ſea, ſhall be encountered by the ſhips of the ſaid Kings, or of privateers their ſubjects; the ſaid ſhips, to prevent all diſorders, ſhall not come within cannon-ſhot; but ſhall ſend their long boat, or pinnace, to the merchant-ſhip, and only two or three men on board; to whom the maſter or owner ſhall ſhew his paſſports and ſea letters, according to the form which ſhall be inſerted at the end of this treaty; whereby not only the ſhip's lading, but the place to which ſhe belongs, and as well the maſter and owner's name, as the name of the ſhip, may appear; by which means the quality of the ſhip, and her maſter or owner, will be ſufficiently known, as alſo the commodities ſhe carries, whether they be contraband or not; to the which paſſports and ſea-letters entire faith and credit ſhall be given, ſo much the rather, for that as well on the part of the King of England, as of the King of Spain, ſome counter-ſigns ſhall be given, if it ſhall be found neceſſary, whereby their authenticalneſs may the better appear, and that they may not be in any wiſe falſified.

XV. If any prohibited merchandiſe or goods ſhall be exported from the kingdoms, dominions, and territories of either of the ſaid Kings, by the reſpective people or ſubjects of the one or the other; in ſuch caſe the prohibited goods ſhall be only confiſcated, and not the other goods; neither ſhall the delinquent incur any other puniſhment, except the ſaid delinquent ſhall carry out from the reſpective kingdoms or dominions of the King of Great Britain, the proper coin, wool, or fullers earth, of the ſaid kingdoms; or ſhall carry out of the reſpective kingdoms or dominions of the ſaid King of Spain, any gold or ſilver, wrought or unwrought; in either of which caſes the laws of the reſpective countries are to take place.

XVI. That it ſhall be lawful for the people and ſubjects of both Kings to have acceſs to the reſpective ports of the one and the other, and there remain, and depart again with

with the ſame freedom, not only with their ſhips, and other veſſels for trade and commerce, but alſo with their other ſhips fitted for war, armed, and diſpoſed to reſiſt and engage the enemy, and arriving by ſtreſs of weather to repair their ſhips, or furniſh themſelves with proviſions; ſo that entering willingly, they be not ſo numerous, that they give juſt occaſion of ſuſpicion; to which end they are not to exceed the number of eight, not continue in their havens, nor about their ports, longer time than they ſhall have juſt cauſe, for the repair of their ſhips, to take in proviſions, or other neceſſary things, much leſs be the occaſion of interrupting the free commerce, and coming in of other ſhips, of nations in amity with either King; and when an unuſual number of men of war by accident ſhall come unto any port, it ſhall not be lawful for them to come into the ſaid ports or havens, not having firſt obtained permiſſion of the King unto whom the ſaid ports do belong, or the governors of the ſaid ports, if they be not forced thereinto by ſtreſs of weather, or other neceſſity, to avoid the danger of the ſea; and in ſuch caſe they ſhall preſently acquaint the governor or chief magiſtrate of the place, with the cauſe of their coming; nor ſhall they remain there any longer time than the ſaid governor or magiſtrate ſhall think convenient, or do any act of hoſtility in ſuch ports, that may prove of prejudice to the one or the other of the ſaid Kings.

XVII. That neither the ſaid King of Great Britain, nor the King of Spain, by any mandate general or particular, nor for any cauſe whatſoever, ſhall embark or detain, hinder, or take, for his reſpective ſervice, any merchant, maſter of a ſhip, pilot, or mariner, their ſhips, merchandiſe, cloaths, or other goods belonging unto the one or the other, in their ports or waters, if it be not that either of the ſaid Kings, or the perſons to whom the ſhips belong, be firſt advertiſed thereof, and do agree thereunto: provided, that this ſhall not be conſtrued to hinder or interrupt the ordinary courſe of juſtice and law in either country.

XVIII. That the merchants and ſubjects of the one and the other King, their factors and ſervants, as alſo their ſhips, maſters, or mariners, may, as well going as coming, upon ſea and other waters, as in the havens and ports of the one and the other reſpectively, carry and uſe all kind of arms, defenſive and offenſive, without being obliged to regiſter them; as alſo upon land, to carry and uſe them for their defence, according to the cuſtom of the place.

XIX. That the captains, officers, and mariners of the ſhips belonging to the people and ſubjects of either party, may not commence an action, nor hinder or bring trouble upon their own ſhips, their captains, officers, or mariners, in the reſpective kingdoms, dominions, lands, countries, or places, of the other, for their wages or ſalaries, or under any other pretence. Nor may they put themſelves, or be received, by what pretext or colour ſoever, into the ſervice or protection of the King of England, or King of Spain, or their arms: but if any controverſy happen between merchants and maſters of ſhips, or between maſters and mariners, the compoſing thereof ſhall be left to the conſul of the nation; but after ſuch manner, as he who ſhall not ſubmit to the arbitrement may appeal to the ordinary juſtice of the place where he is ſubject.

XX. The ſubjects and inhabitants of the kingdoms and dominions of the moſt ſerene King of Great Britain and Spain reſpectively, ſhall with all ſecurity and liberty ſail to, and traffic in all the kingdoms, eſtates, or countries, which are or ſhall be in peace, amity, or neutrality with the one or the other.

XXI. And they ſhall not be diſturbed or diſquieted in that liberty, by the ſhips or ſubjects of the ſaid Kings reſpectively, by reaſon of the hoſtilities which are or may be hereafter between either of the ſaid Kings, and the aforeſaid kingdoms, countries, and ſtates, or any of them, which ſhall be in friendſhip or neutrality with the other.

XXII. And in caſe that within the ſaid ſhips reſpectively, be found, by the aboveſaid means, any merchandiſe hereunder mentioned, being of contraband and prohibited, they ſhall be taken out and confiſcated, before the admiralty, or other competent judges; but for this reaſon the ſhip, and the other free and allowed commodities which ſhall be found therein, ſhall in no wiſe be either ſeized or confiſcated.

XXIII. Moreover, for better prevention of the differences which might ariſe touching the meaning of forbidden merchandiſe, and of contraband; it is declared and agreed, that under this name ſhall be comprehended all fire-arms, as ordnance, muſkets, mortar-pieces, petards, bombs, granadoes, fire-crancels, fire-balls, muſket-reſts, bandeliers, gun-powder, match, ſaltpetre, and bullets: likewiſe under the name of forbidden merchandiſe, are underſtood all other arms, as pikes, ſwords, pots, helmets, backs, and breaſts, halberds, javelins, and ſuch like armour: under this name is likewiſe forbidden the tranſportation of ſoldiers, horſes, their harneſſes, caſes of piſtols, holſters, belts, and other furniture, formed and compoſed for the uſe of war.

XXIV. Likewiſe, to prevent all manner of diſpute and contention, it is agreed, that under the name of forbidden merchandiſe, and of contraband, ſhall not be comprehended wheat, rye, barley, or other grains, or pulſe, ſalt, wine, oil, and generally whatſoever belongs to the ſuſtaining and nouriſhing of life; but they ſhall remain free, as likewiſe all other merchandiſes not comprehended in the preceding articles; and the tranſportation of them ſhall be free and permitted, although it be to the towns and places of enemies, unleſs ſuch towns and places be beſieged, and blocked up, or ſurrounded.

XXV. It is alſo agreed, that whatſoever ſhall be found laden by the ſubjects or inhabitants of the kingdoms and dominions of either of the ſaid Kings of England and Spain aboard the ſhips of the enemies of the other, though it be not forbidden merchandiſe, ſhall be confiſcated, with all things elſe which ſhall be found within the ſaid ſhips, without exception or reſerve.

XXVI. That the conſul which hereafter ſhall reſide in any of the dominions of the King of Spain, for the help and protection of the ſubjects of the King of Great Britain, ſhall be named by the King of Great Britain; and he ſo named ſhall have and exerciſe the ſame power and authority in the execution of his charge, as any other conſul hath formerly had in the dominions of the ſaid King of Spain; and in like manner the Spaniſh conſul reſiding in England, ſhall enjoy as much authority as the conſuls of any other nation have hitherto enjoyed in that kingdom.

XXVII. And that the laws of commerce that are obtained by peace, may not remain unfruitful, as would fall out if the ſubjects of the King of Great Britain, when they go to, come from, or remain in the dominions or lordſhips of the King of Spain, by reaſon of their commerce or other buſineſs, ſhould be moleſted for caſe of conſcience; therefore, that the commerce be ſecure, and without danger, as well upon land as ſea, the ſaid King of Spain ſhall provide, that the ſubjects of the ſaid King of Great Britain ſhall not be aggrieved contrary to the laws of commerce, and that none of them ſhall be moleſted or diſturbed for their conſcience, ſo long as they give no public ſcandal or offence: and the ſaid King of Great Britain ſhall likewiſe provide, for the ſame reaſons, that the ſubjects of the King of Spain ſhall not be moleſted or diſturbed for their conſcience againſt the laws of commerce, ſo long as they give no public ſcandal or offence.

XXVIII. That the people and ſubjects reſpectively of one kingdom, in the dominions, territories, regions, or colonies of the other, ſhall not be compelled to ſell their merchandiſe for braſs-metal coin, or exchange them for other coin or things, againſt their will; or having ſold them, to receive the payment in other ſpecies than what they bargained for, notwithſtanding any law or other cuſtom contrary to this article.

XXIX. That the merchants of both nations, and their factors, ſervants, and families, commiſſioners, or others by them employed; as alſo maſters of ſhips, pilots, and mariners, may remain freely and ſecurely in the ſaid dominions, kingdoms, and territories, of either of the ſaid Kings,

Kings, and alſo in their ports and rivers; and the people and ſubjects of the one King may have, and with all freedom and ſecurity enjoy, in all the lands and dominions whatſoever of the other, their proper houſes to live in, their warehouſes and magazines for their goods and merchandiſe, which they ſhall poſſeſs during the time for which they ſhall have taken, hired, and agreed for them, without any impediment.

XXX. The inhabitants and ſubjects of the ſaid confederate Kings, in all the lands and places under the obedience of the one or the other, ſhall uſe and employ thoſe advocates, proctors, ſcriveners, agents, and ſolicitors, whom they think fit; the which ſhall be left to their choice, and conſented to by the ordinary judges, as often as there ſhall be occaſion; and they ſhall not be conſtrained to ſhew their books and papers of accompt to any perſon, if it be not to give evidence for the avoiding law-ſuits and controverſies; neither ſhall they be embarked, detained, or taken out of their hands, upon any pretence whatſoever. And it ſhall be permitted to the people and ſubjects of either King, in the reſpective places where they ſhall reſide, to keep their books of accompt, traffic, and correſpondence in what language they pleaſe, in Engliſh, Spaniſh, Dutch, or any other; the which ſhall not be moleſted, or ſubject to any inquiſition. And whatſoever elſe hath been granted by either party, concerning this particular, to any other nation, ſhall be underſtood likewiſe to be granted here.

XXXI. That in caſe the eſtate of any perſon or perſons ſhall be ſequeſtered or ſeized on by any court of juſtice or tribunal whatſoever, within the kingdoms and dominions of either party, and any eſtate or debt happen to lie in the hands of the delinquents belonging *bona fide* to the people and ſubjects of the other, the ſaid eſtate or debts ſhall not be confiſcated by any of the ſaid tribunals, but ſhall be reſtored to the true owners *in ſpecie*, if they yet remain, and if not, he value of them, according to the contract and agreement which was made between the parties, ſhall be reſtored within three months after the ſaid ſequeſtration.

XXXII. That the goods and eſtates of the people and ſubjects of the one King, that ſhall die in the countries, lands, and dominions of the other, ſhall be preſerved for the lawful heirs and ſucceſſors of the deceaſed; the right of any third perſon always reſerved.

XXXIII. That the goods and eſtates of the ſubjects of the King of Great Britain, that ſhall die without making a will in the dominions of the King of Spain, ſhall be put into inventory, with their papers, writings, and books of accompt, by the conſul or other public miniſter of the King of Great Britain, and depoſited in the hands of two or three merchants, that ſhall be named by the ſaid conſul or public miniſter, to be kept for the proprietors and creditors; and neither the cruzada, nor any other judicatory whatſoever, ſhall intermeddle therein; which alſo in the like caſe ſhall be obſerved in England towards the ſubjects of the King of Spain.

XXXIV. That a decent and convenient burial-place ſhall be granted and appointed to bury the bodies of the ſubjects of the King of Great Britain, who ſhall die within the dominions of the King of Spain.

XXXV. If it ſhall happen hereafter, that any difference fall out between the King of Great Britain and the King of Spain, whereby the mutual commerce and good correſpondence may be endangered, their reſpective ſubjects and people of each party ſhall have notice thereof given them in time; that is to ſay, the ſpace of ſix months, to tranſport their merchandiſe and effects, without giving them in that time any moleſtation or trouble, or retaining or embarking their goods or perſons.

XXXVI. All goods and rights concealed or embarked, moveables, immoveables, rents, deeds, debts, credits, and the like, which have not, with a formal notice of the cauſe, and by a legal condemnation, according to the ordinary juſtice, been brought into the royal exchequer at the time of concluding this treaty, ſhall remain at the full and free diſpoſal of the proprietors, their heirs, or of thoſe who ſhall have their right, with all the fruits, rents, and emoluments thereof; and neither thoſe who have concealed the ſaid goods, nor their heirs, ſhall be moleſted for this cauſe by the exchequers and executor reſpectively; but the proprietors, their heirs, or thoſe who ſhall have their right, ſhall have for the ſaid goods and rights their action at law, as for their own proper goods and eſtate.

XXXVII. It is agreed and concluded, that the people and ſubjects of the King of Great Britain, and of the King of Spain, ſhall have and enjoy in the reſpective lands, ſeas, ports, havens, roads, and territories, of the one or the other, and in all places whatſoever, the ſame privileges, ſecurities, liberties, and immunities, whether they concern their perſons or trade, with all the beneficial clauſes and circumſtances which have been granted, or ſhall be hereafter granted by either of the ſaid Kings, to the moſt Chriſtian King, the States-General of the United Provinces, the hanſe-towns, or any other kingdom or ſtate whatſoever, in as full, ample, and beneficial manner, as if the ſame were particularly mentioned and inſerted in this treaty.

XXXVIII. In caſe any difference or diſpute ſhall happen on either ſide concerning theſe articles of trade and commerce, by either the officers of the admiralty, or other perſon whatſoever, in the one or the other kingdom; the complaint being preſented by the party concerned to their Majeſties, or to any of their council, their ſaid Majeſties ſhall cauſe the damages forthwith to be repaired, and all things, as they are above agreed, to be duly executed: and in caſe that in progreſs of time any frauds or inconveniencies be diſcovered in the navigation and commerce between both kingdoms, againſt which ſufficient prevention hath not been made in theſe articles, other proviſions may be hereafter mutually agreed on, as ſhall be judged convenient; the preſent treaty remaining ſtill in full force and vigour.

A treaty for compoſing of differences, reſtraining of depredations, and eſtabliſhing of peace, in America, between the crowns of Great Britain *and* Spain, *concluded at Madrid, the* $\frac{8}{18}$*th day of July in the year of the Lord* 1670.

Whereas, for many years paſt, the good underſtanding and correſpondence between the Engliſh and Spaniſh nations having been diſturbed in America, it pleaſed the moſt ſerene and powerful Prince Charles, King of Great Britain, &c. in order to the reſtoring and regulating the ſame for the future, to ſend into Spain his envoy-extraordinary, Sir William Godolphin, knight, with full authority and power to make any treaty convenient and proper for that end: and likewiſe the moſt ſerene and powerful Prince Charles, King of Spain, &c. and the Queen Regent Maria-Anna, &c. for the carrying on a work of ſo much piety and public good, deputed on their part the Earl of Penaranda, counſellor of ſtate, and preſident of the Indies, to confer, treat, and conclude thereupon with the ſaid Sir William Godolphin. At length they mutually reſolved and agreed upon the articles of the following treaty, in virtue of their ſeveral commiſſions.

I. It is agreed between the above mentioned plenipotentiaries, Sir William Godolphin, and the Earl of Penaranda, in the names of the moſt ſerene Kings reſpectively, their maſters, that the articles of peace and alliance made between the crowns of Great Britain and Spain, in Madrid, on the $\frac{13}{23}$ of May 1667, or any clauſe thereof, ſhall in no manner be deemed or underſtood to be taken away or abrogated by this preſent treaty; but that the ſame ſhall remain perpetually in their ancient force, ſtability, and vigour, ſo far forth as they are not contrary or repugnant to this preſent convention and articles, or to any thing therein contained.

II. That there be an univerſal peace, true and ſincere amity, in America, as in the other parts of the world, between the moſt ſerene Kings of Great Britain and Spain, their heirs and ſucceſſors, and between the kingdoms, ſtates, plantations, colonies, forts, cities, iſlands, and dominions, without any diſtinction of place belonging unto either of them, and between the people and inhabitants under their reſpective obedience, which ſhall endure from this day for ever, and be obſerved inviolably, as well by land as by ſea and freſh waters, ſo as to promote

each the welfare and advantage of the other, and favour and aſſiſt one another with mutual love; and that every where, as well in thoſe remote countries as in theſe which are nearer, the faithful offices of good neighbourhood and friendſhip may be exerciſed and increaſe between them.

III. Alſo, that, for the time to come, all enmities, hoſtilities, and diſcords, between the ſaid Kings, their ſubjects and inhabitants, ceaſe and be aboliſhed, and that both parties do altogether forbear and abſtain from all plundering, depredation, injuries, and infeſtation whatſoever, as well by land as by ſea, and in freſh waters every where.

IV. The ſaid moſt ſerene Kings ſhall take care that their ſubjects do accordingly abſtain from all force and wrong-doing; and they ſhall revoke all commiſſions and letters of repriſal and mart, or otherwiſe containing licence ſoever to take prizes of what condition or kind, being to the prejudice of one or other of the ſaid Kings, or of their ſubjects, whether the ſame have been given or granted by them unto ſubjects or inhabitants, or unto ſtrangers, and ſhall declare the ſame to be void, and of no force, as by this treaty of peace they are declared ſo to be; and whoſoever ſhall do any thing to the contrary, he ſhall be puniſhed not only criminally according to the merit of his offence, but ſhall alſo be compelled to make reſtitution and ſatisfaction for the loſſes to the parties damnified requiring the ſame.

V. And furthermore, the ſaid Kings ſhall denounce, as by the tenor of theſe preſents every of them hath and doth denounce, whatſoever league, confederation, capitulation, and intelligence, made by what manner ſoever in the prejudice of the one or the other, which doth or may repugn againſt this peace and concord, and all and ſingular the contents thereof; all which, and every of them, ſo far as they do concern the effect aforeſaid, they ſhall annul and make void, and declare to be of no force or moment.

VI. The priſoners of both ſides, one and all, of what degree or condition ſoever, detained by reaſon of any hoſtilities hitherto committed in America, ſhall be forthwith ſet at liberty without ranſom, or any other price of their freedom.

VII. All offences, damages, loſſes, or injuries, which the nations and people of Great Britain and Spain have at any time heretofore, upon what cauſe or pretext ſoever, ſuffered by each other in America, ſhall be expunged out of remembrance, and buried in oblivion, as if no ſuch thing had ever paſt.

Moreover, it is agreed, that the moſt ſerene King of Great Britain, his heirs and ſucceſſors, ſhall have, hold, keep, and enjoy for ever, with plenary right or ſovereignty, dominion, poſſeſſion, and propriety, all thoſe lands, regions, iſlands, colonies and places whatſoever, being or ſituated in the Weſt Indies, or in any part of America, which the ſaid King of Great Britain and his ſubjects do at preſent hold and poſſeſs; ſo as that in regard thereof, or upon any colour or pretence whatſoever, nothing more may or ought to be urged, nor any queſtion or controverſy be ever moved concerning the ſame hereafter.

VIII. The ſubjects and inhabitants, merchants, captains, maſters of ſhips, mariners of the kingdoms, provinces, and dominions of each confederate reſpectively, ſhall abſtain and forbear to ſail and trade in the ports and havens which have fortifications, caſtles, magazines, or warehouſes, and in all other places whatſoever, poſſeſſed by the other party in the Weſt Indies; to wit, the ſubjects of the King of Great Britain, ſhall not ſail unto and trade in the havens and places which the Catholic King holdeth in the ſaid Indies; nor, in like manner, ſhall the ſubjects of the King of Spain ſail unto, or trade in thoſe places which are poſſeſſed there by the King of Great Britain.

IX. But if at any time hereafter either King ſhall think fit to grant unto the ſubjects of the other any general or particular licence or privileges of navigating unto and trading in any places under his obedience, who ſhall grant the ſame, the ſaid navigation and trade ſhall be exerciſed and maintained, according to the form, tenor, and effect of the ſaid permiſſions or privileges to be allowed and given; for the ſecurity, warrant, and authority whereof, this preſent treaty, and the ratification thereof, ſhall ſerve.

X. It is alſo agreed, that in caſe the ſubjects and inhabitants of either of the confederates, with their ſhipping, whether public and of war, or private and of merchants, be forced at any time, by ſtreſs of weather, purſuit of pirates and enemies, or other inconvenience whatſoever, for the ſeeking of ſhelter and harbour, to retreat and enter into any of the rivers, creeks, bays, havens, roads, ſhores, and ports belonging to the other in America, they ſhall be received and treated there with all humanity and kindneſs, and enjoy all friendly protection and help. And it ſhall be lawful for them to refreſh and provide themſelves at reaſonable and the uſual rates, with victuals, and all things needful, either for the ſuſtenance of their perſons, or reparation of their ſhips, and conveniency of their voyage; and they ſhall in no manner be detained or hindered from returning out of the ſaid port or roads, but ſhall remove and depart, when and whither they pleaſe, without any let or impediment.

XI. Likewiſe, if either ſhips belonging to either confederate, their people and ſubjects ſhall, within the coaſts or dominions of the other, ſtick upon the ſands, or be wrecked, or ſuffer any damage, the perſons ſhip-wrecked and caſt on the ſhore ſhall in no ſort be kept priſoners; but, on the contrary, all friendly aſſiſtance and relief ſhall be adminiſtered to their diſtreſs, and letters of ſafe-conduct given them for their free and quiet paſſage thence, and the return of every one to his own country.

XII. But when it ſhall happen, that the ſhips of either, as is above mentioned, through the danger of the ſea, or other urgent cauſe, be driven into the ports and havens of the other, if they be three or four together, and may give juſt ground of ſuſpicion, they ſhall immediately, upon their arrival, acquaint the governor or chief magiſtrate of the place, with the cauſe of their coming, and ſhall ſtay no longer than the ſaid governor or chief magiſtrate will permit, and ſhall be requiſite for the furniſhing themſelves with the victuals and reparation of their ſhips. And they ſhall always take care not to carry out of their ſhips any goods or packs, expoſing them to ſale; neither ſhall they receive any merchandiſe on board, nor do any thing contrary to this treaty.

XIII. Both parties ſhall truly and firmly obſerve and execute this preſent treaty, and all and every the matters therein contained, and effectually cauſe the ſame to be obſerved and performed by the ſubjects and inhabitants of either nation.

XIV. No private injury ſhall in any ſort weaken this treaty, nor beget hatred or diſſenſions between the aforeſaid nations; but every one ſhall anſwer for his own proper fact, and be proſecuted thereupon; neither ſhall one man ſatisfy for the offence of another by repriſals, or other ſuch like odious proceedings, unleſs juſtice be denied, or unreaſonably be delayed; in which caſe it ſhall be lawful for that King, whoſe ſubject hath ſuffered the loſs and injury, to take any courſe according to the rules and method of the law of nations, until reparation be made to the ſufferer.

XV. The preſent treaty ſhall in nothing derogate from any pre-eminence, right, or dominion, of either confederate in the American ſeas, channels, or waters; but that they have and retain the ſame in as full and ample a manner as may of right belong unto them: but it is always to be underſtood, that the liberty of navigation ought in no manner to be diſturbed, where nothing is committed againſt the genuine ſenſe and meaning of theſe articles.

And now we are come to the treaties of commerce between her Majeſty Queen Anne, and the Kings of France and Spain.

A treaty of navigation and commerce, between the moſt ſerene and moſt potent Princeſs Anne, *Queen of* Great Britain, *&c. and the moſt ſerene and moſt potent Prince* Lewis XIV. *King of* France, *&c. concluded at Utrecht, the 31ſt of March* 1713.

I. It is agreed, that there ſhall be a perfect liberty of navigation and commerce between the ſubjects on each part, through all and every the kingdoms, ſtates, dominions, and

and provinces of their royal Majeſties in Europe, concerning all kinds of goods and merchandiſes, on the conditions in the following articles.

II. That if at any time any ill underſtanding ſhall happen between the crowns of their royal Majeſties, ſix months ſhall be allowed to the ſubjects and inhabitants of each party reſiding in the dominions of the other, for them to retire with their families, goods, merchandiſes, and effects, and to ſell and diſpoſe of their goods, without any manner of diſturbance, arreſt, or ſeizure; and they ſhall have ſpeedy juſtice for the recovery of their dues.

III. That the ſubjects of each of their royal Majeſties ſhall exerciſe no acts of hoſtility againſt each other, neither by ſea nor land; nor receive any commiſſion from any prince or ſtate, to act as privateers, &c. to the diſturbance or prejudice of the ſubjects of Great Britain or France; and, to this end, prohibitions ſhall be publiſhed on either ſide, that no one ſhall in any wiſe uſe ſuch commiſſions, &c. under the ſevereſt penalties.

IV. The ſubjects of each of the ſaid confederates ſhall have free liberty, without licence, to go into the kingdoms, countries, provinces, iſlands, cities, ports, &c. of each other, in Europe, to abide there, paſs through the ſame, and to return from thence; and in the mean time to buy all things for their ſubſiſtence and uſe, and to be treated with mutual kindneſs, they behaving conformably to the laws, and living peaceably.

V. That the ſubjects of each of their Majeſties ſhall have leave to come with their ſhips and merchandiſes, not being prohibited, to the lands, countries, cities, and ports &c. of either ſide, to enter into the ſame, and remain there without limitation of time; alſo to hire houſes, &c. and buy all kinds of lawful merchandiſes, and lay up, and expoſe to ſale, merchandiſes brought from other ports, but not to ſell the ſame in ſhops, or by retail, without any impoſitions, and have free leave to remove themſelves and families, goods and effects, whither they ſhall think fit, without any moleſtation, paying the uſual duties. And in the buſineſs of religion, an entire liberty ſhall be allowed to the ſubjects of each of the confederates, and their families, privately, and within their own walls, without admitting any other perſons, &c.

VI. The ſubjects of each party ſhall pay the tolls, cuſtoms, and duties, of import and export, through all the territories of either party, as are due and accuſtomed; and to aſcertain the ſame, tables ſhall be kept in public places in all towns where trading is uſed: and if any officer, or other perſon, ſhall take of a merchant, or any other perſon, any ſum of money, on account of compenſation, although it be under the name of a free gift, more than what is preſcribed; ſuch officer, on conviction, ſhall make full ſatisfaction to the party wronged, and be puniſhed according to law.

VII. Neither any merchants, maſters of ſhips, owners, mariners, or merchandiſes of either party, ſhall on any pretence be ſeized in any of the ports, &c. or dominions of each other, for public uſe, nor for other cauſe, or be in any wiſe moleſted; and it ſhall be unlawful to export any thing from each other: but, however, this is not to be underſtood of that ſeizure which ſhall be made by the authority of juſtice, and in the ordinary methods of accompt, debt, &c.

VIII. Further, it is agreed, that all the ſubjects of the Queen of Great Britain, and of the moſt Chriſtian King, in all countries ſubject to their power, as to duties and cuſtoms concerning navigation and commerce, ſhall have the ſame privileges and immunities in the courts of juſtice, and all things relating to commerce, which any foreign nation, the moſt favoured, is allowed.

IX. It is alſo agreed, that within two months a law ſhall be made in Great Britain, taking off the duties on merchandiſe brought from France to Britain, more than are paid by other countries in Europe; and that the acts for prohibiting the importation of goods from France, be repealed. The general tariff, made in the year 1664, ſhall take place, and the duties be paid according to the tenor of the ſame, and all prohibitions, edicts, &c. made in France ſince that year, ſhall be repealed. But whereas the manufactures of wool, ſugar, ſalted fiſh, &c. are urged by France to be excepted out of the rule of the ſaid tariff, and have not been mutually adjuſted; it is provided, that commiſſaries on both ſides ſhall meet at London, to determine the ſame, within two months after the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty.—— *However, this article was afterwards over-ruled by the houſe of commons, who thought it extremely prejudicial to Great Britain.*

X. The duties on tobacco imported into France, ſhall be reduced to the ſame moderate rate as tobacco of the growth of any country in Europe or America, that is brought into that kingdom: the ſubjects on both ſides ſhall pay the ſame duties in France; and there ſhall be an equal liberty of ſelling, and the Britiſh ſubjects have the ſame benefit of the laws as the merchants of France.

XI. The tax of 50 ſols tournois, laid on Britiſh ſhips in France for every tun, and the tax of 5 s. laid on French ſhips in Great Britain for every tun, ſhall ceaſe.

XII. It is further agreed, that all merchants, &c. and ſubjects of Great Britain in all places of France, ſhall freely manage their own buſineſs themſelves, or as they think fit. And maſters of ſhips ſhall not be obliged, in loading or unloading their veſſels at Bourdeaux, or in any other place, to make uſe of workmen appointed by public authority; but it ſhall be free for them to employ ſuch perſons as they ſhall think fit; neither ſhall they be obliged to wait for their being loaded, or to receive any goods: and the ſubjects of France ſhall have the ſame privileges in all places ſubject to the dominion of Great Britain.

XIII. It ſhall be lawful for merchants and others, ſubjects of either party, by will, or any other ways, to deviſe or diſpoſe of their monies and effects; and whether they die having made their wills, or inteſtate, their lawful heirs, executors or adminiſtrators, although they be not naturalized, ſhall peaceably receive and take poſſeſſion of all goods and effects whatſoever, according to the laws of Great Britain and France; any law, ſtatute, edict, or cuſtom, to the contrary notwithſtanding.

XIV. A diſpute ariſing between any commander of a ſhip on either ſide, and his ſeamen, in any port of the other party, concerning the ſeamens wages, or other civil cauſe; the magiſtrate of the place ſhall require no more from the perſon accuſed, than a declaration in writing, whereby he ſhall be bound to anſwer that matter in his own country; whereupon the ſeamen ſhall not deſert the ſhip, nor hinder the voyage. And merchants, on both ſides, ſhall keep books of accompts, and have an intercourſe of letters, without moleſtation or ſearch.

XV. It ſhall not be lawful for any foreign privateers, having commiſſions from any prince or ſtate in enmity with either nation, to fit their ſhips in the ports of either of the ſaid parties, or to ſell their prizes there, or purchaſe any thing but ſuch victualling as ſhall be neceſſary for their going to the next port of that prince from whom they have their commiſſions.

XVI. The ſhips of both parties being laden, and forced by ſtorm into the ports of each other, ſhall not be obliged to unlade their goods, or to pay any duty; but a ſmall part of the lading may be taken out, with leave, to purchaſe victualling, and that part only be liable to the duty.

XVII. It ſhall be lawful for all the ſubjects of the Queen of Great Britain, and of the moſt Chriſtian King, to ſail with their ſhips, with all liberty and ſecurity, to any ports or places of countries in enmity with either of them, and to trade with the ports and places of thoſe who are enemies to both, or either party; not only from thoſe places to neutral ports, but alſo from one place belonging to an enemy to another place of an enemy, without any diſturbance; and every thing found on board ſhall be deemed free, though belonging to enemies of either party, contraband goods excepted.

XVIII. This liberty of navigation and commerce ſhall extend to all kinds of merchandiſes, except thoſe that follow in the next article, ſignified by the name of contraband.

XIX. Under this name of contraband, or prohibited goods, ſhall be comprehended arms, great guns, bombs, fire-balls, &c. and all other warlike inſtruments.

XX. Theſe

XX. Theſe merchandiſes which follow, ſhall not be reckoned among prohibited goods; that is to ſay, all ſorts of cloths, and all other manufactures of wool, and other goods not worked into the form of inſtruments for war; but ſhall be reputed among free goods, as likewiſe all other merchandiſes not mentioned in the preceding article.

XXI. To the end all manner of quarrels may be prevented, in caſe either party ſhould be engaged in war, the ſhips of each party ſhall be furniſhed with paſſports, expreſſing the names of the ſhips, &c. and have certificates of their lading, that it may be known whether there be any contraband goods on board, and that the ſhips truly belong to the ſubjects of one of the princes.

XXII. The ſhips of the ſubjects of both their Majeſties, coming to the ſea-coaſts within the dominions of either of them, not being willing to put into port, or ſell their cargoes, ſhall not be obliged to give an account of their lading, unleſs they are ſuſpected, upon good grounds, of having contraband goods.

XXIII. And in caſe of a manifeſt ſuſpicion, they ſhall be obliged to produce their paſſports and certificates.

XXIV. But in caſe the ſhips of the ſubjects of either party, either on the coaſts or the high ſeas, ſhall meet with the men of war of the other; ſuch men of war ſhall remain out of cannon-ſhot, and ſhall ſend a boat only with two or three men, to ſee the paſſport of ſuch ſhip, whereupon ſhe ſhall have free paſſage.

XXV. But merchant-ſhips going to a port at enmity with the other party, ſhall be obliged to exhibit, either on the ſeas or in port, not only their paſſports, but certificates of their lading.

XXVI. And if one party, on exhibiting the ſaid certificates, ſhall find any contraband goods, it ſhall not be lawful to break up the hatches of the ſhip, or to open the cheſts, &c. unleſs the lading be landed in the preſence of officers of the admiralty, &c. and it ſhall be unlawful to ſell the ſame, till due proceſſes and confiſcation be obtained.

XXVII. On the contrary, it is agreed, that what ſhall be found laden by the ſubjects of either party, on any ſhip belonging to the enemy of the other, the whole, although it be not prohibited goods, may be confiſcated, as if it belonged to the enemy himſelf; except thoſe goods and merchandiſes ſhipped before the declaration of any war, &c. which ſhall not be liable to confiſcation, but ſhall be reſtored to the proprietors; but if the ſame be contraband goods, they ſhall not be afterwards carried to the ports of the enemy.

XXVIII. And for the ſecurity of the ſubjects of both their Majeſties againſt privateers, all the commanders of their ſhips, and their ſubjects, ſhall be forbid doing any damage to the other ſide; and if they act contrary, to make ſatisfaction and reparation, and be alſo puniſhed.

XXIX. For this cauſe, all commanders of privateers, before they receive their patents, ſhall be obliged to give ſufficient ſecurity, &c. that they will render ſatisfaction for all damages and injuries, which they ſhall commit during their courſes at ſea, contrary to this treaty, or the edicts of either party, &c.

XXX. Both parties ſhall ſhew a mutual favour in all their dominions to the ſubjects of each other, in the ſame manner as if they were their own ſubjects, and give neceſſary orders that juſtice be duly adminiſtered.

XXXI. Whenſoever the ambaſſador, or reſident of each of their Majeſties, ſhall complain of the injuſtice of any ſentence, care ſhall be taken that the ſame be reviewed and re-examined in their reſpective councils, and that right be done every complainant within the ſpace of three months.

XXXII. A ſuit being commenced between the captors of prizes, and reclaimers of the ſame, and ſentence given in favour of the reclaimers, the ſame ſhall be put in execution, on giving ſecurity, notwithſtanding the appeal of the captors; but this is not to be obſerved when judgment is given againſt the reclaimers.

XXXIII. In caſe ſhips are driven on rocks upon the coaſts of either party, and are there broken to pieces and wrecked, the goods and merchandiſes ſaved ſhall be faithfully reſtored to the proprietors, they paying only the expence of ſalvage; ſaving, at the ſame time, the rights and cuſtoms of each nation.

XXXIV. It ſhall be free for the ſubjects of each party to employ ſuch advocates, attorneys, notaries, ſolicitors, and factors, as they ſhall think fit.

XXXV. And that commerce may be more ſecurely and freely followed, it is agreed, that neither the Queen of Great Britain, nor the moſt Chriſtian King, ſhall receive any pirates and robbers into any of their ports, havens, &c. but ſhall cauſe them to be apprehended and puniſhed. And all ſhips, and goods taken by them, although they are ſold, ſhall be reſtored to the lawful owners, &c. and indemnification ſhall be thereupon.

XXXVI. It ſhall be lawful for the ſhips of war, and privateers of both parties, to carry their prizes where they please, without paying any thing, or being arreſted or ſearched, when they enter any ports belonging to either of their Majeſties; and they ſhall have liberty to depart to the place aſſigned in their commiſſions; but no ſhelter ſhall be allowed to ſuch as have made prize upon the ſubjects of either party.

XXXVII. Neither of their Majeſties ſhall permit, that the ſhips or goods of the other be taken on the coaſts, or in the ports of their dominions, by ſhips of war of any prince or ſtate whatſoever; and if ſuch a thing ſhould happen, both parties ſhall unite their force for reparation of the damage.

XXXVIII. If any inconveniencies happen on either ſide concerning the obſervance of this treaty, the friendſhip ſhall not immediately thereupon be broken; but the treaty ſhall ſubſiſt, and proper remedies for removing the inconveniencies ſhall be procured.

XXXIX. If a captor uſe torture upon the maſter of a ſhip, or the ſhip's crew, the ſhip and merchandiſes ſhall be forthwith releaſed, and ſet entirely free; and ſuch perſons as ſhall be found guilty of the crime, ſhall ſuffer the moſt ſevere puniſhments.

A treaty of commerce between her Majeſty Queen Anne, *and* Philip *King of* Spain, *concluded at Utrecht, the 28th of November* 1713, *by which a former treaty, made in the reign of King* Charles II. *is particularly ratified and confirmed; being as follows.*

I. It is agreed, that there ſhall be between the crowns of Great Britain and Spain, a good and perfect amity, as well by land as by ſea; and between the lands, countries, &c. belonging unto, or under the obedience of either of them.

II. That neither of the ſaid princes, nor their ſubjects, ſhall, on any pretence, do or procure to be done, any wrong or injury to the other, in any place of the one or the other, but ſhall treat one another with friendſhip; and may, by water and by land, ſecurely paſs into the countries, dominions, cities, towns, &c. accuſtomed to commerce, and there trade, buy and ſell, with any perſons whatſoever.

III. That the Kings of Great Britain and Spain ſhall take care that their ſubjects abſtain from all violence; and if injury ſhall be done on either ſide, againſt this treaty, letters of repriſal ſhall not therefore be given, until ſuch time as juſtice is ſought in the ordinary courſe of law: but if juſtice be denied or delayed, and no ſatisfaction given within ſix months, then may iſſue out letters of repriſal and marque.

IV. That between the King of Great Britain and the King of Spain, and their ſubjects, there ſhall be free trade and commerce, as well upon ſea as on land, in all and every their dominions, without ſafe conduct or particular licence; and the ſubjects of either party may enter into any port, with their ſhips laden or empty, and there buy and ſell, provide themſelves with proviſions, and alſo may repair their ſhips, and from thence freely depart without moleſtation, paying the uſual duties; and ſaving to either ſide the laws and ordinances of their country.

V. That for the merchandiſes which the ſubjects of Great Britain ſhall buy in Spain, no new cuſtoms, tolls, ſubſides, or other duties, ſhall be taken; and in the buying and ſelling of their merchandiſes, they ſhall enjoy the

the ſame privileges which are allowed to the natural ſubjects of Spain; and may lade their ſhips, which ſhall not be detained in port upon any pretence, after the cuſtoms paid, neither ſhall any factor be queſtioned after their departure.

VI. And to the end the duties may be known, tables and liſts thereof ſhall be put up at the doors of the cuſtomhouſes, &c. of all cities, towns, and ports, where cuſtoms are uſually paid, and any officer, &c. receiving more than mentioned in thoſe tables, ſhall ſuffer three months impriſonment, and pay three times the value of the ſum received.

VII. That it ſhall be lawful for the ſubjects of the King of Great Britain, to bring out and carry into any parts of Spain, where hitherto commerce hath been uſed, all kinds of cloths and manufactures of Great Britain, or of the plantations, &c. thereto belonging, and which ſhall be bought by Engliſh factors on this ſide the Cape of Good Hope; and to trade there, without declaring to whom, or for what price they ſell their merchandiſe, or being moleſted, paying the rights and tributes; and what lading they ſhall not bring to land, they may detain and carry away in their ſhips, without paying any duty; and prize-goods ſhall be taken for goods and merchandiſe of Great Britain.

VIII. That the ſubjects of Great Britain may bring and carry to all parts of Spain, any fruits and commodities of the Eaſt Indies, produced from the Engliſh plantations, or factories there, with the like privileges as are allowed to the ſtates of Holland, in the treaty of Munſter, concluded in the year 1648.

IX. That the ſaid ſubjects of Great Britain, trading, buying, and ſelling in any of the kingdoms or territories of Spain, ſhall have and enjoy all the privileges and immunities which are granted to the Engliſh merchants that reſide in Andaluſia, and which are hereby confirmed.

X. That the ſhips, or any other veſſels that ſhall belong to the King of Great Britain, or his ſubjects trading to Spain, ſhall not be viſited by the judges of contraband, or by any other officers; nor ſhall any ſoldiers be put on board the ſaid veſſels; nor may they be ſearched in any port by the officers of the cuſtoms, until the lading is carried on ſhore which they reſolve to diſembark and diſcharge in the ſaid port; nor ſhall the captain, maſter, or any of the ſhip's company, be impriſoned or detained on ſhore. If the whole lading of ſuch ſhips is to be diſcharged in any port, the entry ſhall be made in the uſual manner; and if, after entry made, any goods ſhall be found in the ſhip, more than what are contained in the ſaid entry, eight working-days ſhall be allowed, that the goods concealed may be entered; and if in that time an entry be not made, ſuch goods ſhall be confiſcated, but not any others; though no other puniſhment ſhall be inflicted; and when the ſhips are reladen, they may freely go out again.

XI. That the ſhips of either party, or their ſubjects, entering any ports, &c. of the one or the other, and diſcharging any part of their goods, and being conſigned with the reſt to other places, ſhall not be obliged to regiſter, or pay for any other merchandiſe than what is unladen; nor be compelled to give any ſecurity, unleſs in the caſe of felony, or debt, &c.

XII. That if any of the ſubjects of the King of Great Britain, ſhall land any goods or merchandiſes in any of the ports of his Catholic Majeſty, and having entered them, and paid the cuſtoms, ſhall afterwards deſire to tranſport them to any other place, they may do it without paying any other cuſtom or duty. And in caſe the ſubjects of either party ſhall unlade goods or merchandiſes, in any city or town, and having paid the duties, ſhall not be able to put them off, they may remit them to any other city, &c. without moleſtation, or paying any farther rights than what were due at their entry.

XIII. That it ſhall be lawful for the ſubjects of Great Britain and Spain, to anchor their ſhips in the roads or bays of either kingdom, without being conſtrained to enter into port; and when they caſt anchor, or enter the ports, they ſhall not be moleſted or viſited, ſhewing their paſſports: and if the ſaid ſhips be not bound to any enemy's port, and carrying thither contraband goods, the ſaid ſubjects ſhall return to ſea freely with their ſhips, ſo as they do not break bulk, or expoſe any thing to ſale.

XIV. If any ſhips, belonging to the ſubjects of the one or the other party, ſhall enter into any bay, or in the open ſea ſhall be met by the ſhips of war of the ſaid Kings, or privateers; the ſaid ſhips ſhall not come within cannon-ſhot, but ſhall ſend their long-boat or pinnace, to the merchant-ſhip, and only two or three men to examine the paſſport, &c.

XV. And if any prohibited goods ſhall be exported from the dominions of either party, ſuch prohibited goods only ſhall be confiſcated, and not the other goods; neither ſhall any other puniſhment incur to the delinquent, unleſs he ſhall carry out of the dominions of Great Britain, the corn, wool, or fuller's earth of the ſaid kingdom; or ſhall carry out of Spain, any gold or ſilver; in either of which caſes, the laws of the reſpective countries are to take place.

XVI. That it ſhall and may be lawful for the ſubjects of both princes, to have acceſs to the ports of the one and the other, and there to remain, and depart again with their veſſels for trade; and for ſhips of war, arriving by ſtreſs of weather, to repair their ſhips, or to furniſh proviſions, not exceeding the number of eight ſuch ſhips, and not continuing longer than they ſhall have juſt cauſe. And when an unuſual number of men of war, by accident arrive near unto any port, it ſhall not be lawful for them to come into the ſaid ports or havens without leave; and in ſuch caſe they ſhall preſently acquaint the governor with the cauſe of their coming; nor ſhall they remain there longer than he ſhall think convenient.

XVII. That neither the ſaid King of Great Britain, nor the King of Spain, by any mandate, ſhall detain any merchant, maſter of a ſhip, pilot, or mariner, for his reſpective ſervice, or any ſhips, merchandiſe, &c. without a particular agreement thereunto; provided this ſhall not interrupt the ordinary courſe of juſtice.

XVIII. That the merchants and ſubjects of both princes, their factors and ſervants, and alſo their ſhips, maſters, or mariners, may in all places carry and uſe all kind of arms defenſive and offenſive, according to cuſtom.

XIX. That the captains, officers, and mariners, of the ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of either party, ſhall not commence an action, nor trouble their own ſhips, or any perſons belonging to them, in the dominions of the other, for wages, &c. under any pretence; nor may they put themſelves into the ſervice or protection of either prince; but if any controverſy happens, the compoſing thereof ſhall be left to the conſul of their nation, ſubject to appeal.

The 20th article relates only to the Low Countries.

XXI. The ſubjects and inhabitants of both kingdoms, ſhall with all ſecurity ſail to, and traffic in, all the countries which ſhall be in peace, amity, or neutrality, with the one or the other.

XXII. And they ſhall not be diſturbed in that liberty, by the ſhips or ſubjects of the ſaid princes reſpectively, by reaſon of hoſtilities which may be hereafter, with any kingdoms or ſtates now in friendſhip or neutrality with them.

XXIII. And in caſe that within the ſhips of either party ſhall be found any merchandiſe herein after mentioned, being contraband and prohibited, they ſhall be confiſcated; but other allowed commodities ſhall in no wiſe be ſeized.

XXIV. It is declared, that under the name of contraband goods, ſhall be comprehended all fire-arms, &c. and other warlike inſtruments; and tranſportation of ſoldiers, &c. ſhall not be permitted.

XXV. Under the name of forbidden merchandiſe, ſhall not be comprehended wheat, barley, rye, or other grains, or pulſe, ſalt, wine, oil, &c. but they ſhall remain free, and may be tranſported unto the towns of the enemies, unleſs ſuch towns are beſieged and blocked up.

XXVI. It is alſo agreed, that whatſoever ſhall be found laden by the ſubjects of either party aboard the ſhips of

the enemies of the other, though it be not forbidden merchandiſe, ſhall be confiſcated, with all things elſe on board the ſaid ſhips.

XXVII. That the conſul, which hereafter ſhall reſide in any of the dominions of the King of Spain, for the protection of the ſubjects of Great Britain, ſhall be named by the King of Great Britain, and ſhall exerciſe the full power as any conſul ever had; and in like manner the Spaniſh conſul ſhall enjoy the ſame authority in England.

XXVIII. That the King of Spain ſhall provide, that the ſubjects of Great Britain ſhall not be aggrieved contrary to the laws of commerce, and that none ſhall be diſturbed on account of conſcience; and the King of Great Britain ſhall take care that the ſubjects of Spain be not moleſted for their conſciences, or againſt the laws of commerce.

XXIX. That the ſubjects of one kingdom in the dominions of the other, ſhall not be compelled to ſell their merchandiſes for braſs metal, or exchange them for other coin againſt their will, or receive the payment for the ſame in other ſpecies than what they agreed for.

XXX. That the merchants of both nations, and their factors, ſervants, and families, and alſo maſters of ſhips, pilots, and mariners, may remain ſecurely in the dominions of either of the ſaid Kings, and enjoy their proper houſes, warehouſes, and magazines, for their merchandiſes, for the time agreed, without any impediment.

XXXI. And ſhall employ ſuch advocates, agents, and ſolicitors, as they think fit; and they ſhall not be conſtrained to ſhew their books of accompt, unleſs it be to give evidence for the avoiding of law-ſuits: and the ſubjects of either kingdom may keep their books of accompt in what language they pleaſe, and ſhall not be ſubject to any inquiſition.

XXXII. That in caſe the eſtate of any perſon ſhall be ſeized by any court of juſtice, within the dominions of either party, and any effects happen to be in the hands of the delinquent, belonging to the ſubjects of the other, the ſaid eſtate ſhall not be confiſcated, but ſhall be reſtored.

XXXIII. That the goods and eſtates of the ſubjects of the one King, that ſhall die in the dominions of the other, ſhall be preſerved for the lawful heirs; the right of a third perſon being ſaved.

XXXIV. That the eſtates of the ſubjects of Great Britain dying inteſtate in Spain, ſhall be inventoried by the Engliſh conſul, and depoſited in the hands of two or three merchants, named and appointed by him, for the benefit of the proprietors and creditors; the like to be obſerved in England towards the ſubjects of Spain.

XXXV. That a decent burial-place ſhall be granted to bury the bodies of the ſubjects of Great Britain, who ſhall die in Spain.

XXXVI. If any difference happen hereafter between the King of Great Britain and the King of Spain, the reſpective ſubjects of each party ſhall have notice thereof, and ſix months time given to tranſport their effects.

XXXVII. All goods and rights concealed, &c. which have not, by a legal condemnation, been brought into the exchequer at the time of concluding this treaty, ſhall remain at the free diſpoſal of the proprietors.

XXXVIII. That the people and ſubjects of both kingdoms ſhall enjoy in the lands, ports, &c. of the one or the other, the ſame privileges which have been or ſhall be granted by either Kings to the moſt Chriſtian King, the States-General, or any other kingdom or country, as fully as if they were particularly named.

XXXIX. In caſe any diſpute ſhall happen on either ſide concerning theſe articles, the complaint being preſented and proved, damages ſhall be forthwith repaired, &c.

XL. It is agreed, that the Kings of Great Britain and Spain ſhall faithfully obſerve and keep all and ſingular the capitulations in this preſent treaty, &c.

The preceding treaties with France and Spain, containing numerous articles, are here conciſely abridged, that they might not exceed due bounds. And this laſt treaty, we may take notice, contains a great many very good and excellent proviſions, for the mutual advantage of the ſubjects of each nation; though we are but little the better for them, with reſpect to our trade to the diſtant dominions of Spain.

There were likewiſe ſeveral ſeparate articles agreed to with Spain; the chief whereof were revoked by a treaty concluded with that kingdom by his late Majeſty King George I.

Alſo by a private treaty with Spain, concluded by his ſaid Majeſty, we had farther privileges granted in trade, eſpecially of ſending certain ſhips to the South ſea, &c. But this profitable trade of late was much interrupted, by the continual ſeizures and depredations of the Spaniſh privateers; and at laſt entirely abrogated, by the following treaty, made ſubſequent to the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748.

Articles of the definitive treaty between Spain *and* England.

I. His Britannic Majeſty yields to his Catholic Majeſty his right to the enjoyment of the Aſſiento of negroes, and the annual ſhip, during the four years ſtipulated by the 16th article of the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

II. His Britannic Majeſty, in conſideration of a compenſation of 100,000*l.* ſterling, which his Catholic Majeſty promiſes and engages to cauſe to be paid, either at Madrid or London, to the Royal Aſſiento company, within the term of three months at the lateſt, to be reckoned from the day of the ſigning of this treaty, yields to his Catholic Majeſty all that may be due to the ſaid company for balance of accompts, or ariſing in any manner whatſoever from the ſaid Aſſiento; ſo that the ſaid compenſation ſhall be eſteemed and looked upon as a full and entire ſatisfaction on the part of his Catholic Majeſty; and ſhall extinguiſh from this preſent time, for the future, and for ever, all right, pretenſion, or demand, which might be formed in conſequence of the ſaid Aſſiento, or annual ſhip, directly or indirectly, on the part of his Britannic Majeſty, or on that of the ſaid company.

III. The Catholic King yields to his Britannic Majeſty all his pretenſions or demands in conſequence of the ſaid Aſſiento and annual ſhip, as well with regard to the articles already liquidated, as to thoſe which may be eaſy or difficult to liquidate; ſo that no mention can ever be made of them hereafter on either ſide.

IV. His Catholic Majeſty conſents that the Britiſh ſubjects ſhall not be bound to pay higher or other duties, or upon other evaluations for goods which they ſhall carry into or out of the different ports of his Catholic Majeſty, than thoſe paid on the ſame goods in the time of Charles II. King of Spain, ſettled by the cedulas and ordonances of that King, or thoſe of his predeceſſors. And although the favour or allowance called *piel de farda* be not founded upon any royal ordonance, nevertheleſs his Catholic Majeſty declares, wills, and ordains, that it ſhall be obſerved now, and for the future, as an inviolable law; and all the above mentioned duties ſhall be exacted and levied, now, and for the future, with the ſame advantages and favours to the ſaid ſubjects.

V. His Catholic Majeſty allows the ſaid ſubjects to take and gather ſalt in the iſland of Tortudos, without any hindrance whatſoever, as they did in the time of the ſaid King Charles II.

VI. His Catholic Majeſty conſents that the ſaid ſubjects ſhall not pay any where, higher or other duties than thoſe which his Catholic Majeſty's ſubjects pay in the ſame place.

VII. His Catholic Majeſty grants that the ſaid ſubjects enjoy all the rights, privileges, franchiſes, exemptions, and immunities whatſoever, which they enjoyed before the laſt war, by virtue of cedulas or royal ordonances, and by the articles of the treaty of peace and commerce made at Madrid in 1667; and the ſaid ſubjects ſhall be treated in Spain in the ſame manner as the moſt favoured nation; and conſequently no nation ſhall pay leſs duties upon wool, and other merchandiſes which they ſhall bring into, or carry out of Spain by land, than the ſaid ſubjects ſhall pay upon the ſame merchandiſes, which they ſhall

ſhall bring in or carry out by ſea. And all the rights, privileges, franchiſes, exemptions, and immunities, which ſhall be granted and permitted to any nation whatever, ſhall alſo be granted and permitted to the ſaid ſubjects; and his Britannic Majeſty conſents that the ſame be granted and permitted to the ſubjects of Spain in his Britannic Majeſty's kingdoms.

VIII. His Catholic Majeſty promiſes to uſe all poſſible endeavours on his part, to aboliſh all innovations which may have been introduced into commerce, and to have them forborn for the future; his Britannic Majeſty likewiſe promiſes to uſe all poſſible endeavours to aboliſh all innovations, and to forbear them for the future.

IX. Their Britannic and Catholic Majeſties conform by the preſent treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and all the other treaties therein confirmed, in all their articles and clauſes, excepting thoſe which have been derogated from by the preſent treaty, as likewiſe the treaty of commerce concluded at Utrecht in 1713; thoſe articles excepted, which are contrary to the preſent treaty, which ſhall be aboliſhed, and of no force; and namely, the three articles of the ſaid treaty of Utrecht commonly called *explanatory*.

X. All the reciprocal differences, rights, demands, and pretenſions, which may ſubſiſt between the two crowns of Great Britain and Spain, which no other nation whatever has any part, intereſt, or right of intervention, being thus accommodated and extinguiſhed by this particular treaty; the two ſaid moſt ſerene Kings engage themſelves mutually to the punctual execution of this treaty of reciprocal compenſation, which ſhall be approved and ratified by their ſaid Majeſties, and the ratifications exchanged in the term of ſix weeks, to be reckoned from the day of its ſigning, or ſooner, if it can be done.

Treaty of commerce between Great Britain *and* Spain, *concluded at Madrid, the* 14*th of December* 1715.

Whereas, notwithſtanding the treaties of peace and commerce, lately concluded at Utrecht the 13th of July, and the 9th of December 1713, between his Catholic Majeſty, and her late Majeſty the Queen of Great Britain, of glorious memory, there remained ſtill ſome differences about trade and the courſe thereof; and his Catholic Majeſty, and the King of Great Britain, being inclined to maintain and cultivate a firm and inviolable peace and friendſhip, in order to attain to this good end, they have by their two miniſters underwritten, mutually and duly qualified, cauſed the following articles to be concluded and ſigned.

I. The Britiſh ſubjects ſhall not be obliged to pay higher or other duties, for goods coming in, or going out of the ſeveral ports of his Catholic Majeſty, than thoſe they paid for the ſame goods in King Charles II.'s time, ſettled by ſchedulas and ordinances of the ſaid King, or his predeceſſors; and although the indulto, commonly called *pie del fardo*, be not grounded on any royal ordinance, nevertheleſs his Catholic Majeſty declares, wills, and ordains, that it be obſerved, now and hereafter, as an inviolable law; which duties ſhall be exacted and raiſed, now and for the future, with the ſame advantages and favours to the ſaid ſubjects.

II. His Majeſty confirms the treaty made by the Britiſh ſubjects, with the magiſtrates of St. Andero, in the year 1700.

III. His Catholic Majeſty permits the ſaid ſubjects to gather ſalt in the iſle of Tortugas, they having enjoined this liberty in the reign of King Charles II. without interruption.

IV. The ſaid ſubjects ſhall pay no where any higher or other duties, than thoſe paid by the ſubjects of his Catholic Majeſty in the ſame places.

V. The ſaid ſubjects ſhall enjoy all the rights, privileges, franchiſes, exemptions, and immunities whatſoever, which they enjoyed before the laſt war, by virtue of the royal ſchedulas or ordinances, and by the articles of the treaty of peace and commerce made at Madrid in 1667, which is hereby fully confirmed; and the ſaid ſubjects ſhall be uſed in Spain in the ſame manner as in the moſt favoured nation, and conſequently all nations ſhall pay the ſame duties on wool and other merchandiſes coming in and going out to ſea. And all the rights, privileges, franchiſes, exemptions, and immunities, that ſhall be granted and allowed to the ſaid ſubjects, the like ſhall be granted, obſerved, and permitted to the ſubjects of Spain, in the kingdoms of his Majeſty the King of Great Britain.

VI. And as innovations may have been made in trade, his Catholic Majeſty promiſes on his part to uſe his utmoſt endeavours to aboliſh them, and for the future to cauſe them to be avoided: in like manner the King of Great Britain promiſes to uſe all poſſible endeavours to aboliſh all innovations on his part, and for the future to cauſe them by all means to be avoided.

VII. The treaty of commerce made at Utrecht, the 9th of December 1713, ſhall continue in force, except the articles that ſhall be found contrary to what is this day concluded and ſigned, which are hereby aboliſhed and rendered of no force; and eſpecially all the three articles commonly called *explanatory*. And theſe preſents ſhall be approved, ratified, and exchanged on each ſide, within the ſpace of ſix weeks, or ſooner, if poſſible. In witneſs whereof, and by virtue of our full powers, we have ſigned theſe preſents at Madrid, the 14th of December, in the year 1715.

(L. S.) M. DE BEDMAR. (L. S.) GEORGE BUBB.

Treaty of commerce betwixt Anne *Queen of* Great Britain, *and* Peter *King of* Portugal, *concluded at Liſbon, the* 27*th of December* 1703.

Whereas the league and ſtrict friendſhip which is between the moſt ſerene and moſt potent Princeſs Anne Queen of Great Britain, and the moſt ſerene and moſt potent Prince Peter King of Portugal, requires that the commerce of both the Britiſh and the Portugal nations ſhould be promoted as much as poſſible; and her ſacred royal Majeſty of Great Britain hath ſignified to his ſacred royal Majeſty of Portugal, by the moſt excellent John Methuen, Eſq; member of the Engliſh parliament, and ambaſſador extraordinary in Portugal, that it would be very acceptable to her, if the woollen cloths, and the reſt of the woollen manufactures of Britain, might be admitted into Portugal, the prohibition of them being taken off: that this matter may be treated and tranſacted, they have given their full powers and commands; that is to ſay, her ſacred Majeſty of Great Britain to the aboveſaid moſt excellent John Methuen; and his ſacred Majeſty of Portugal to the moſt excellent Don Emanuel Telles Silvius, Marquis of Alegrete, &c. one of the three directors of the treaſury, and one of the firſt gentlemen of the bedchamber, and counſellor of ſtate to his ſacred royal Portugueſe Majeſty: who, by virtue of the full power to them reſpectively granted, having maturely and diligently conſidered the matter, have agreed upon the following articles.

I. His ſacred royal Majeſty of Portugal promiſes, both in his own name, and that of his ſucceſſors, to admit, for ever hereafter, into Portugal, the woollen cloths, and the reſt of the woollen manufactures of the Britons, as was accuſtomed till they were prohibited by the laws: nevertheleſs upon this condition,

II. That is to ſay, that her ſacred royal Majeſty of Great Britain ſhall, in her own name, and that of her ſucceſſors, be obliged for ever hereafter to admit the wines of the growth of Portugal into Britain; ſo that at no time, whether there ſhall be peace or war between the kingdoms of Great Britain and France, any thing more ſhall be demanded for theſe wines by the name of cuſtom or duty, or by whatſoever other title, directly or indirectly, whether they ſhall be imported into Great Britain in pipes or hogſheads, or other caſks, than what ſhall be demanded from the like quantity or meaſure of French wine, deducting or abating a third part of the cuſtom or duty. But if at any time this deduction or abatement of cuſtoms, which is to be made as aforeſaid, ſhall in any manner be attempted and prejudiced, it ſhall be juſt and lawful for his ſacred royal Majeſty of Portugal, again to prohibit the woollen cloths, and the reſt of the Britiſh woollen manufactures.

III. The moſt excellent lords the plenipotentiaries promiſe and take upon themſelves, that their above named

maſters

maſters ſhall ratify this treaty, and within the ſpace of two months the ratifications ſhall be exchanged.

For the faith and teſtimony of all which things, I the plenipotentiary of her ſacred royal Majeſty of Great Britain have confirmed this treaty, by the ſubſcription of my hand, and by the ſeal of my coat of arms. And the moſt excellent lord the plenipotentiary of his ſacred royal Majeſty of Portugal, for avoiding the controverſy about precedence between the two crowns of Britain and Portugal, hath ſubſcribed another inſtrument of the ſame tenor, changing only what ought to be changed for that reaſon.

Given at Liſbon, the 27th of the month of December 1703.

(L. S.) JOHN METHUEN.

A declaration and engagement concerning the rights and privileges of the Britiſh *merchants in the kingdom of* Sicily, *made at Utrecht, the 8th of March*, N. S. 1712-13.

Whereas by ſeveral treaties of peace, alliance, commerce, and navigation, formerly made between the kingdoms of Great Britain and Spain, and at this time ſubſiſting, but more particularly by the treaty concluded at Madrid, the $\frac{13}{23}$ of May, in the year 1667, and the cedulas annexed thereunto, proviſion was made for the freedom, ſecurity, and perfect eaſe of the commerce of the Britiſh ſubjects trading in the kingdoms and provinces of Spain; the obſervance and uſage of which treaties have hitherto been received in the kingdom of Sicily, in the ſame manner as in any other the dominions of Spain, and have remained there in full force, except ſome variations which have been introduced in the courſe of time; for the rectifying whereof, according to the rule of thoſe treaties, Great Britain has juſtly inſiſted hitherto.

Wherefore, on occaſion of transferring the kingdom of Sicily to his royal highneſs the Duke of Savoy, her ſacred Majeſty of Great Britain, being watchful to preſerve the rights and privileges of her ſubjects trading in the ſaid kingdom, and being likewiſe willing to preſerve to the Sicilians the privileges they have in Great Britain, which are ſo very dear to the moſt ſerene the Duke of Savoy, hath been graciouſly pleaſed to give inſtructions to her underwritten miniſters plenipotentiaries, to agree with the miniſters plenipotentiaries of his royal highneſs of Savoy, about making declarations mutually upon this ſubject. In purſuance thereof the ſaid miniſters plenipotentiaries of his royal highneſs, in the name of their moſt ſerene maſter, do moſt ſolemnly declare and promiſe, that during the reign of the aforeſaid moſt ſerene the Duke in Sicily, as likewiſe of his heirs and ſucceſſors, the Britiſh merchants are henceforward to have, and ſhall effectually have, uſe, and enjoy, all thoſe rights, privileges, liberties, and entire ſecurity, as to their perſons, goods, ſhips, ſeamen, trade, and navigation, in the ſaid kingdom of Sicily; which, by virtue of the treaties made between Great Britain and Spain, they have hitherto enjoyed, or ought to enjoy; and, to that end, that all abuſes which deviate from the tenor of the ſaid treaties, ſhall be forthwith removed, and the rights and privileges acquired to the Britiſh ſubjects, by virtue of the aforeſaid treaties, ſhall not, on any occaſion, or under any pretence, ever be violated or leſſened. And if hitherto any more favourable privileges have been granted, or ſhall hereafter be granted to the merchants of any other foreign nation, any way relating to the perſons of the traders, their ſhips, goods, duties, or the buſineſs of merchandiſing, the Britiſh merchants ſhall likewiſe in all reſpects, and in the fulleſt manner, enjoy the ſame.

And in like manner, the miniſters plenipotentiaries of Great Britain do, in the name of her Majeſty, confirm that the Sicilians ſhall hereafter enjoy the ſame privileges and liberties which they have hitherto enjoyed, or ought to have enjoyed, as ſubjects of the King of Spain, by virtue of the aforeſaid treaty of the year 1667.

In witneſs and confirmation whereof, &c.

Treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation, between Great Britain *and* Ruſſia, *concluded at St. Peterſburgh, December* 2, 1734.

I. The peace, friendſhip, and good correſpondence, which happily ſubſiſt between their Ruſſian and Britannic Majeſties, ſhall be confirmed and eſtabliſhed by this treaty, ſo as from henceforward there ſhall be between the crown of all the Ruſſias on one ſide, and the crown of Great Britain on the other, as likewiſe between the ſtates, countries, realms, dominions, and territories, which are under their obedience, a true, firm, and perfect peace, friendſhip, and good underſtanding, which ſhall endure and be inviolably maintained for ever, as well by ſea as by land, and on all freſh waters; and the people, ſubjects, and inhabitants on both ſides, of whatſoever condition or degree, ſhall behave with entire goodwill towards each other, and give each other all poſſible aid and aſſiſtance, without doing or offering the leaſt wrong or damage whatſoever.

II. There ſhall be an entire freedom of navigation and commerce throughout all the dominions of the two contracting parties in Europe, where navigation and commerce are at this time permitted, or ſhall be permitted hereafter by the contracting parties to the ſubject of any other nation.

III. The ſubjects of both contracting parties may enter at all times into all the ports or towns of either of the contracting parties, with their ſhips, veſſels, or carriages, into which the ſubjects of any other nation are permitted to enter, to trade or abide there; and the mariners, paſſengers, and veſſels, whether Ruſſian or Engliſh, even though there be any ſubjects of any other ſtrange nation among the crew, ſhall be received and treated in like manner as the moſt favoured nation; and the mariners and paſſengers ſhall not be forced to enter into the ſervice of either of the contracting parties, which may have occaſion for their ſervice. And the ſubjects of both contracting parties may buy all kind of neceſſaries which they ſhall ſtand in need of at the current price; and repair and refit their ſhips, veſſels, or carriages, and furniſh themſelves with all manner of proviſions for their ſubſiſtence and voyage, abide and depart at their pleaſure, without moleſtation or impediment, provided they conform themſelves to the laws and ordinances of the reſpective ſtates of the ſaid contracting powers, where they ſhall ſo arrive or continue.

IV. The ſubjects of Great Britain may bring by ſea or by land, into all or any of the dominions of Ruſſia, wherein the ſubjects of any other nation are permitted to trade, all ſorts of goods and merchandiſes, whereof the importation and traffic are not prohibited; and in like manner the ſubjects of Ruſſia may bring into all or any of the dominions of Great Britain, wherein the ſubjects of any other nation are allowed to traffic, all ſorts of merchandiſes of the produce and manufacture of the dominions of Ruſſia, whereof the importation and traffic are not prohibited; and likewiſe all merchandiſes of the produce or manufacture of Aſia, provided that it is not actually prohibited by any law now in force in Great Britain; and they may buy, and export out of the dominions of Great Britain, all manner of goods and merchandiſes which the ſubjects of any other nation may buy therein, and export from thence, and particularly gold and ſilver, wrought or unwrought, excepting the ſilver coined money of Great Britain.

V. The ſubjects of Great Britain, if they happen not to have rixdollars to pay therewith the cuſtom, and other duties payable on the goods they enter, may pay in current money, at the rate of 125 copeaks for one rixdollar.

VI. Engliſh ſhips that come to load or unload merchandiſes belonging to the ſubjects of Great Britain, ſhall be uſed with all kindneſs and diſpatch, according to the regulations, without being detained in any manner whatſoever, on pain of the penalties mentioned in the regulations: and ſhould the ſubjects of Great Britain enter into any contract with any chancery, or college, for the delivery of any goods or merchandiſes, on their giving

giving notice that the ſame are ready to be delivered, they ſhall be received, agreeable to the time appointed in the contract; after which the accompt ſhall be adjuſted and ſettled, in ſuch a time as it was agreed upon in the contract between the chancery, or college, and the Engliſh merchants.

VII. It is ſtipulated, that in any town or place of Ruſſia, where any other nations are admitted, the ſubjects of Great Britain may pay for goods bought the ſame currency as has been received for goods ſold, unleſs there be any particular agreement to the contrary.

VIII. It is ſtipulated, that the ſubjects of Great Britain may bring to Ruſſia all ſorts of goods or merchandiſes, and carry them through the dominions of Ruſſia, the ſhorteſt or moſt convenient way to Perſia, paying 3 *per cent.* in rixdollars *ad valorem*, for duties and tranſit of the ſaid goods, and no more, under any pretence whatſoever. Nevertheleſs, the Engliſh merchants ſhall be obliged to agree with the Ruſſian ſubjects for the carriage-charges, either by water or by land, making them a reaſonable allowance for the ſame; and the moſt ſtrict orders ſhall be given, that the Engliſh merchants may meet with all diſpatch and eaſe upon the road. They likewiſe may bring from Perſia any goods or merchandiſes, and carry them through Ruſſia with the ſame liberty and eaſe, paying only 3 *per cent.* in rixdollars *ad valorem*, for duties and tranſit, reckoning the rixdollars as uſual in the Ruſſian cuſtoms. And in order to prevent all frauds of Engliſh ſubjects, and all vexation and delay of Ruſſian officers, Engliſh merchants ſhall declare the goods deſigned to be carried through Ruſſia, either to or from Perſia, at the firſt Ruſſian place they arrive, which ſhall be received and admitted on the bill of lading, policy, or regiſter, according to the value declared, on which a duty of 3 *per cent.* ſhall be paid, without opening or unpacking the merchandiſes, any more than is abſolutely neceſſary to ſatisfy the Ruſſian officer that the merchandiſes ſpecified in the bill of lading, policy, or regiſter, and no other, or others, are contained in the bale in which the merchandiſes are packed. But in caſe the Ruſſian officer have any grounds to ſuſpect that the goods are not declared to their right value, within 20 *per cent.* then the Ruſſian officer, paying to the merchant the value declared, and 20 *per cent.* over and above it, without any deduction, may take the goods, and diſpoſe thereof. After the Ruſſian officer's inſpection, which is to be done without vexation or detriment to the goods or package, he ſhall fix leaden ſeals to the packs, or bales, that contain the goods, number and mark them, and deliver to the merchant a certificate of the payment of the duties; and, by virtue of that certificate, leaden ſeal, mark, and number, they ſhall have a free paſſage through Ruſſia, either going to or coming from Perſia, without any obſtacle or moleſtation: but ſhould the merchants not carry any or all the bales through Ruſſia, according to the declaration, or ſhould the ſeals be taken off, and any goods taken out in Ruſſia, if there is any reaſon to ſuſpect ſuch a conduct, in oppoſition to the true ſenſe and meaning of this article, ſuch merchant ſhall be fined, and pay the whole value declared of the pack, or bale, that ſhall be wanting, or to which the ſeal ſhould not be found.

IX. It ſhall be permitted to the ſubjects of both contracting parties reciprocally, in all accuſtomed places of export, to load on board their own ſhips, veſſels, or carriages, or any other, all merchandiſes bought by them, excepting only ſuch as are prohibited to be exported, and freely to ſend or carry away the ſame, provided they have paid the duties, and ſuch ſhips, veſſels, or carriages, have been cleared according to law.

X. The ſubjects of either part ſhall pay no more cuſtom or duties, on the importation or exportation of goods, than what the ſubjects of any other nation pay for the ſame goods. And in order to prevent any frauds in the duties on either ſide, the merchandiſes which ſhall be found to have been ſmuggled in, without paying the duties, ſhall be confiſcated, and no other puniſhment inflicted on the merchant of either ſide.

XI. The ſubjects of either party may freely paſs, repaſs, or travel, in all countries which now are, or hereafter ſhall be at enmity with the other of the ſaid parties, places actually blocked up or beſieged only excepted, provided they do not carry any warlike ſtores or ammunition to the enemy: as for all other effects, their ſhips, paſſengers, and goods, ſhall be free and unmoleſted.

XII. Cannons, mortars, fire-arms, piſtols, bombs, granadoes, bullets, balls, fuzees, flints, matches, powder, ſaltpetre, ſulphur, cuiraſſes, pikes, ſwords, belts, pouches, cartouch-boxes, ſaddles, and bridles, in any quantity beyond what may be neceſſary for the ſhip's proviſion, and may properly appertain to, and be judged neceſſary for, every man of the ſhip's crew, or for each paſſenger, ſhall be deemed ammunition of war; and if any ſuch be there found, they may ſeize and confiſcate the ſame according to law; but neither the veſſels, paſſengers, or the reſt of the goods, ſhall be detained for that reaſon, or hindered from purſuing their voyage.

XIII. In caſe of a rupture between the contracting parties, which God forbid, effects or veſſels of the ſubjects of either party ſhall not be detained or confiſcated; but there ſhall be the ſpace of one year at leaſt allowed them, wherein they may ſell, diſpoſe, carry off, or ſend away their effects, and tranſport their perſons.

XIV. The merchants, mariners, veſſels, or effects of either party, ſhall not be arreſted or forced into ſervice, without their own conſent, under any pretence whatſoever; and if any ſervant, or mariner, deſerts his ſervice or veſſel, he ſhall be delivered up: but nothing contained in this article is to be ſo underſtood as to tend to the hinderance or obſtruction of the ordinary courſe of juſtice on either ſide.

XV. In caſe of wreck on any part of the dominions of the contracting parties, all ſorts of aſſiſtance ſhall be given the unfortunate, no violence ſhall be done them, nor ſhall their effects, ſaved either by themſelves or others, or drove aſhore, be hidden or detained from them; neither ſhall they be hurt, under any pretext whatſoever, but they ſhall be preſerved for them, and they ſhall pay what is reaſonable, for the aſſiſtance given to their perſons, ſhips, or effects.

XVI. Engliſh merchants may buy, build, or rent houſes, and ſell or diſpoſe of them, either at St. Peterſburgh, Moſcow, in the German Slabod, Aſtracan, and Archangel; and in thoſe places their houſes ſhall be exempted from lodging ſoldiers; in all other places they may likewiſe buy, ſell, or rent houſes; but there they ſhall be ſubject to quartering ſoldiers, equally as other inhabitants. Ruſſian merchants may alſo build, buy, or rent houſes in Great Britain or Ireland, and ſell or diſpoſe of them, provided they qualify themſelves for that purpoſe, in like manner as the ſubjects of any other the moſt favoured nations are obliged to do; and they ſhall be free of lodging ſoldiers, and have a free exerciſe of the Greek religion, either in their houſes, or any place appointed for that purpoſe.

XVII. Paſſports ſhall be given to all Engliſh ſubjects that might have a mind to retire from Ruſſia, two months after having giving notice thereof, without obliging them to give any ſecurity, if in that time there appear no juſt cauſe to detain them, without obliging them to apply for their paſſports any where elſe than to the college of commerce, or any other that may hereafter be ſubſtituted for the ſame. The ſame care and diſpatch to depart, the Ruſſian ſubjects ſhall have in the dominions of Great Britain, according to what is cuſtomary in that country on ſuch occaſions.

XVIII. Engliſh merchants that take into their ſervice, or hire any ſervants in Ruſſia, with ſuch paſſports as the court of juſtice thinks proper to regiſter, ſhall afterwards not be obliged to pay for the ſame to the maſters of thoſe ſervants, any more than what the Engliſh merchants and the ſervants agreed between them; but the Engliſh merchants ſhall not keep the ſervants longer than the time allowed them by the paſſports of their maſters, and without poker meſnoys no ſervant ſhall be taken into ſervice, or hired: and if the merchants take a ſecurity for the honeſty of the ſervant, and it happen that the ſervant do not behave well, and cheat ſome body, the merchant ſhall not anſwer for it, but the ſecurity. Ruſ-

ſian merchants ſhall have the ſame reciprocal ſecurity and juſtice in the dominions of Great Britain, for the ſervants they may there hire, agreeable to the laws of the land.

XIX. All affairs of Engliſh merchants in Ruſſia ſhall be under the cogniſance only of the college of commerce, or any other court that may be appointed hereafter, in lieu of this college, to take cogniſance of foreign merchants affairs, and no other. Ruſſian merchants in the dominions of Great Britain ſhall be under the protection of the laws of that kingdom, as all other foreigners are, and ſhall be treated as the moſt favoured nation.

XX. Engliſh merchants ſhall not be obliged to produce their books or papers to any body whatſoever, unleſs to bear witneſs in courts of juſtice; nor ſhall their books or papers be taken away and detained from them, neither ſhall their effects be diſtrained or ſold, under any pretence whatſoever, except in caſe of a bankruptcy, and then only by decree of the college of commerce, or any other court that may be hereafter appointed, in lieu of that college, to take care of the affairs of foreign merchants; and Ruſſian merchants in Great Britain ſhall be protected by the laws, as the preceding article directs.

XXI. In caſe of a law-ſuit, four reputable perſons among the foreign merchants ſhall be named by the college of commerce, to inſpect into the books and papers of the plaintiff, if the caſe require it, and their report to the college of commerce ſhall be a ſufficient evidence.

XXII. The cuſtom-houſe ſhall take care to examine the Ruſſian merchants ſervants, when they ſign bargains, whether they have orders or powers of their maſters for ſo doing: if not, they ſhall not be truſted. The ſame ſhall be obſerved in regard to the Engliſh merchants ſervants, and the bargains ſhall be for the maſter's account, who, if they have given orders or powers to their ſervants, ſhall then be anſwerable as if they had made the bargain themſelves. All Ruſſian ſervants employed in ſhops ſhall alſo be regiſtered, and their tranſactions.

XXIII. If any Ruſſian merchants indebted to Engliſh merchants, quit the place where they lived, and retire into the country, and it happen that during their abſence petitions be brought againſt them, proving the debt, then the college of commerce ſhall ſummon them thrice, allowing a ſufficient time for their appearance before the college; but ſhould they not appear, the college ſhall condemn them, and ſend an expreſs, at the charge of the plaintiff, to the governors, with orders to put the ſentence in execution, obliging the debtor to pay his debt.

XXIV. The Ruſſian merchants that come with their goods ſhall enter them as ſoon as poſſible at the cuſtom-houſe; and, when ſold, ſhall write down the quantity, weight, and meaſure, as the regulations direct.

XXV. The bracks ſhall be equitably eſtabliſhed, and ſet in good order; the brackers ſhall be anſwerable for the quality of the goods, and falſe package, and ſubject to pay the loſſes, on proof being brought againſt them.

XXVI. Regulations ſhall be eſtabliſhed for removing abuſes which there may be in the package of hides and threads; in the interim, if any diſpute ariſe between buyer and ſeller, in regard to the tare of any goods, the cuſtomhouſe ſhall decide it, according to reaſon and equity.

XXVII. For a greater convenience and encouragement of the trade of Great Britain, it is agreed that the following Engliſh woollen goods ſhall hereafter pay no more duty than what is ſet down in this article, *viz.* Engliſh cloth for ſoldiers ſhall pay no more than two copeacs, in rix-dollars, for each archine; the coarſe cloth of the county of York, known in the Ruſſian tariff by the name of koſtrogi, ſhall pay no more than two copeacs, in rix-dollars, for each archine; broad flannels, only one copeac, in rix-dollars, for each archine; and narrow flannels, but three quarters of a copeac, in rix dollars, for each archine.

XXVIII. It is agreed and concluded, that the ſubjects of both parties ſhall be reſpected and treated, in their reſpective dominions, in like manner as the moſt favoured nation; and the ſubjects of Ruſſia which ſhall come into England, in order to learn arts and commerce there, ſhall be protected, favoured, and inſtructed: likewiſe, if any Ruſſian veſſels ſhall be met with out at ſea by any Engliſh veſſels, they ſhall in no wiſe be hindered or moleſted by them, provided they comport themſelves in the Britiſh ſeas in the accuſtomed manner; but, on the contrary, they ſhall be favoured by them, and that in the very ports or havens belonging to the dominions of Great Britain.

XXIX. Peace, amity, and good underſtanding, ſhall continue for ever between the contracting parties; and as it is uſual to limit treaties of commerce for a certain ſpace of time, it is agreed between the contracting parties that this ſhall continue for the ſpace of fifteen years, to be computed from the day of ſigning this preſent treaty; and that before the expiration of the ſaid term, they ſhall come to a further mutual agreement for renewing and prolonging the ſame.

Articles of peace and commerce between the moſt high and renowned Prince George II. *&c. and the moſt high and glorious, mighty, and right noble Prince* Muley Hammet Dahebby, Ben Muley Iſmael, Ben Muley Zeriph, Ben Muley Aly, *King and Emperor of the kingdom of* Fez *and* Morocco, *&c. January* 14, 1728.

I. That all Moors or Jews ſubject to the Emperor of Morocco ſhall be allowed a free traffic, *viz.* to buy or ſell for thirty days in the city of Gibraltar, or iſland of Minorca, and not to reſide in either place, but to depart with their effects, without lett or moleſtation, to any part of the ſaid Emperor of Morocco's dominions.

II. That the King of Great Britain's ſubjects reſiding in Barbary ſhall not be obliged to appear before the cadi, or juſtice of the country; but only the governor of the place, and his Britannic Majeſty's conſuls, are to take cogniſance of, and adjuſt the differences they may have with the natives of the country.

III. That the menial ſervants of his Britannic Majeſty's ſervants, though natives of the country, either Moors or Jews, be exempt from taxes of all kinds.

IV. That all his Britannic Majeſty's ſubjects, as well paſſengers as others, taken by any of the Emperor of Fez and Morocco's cruizers, on board any foreign ſhip or veſſel whatever, ſhall immediately be ſet at liberty, and ſent to the city of Gibraltar.

V. That there be permiſſion for buying proviſions, and all other neceſſaries, for his Britannic Majeſty's fleet, or city of Gibraltar, at any of the Emperor of Fez and Morocco's ſea ports, at the market prices, and the ſame to be ſhipped off without paying cuſtom, as has been extorted lately, contrary to the treaty of peace ſubſiſting.

VI. All the other articles, being fifteen in number, concluded, agreed, and adjuſted by the honourable Charles Steward, Eſq; on the behalf of his Britannic Majeſty; and by his excellency baſhaw Hamet Ben Aly, Ben Abdalla, and his imperial Majeſty's treaſurer, Mr. Moſes Ben Hatter, a Jew, on behalf of the ſaid King of Fez and Morocco, ſhall ſtand good, and be of the ſame force, as in the reign of the moſt high and renowned Prince George I. King of Great Britain, &c. of glorious memory, and the high and glorious, mighty and right noble Prince Albumazer Muley Iſmael, late Emperor of Morocco. And it is farther agreed, that all the articles aforementioned, as well the fifteen, as theſe additional ones, ſhall, in twenty days after the date hereof, be publiſhed in the Arabic language, and affixed on the gates of all the ſea-port towns in his imperial Majeſty's dominions.

Signed and dated at the court of Mequinez, January 14, 1727-8.

A treaty of peace and friendſhip between the King of Great Britain, *and the Emperor of* Morocco, *in* 1751.

George II. by the grace of God, King of Great Britain, &c. Duke of Brunſwic and Lunenburg, arch-treaſurer, and prince elector, of the holy Roman empire, &c. to all to whom theſe preſents ſhall come, greeting: whereas a treaty for eſtabliſhing peace and friendſhip was concluded and ſigned on the 15th of December 1734, and copied the 15th of Rabbei the firſt, in the year 1164, which is, in Engliſh ſtyle, the 15th day of January 1750, O.S. and the

the additional articles of peace and commerce, concluded and ſigned at the court of Fez, on the 1ſt of February 1751, N. S. between us and the high, glorious, potent, and noble prince, Mulay Abedela, Ben Mulay Iſmael, Ben Mulay Seriph, Ben Mulay Aly, King and Emperor of the kingdoms of Fez, Morocco, &c. by William Petticrew, Eſq; our conſul-general, on our part, and by the alcaide Habed Lohah Ben Hamed Limury, firſt miniſter, on the behalf, and by order of, the ſaid King of Fez and Morocco, in the words and form following.

Treaty of peace between his Majeſty George II. *King of* Great Britain, *&c. and* Mulay Abedela Ben Iſmael, *King and Emperor of* Fez, Mequinez, Morocco, *&c.*

I. For eſtabliſhing peace and friendſhip, it is agreed and concluded for firm and valid, both by land and ſea, in all the dominions of both powers, that the Engliſh in general ſhall and may now, and at all times hereafter, enjoy and continue in peace and friendſhip with the Emperor and his ſubjects, and be well uſed and reſpected by the Emperor's ſubjects, agreeable to the order and commands of the emperor.

II. That ſuch number or quantity of paſſports as may be neceſſary, be tranſmitted to the Emperor, indented in ſuch manner as ſhall tally with the paſſports that ſhall be received by the Engliſh merchants in England; and if an Engliſh man of war meets with any merchant-ſhips belonging to the Emperor, ſuch merchant-ſhips ſhall be obliged to produce and ſhew their paſſports, given to them by the Engliſh conſul.

III. If any diſpute ſhall happen between the Engliſh and the Emperor's ſubjects, the ſame not to be determined by a judge, but ended and adjuſted by the Engliſh conſul and the coyed, that is, the mayor of the town where ſuch diſpute ſhall happen.

IV. That none of the Emperor's ſubjects ſhall, at any time, forcibly enter the houſes of the Engliſh, or any place belonging to them, or take and carry away any of their goods and effects, unleſs they have leave and authority from the emperor ſo to do: that if any of the emperor's ſubjects ſhall hire any Engliſh ſhip to carry and convey goods from one part of the emperor's dominions to another, and ſhall happen by ſtreſs of weather, or any other occaſion, to touch at any place or places in the voyage, ſuch ſhip or ſhips ſhall not be obliged to pay any thing for the ſhelter or aſſiſtance they may receive; and that no Engliſh whatever, or any of their ſervants, tho' not Engliſh, ſhall be liable to pay the tax impoſed upon the Emperor's ſubjects, called the poll-tax.

V. That the fifteen articles of peace made and concluded between king George I. and Muli Iſmael, are hereby agreed to and confirmed, with his Majeſty king George II. as good and valid, and ſhall be faithfully kept and obſerved, together with the aforeſaid four articles.

Treaty of peace between his Majeſty George II. *King of* Great Britain, *&c. and* Mulay Abedela Ben Iſmael, *king and emperor of* Fez, Mequinez, Morocco, &c.

I. That if any Engliſh ſhall happen to be on board any ſhip or ſhips, enemies to the emperor, that may be taken by the emperor's ſhips, ſuch Engliſh ſhall be well treated, delivered into the hands of the Engliſh conſul, and have liberty to go where they pleaſe: this article to continue in force for ſix months from the concluſion of this peace; in which time, it is required that notice ſhall be given by the king of Great Britain to all the Engliſh ſubjects, not to embark on board any of the emperor's enemies ſhips; for after that time, if the Engliſh ſhall ſo embark, the blame muſt be their own, as no regard will be had to them more than the emperor's enemies.

II. If any of the emperor's ſubjects ſhall be made ſlaves, and eſcape to an Engliſh man of war, or to Gibraltar, Port Mahon, or any of the Engliſh dominions, that they ſhall be protected, and with all convenient ſpeed ſent to their reſpective homes. The like treatment to be given to the Engliſh who ſhall be ſlaves, and eſcape to any part of the emperor's dominions.

III. If any Engliſh ſhall contract any thing to be paid to the emperor's ſubjects, notes ſhall be given for the ſame; and in like manner the ſame to be obſerved by the emperor's ſubjects in the Engliſh dominions; and if it ſhall happen that ſuch ſubjects of either power cannot write, to get ſome perſon to write ſuch notes for them.

IV. That no excuſe be made, or ignorance of this peace pretended, the ſame ſhall be publiſhed and declared to all the ſubjects of both powers, both what is now agreed on, and the articles concluded with king George the Firſt; which declaration ſhall be ſigned by each power, and by them kept, to prevent diſputes. This treaty was concluded the 15th of December 1734, and copied the 15th of Rabbei the firſt, in the year 1164, which is, in Engliſh ſtile, the 15th of January 1750.

Additional articles of peace and commerce between the moſt high, illuſtrious, and moſt renowned prince Geo. II. *&c. and the high, glorious, mighty, and moſt noble prince,* Mulay Abedela, Ben Mulay Iſmael, Ben Mulay Seriph, Ben Mulay Aly, *king and emperor of the kingdoms of* Fez, Morocco, Taffilete, Sus, *&c.*

I. It is agreed on and concluded, that from henceforward there ſhall be, between his Majeſty of Great Britain, prince and elector of Hanover, &c. and the king of Fez and Morocco, their heirs and ſucceſſors, a general, true, and perfect peace for ever, as well by land as by ſea and freſh waters; and alſo between the lands, kingdoms, dominions, and territories belonging to, or under the juriſdiction of his Britannic Majeſty in Germany, and thoſe appertaining to the king of Fez and Morocco; and their ſubjects, people, or inhabitants reſpectively, of what condition, degree, or quality ſoever, from henceforth reciprocally ſhall owe the other all friendſhip; and that all ſhips, veſſels, paſſengers with their effects, trafficking voluntary, or compelled by enemies, diſaſters of the ſeas, or any accident whatſoever, to the coaſts of the emperor of Fez and Morocco's dominions, being his Britannic Majeſty's ſubjects in Germany, ſhall from henceforth be treated according to the ſaid regulations as ſpecified by the treaties of peace now ſubſiſting between his Britannic Majeſty and the king of Fez and Morocco.

II. It is agreed that all ſhips and veſſels belonging to his Britannic Majeſty in Germany, ſhall carry a proper paſs, and that a copy of ſuch paſs, with the heads of the ſaid paſſes, ſhall be ſent to his Britannic Majeſty's conſul reſiding in Barbary, to the end that he may deliver the ſame to the commanders, or captains, of the king of Fez and Morocco's ſhips of war, or cruizers, to the end that due regard may be had to this peace, and that no commander or captain may offend through ignorance; and all commanders or captains of ſhips or veſſels belonging to his Britannic Majeſty's ſubjects in Germany, meeting with any ſhip or veſſel belonging to the king of Fez and Morocco, or his ſubjects, if the commander of ſuch ſhip or veſſel produce a paſs, ſigned by the governor of the city they belong to, with a certificate from the Engliſh conſul, and, in caſe of his death or abſence, from the major part of the Engliſh merchants reſiding in the ſaid place, in ſuch caſes, the ſaid ſhip or veſſel ſhall purſue freely her voyage, without hinderance or moleſtation.

III. It is agreed that the king of Great Britain's ſubjects ſhall not be obliged to appear before juſtices of the country in any cauſe, but that only the governor of the city, and his Britannic Majeſty's conſul, ſhall take cognizance of, and adjuſt the difference or ſuits they may have with the Moors, or other inhabitants in the dominions of the king of Fez and Morocco.

IV. It is agreed that no governor or officer under the king of Fez and Morocco ſhall, without the king's ſpecial order, viſit or regiſter the dwelling-houſes or magazines of any of his Britannic Majeſty's ſubjects reſiding in Barbary; and that all Britiſh ſhips taking freight in any port of the king of Fez and Morocco, to carry to other ports of the ſaid kingdom, ſhall be exempted from all port charges, as uſual, in whatever port they may put in; and that the conſul, and the other Britiſh merchants, ſhall be freely allowed to have Moors, or Jews, as their in-

terpreters and brokers, who ſhall be exempted from all taxes, as likewiſe all their domeſtic ſervants.

All the other articles, being fifteen in number, concluded, agreed, and adjuſted, by the admiral Charles Stewart, on the behalf of his Britannic Majeſty, and by his excellency baſhaw Hamet Ben Aly Ben Abdalla, and his Imperial Majeſty's treaſurer, Mr. Moſes Benatar, on behalf of the ſaid king of Fez and Morocco, ſhall ſtand good, and be of the ſame force, as in the reign of the moſt high, illuſtrious, and renowned prince, George the Firſt, king of Great Britain, &c. of glorious memory, and the high, mighty, and moſt noble prince, Mulay Iſmael, late emperor of Morocco; as likewiſe the other articles, being three in number, agreed and concluded by John Leonard Sollicoffree, Eſq; on behalf of his Britannic Majeſty, and his excelleney baſhaw Hamet Ben Aly Ben Abdalla, on behalf of the king of Fez and Morocco.

It is agreed on and concluded, that all the articles aforementioned, being eighteen in number, with theſe additional articles, that are tranſlated into the Arabic language, copies thereof be ſent to all his Imperial Majeſty's alcaides, and officers of all the ports in his dominions, there to be read by the cadi, or chief juſtice, in public aſſembly, and afterwards to remain depoſited, either in the hands of the judge, or the alcaide of the port, that recourſe may be had thereto on all occaſions which may occur; and that the ratifications of the ſaid articles ſhall be made within the term of ſix months, or ſooner, if poſſible, in Spaniſh, which ſhall be received, and be of equal force. Dated and ſigned at the court of Fez, on the 1ſt of February, 1751, N. S.

Signed ABDELHOVAH ALY MOORY.

Treaty of peace between his Majeſty George I. *king of* Great Britain, *&c. and* Muli Iſmael, *ſon of* Muli Aly Sherife, *king of* Fez, Mequinez, Morocco, *&c.*

I. In order to eſtabliſh peace between the powers, both by land and ſea, and all their reſpective dominions, it is agreed on, that the Engliſh may now, and always hereafter, be well uſed and reſpected by our ſubjects, agreeable to the orders and commands of the emperor.

II. That all Engliſh men of war and merchant ſhips, that ſhall come to any part of the emperor's dominions, to trade or otherwiſe, and ſhall have on board a cargo not proper for vending in the place where they ſhall come, may depart with the ſame to any other part of the emperor's dominions, and ſhall pay duty but once for the ſame; and that no duty at all ſhall be paid for any war implements, ſuch as fire-arms, ſwords, and any thing belonging to the army, as alſo for materials of all kinds for ſhip-building; and if any Engliſh ſhip ſhall arrive at any of the emperor's ports, with any merchandiſe deſtined for any other part of the world, that no duty ſhall be paid for ſuch merchandiſe, but ſhall depart with the ſame, without any manner of moleſtation. If any Engliſh ſhip ſhall be thrown upon the emperor's coaſts by ſtreſs of weather, or otherwiſe, the ſame ſhall be protected, and may ſafely depart, without any ill uſage or interruption. In like manner ſhall be treated the emperor's ſubjects happening to be thus thrown on the coaſt of Great Britain, or the dominions thereto belonging.

III. That all the Engliſh ſhips and emperor's ſhips may paſs and repaſs the ſeas without hinderance, interruption, or moleſtation, from each other; nor ſhall any money, merchandiſe, or any demand be made or taken, by the ſhips of either power from each other; and if any ſubjects of any other nation ſhall be on board either the Engliſh or the emperor's ſhips, they ſhall be ſafely protected by both parties.

IV. If the emperor's men of war meet with any Engliſh ſhips, and ſhall want to ſee their paſſports, they are to ſend a boat, with two men of fidelity, to peruſe the ſaid paſſports, who are to return without any further trouble, and then both ſides to proceed quietly on their reſpective voyages; the ſame uſage to be received by the emperor's merchant ſhips from the Engliſh men of war, who ſhall allow the paſſports made out by the Engliſh conſul, and, if the conſul ſhall not be preſent to make them, then the paſſports made out by the Engliſh merchants to be good and valid.

V. If the Engliſh men of war, privateers, or letter of marque ſhips, ſhall take prizes from any nation with whom they ſhall be at war, they ſhall have liberty to bring and diſpoſe of the ſame in any of the emperor's dominions, without any duty or charge whatſoever.

VI. If any Engliſh ſhip ſhall by ſtorm, or in flying from her enemy, come upon the emperor's coaſts, the ſame ſhall be ſafely protected, and nothing touched and taken away; but ſhall be under the direction of the Engliſh conſul, who ſhall ſend the goods and people where he ſhall think fit.

VII. It is the mutual agreement of the king of Great Britain and the emperor, that the emperor do iſſue out orders to all parts of his dominions, for the well uſing of all the Engliſh ſubjects, and that particular places be appointed for the burial of their dead; that the conſul's brokers ſhall freely go on board any ſhip, without interruption; that the Engliſh conſuls, merchants, and other ſubjects of Great Britain, may ſafely travel by land with effects, without any hindrance whatever; and if any Engliſh ſettled in the emperor's dominions ſhall be deſirous to return home, that they may ſo do, with their families, goods, and effects, without interruption: if any Engliſh die, the effects of ſuch to be taken under the care of the conſul, to be diſpoſed of as directed by the will of ſuch perſon, and, if no will, for the benefit of ſuch perſon's next heir; and if any debts ſhall be owing to ſuch deceaſed perſon, the ſame to be paid by order of the governor, or any other perſon in power, where ſuch perſon ſhall die; and that a ſubject of the emperor's be appointed to demand and receive the ſame, and depoſit the ſame in the hands of the Engliſh conſul, for the aforeſaid uſes. If any Engliſh ſhall contract debts in the emperor's country, and remove from thence without ſatisfying the ſame, no other perſons ſhall be liable to pay ſuch debts. The like uſage and treatment the ſubjects of the emperor are to receive in the king of Great Britain's dominions; and that the king may ſend as many conſuls to the emperor's dominions as he ſhall think neceſſary.

VIII. That no Engliſh merchant, captains of ſhips, or other perſon or perſons whatſoever, that are Engliſh ſubjects, ſhall be forced to ſell any of their goods for leſs than the real value; and that no captain, matter, or commander of any Engliſh ſhip ſhall be compelled, without their own will and conſent, to carry any goods or merchandiſes for any perſon or perſons whatſoever; nor ſhall any ſailor be forced away from any Engliſh ſhip.

IX. If any quarrel or diſpute ſhall happen between any Engliſhman and a Muſſelman, by which hurt to either may enſue, the ſame to be heard before, and determined by the emperor only; and if an Engliſhman, who may be the aggreſſor, ſhall make his eſcape, no other Engliſhman ſhall ſuffer upon his account; and if two Engliſhmen ſhall quarrel, to be determined by the Engliſh conſul, who ſhall do with them as he pleaſes: and if any quarrel or diſpute ſhall happen ſhall happen between Muſſelmen in England, or in any of the Engliſh dominions, by which hurt may enſue, the ſame to be heard before one Chriſtian and one Muſſelman, and to be determined according to the laws of Great Britain.

X. If it ſhall happen that this peace, by any means, ſhall be broke, the conſul, and all other Engliſh, ſhall have ſix months time to remove themſelves, with their families and effects, to any place they pleaſe, without interruption, and that all debts owing to them ſhall be juſtly paid to them.

XI. If any Engliſh in the emperor's dominions, or the emperor's ſubjects in the Engliſh dominions, ſhall maliciouſly endeavour to break the peace, ſuch of them who ſhall be proved ſo to intend, ſhall by each power be puniſhed for ſuch offence, each power to take cognizance of their own ſubjects.

XII. If any of the emperor's ſubjects ſhall purchaſe any commodity in the Engliſh dominions, they ſhall not be impoſed on in price, but pay the ſame as is ſold to the Engliſh.

XIII. That

XIII. That not any of the Spaniſh, whether captains, ſailors, or other perſons, under the Engliſh government in Gibraltar or Port Mahon, ſhall be taken or moleſted, ſailing under Engliſh colours, with paſſports.

XIV. That no excuſe bemade, or ignorance pretended, of this peace, the ſame ſhall be publiſhed and declared to all the ſubjects of each power; which declaration ſhall be ſigned by each power, and kept by them, to prevent diſputes.

XV. If any man of war ſhall be on the emperor's coaſts, that are enemies to the Engliſh, and any Engliſh men of war, or other Engliſh ſhips, ſhall happen to be, or arrive there alſo, that they ſhall not in any manner be hurt, or engaged by their enemy; and when ſuch Engliſh ſhips ſhall ſail, their enemies ſhips ſhall not ſet ſail under forty hours afterwards.

And if, after the concluſion of this peace, any ſhip ſhall happen to be taken by either power, within ſix months after the proclamation of the peace, that the ſame, with the people and effects, ſhall be reſtored. Made and declared in the preſence of the emperor's ſervant, Ahammad Baſha, ſon of Alli, ſon of Abdulla, by the authority given to him by the emperor. Dated this 23d of January, in the year 1721, Engliſh ſtile. Wrote and given to Charles Stewart, Eſq; the Engliſh ambaſſador, in the ſeventh year of the reign of our late royal father, king George the Firſt.

We having ſeen and conſidered the above-written treaty, with the additional articles, have approved, ratified, and confirmed the ſame, in all and ſingular their clauſes, as by theſe preſents we do approve, ratify, and confirm the ſame, for us, our heirs and ſucceſſors, engaging and promiſing, on our royal word, ſacredly and inviolably to perform and obſerve all and ſingular their contents, and never to ſuffer, as far as in us lies, any perſon to violate the ſame, or in any manner to act contrary thereto. In witneſs whereof, we have cauſed our great ſeal of Great Britain to be affixed to theſe preſents, ſigned with our own royal hand. Given at our court at Kenſington, the thirty-firſt day of July, in the year of our Lord 1751, and of our reign the twenty-fifth.

GEORGE R.

Articles of peace and commerce between the moſt ſerene and mighty prince Charles II. *by the grace*, &c. *and moſt illuſtrious lords the baſha, dey, and aga, governors of the famous city and kingdom of* Algiers, *&c. concluded by* Arthur Herbert, *Eſq; admiral of his Majeſty's fleet*, April 10, *O. S.* 1682. *With the few alterations made and included at the renewal thereof in* 1686: *all which are, for diſtinction, in a different character.*

I. In the firſt place it is agreed and concluded, That from this day, and for ever forwards, there be a true, firm, and inviolable peace between the moſt ſerene king of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, &c. and the moſt illuſtrious lords the baſha, dey, and aga, governors of the city and kingdom of Algiers, and between all the dominions and ſubjects of either ſide; and that the ſhips, or other veſſels, and the ſubjects and people of both ſides, ſhall not henceforth do to each other any harm, offence, or injury, either in word or deed, but ſhall treat one another with all poſſible reſpect and friendſhip; and that all demands and pretenſions whatſoever, to this day, between both parties, ſhall ceaſe and be void.

II. That any of the ſhips, or other veſſels, belonging to the ſaid king of Great Britain, &c. or to any of his Majeſty's ſubjects, may ſafely come to the port of Algiers, or to any other port or place of that kingdom, there freely to buy and ſell, paying the uſual cuſtoms of 10 *per cent.* as in former times, for ſuch goods as they ſell; and the goods they ſell not, they ſhall freely carry on board, without paying any duties for the ſame: and that they ſhall freely depart from thence whenſoever they pleaſe, without any ſtop or hinderance whatſoever; as to contraband merchandiſes, as powder, brimſtone, iron, planks, and all ſorts of timber fit for building of ſhips, ropes, pitch, tar, fuſils, and other habiliments of war, his ſaid majeſty's ſubjects ſhall pay no duty for the ſame to thoſe of Algiers.

III. That all ſhips, and other veſſels, as well thoſe belonging to the ſaid king of Great Britain, or to any of his majeſty's ſubjects, as thoſe belonging to the kingdom or people of Algiers, ſhall freely paſs the ſeas, and traffic, without any ſearch, hinderance, or moleſtation, from each other; and that all perſons, or paſſengers, of what country ſoever, and all monies, goods, merchandiſes, and moveables, to whatſoever people or nation belonging, being on board any of the ſaid ſhips or veſſels, ſhall be wholly free, and ſhall not be ſtopped, taken, or plundered, nor receive any harm or damage whatſoever from either party.

IV. That the Algiers ſhips of war, or other veſſels, meeting with any merchant-ſhips, or other veſſels, of his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects, not being in any of the ſeas appertaining to his Majeſty's dominions, may ſend on board one ſingle boat, with two ſitters only, beſides the ordinary crew of rowers, and that no more ſhall enter any ſuch merchant ſhip, or veſſel, without expreſs leave from the commander thereof, but the two ſitters alone; and, upon producing a paſs under the hand and ſeal of the lord high admiral of England and Ireland, or of the lord high admiral of Scotland, for the ſaid kingdoms reſpectively, or under the hands and ſeals of the commiſſioners for executing the office of lord high admiral of any of the ſaid kingdoms, that the ſaid ſhip ſhall proceed freely on her voyage; and that although for the ſpace of 15 months next enſuing after the concluſion of this peace, the ſaid commander of the merchant ſhip, or veſſel, produces no ſuch paſs, yet if the major part of the ſeamen of the ſaid ſhip, or veſſel, be ſubjects of the ſaid king of Great Britain, the ſaid boat ſhall immediately depart, and the ſaid merchant ſhip, or veſſel, ſhall freely proceed on her voyage; but that, after the ſaid fifteen months, all merchant ſhips, or veſſels, of his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects, ſhall be obliged to produce ſuch a paſs as aforeſaid. And any of the ſhips of war of his ſaid Majeſty, meeting with any ſhips, or other veſſels of Algiers, if the commander of any ſuch ſhip or veſſel ſhall produce a paſs, confirmed by the chief governors of Algiers, and a certificate from the Engliſh conſul there reſiding, or, if they have no ſuch paſs, or certificate, yet if, for the ſpace of fifteen months next enſuing the concluſion of this peace, the major part of the ſhip's company be Turks, Moors, or ſlaves belonging to Algiers, then the ſaid Algiers ſhips or veſſels ſhall proceed freely; but that, after the ſaid fifteen months, all Algiers ſhips or veſſels ſhall be obliged to produce ſuch a paſs and certificate as aforeſaid. *The only alteration in this, regards the fifteen months term allowed for paſſes*, &c.

V. That no commander, or other perſon, of any ſhip or veſſel of Algiers, ſhall take out of any ſhip or veſſel of his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects, any perſon or perſons whatſoever, to carry them any where to be examined, or upon any other pretence; nor ſhall they uſe any torture or violence to any perſon, of what nation or quality ſoever, being on board any ſhip or veſſel of his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects, upon any pretence whatſoever.

VI. That no ſhipwreck belonging to the ſaid king of Great Britain, or to any of his ſubjects, upon any part of the coaſt belonging to Algiers, ſhall be made, or become prize; and that neither the goods thereof ſhall be ſeized, nor the men made ſlaves, but that all the ſubjects of Algiers ſhall uſe their beſt endeavours to ſave the ſaid men and their goods.

VII. That no ſhip, or any other veſſel of Algiers, ſhall have permiſſion to be delivered up, or go to Sallee, or any place in enmity with the ſaid king of Great Britain, to be made uſe of as corſairs, or ſea-rovers, againſt his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects.

VIII. That none of the ſhips, or other ſmaller veſſels of Algiers, ſhall remain cruizing near, or in ſight of his Majeſty's city and garriſon of Tangier, or of any other his Majeſty's roads, havens, ports, towns, and places, nor any way diſturb the peace and commerce of the ſame. *Tangier now omitted.*

IX. That if any ſhip or veſſel, of Tunis, Tripoly, or Sallee, or of any other place, bring any ſhips, veſſels, men, or goods, belonging to any of his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects to Algiers, or to any port or place in that king-

dom, the governors there ſhall not permit them to be ſold within the territories of Algiers.

X. That if any of the ſhips of war of the ſaid king of Great Britain do come to Algiers, or to any other port or place of that kingdom, with any prize, they may freely ſell it, or otherwiſe diſpoſe of it, at pleaſure, without being moleſted by any: and that his ſaid Majeſty's ſhips of war ſhall not be obliged to pay cuſtoms in any fort; and that if they ſhall want proviſions, victuals, or any other things, they may freely buy them at the rates in the market.

XI. That when any of his ſaid Majeſty's ſhips of war ſhall appear before Algiers, upon notice thereof given by the Engliſh conſul, or by the commander of the ſaid ſhips, to the chief governors of Algiers, public proclamation ſhall be immediately made to ſecure the Chriſtian captives: and if after that, any Chriſtians whatſoever make their eſcape on b ard any of the ſaid ſhips of war, they ſhall not be required, nor ſhall the ſaid conſul or commander, or any other of his Majeſty's ſubjects, be obliged to pay any thing for the ſaid Chriſtians.

XII. That from and after the time that the ratification of this treaty by the king of Great Britain, ſhall be delivered to the chief governors of Algiers, no ſubjects of his ſaid Majeſty ſhall be bought or ſold, or made ſlaves in any part of the kingdom of Algiers, upon any pretence whatſoever. And the ſaid king of Great Britain ſhall not be obliged, by virtue of this treaty of peace, to redeem any of his ſubjects now in ſlavery, or who may be made ſlaves before the ſaid ratification, but it ſhall depend abſolutely upon his Majeſty, or the friends and relations of the ſaid perſons in ſlavery, without any limitation or reſtriction of time, to redeem ſuch, or ſo many of them, from time to time, as ſhall be thought fit, agreeing for as reaſonable a price as may be, with their patrons or maſters, for their redemption, without obliging the ſaid patrons or maſters, againſt their wills, to ſet any at liberty, whether they be ſlaves belonging to the beylic, or public, the gallies, or ſuch as belong particularly to the baſha, dey, aga, or any other perſons whatſoever. And all ſlaves, being his Majeſty's ſubjects, ſhall, when they are redeemed, enjoy the abatements of the duty due to the royal houſe, and of the other charges, by paying ſuch reaſonable ſums as any ſlaves of other nations uſually pay when they are redeemed.

XIII. That if any ſubject of the ſaid king of Great Britain happen to die in Algiers, or in any part of its territories, his goods or monies ſhall not be ſeized by the governors, judges, or other officers of Algiers, who likewiſe ſhall not make any enquiry after them: but the ſaid goods or monies, ſhall be received and poſſeſſed by ſuch perſon or perſons, whom the deceaſed ſhall by his laſt will, have made his heir or heirs, in caſe they be upon the place where the teſtator deceaſed. But if the heirs be not there, then the executors of the ſaid will, lawfully conſtituted by the deceaſed, ſhall, after having made an inventory of all the goods and monies left, take them into their cuſtody without any hinderance, and ſhall take care the ſame be remitted by ſome ſafe way, to the true and lawful heirs; and in caſe any of his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects happen to die, not having made any will, the Engliſh conſul ſhall poſſeſs himſelf of his goods and monies, upon inventory, for the uſe of the kindred and heirs of the deceaſed.

XIV. That no merchants, being his Majeſty's ſubjects, and reſiding in or trading to the city and kingdom of Algiers, ſhall be obliged to buy any merchandiſes againſt their wills, but it ſhall be free for them to buy ſuch commodities as they ſhall think fit: and no captain, or commander of any ſhip or veſſel belonging to his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects, ſhall be obliged againſt his will, to lade any goods to carry them, or make a voyage to any place whither he ſhall not have a mind to go. And neither the Engliſh conſul, nor any other ſubject of the ſaid king, ſhall be bound to pay the debts of any other of his Majeſty's ſubjects, except that he or they become ſureties for the ſame, by a public act.

XV. That the ſubjects of his ſaid Majeſty in Algiers, or its territories, in matter of controverſy, ſhall be liable to no other juriſdiction but that of the dey, or the divan, except they happen to be at difference between themſelves, in which caſe they ſhall be liable to no other determination but that of the conſul only.

XVI. That in caſe any ſubject of his ſaid Majeſty, being in any part of the kingdom of Algiers, happen to ſtrike, wound, or kill a Turk, or a Moor, if he be taken, he is to be puniſhed in the ſame manner, and with no greater ſeverity than a Turk ought to be, being guilty of the ſame offence; but if he eſcape, neither the ſaid Engliſh conſul, nor any other of his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects, ſhall be in any fort queſtioned and troubled therefore.

XVII. That the Engliſh conſul now, or at any time hereafter, reſiding at Algiers, ſhall be there, at all times, with entire freedom and ſafety of his perſon and eſtate, and ſhall be permitted to chuſe his own terjiman, interpreter, and broker, and freely to go on board any ſhips in the road, as often and when he pleaſes, and to have the liberty of the country; and that he ſhall be allowed a place to pray in, and that no man ſhall do him an injury, in word or deed.

XVIII. That not only during the continuance of this peace and friendſhip, but likewiſe, if any breach of war happens hereafter to be between the ſaid king of Great Britain and the kingdom of Algiers, the ſaid Engliſh conſul, and all others his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects, inhabiting in the kingdom of Algiers, ſhall, always and at all times, both of peace and war, have full and abſolute liberty to depart and go to their own, or any other country, upon any ſhip or veſſel, of what nation ſoever they ſhall think fit, and to carry with them all their eſtates, goods, families, and ſervants, without any interruption or hinderance.

XIX. That no ſubject of his ſaid Majeſty, being a paſſenger, and coming or going with his baggage, from or to any port, ſhall be any ways moleſted or meddled with, although he be on board any ſhip or veſſel in enmity with Algiers; and in like manner, no Algerine paſſenger, being on board any ſhip or veſſel in enmity with the ſaid king of Great Britain, ſhall be any way moleſted, whether in his perſon or in his goods, which he may have laden on board the ſaid ſhip or veſſel.

XX. That at all times, when any ſhip of war of the king of Great Britain's, carrying his ſaid Majeſty's flag at the main-top-maſt head, ſhall appear before Algiers, and come to an anchor in the road, immediately upon notice thereof given by his Majeſty's conſul, or ſome officer from the ſhip, to the dey and regency of Algiers, they ſhall, in honour to his Majeſty, cauſe a ſalute of 21 cannon to be ſhot off, from the caſtles and forts of the city, and that the ſaid ſhip ſhall return an anſwer by ſhooting off the ſame number of cannon.

XXI. That preſently after the ſigning and ſealing of theſe articles, by the baſha, dey, aga, and chiefs of Algiers, all injuries and damages ſuſtained on either part, ſhall be quite taken away and forgotten, and this peace ſhall be in full force and virtue, and continue for ever: and for all depredations and damages that ſhall be afterwards committed or done by either ſide, before notice can be given of this peace, full ſatisfaction ſhall immediately be made, *and whatſoever remains in kind ſhall be inſtantly reſtored.*

XXII. That in caſe it ſhall happen hereafter, that any thing is done or committed contrary to this treaty, whether by the ſubjects of the one or the other party, the treaty notwithſtanding ſhall ſubſiſt in full force, and ſuch contraventions ſhall not occaſion the breach of this peace, friendſhip, and good correſpondence, but the party injured ſhall amicably demand immediate ſatisfaction for the ſaid contraventions, before it be lawful to break the peace: and if the fault was committed by any private ſubjects of either party, they alone ſhall be puniſhed, as breakers of the peace and diſturbers of the public quiet. And our faith ſhall be our faith, and our word our word.

Confirmed and ſealed, in the preſence of Almighty God, April 10, of Jeſus 1682, of the Hejira 1093, Abrir 11.

This is the treaty which remains ſtill in force, and has been ever ſince referred to when any renewals, with additional

ditional articles, have been made by our ſucceeding ſovereigns. It was, *mutatis mutandis*, renewed and confirmed, April 5, 1686, by Sir William Soame, Bart. when he was going ambaſſador extraordinary from king James II. to the Grand Signior, with ſcarce any alterations, except literals, and what elſe has been obſerved.

In 1691, Thomas Barker, Eſq; ſent for by Shaaban Hojia, then dey of Algiers, renewed and confirmed the ſame, without alteration or addition.

In 1700 Capt. Munden, jointly with Robert Cole, Eſq; then Conſul for our nation at Algiers, renewed and confirmed the ſame, with the following additional articles.

I. We the moſt excellent and moſt illuſtrious lords, Muſtafa Dey, Ali Baſha, and Muſtafa Aga, governors of the moſt famous and warlike city and kingdom of Algiers, do, by theſe preſents, renew and confirm the peace we ſo happily enjoy, with William, King of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, defender of the Chriſtian faith, and his ſubjects, made in the year of Jeſus 1682, of the Hejira 1093, and renewed four years after, in every part and article, more particularly that of the eighth, wherein it is expreſſed, that no ſhip or veſſel belonging to our government of Algiers, ſhall cruiſe near, or in ſight of, any of the roads, havens, or ports, towns, or places belonging to the ſaid king of Great Britain, or any way diſturb the peace and commerce of the ſame: and in compliance with the ſaid eighth article of that treaty, we do ſincerely promiſe and declare, that ſuch orders ſhall for the future be given to all our commanders, that, under a ſevere penalty and our utmoſt diſpleaſure, they ſhall not enter into the channel of England, nor come, or cruize in ſight of any part of his Majeſty of Great Britain's dominions any more for the time to come.

II. That whereas it had been declared, that all ſhips and veſſels belonging to the ſubjects of the ſaid king of Great Britain ſhould have paſſes, &c. by the laſt day of September, in this preſent year of Jeſus 1700; we do by theſe declare, at the deſire of Capt. John Munden, commander in chief of his ſaid Majeſty's ſhips in the Mediterranean, and Robert Cole, Eſq; his Majeſty's conſul, now reſiding at our city of Algiers, on behalf of their great maſter, that no paſſes ſhall be required or expected from any of the Engliſh ſhips or veſſels, in any part of the world, but that they ſhall proceed on their voyage, without producing, or ſhewing a paſs to any of our cruizers, till the laſt of September 1701. And after that time is expired, and any ſhip of England be ſeized, not having a paſs, we do hereby declare, that the goods in that ſhip ſhall be priſe, but the maſter, men, and ſhip, ſhall be reſtored, and the freight immediately paid to the ſaid maſter, to the utmoſt value as he ſhould have had, if he had gone ſafe to the port whither he was bound.

III. That whereas Capt. John Munden has given us good aſſurance that he had a great affront ſome years paſt, from ſome of our rude ſailors at our Mole, we do hereby promiſe, that, at all times, whenever any of the king of Great Britain's ſhips of war ſhall come to this place, order ſhall be immediately given to an officer of the government, who ſhall attend at the Mole all the day time, during their ſtay here, to prevent any ſuch diſorders for the future, that no miſunderſtanding may happen between us: and in any ſuch caſe, the officer at the Mole ſhall ſecure the perſon or perſons ſo offending, who ſhall be puniſhed with the utmoſt ſeverity. By the help of God, and if he pleaſe, theſe articles, now made between us, ſhall be maintained. To the truth whereof, we have hereunto ſet our hands and ſeals, Algiers, in the year of the Hejira 1112, which is in the Chriſtian account Auguſt 20, 1700.

In 1703, admiral Byng, afterwards lord viſcount Torrington, renewing the peace for queen Anne with the ſame Muſtafa Dey, inſerted the two new articles, which are as follow: the preliminary one being only a confirmation of the foregoing, for which reaſon it is omitted.

I. That whereas by the ſaid articles of peace, made and concluded by admiral Herbert in 1682, it was agreed, that the ſubjects of England ſhould pay 10 *per cent.* cuſtom, for the goods they ſhould ſell at Algiers, or in the dominions thereof. Now, for the better ſettling and maintaining a good commerce between the ſubjects of England and thoſe of Algiers, it is agreed and declared, that, from henceforwards, the Engliſh ſhall pay but 5 *per cent.* cuſtom; and that contraband goods, as is declared before, ſhall not pay any cuſtom.

II. And it is farther agreed and declared, that all prizes taken by any one of the ſubjects of the ſaid queen of Great Britain, and all ſhips and veſſels built and fitted out in any of her Majeſty's plantations in America, that have not been in England, ſhall not be moleſted in caſe of their not having paſſes: but that a certificate in writing, under the hands of the commanding officers who ſhall take any prizes, and a certificate under the hand of the governors or chiefs of ſuch American colonies or places where ſuch ſhips were built or fitted out, ſhall be ſufficient paſſes for either of them. And our faith ſhall be our faith, and our word our word.

Algiers, confirmed and ſealed, in the preſence of Almighty God, October 28, in the year of Jeſus 1703, of the Hejira 1115.

This was again renewed in the reign of his late Majeſty king George I. when in 1716, admiral Baker had orders to viſit Tripoli, Tunis, and Algiers. With the two firſt, he confirmed our former treaties in perſon; but to Algiers, he deputed the Argyle and Cheſter, two of his Majeſty's ſhips, to whoſe commanders, Capt. Coningſby Norbury, and Capt. Nicholas Eaton, in conjunction with Mr. Thomas Thompſon, then acting as conſul in the abſence of his brother Samuel Thompſon, Eſq; he gave a full power to ratify and confirm all the above treaties, with theſe following new articles. After the preamble, the firſt article concludes thus:

I. If any demands or pretenſions ſhall be now left depending, between the ſubjects or others of either party, they ſhall be amicably redreſſed, and full ſatisfaction ſhall be made to each other, according to the truth and juſtice of their claim: nor ſhall any of the ſame be cancelled, or made void by this treaty.

II. That as the iſland of Minorca in the Mediterranean ſea, and the city of Gibraltar in Spain, have been yielded and annexed to the crown of Great Britain, as well by the king of Spain, as by the ſeveral powers of Europe engaged in the late war, it is now hereby agreed and fully concluded, that, from this time forwards for ever, the ſaid iſland of Minorca, and city of Gibraltar, ſhall be eſteemed, in every reſpect, by the government and people of Algiers to be part of his Britannic Majeſty's dominions, and the inhabitants thereof to be looked upon as his Majeſty's natural ſubjects, in the ſame manner as if they had been born in any other part of the Britiſh territories: and they with their ſhips and veſſels, wearing Britiſh colours, and being furniſhed with proper paſſes, ſhall be permitted freely to trade and traffic in any part of the dominions of Algiers, and ſhall paſs without any moleſtation whatſoever, and ſhall have the ſame liberties and privileges that are ſtipulated in this, and have been made in any other treaties in behalf of the Britiſh nation and ſubjects; and therefore none of the cruizers of Algiers ſhall, at any time, cruize within ſight of the ſaid iſland of Minorca and city of Gibraltar.

III. That if any Engliſh ſhip ſhall receive on board any paſſengers and goods belonging to the kingdom of Algiers, the Engliſh ſhall defend the ſaid Algerines and their goods ſo far as lies in their power, and not deliver them to their enemies. And the better to prevent any unjuſt demands being made upon the crown of Great Britain, and to avoid diſputes and differences that may ariſe, all goods and merchandiſe that ſhall from hence forwards be ſhipped by the ſubjects of Algiers, on board the ſhips or veſſels of Britiſh ſubjects upon freight, ſhall be firſt regiſtered in the office of cancelleria, before the Britiſh conſul reſiding in the port where they are ſo ſhipped, and the quantity, quality, and value thereof ſhall be expreſſed, and the conſul is to manifeſt the ſame in the clearance given to the ſhip or veſſel before it ſhall depart, to the end that if any cauſe of complaint ſhould happen hereafter, there may be no greater claim made on the Britiſh nation, than what by this method may be proved juſt and equitable.

IV. That

IV. That if any of the Algerine cruizers ſhall meet with ſhips provided with ſcallop paſſes, of either ſhips or ſatias, that ſhall fit with thoſe delivered to them by the Britiſh conſul, they ſhall paſs free and unmoleſted. Algiers, October 29, 1716.

Treaty of peace and commerce, between the moſt ſerene and mighty prince George *II. by the grace of God, of* Great Britain, France, *and* Ireland, *king, defender of the Chriſtian faith, Duke of* Brunſwick *and* Lunenburgh, *arch-treaſurer and Elector of the Holy Roman Empire,* &c. &c. &c. *and the moſt excellent and illuſtrious lords,* Mahamet Baſhaw Gramali, *dey, governor, and captain-general,* Seedy Ali Bey, Seedy Haſſan Kiaja, *the divan, and all the officers, ſoldiers, and people of the noble city and kingdom of* Tripoli *in* Barbary, *renewed, agreed on, and confirmed, by the honourable* Auguſtus Keppel, *commander in chief of his* Britannic *Majeſty's ſhips and veſſels in and about the* Mediterranean *ſeas, and* Robert White, *Eſq; his ſaid ſerene Majeſty's agent, and conſul-general to the dey and ſtate of* Tripoli, *furniſhed with his Majeſty's full powers for that purpoſe.*

I. In the firſt place it is agreed and concluded, That from this time forward, for ever, there ſhall be a true and inviolable peace, between the moſt ſerene king of Great Britain, and the moſt illuſtrious lords and governors of the city and kingdom of Tripoli in Barbary; and between all the dominions and ſubjects of either ſide; and if the ſhips and ſubjects of either party, ſhall happen to meet upon the ſeas, or elſewhere, they ſhall not moleſt each other, but ſhall ſhew all poſſible reſpect and friendſhip.

II. That all merchant ſhips belonging to the dominions of Great Britain, and trading to the city, or any part of the kingdom of Tripoli, ſhall pay no more than 3 *per cent.* cuſtom, for all kinds of goods they ſhall ſell; and for ſuch as they ſhall not ſell, they ſhall be permitted freely to emba k it again on board their ſhips, without paying any ſort of duty whatſoever, and ſhall depart without any hindrance or moleſtation.

III. That all ſhips and other veſſels, as well thoſe belonging to the ſaid king of Great Britain, or to any of his Majeſty's ſubjects, as thoſe belonging to the kingdom or people of Tripoli, ſhall paſs the ſeas, and traffic where they pleaſe, without any ſearch, hindrance, or moleſtation from each other: and that all perſons or paſſengers, of what country ſoever; and all monies, goods, merchandiſes, and moveables, to whatſoever people or nation belonging, being on board of any the ſaid ſhips or veſſels, ſhall be wholly free, and ſhall not be ſtopped, taken or plundered from either party.

IV. The Tripoli ſhips of war, or any other veſſels thereunto belonging, meeting with any merchant ſhips, or other veſſels of the king of Great Britain's ſubjects not being in any of the ſeas appertaining to any of his Majeſty's dominions, may ſend on board one ſingle boat, with two ſitters, beſides the ordinary crew of rowers; and no more but the two ſitters to enter any of the ſaid merchant ſhips, or any other veſſels, without the expreſs leave of the commander of every ſuch ſhip or veſſel; and then, upon producing unto them a paſs under the hand and ſeal of the lord high admiral of England, the ſaid boat ſhall preſently depart, and the merchant-ſhip or ſhips, veſſel or veſſels, ſhall proceed freely on her or their voyage: and although the commander or commanders of the ſaid merchant-ſhip or ſhips, veſſel or veſſels, produce no paſs from the lord high admiral of England, yet if the major part of the ſhips or veſſels company be ſubjects to the ſaid king of Great Britain, the ſaid boat ſhall preſently depart, and the merchant ſhip or ſhips, veſſel or veſſels, ſhall proceed freely on her or their voyage: and any of the ſaid ſhips of war, or other veſſels of his ſaid Majeſty, meeting with any ſhip or ſhips, veſſel or veſſels, belonging to Tripoli, if the commander of any ſuch ſhip or ſhips, veſſel or veſſels, ſhall produce a paſs, ſigned by the chief governors of Tripoli, and a certificate from the Engliſh conſul living there; or if they have no ſuch paſs or certificate, yet if the major part of their ſhips company or companies be Turks, Moors, or ſlaves belonging to Tripoli, then the ſaid Tripoli ſhip or ſhips, veſſel or veſſels, ſhall proceed freely.

V. That no commander, or other perſon, of any ſhip or veſſel of Tripoli, ſhall take out of any ſhip or veſſel of his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects, any perſon or perſons whatſoever, to carry them any where to be examined, or upon any other pretence, nor ſhall uſe any torture or violence unto any perſon of what nation or quality ſoever, being on board any ſhip or veſſel of his Majeſty's ſubjects, upon any pretence whatſoever.

VI. That no ſhipwreck belonging to the ſaid king of Great-Britain, or to any of his Majeſty's ſubjects, upon any part of the coaſts belonging to Tripoli, ſhall be made or become prize; and that neither the goods thereof ſhall be ſeized, nor the men made ſlaves; but that all the ſubjects of Tripoli ſhall do their beſt endeavours to ſave the ſaid men and their goods.

VII. That no ſhip, or any other veſſel of Tripoli, ſhall have permiſſion to be delivered up, or to go to any other place in enmity with the ſaid King of Great Britain, to be made uſe of as corſairs at ſea againſt his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects.

VIII. That if any ſhip or veſſel of Tunis, Algier, Tetuan, or Sally, or any other place, being in war with the ſaid king of Great Britain, bring any ſhips or veſſels, men or goods, belonging to his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects, to Tripoli, or to any port or place in that kingdom, the governors there ſhall not permit them to be ſold within the territories of Tripoli, like as it is agreed at Algiers.

IX. That if any ſubject of the king of Great Britain happens to die in Tripoli, or its territories, his goods or money ſhall not be ſeized by the governors, or any miniſters of Tripoli, but ſhall all remain with the Engliſh conſul.

X. That neither the Engliſh conſul, nor any other ſubject of the ſaid king of Great Britain, ſhall be bound to pay the debts of any other of his Majeſty's ſubjects, unleſs they become ſurety for the ſame by a public act.

XI. That the ſubjects of his ſaid Majeſty in Tripoli, or its territories, in matter of controverſy, ſhall be liable to no other juriſdiction but that of the dey or divan, except they happen to be at difference between themſelves, in which caſe they ſhall be liable to no other determination but that of the conſul only.

XII. That in caſe any ſubject of his Majeſty, being in any part of the kingdom of Tripoli, happen to ſtrike, kill, or wound a Turk or Moor, if he be taken, he is to be puniſhed in the ſame manner, and with no greater ſeverity than a Turk ought to be, being guilty of the ſame offence; but if he eſcape, neither the ſaid Engliſh conſul, nor any other of his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects, ſhall be in any ſort queſtioned or troubled upon that account, and no trial or ſentence to be paſſed without the conſul being preſent.

XIII. That the Engliſh conſul now, or at any time hereafter, living at Tripoli, ſhall be there at all times with entire freedom and ſafety of his perſon and eſtate, and ſhall be permitted to chuſe his own druggerman and broker, and freely to go on board any ſhip in the road, as often and when he pleaſes, and to have the liberty of the country; and that he ſhall be allowed a place to pray in; and that no man ſhall do him any injury, either in word or deed; and that he ſhall have liberty at all times of hoiſting his Majeſty's flag at the top of his houſe, and on his boat, when he paſſes on the water.

XIV. That not only during the continuance of this peace and friendſhip, but likewiſe if any breach or war happen to be hereafter, between the ſaid king of Great Britain, and the city and kingdom of Tripoli, the ſaid conſul, and all other his Majeſty's ſubjects, inhabiting in the kingdom of Tripoli, ſhall always, and at all times, both of peace and war, have full and abſolute liberty to depart and go to their own country, or any other, upon any ſhip or veſſel, of what nation ſoever they ſhall think fit, and to carry with them all their eſtates, goods, families, and ſervants, altho' born in the country, without any interruption or hindrance.

XV. That no ſubject of his ſaid Majeſty, being a paſſenger from or to any port, ſhall be any way moleſted or meddled with, either in perſon or property, altho' on board any ſhip or veſſel in enmity with Tripoli; and the ſame

ſame is to be regarded in favour of the ſubjects of Tripoli.

XVI. That when any of his Majeſty's ſhips of war ſhall appear before Tripoli, upon notice thereof given by the Engliſh conſul, or by the commander of the ſaid ſhips, to the chief governors of Tripoli, public proclamation ſhall be immediately made to ſecure the Chriſtian captives; and if after that, any Chriſtians whatſoever make their eſcape on board any of the ſaid ſhips of war, they ſhall not be required back again, nor ſhall the ſaid conſul or commander, or any other his Majeſty's ſubjects, be obliged to pay any thing for the ſaid Chriſtians.

XVII. That all merchant ſhips coming to the city or kingdom of Tripoli, tho' not belonging to Great Britain, ſhall have free liberty to put themſelves under the protection of the Britiſh conſul, in ſelling and diſpoſing of their goods and merchandiſe, if they ſhall think proper, without any hindrance or moleſtation.

XVIII. That at all times when any ſhip of war of the king of Great Britain, &c. carrying his ſaid Majeſty's flag, appears before the ſaid city of Tripoli, and comes to an anchor in the road, immediately after notice thereof given by his ſaid Majeſty's conſul, or officer from the ſhip, unto the dey and government of Tripoli, they ſhall, in honour to his Majeſty, cauſe a ſalute of 27 cannon to be fired from the caſtle and forts of the city, and that the ſaid ſhip ſhall return an anſwer by firing the ſame number of cannon.

XIX. That no ſubject of the king of Great Britain ſhall be permitted to turn Turk or Moor in the city and kingdom of Tripoli, being induced thereunto by any ſurpriſe whatſoever, unleſs he voluntarily appear before the dey or governor, with the Engliſh conſul's druggerman, three times in three days, and each day declare his reſolution to turn Turk or Moor.

XX. Whereas it is cuſtomary for the European conſuls to pay their reſpects to the baſhaw at the feaſts of Ramadam and Birham, it is hereby declared, That his Britannic Majeſty's conſul ſhall be admitted firſt to audience, and take the precedency of all other conſuls, in conſideration of the Engliſh being the oldeſt friends to the ſtate of Tripoli.

XXI. That whereas the iſland of Minorca in the Mediterranean ſea, and the city of Gibraltar in Spain, do now belong to his Majeſty the king of Great Britain; it is therefore hereby agreed, that from this time forward, for ever, the ſaid iſland of Minorca, and city of Gibraltar, ſhall be eſteemed in every reſpect, by the baſhaw and government of Tripoli, to be part of his Britannic Majeſty's own dominions, and the inhabitants thereof ſhall be looked upon as his Majeſty's natural ſubjects, in the ſame manner as if they had been born in any part of Great Britain; and they, with their ſhips and veſſels wearing Britiſh colours, and being furniſhed with Mediterranean paſſes, ſhall be permitted freely to trade and traffic in any part of the kingdom of Tripoli, or dominions thereunto belonging, and ſhall paſs without any moleſtation whatſoever, either on the ſeas or elſewhere, in the ſame manner, and with the ſame freedom and privileges, as have been ſtipulated in this and all former treaties, in behalf of the Britiſh nation and ſubjects; and that none of the ſhips or veſſels belonging to Tripoli, ſhall cruize or look for prizes, before, or in ſight of the ports of the iſland of Minorca, and the city of Gibraltar, to diſturb or moleſt the trade thereof in any manner whatſoever.

XXII. That if any of the ſhips of war of the ſaid king of Great Britain come to Tripoli, or to any other port or place of that kingdom, with any prize, they may freely ſell it, or otherwiſe diſpoſe of it, at their own pleaſure, without being moleſted by any; and that his Majeſty's ſaid ſhips of war ſhall not be obliged to pay cuſtoms in any ſort; and that if they ſhall want proviſions, victuals, or any other things, they may freely buy them at the rates in the market.

XXIII. That whenſoever it ſhall happen hereafter, that any thing is done or committed, by the ſhips or ſubjects of either ſide, contrary to any of theſe articles, ſatisfaction being demanded therefore, the ſame ſhall be made to the full, and without any manner of delay; and it ſhall not be lawful to break this peace, until ſuch ſatisfaction be denied; and whoſoever ſhall be the cauſe of breaking this peace, ſhall aſſuredly be puniſhed with preſent death.

XXIV. That his Britannic Majeſty's ſubjects, over and above the ſtipulations contained in this and all former treaties, ſhall enjoy all the privileges and advantages, which now are, or which hereafter may be granted to any of the ſubjects of the moſt favoured nation.

XXV. That in caſe any of his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects ſhall import into the ſaid kingdom of Tripoli, or into any of the ports or dominions thereunto belonging, any warlike ſtores, as cannons, muſkets, piſtols, cannon powder, or fine powder, brimſtone, bullets, iron, planks, and all ſorts of timber fit for building of ſhips, pitch, tar, rozen, ropes, cables, maſts, blocks, anchors, ſails, and all other habiliments of war, as well by ſea as by land; as alſo proviſions, wheat, barley, beans, oats, or the like, they ſhall not pay any ſort of duty or cuſtom whatſoever.

XXVI. That new Mediterranean paſſes ſhall be iſſued out and given to his ſaid Majeſty's trading ſubjects, with all convenient ſpeed, and that the time for the continuance of the old paſſes, for the ſhips in the Indies and remote parts, ſhall be three years; and for all other ſhips and veſſels, one year; to commence from the delivery of the counter-tops of the new paſſes at Algiers; of which his Majeſty's conſul here, ſhall give the earlieſt notice to the baſhaw and government; and it is hereby expreſly agreed and declared, that the ſaid new paſſes ſhall, during the abovementioned ſpaces of time of three years and one year, be of full and ſufficient force and effect to protect all ſhips and veſſels of his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects, who ſhall be provided with the ſame.

XXVII. That no merchant ſhip belonging to Great Britain, or any other nation under the protection of the Britiſh conſul, being in the port of Tripoli, ſhall be detained from proceeding to ſea on her voyage, longer than eight days, under the pretence of arming out the ſhips of war of the government, or any other whatſoever.

XXVIII. That if at any time the garriſons of Gibraltar or Port Mahon ſhould be in want of proviſions, and ſhould ſend for the ſame to Tripoli, or any part of the dominions thereof, they ſhall, if it is to be had, be ſupplied with it at the market-price.

XXIX. That all packets, bearing his Britannic Majeſty's commiſſion, which ſhall be met by any of the cruizers of Tripoli, ſhall be treated with the ſame reſpect as his Majeſty's ſhips of war, and all due reſpect ſhall be paid to his Majeſty's commiſſion; and both at meeting and parting, they ſhall be treated as friends; and if any of the Tripoli cruizers commit the leaſt fault or violence againſt them, the captains or raizes, ſo offending, ſhall, on their arrival at Tripoli, and proper complaint being made of them, be moſt ſeverely puniſhed, without admitting of their excuſes.

XXX. That all and every the articles in this treaty ſhall be inviolably kept and obſerved between his moſt ſacred Majeſty of Great Britain, and the moſt illuſtrious the baſhaw, lords and governors of the city and kingdom of Tripoli, and between the dominions and ſubjects of either ſide; and our faith ſhall be our faith, and our word our word. Dated in the preſence of Almighty God, in the city of Tripoli, this nineteenth day of September, one thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty one, according to the Chriſtian computation, and of the Turkiſh Hegeira, one thouſand one hundred and ſixty four, the twenty ninth day of the moon Shawan.

Treaty of peace and commerce between the moſt ſerene and mighty prince George *II. by the Grace of God, of* Great Britain, France, *and* Ireland, *king, defender of the Chriſtian faith, Duke of* Brunſwick *and* Lunenburgh, *arch-treaſurer and elector of the Holy Roman empire,* &c, &c, &c, &c. *and the moſt excellent and illuſtrious lord* Ali Paſcha, *begler bey and ſupreme commander of the ſtate of* Tunis, *renewed, agreed on, and confirmed, by the honourable* Auguſtus Keppel, *commander in chief of his* Britannic *Majeſty's ſhips and veſſels in and about the* Mediterranean *ſeas, and* Charles Gordon, *Eſq; his ſaid ſerene Majeſty's agent and conſul-general to the ſtate*

of Tunis, *furniſhed with his Majeſty's full powers for that purpoſe.*

I. That all former grievances and loſſes, and other pretences between both parties, ſhall be void and of no effect; and from henceforward there ſhall be a firm peace for ever, and free trade and commerce, between his Britannic Majeſty's ſubjects, and the people of the kingdom of Tunis, and dominions thereunto belonging: but this article ſhall not cancel or make void any juſt debt, either in commerce or otherwiſe, between the ſubjects on both ſides, but the ſame may be demanded and recovered as before.

II. That the ſhips of either party ſhall have a free liberty to enter into any port or river belonging to the dominions of the other, where they ſhall pay duty only for what they ſell, and, for the reſt, may freely export it again without moleſtation; and ſhall enjoy all other accuſtomed privileges: and the late exaction that hath been at the Goletta and the Marine, ſhall be reduced to the ancient cuſtoms in thoſe caſes.

III. That there ſhall not be any ſeizure made of any of the ſhips of either party, either at ſea or in port, but they ſhall paſs without any interruption, they diſplaying their colours; and to prevent any miſunderſtandings, the ſhips of Tunis ſhall be furniſhed with certificates, under the hand and ſeal of the Britiſh conſul, of their belonging to Tunis, which they are to produce on meeting with any Engliſh ſhip, on board of whom they ſhall have liberty of ſending two men only, peaceably to ſatisfy themſelves of their being Engliſh, who, as well as any paſſengers of other nations they may have on board, ſhall go free, both them and their goods.

IV. That if an Engliſh ſhip receive on board any goods or paſſengers belonging to the kingdom of Tunis, they ſhall be bound to defend them and their goods, ſo far as lyeth in their power, and not deliver them unto their enemies; and the better to prevent any unjuſt demands being made upon the crown of Great Britain, and to avoid diſputes and differences that might ariſe, all goods and merchandiſe that ſhall from henceforward be ſhipped by the ſubjects of Tunis, either in this port, or in any other whatſoever, on board the ſhips or veſſels belonging to Great Britain, ſhall be firſt entered in the office of Cancellaria, before the Britiſh conſul reſiding at the reſpective port, expreſſing the quantity, quality, and value of the goods ſo ſhipped, which the ſaid conſul is to manifeſt in the clearance given to the ſaid ſhip or veſſel before ſhe departs; to the end that if any cauſe of complaint ſhould happen hereafter, there may be no greater claim made on the Britiſh nation, than by this method ſhall be proved to be juſt and equitable.

V. That if any of the ſhips of either party ſhall, by accident of foul weather, or otherwiſe, be caſt away upon any of the coaſts belonging to the other, the perſons ſhall be free, and the goods ſaved and delivered to the proprietors thereof.

VI. That the Engliſh which do at preſent, or ſhall at any time hereafter, inhabit in the city or kingdom of Tunis, ſhall have free liberty, when they pleaſe, to tranſport themſelves with their families and children, although born in the country.

VII. That the people belonging to the dominions of either party, ſhall not be abuſed with ill language, or otherwiſe ill treated, but the parties ſo offending ſhall be puniſhed ſeverely according to their deſerts.

VIII. That the conſul or any other of the Engliſh nation reſiding in Tunis, ſhall not be obliged to make their addreſſes, in any difference, unto any court of juſtice, but to the baſhaw himſelf, from whom only they ſhall receive judgment, in caſe the difference ſhould happen between a ſubject of Great Britain and another of this government, or any other foreign nation; but if it ſhould be between two of his Britannick Majeſty's ſubjects, then it is to be decided by the Britiſh conſul only.

IX. That neither the Engliſh conſul, nor any other of his Majeſty's ſubjects, ſhall be liable to pay the debts of any other of the nation, unleſs particularly bound thereto under his own hand.

X. That whereas the iſland of Minorca in the Mediterranean ſea, and the city of Gibraltar in Spain, do now belong to his Majeſty the king of Great Britain; it is hereby agreed and fully concluded, That from this time forward, for ever, the ſaid iſland of Minorca ſhall be eſteemed, as likewiſe Gibraltar, by the government of Tunis, to be, in every reſpect, part of his Britannick Majeſty's dominions, and the inhabitants thereof ſhall be looked upon as his Majeſty's natural born ſubjects, in the ſame manner as if they had been born in any other part of Great Britain; and they, with their ſhips and veſſels wearing Britiſh colours, ſhall be permitted freely to trade and traffick in any part of the kingdom of Tunis, and ſhall paſs, without any moleſtation whatſoever, either on the ſeas or elſewhere, in the ſame manner, and with the ſame freedom and privileges, that have been ſtipulated in this and all former treaties, in behalf of the Britiſh nation and ſubjects.

XI. That the better and more firmly to maintain the good correſpondence and friendſhip that have been ſo long and happily eſtabliſhed between the crown of Great Britain and the government of Tunis, it is hereby agreed and concluded by the parties beforementioned, that none of the ſhips and veſſels belonging to Tunis, or the dominions thereof, ſhall be permitted to cruize or look for prizes, of any nature whatſoever, before, or in ſight of the aforeſaid city of Gibraltar, or any of the ports in the iſland of Minorca, to hinder or moleſt any veſſels bringing proviſions and refreſhments for his Britannick Majeſt's troops and garriſons in thoſe places, or to give any diſturbance to the trade and commerce thereof: and if any prize ſhall be taken by the ſhips or veſſels of Tunis, within the ſpace of ten miles of the aforeſaid places, ſhe ſhall be reſtored without any contradiction.

XII. That all the ſhips of war belonging to the dominions of either party, ſhall have freely liberty to uſe each other's ports, for waſhing, cleaning, and repairing any of their defects, and to buy and ſhip off any ſort of victuals, alive or dead, or any other neceſſaries, at the price the natives buy at in the market, without paying cuſtom to any officer. And whereas his Britannick Majeſty's ſhips of war do frequently aſſemble and harbour in the port of Mahon in the iſland of Minorca; if, at any time, they, or his Majeſty's troops in garriſon there, ſhould be in want of proviſions, and ſhould ſend from thence to purchaſe ſupplies in any part of the dominions belonging to Tunis, they ſhall be permitted to buy cattle alive or dead, and all other kinds of proviſions, at the prices they are ſold in the market, and ſhall be ſuffered to carry it off without paying duty to any officer, in the ſame manner as if his Majeſty's ſhips were themſelves in the port.

XIII. That in caſe any ſhips of war belonging to the dominions of Tunis, ſhall take, in any of their enemies ſhips, any Engliſhmen ſerving for wages, they are to be made ſlaves; but if merchants or paſſengers, they are to enjoy their liberty and goods free.

XIV. That if any ſlave of Tunis ſhould make his eſcape from thence, and get on board an Engliſh man of war, the ſaid ſlave ſhall be free, and neither the Engliſh conſul, nor any of his nation, ſhall in any manner be queſtioned about the ſame.

XV. That the better to prevent any diſputes that may hereafter ariſe between the two parties about ſalutes and publick ceremonies, it is hereby agreed and concluded, that whenever any flag officer of Great Britain, ſhall arrive in the bay of Tunis, in any of his Majeſty's ſhips of war, there ſhall be ſhot off from the caſtles of the Goletta, or other the neareſt fortifications belonging to Tunis, a number of guns according to cuſtom, as a royal ſalute to his Britiſh Majeſty's colours, and the ſame number ſhall be returned in anſwer thereto by his Majeſty's ſhips; and it is hereby ſtipulated and agreed, that all ceremonies of honour ſhall be allowed to the Britiſh co[illegible] who reſides here, to repreſent equal in every reſpect his Majeſty's perſon, as to any other nation whatſoever, and no other conſul in the kingdom to be admitted before him in precedency.

XVI. That the ſubjects of his moſt ſacred Majeſty of Great Britain, &c. either reſiding in, or trading to the dominions of Tunis, ſhall not, for the time to come, pay any more than 3 *per cent.* cuſtom, on the value of the goods or merchand[illegible] which they ſhall either bring into or carry out of the [illegible]ingdom of Tunis.

XVII. It

XVII. It is moreover agreed concluded, and eſtabliſhed, that at whatſoever time it ſhall pleaſe the government of Tunis, to reduce the cuſtoms of the French nation to leſs than they pay at preſent, it ſhall always be obſerved, that the Britiſh cuſtoms ſhall be 2 *per cent.* leſs than any agreement that ſhall for the future be made with the ſaid French, or that ſhall be paid by the ſubjects of France.

XVIII. It is moreover agreed, concluded, and eſtabliſhed, that in caſe any Britiſh ſhip or ſhips, or any of the ſubjects of his Majeſty of Great Britain, ſhall import at the port of Tunis, or any port of this kingdom, any warlike ſtores, as cannons, muſkets, piſtols, cannon-powder, or fine powder, bullets, maſts, anchors, cables, pitch, tar, or the like; as alſo proviſions, viz. wheat, barley, beans, oats, oil, or the like, for the ſaid kind of merchandiſe they ſhall not pay any ſort of duty or cuſtom whatever.

XIX. That in caſe a war ſhould happen between his Britannick Majeſty and any other ſtate or nation whatever, the ſhips of Tunis ſhall not in any ſort afford aſſiſtance to the enemies of his Majeſty or his ſubjects.

XX. That if an Engliſhman kills a Turk, he ſhall be judged before the Caddi of the place, according to juſtice: if he is found guilty of the crime, he ſhall be puniſhed with death; but if he eſcape, the conſul ſhall not be moleſted, or called upon for that account; and the conſul ſhall always have timely notice, that he may have an opportunity of being preſent at the trial.

XXI. That if at any time a war or rupture happen between the two contracting powers, the Engliſh conſul and his nation may freely depart with all their goods and effects: and this article is to be reciprocal for the ſubjects of Tunis.

XXII. That whereas Gibraltar and the iſland of Minorca do belong to his Britannick Majeſty, if at any time any of the cruizers of Tunis ſhould meet with any veſſels of the ſaid places, under Engliſh colours, furniſhed with proper paſſports, they ſhall be treated in all reſpects like other Engliſh ſhips, provided that there be no more than one third part of the ſhip's company who are not ſubjects of his ſaid Majeſty, for in ſuch caſe they, the ſaid ſtrangers, ſhall be deemed as priſoners: but it is allowed to embark as many merchants or paſſengers as they ſee good, be they of what nation ſoever: and if at any time a Tunis man of war ſhall take a ſhip from their enemies, on board of which may happen to be any Engliſh ſubjects, they ſhall be immediately releaſed, with all their goods and merchandiſe, provided always, that they be provided with proper paſſports: and this article is to be obſerved reciprocally on the parts of the Engliſh.

XXIII. That if any Britiſh ſhips or veſſels meet with any of the ſhips or veſſels belonging to the ſtate of Tunis, and there ſhould be any injury or offence given by either ſide, juſtice being properly demanded, ſhall be immediately done, and the aggreſſor ſhall be ſeverely puniſhed, without it occaſioning any breach or war.

XXIV. That his Britannick Majeſty's ſubjects ſhall be always treated, by the ſtate of Tunis, with the higheſt degree of reſpect, love, and honour; becauſe the Engliſh, of all other powers, are their firſt and beſt friends.

XXV. That new Mediterranean paſſes ſhall be iſſued out and given to his ſaid Majeſty's trading ſubjects, with all convenient ſpeed, and that the time for the continuance of the old paſſes, for the ſhips in the Indies and remote parts, ſhall be three years; and for all other ſhips and veſſels, one year; to commence from the delivery of the counter-tops of the new paſſes at Algiers; of which his Majeſty's conſul here ſhall give the earlieſt notice to this ſtate; and it is hereby expreſly agreed and declared, that the ſaid new paſſes ſhall, during the abovementioned ſpaces of time of three years and one year, be of full and ſufficient force and effect to protect all ſhips and veſſels of his ſaid Majeſty's ſubjects, who ſhall be provided with the ſame.

XXVI. That all packets bearing his Britannic Majeſty's commiſſion, which ſhall be met by any cruizers of Tunis, ſhall be treated with the ſame reſpect as his Majeſty's ſhips of war; and all due reſpect ſhall be paid to his Majeſty's commiſſion, and both at meeting and parting they ſhall be treated as friends; and if any of the cruizers of Tunis commit the leaſt fault or violence againſt them, the captains or raizes ſo offending, ſhall, on their arrival at Tunis, and proper complaint being made of them, be moſt ſeverely puniſhed, without admitting of their excuſes.

All the preceding articles of this treaty, having been approved of and agreed to, are hereby ratified, renewed, and confirmed, between his moſt ſacred Majeſty the king of Great Britain, &c. and the moſt illuſtrious lord Ali Paſha, begler bey and ſupreme commander of the ſtate of Tunis, which let no one preſume to infringe or violate. Dated in the preſence of Almighty God, at the palace of Bardo near Tunis, this nineteenth day of October, one thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty one, according to the Chriſtian computation; and of the Turkiſh Hegeira, one thouſand one hundred and ſixty-four, the tenth day of the moon Zil Hadgi Sheriffay.

Additional article to the ancient treaties ſubſiſting between his Britannic *Majeſty and the dey and government of* Algiers, *agreed to by the dey* Mahomet, *and his ſaid Majeſty's plenipotentiaries the honourable* Auguſtus Keppel, *and* Ambroſe Stanyford, *Eſq; his Majeſty's agent and conſul-general at* Algier.

That all packets or expreſs-boats, bearing his Britannic Majeſty's commiſſion, which ſhall be met by any of the cruizers of Algiers, ſhall be treated with the ſame reſpect as his Majeſty's ſhips of war, and all due reſpect ſhall be paid to his Majeſty's commiſſion; and both at meeting and parting, they ſhall be treated as friends: and if any of the Algerine cruizers commit the leaſt fault or violence againſt them, the captains or raizes ſo offending, ſhall, on their arrival at Algiers, and proper complaint being made of them, be moſt ſeverely puniſhed, without admitting of their excuſes. Dated at Algiers the third day of June 1751, and in the year of Hegeira 1164, the twentieth day of the moon Regil.

TREE. The firſt and largeſt of the vegetable kind, conſiſting of a trunk, out of which ſpring forth branches and leaves.

Standards or trees, in full air, are ſuch as naturally riſe a great height, and are not topped. For the choice of trees of this kind to be tranſplanted out of a nurſery, Quintiney recommends us to ſuch as are ſtraight, ſix feet high at leaſt, five or ſix inches thick at bottom, and three or four at top; the bark pretty ſmooth and ſhining, as a token of their youth, and of the good ſoil they grew in. See *Tranſplantation.*

Dwarf-TREES, are ſuch as are kept low, and never ſuffered to have above ſix inches of ſtem. Theſe are uſed to be kept vacant or hollow in the middle; that the branches, ſpreading round about the ſides, may form a kind of round bowl or buſh.

Wall-TREES, are thoſe whoſe branches are ſtretched out, and nailed againſt walls. For dwarf and wall-trees, ſuch are to be choſen for tranſplantation, out of the nurſery, as are ſtraight, and conſiſt of a ſingle ſtem, with a ſingle graft; rather than two or three grafts in ſeveral branches; their thickneſs alſo at bottom ſhould be two or three inches.

Fruit-TREES, are ſuch as bear fruit.

Timber-TREES, are thoſe whoſe trunks are large, tall, and ſtraight, whereof beams and maſts are uſed to be made. See *Timber.*

Coniferous-TREES, are thoſe whoſe fruit is of a conical figure, as the pine, fir, larch, and others; which are all called reſiniferous; becauſe coniferous trees are generally covered with a bark that abounds in reſin.

In the Indies there are very large foreſts conſiſting only of a ſingle tree, whoſe branches, falling to the ground, take root, and put forth new trees; of which kind are the fig-tree and paretuvier.

Diana's-TREE, among the chemiſts, is a kind of metalline vegetation; which, after a long proceſs, ſhoots out into branches, with the appearance of leaves, and even flowers.

TREES, in ſhip-building, are timbers uſed in various parts of the ſhip, and for various uſes; as the cheſs-trees, croſs-trees, treſſel-trees, and the like.

TREILBOURG. A port-town of Sweden, in the province of Schonen, ſituated in 13 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 55 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the Baltic ſea, 30 miles S. E. of Copenhagen.

TRENT. One of the largeſt rivers in England, which riſes in the moor-lands of Staffordſhire; and, running S. W. by Newcaſtle-under-line, divides that county into two equal parts; then, entering Derbyſhire, turns about to the N. E. paſſing by Burton, and afterwards Nottingham and Newark, having run the whole length of Nottinghamſhire; after which it continues its courſe almoſt due N. to Gainſborough, on the confines of Lincolnſhire, and having joined the Ouſe, and ſeveral other rivers, changes its name for that of Humber, falling into the German ſea below Hull.

TRESEN, or *Troſa*. A port-town of Sweden, ſituated in 17 deg. of E. lon. and 59 of N. lat. on the Baltic ſea, 32 miles S. of Stockholm.

TRET, in commerce, an allowance made for the waſte, or the duſt, that may be mixed with any commodity; which is always four pounds in 104 pounds weight. See *Tare*.

TRIA *prima*, among chemiſts, the three hypoſtatical principles, ſalt, ſulphur, and mercury; of which they hold all bodies to be primarily made, and into which they are held reſolvable by fire.

TRIBUTE. A tax, or impoſt, which one prince or ſtate is obliged to pay to another, as a token of dependance, or in virtue of a treaty, and as a purchaſe of peace. The Romans made all the nations they ſubdued pay them tribute; and Mahomet laid it down as a fundamental of his law, that all the world ſhould pay him tribute.

In the ſtates of the Grand Signior, Chriſtian children are taken in way of tribute, to make agemogláns, janizaries, and the like.

TRIBUTE, is ſometimes alſo uſed for a perſonal contribution, which princes levy on their ſubjects by way of capitation or poll-money. See *Tax*.

In this it differs from an impoſt, which is properly what is laid on merchandiſes. See *Impoſt*.

TRIERS, or *Treves*. A city of Germany, in the circle of the lower Rhine, capital of the electorate of Triers, ſituated in 6 deg. 10 min. of E. lon. and 49 deg. 55 min. of N. lat. on the river Moſelle, 60 miles S. of Cologn, and as many W. of Mentz.

TRIERS *Electorate*, is a province of Germany, in the circle of the lower Rhine, bounded by the electorate of Cologn, and the duke of Juliers on the N. by Mentz and Weteravia on the E. by Lorrain and the palatinate on the S. and by the Netherlands on the W. being 80 miles long, and from 20 to 50 broad. See *Germany*.

TRIESTE. A port-town of Iſtria, ſituated in 14 deg. of E. lon. and 46 deg. 5 min. of N. lat. on the gulph of Venice, ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.

TRIFOLIUM, denotes any three-leafed graſs. That moſt uſed in medicine is the triſolium paluſtre, or buck-bean; which is very detergent, and uſed with ſucceſs in ſcorbutic, rheumatic, and ſcophulous habits: the ordinary way of uſing it, being by making a pretty ſtrong infuſion of the dried herb, in form of tea.

TRIM *of a ſhip*, is her beſt poſture, proportion of her ballaſt, and hang of her maſts for ſailing: hence, to find the beſt way of making a ſhip ſail ſwiftly, is to find her trim.

To TRIM *a boat*, is to ſet the paſſengers ſo as to keep the boat even on both ſides.

TRINIDAD, or *Trinity Iſland*, is ſituated in the Atlantic, or American ocean, between 60 and 62 deg. of W. lon. and between 9 and 11 deg. of N. lat. ſeparated from the province of New Andaluſia in Terra Firma, by a narrow ſtreight called Boca de Drago about three miles over. It is 80 miles N. W. of the river Oronoco, being about 90 miles long, and 60 broad, ſubject to Spain; producing ſugar, cotton, Indian corn, fruits, and the beſt tobacco.

TRINITY-*houſe*, is a kind of college at Deptford, belonging to a corporation of ſea-faring perſons, who have power, by the king's charter, to take care of ſuch as deſtroy ſea-marks, to correct the faults of ſailors, and to take care of ſeveral other things belonging to navigation and the ſeas, and the examination of young officers.

Tho' the origin of this ſociety is unknown; yet that it is of conſiderable antiquity, is very manifeſt, by the firſt charter of incorporation granted them by Henry VIII. dated the 20th of May 1515, wherein were confirmed to them not only the rights and privileges of the ſhipmen and mariners of England, their predeceſſors; but alſo their ſeveral poſſeſſions at Deptford, which, together with divers grants of Q. Elizabeth and Charles II. were confirmed by letters-patent of the 1ſt of James II. dated the 8th of July 1685, by the name of the maſter, wardens, and aſſiſtants of the guild or fraternity of the moſt glorious and undivided Trinity, and of St. Clement of the pariſh of Deptford Strond in the county of Kent. This corporation is governed by a maſter, four wardens, eight aſſiſtants, and 18 elder brethren: the inferior members of the fraternity, denominated younger brethren, are of an unlimited number, for every maſter and mate expert in navigation, may be admitted as ſuch, and ſerve as a continual nurſery, to ſupport the vacancies among the elder brethren, when removed by death or otherwiſe.

The maſters, wardens, aſſiſtants, and elder brethren of this fraternity, are by charter inveſted with the following powers: firſt, the examining of the mathematical children of Chriſt's hoſpital. 2. The examination of the maſters of his Majeſty's ſhips; the appointing pilots to conduct ſhips in and out of the river Thames; and the amercing all ſuch as ſhall preſume to act as maſter of a ſhip of war, or as a pilot, without their approbation, in a pecuniary mulct of 20 l. 3. The ſettling the rate of pilotage, and erecting light-houſes and other ſea marks, upon the ſeveral coaſts of the kingdom, for the ſecurity of navigation. 4. The preventing of aliens from ſerving on board Engliſh ſhips, without their licence, upon penalty of 5 l for each offence. 5. The puniſhing of ſeamen, for deſertion or mutiny in the merchants ſervice. 6. The hearing and determining the complaints of the officers and ſeamen in the merchants ſervice; but ſubject to an appeal, to the lord high admiral for the time being, or the judge of the court of admiralty, if in commiſſion. 7. The granting of licences to poor ſeamen, non-freemen, to row upon the river Thames for their ſupport, in the intervals of ſea ſervice.

To this company belongs the ballaſt-office, for clearing and deepening the river Thames, by taking from thence a ſufficient quantity of ballaſt, for the ſupply of all ſhips that ſail out of the ſaid river; in which ſervice 60 barges of the burden of 30 tons, and two men each, are continually employed: and in conſideration of the great increaſe of the poor of this fraternity, they are, by their charter, impowered to purchaſe lands in mortmain, to the amount of 500 l. *per annum*, and alſo to receive charitable benefactions of well-diſpoſed perſons, to the like amount of 500 l. *per annum* clear of reprizes.

The charitable benefactions belonging to this corporation are ſo very numerous, that to avoid prolixity, it will be ſufficient to acquaint the reader, that by the profits ariſing therefrom, together with thoſe of the ballaſt-offices, light-houſes, buoys, beacons, and the like, the company annually relieve about 3000 poor ſeamen, their widows, and poor orphans, at the expence of about 6000 l.

TRIP. A ſea term. A ſhip is ſaid to bear her top-ſails a-trip, when ſhe carries them hoiſted up to the higheſt.

TRIPOLI. A kingdom or ſtate in Barbary. See *Barbary*.

TRIPOLI *city*, is the capital of the ſtate of Tripoli, ſituated in 14 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 33 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

TRIPOLI, is alſo a port-town of Syria, ſubject to Turky, in 36 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 34 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the Levant ſea, 100 miles S. of Scandaroon, the chief port of that part of Syria anciently called Phœnicia.

TRIPOLI, or *Tripoly*. A kind of dry ſoft ſtone, or chalk, of a citron colour, uſed in poliſhing the lapidaries, goldſmiths, copper-ſmiths, and glaſs-grinders works.

Some imagine tripoli to be a common ſtone, burnt and calcined by the ſulphurous exhalations which happen to be under

under the mines where it is found: of these mines there are numbers in various parts of Europe, particularly in Italy, where the tripoli is very good. Others, with more probability, take it for a native earth.

TRINQUIMALE. A port-town of the island of Ceylon, in the East Indies, situated in 80 deg. of E. lon. and 9 deg. of N. lat. on the N. E. side of the island, 100 miles N. E. of Candy.

TRIQUIER, or *Trequier*. A port-town of France, in the province of Britanny, situated in 3 deg. 16 min. of E. lon. and 48 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. on the English channel, 50 miles W. of St. Malo.

TRITURATION, in pharmacy, is grinding, or the reducing a solid body into a subtile powder, called also levigation, and pulverisation.

The trituration of woods, barks, minerals, and other dry bodies, is performed in metalline mortars; but of most bodies, in marble, or stone mortars, with pestles of wood, glass, and ivory.

TROCHE, in pharmacy, a form of medicine, made to be held in the mouth to dissolve gradually; being properly a dry composition; the chief ingredients whereof, after having been wrought into a very fine powder, are incorporated with some proper liquor, as distilled waters, wine, vinegar, or mucilages; and reduced into a mass, which is moulded in little cakes, or balls of any form, at pleasure, and dried in the air, far from the fire. The chief troches are those of agaric, liquorice, nutmeg, amber, rhubarb, capers, myrrh, roses, camphor, squillæ, and vipers. Those of coloquintida are called troches of alhandal, from the Arabs, who call coloquintida handal.

TROCHOLICKS. That part of mechanics, which treats of and demonstrates all manner of wheel work, or circular motion.

TRONAGE. An ancient custom, or toll, paid for the weighing of wool.

TRONATOR. An officer of the city of London, whose business it was to weigh the wool brought into the city.

TRONE *weight*, was the same with what is now called troy weight.

TROPES. A port-town of France, in the province of Provence, situated in 6 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. on the Mediterranean, 30 miles E. of Toulon.

TROPICS, in astromony, two moveable circles of the sphere, drawn through the solstitial points, parallel to the equator. The tropics may be defined the two circles parallel to the equator, at such distance therefrom, as is equal to the greatest recess of the sun from the equator towards the poles; or to the sun's greatest declination; or the obliquity of the ecliptic.

Of the two tropics, that drawn through the beginning of Cancer, is called the tropic of Cancer; and that thro' the beginning of Capricorn, the tropic of Capricorn.

TROPICS, in geography, are two lesser circles of the globe drawn parallel to the equator, thro' the beginnings of Cancer and Capricorn: these tropics being in the planes of the cœlestial tropics at the distance of 23 deg. 29 min. from the equator, which is the sun's greatest declination.

TROUBAHOUACHE, called also *Moncha*. A measure used by the inhabitants of Madagascar for clean rice, containing about 6 lb. but for rice with the husk on there is another measure, called *Zatou*. See *Zatou*.

TROUGH *of the sea*, is the hollow or cavity made between two waves, or billows, in a rolling sea; hence when a ship lies down there, they say she lies in the trough of the sea.

TROUT. A fresh-water fish, variegated with several yellow and red spots, and of several sorts; but most commonly reduced to two, namely the yellow and white, or salmon trout.

The salmon trouts of Ireland and Scotland make a considerable article in their trade; being pickled after the manner of salmon, and sent to other countries.

TROY-*weight*, anciently called trone-weight. See *Weight*.

TRUCE. A suspension of arms, or a cessation of hostilities, between two persons at war.

Truces are frequently concluded between princes, in order to come to a peace; and truces of many years serve instead of treaties of peace between princes, whose differences cannot be finally adjusted. See *Treaty*.

TRUCHMAN, *Dragoman*, *Druggerman*, or *Drogman*, in the countries of the Levant, an interpreter.

TRUCK, in a ship, a square piece of wood at the top of a mast, to put the flag-staff in.

TRUCKING, in commerce, the same as bartering or exchanging. See *Exchange*.

TRUCKS, among gunners, are round pieces of wood in form of wheels, fixed on the axle-trees of carriages, to move the ordnance at sea, and sometimes also at land.

TRUFFLES, in natural history, a kind of subterraneous vegetable production, not unlike mushrooms.

TRUG, or *Trug-corn*, in the ancient English customs, denotes a measure of wheat.

TRUMPET. A musical instrument, the most noble of all portable ones of the wind kind, used chiefly in war, among the cavalry, to direct them in the service; being usually made of brass; sometimes of silver, iron, tin, and wood.

Speaking TRUMPET, is a tube from six to fifteen feet long, made of tin, perfectly strait, and with a very large aperture; the mouth-piece being big enough to receive both lips. The mouth being applied hereto, it carries the voice to a very great distance, so as it may be heard distinctly a mile; whence its use at sea. The invention of this trumpet is held to be modern, and commonly ascribed to Sir Samuel Morland, who called it the *tuba stentorophonica*: but Ath. Kircher seems to have a better title to the invention; for it is certain he had such an instrument before ever Sir Samuel Morland thought of his. Besides, if we consider how famed the tube of Alexander the Great was, wherewith he used to speak to his army, and which might be heard distinctly 100 stadia or furlongs, it is somewhat strange the moderns should pretend to the invention; the stentorophonic horn of Alexander, whereof there is a figure preserved in the Vatican, being almost the same with that now in use.

TRUNDLE, is a kind of carriage with low wheels, to draw heavy burdens.

TRUNDLE-*shot*, is an iron-shot about 17 inches long, sharp-pointed at both ends, with a round bowl of lead cast upon it, about a hand-breadth from each end.

TRUNNIONS, or *Trunions of a piece of ordnance*, those knobs or bunches of the gun's metal, which bear her up on the cheeks of the carriage.

TRUSS. A bundle or certain quantity of hay or straw. A truss of hay is to contain fifty-six pounds, or half an hundred weight; and thirty-six trusses make a load. In June and August the truss is to weigh 60 pounds, on forfeiture of 18 s. *per* truss.

TRUSSES, in a ship, are ropes made fast to the parrels of a yard; either to bind the yard to a mast, when the ship rolls, or to hale down the yard in a storm.

TRUSTEE. One who has an estate, or money put, and trusted in his hands for another.

TRUXILLO. A port-town of Mexico, in America, in the province of Terra Firma, and territory of Venezuela, situated in 88 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 15 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the gulph of Honduras, 300 miles N. E. of Amapalla.

To TRY, in the sea-language. A ship is said to try, or lie a try, when she has no sails abroad but her main-sail or mizen-sail.

TRYPHERA, in pharmacy, a denomination given to several medicines, especially of the opiate kind. The great tryphera is composed of opium, cinnamon, cloves, and many other ingredients; it is used to fortify the stomach, to stop fluxes, and for some diseases of the womb. The Saracenic tryphera, and Persian tryphera, thus called because first introduced, the one by the Saracens, and the other by the Persians, are both of them gentle purgatives.

TUB, is used as a kind of measure, to denote the quantity of various commodities: thus a tub of tea is a quantity of about 60 pounds; and a tub of camphire is a quantity from 56 to 80 pounds.

TUILERIE, or *Tylery*. A tyle-work, or a large building with a drying-place, covered a-top; but furnished with

apertures on all ſides; through which the wind, having admittance, dries the tyles and bricks in the ſhade, which the ſun would otherwiſe crack, before they are put in the kiln. See *Tyle*.

TUN, or *Ton*, originally ſignifies a large veſſel or caſk, of an oblong form, biggeſt in the middle, and diminiſhing towards its two ends; girt about with hoops, and uſed to put up ſeveral kinds of merchandiſes in, for their better carriage; as brandy, oil, ſugar, ſkins, hats, and the like. The term is alſo uſed for certain veſſels of extraordinary bigneſs, ſerving to keep wine, cyder, and beer in for ſeveral years.

TUN, or *Ton*, is alſo a certain meaſure for liquids.

The Engliſh tun contains two pipes, or 4 hogſheads, or 252 gallons. The tun of Amſterdam contains 6 aems, or awms; the aem 4 ankers, the anker 2 ſtekans, the ſtekan 16 mingles; 12 ſtekans being equal to an Engliſh barrel, or 62 gallons. The tun of Bourdeaux and Bayonne contains 4 barrels, which are equal to three Paris muids: but, at Orleans and Berry, it is about two Paris muids.

TUN, is alſo a certain weight, whereby the burdens of ſhips are eſtimated. See *Weight*.

The ſea-tun is computed to weigh 2000 pounds, or 20 quintals or hundreds weight, amounting to 2440 pounds avoirdupois; ſo that when we ſay a veſſel carries 200 tons, we mean it is able to carry 200 times the weight of 2000 pounds; that is, 400,000 pounds: it being found by a curious obſervation, that the ſea-water, whoſe room the veſſel fills when full laden, weighs ſo much.

To find the burden and capacity of a ſhip, they meaſure the hold or place where ſhe is loaden; allowing 42 cubic feet to the ſea-tun.

The price of freight, or carriage, of merchandiſe, is ordinarily ſettled on the foot of the ſea-tun: and yet, tho' the tun is 2000 pounds weight, there is ſome difference made therein, either on account of the weight, the bulk of the commodities, the ſpace they take up, or the like. See *Freight*.

Accordingly, at Bourdeaux, four barrels of wine are held a tun, 5 barrels of brandy are eſtimated 2 tuns, 3 of ſyrup are one tun, 4 barrels of prunes are one tun, two dozen of walnut-tree tables one tun, a dozen of planks one tun, 20 buſhels of cheſnuts are accounted one tun, and the like of wheat or other grain; ten bales of cloth, five bales of feathers, and eight of paper, make each one tun.

A tun or load of timber is 40 ſolid feet, if the timber is round; but if hewed, or ſquare, fifty.

TUN *of gold*. See *Tun of* GOLD.

TUNIS. A kingdom of Africa. See *Barbary*.

TUNIS. Capital of the kingdom of Tunis, lying in 10 deg. of E. lon. and 36 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. in a fine plain, near a ſpacious lake, 30 miles S. of Carthage ruins, and 300 miles E. of Algiers.

TUNNAGE, or *Tonnage*. A duty or cuſtom due for merchandiſe brought or carried in tuns, and ſuch like veſſels, from or to other nations; thus called becauſe rated at ſo much *per* ton. See *Cuſtom*.

TUNNAGE, is properly a duty impoſed on liquids according to their meaſures; as poundage is that impoſed on other commodities according to their weight. See *Poundage*.

They were both firſt ſettled by authority of parliament under Edward III. were re-eſtabliſhed in 1660, under the reign of Charles II. for his life, upon abrogating all the laws made under Oliver Cromwel, and re-ordaining the execution of the ancient laws and regulations; and have been continued and renewed by the parliament ever ſince. By an act, made in the firſt year of the reign of Queen Anne, they were continued for 96 years, expiring in the year 1798. This duty at firſt was 4 l. 10 s. ſterling *per* tun, for French wines brought into the port of London by the Engliſh; and only 3 l. for that brought into the other ports. For the ſame wine imported by ſtrangers to London, this duty was 6 l, and that brought into other ports 4 l. 10 s. ſterling. Rheniſh wine, in virtue of the ſaid act paid 7 l. 10 s. ſterling; and Spaniſh, Portugueſe, Malmſey, and Greek wines, the ſame as French wines; but there have been many additional duties impoſed ſince; as, the additional duty of the old ſubſidy; ſeignorage; duty of ancient impoſt of tonnage; orphans money; and new ſubſidy. See *Duty*.

TUNNAGE, is alſo uſed for a certain duty paid the mariners by the merchants for unloading their ſhips, arrived in any haven, after the rate of ſo much *per* tun.

TUNNY. A large ſea-fiſh, whoſe ſkin is covered with large ſcales; with a pointed head, and ſharp teeth.

This fiſh is found abundantly in ſeveral parts of the ocean, and Mediterranean; but eſpecially upon the coaſts of Provence in France, where it makes a conſiderable article both for exterior and interior commerce.

As the tunny is a fiſh of paſſage, the inhabitants of Provence fiſh for them in the months of September and October; which is the time when, paſſing the ſtraits in great ſhoals, they enter the Mediterranean. As ſoon as one tunny has got into the nets, the fiſhermen promiſe themſelves ſucceſs; becauſe they always ſwim in company, and enter the nets till they are full; which are then either dragged aſhore, or into their boats, where the fiſh die immediately, and are afterwards gutted and cut into ſlices, then roaſted upon large gridirons, and fried in oil of olives. After this they are ſeaſoned with ſalt, pepper, cloves, and ſome laurel leaves; then packed up in ſmall barrels, with new oil of olives, and a little vinegar.

The tunny is a very common food; having the taſte and colour of veal; but it ſhould be choſen new, firm, and well prepared with good oil.

TURBAN, or *Turbant*. The head-dreſs of moſt of the eaſtern and mahometan nations; conſiſting of two parts, a cap, and a ſhaſh of fine linen, or taffety, artfully wound in divers plaits about it. The cap is red or green, without any brim, and pretty flat; though roundiſh a-top, and quilted with cotton, but does not cover the ears; about which is wrapped a long piece of linen or cotton, in ſeveral wreaths variouſly diſpoſed. There is a good deal of art in giving turbans the fine air; and the making them up conſtitutes a particular trade, as the making of hats does among Europeans. The ſhaſh of the Turkiſh turban is white linnen, and that of the Perſians is red woollen; which are the diſtinguiſhing marks of their different religions.

TURBITH, or *Turpeth*. A medicinal root, brought from the Eaſt Indies, particularly Cambaya, Surat, and Goa; tho' others will have it that the true turbith comes chiefly from Ceylon. The turbith of the moderns bears ſo little reſemblance to that of the ancients, that it is difficult to ſuppoſe them the ſame. That ſold by druggiſts is a longiſh root about the thickneſs of the finger, reſinous, heavy, and of a browniſh hue without, but whitiſh within; being brought to Europe cloven in the middle, lengthwiſe, and the heart or woody matter taken out.

When in the earth it ſhoots out tendrils, ſome of which creep along the ground, and the reſt wind about the neighbouring ſhrubs.

TURBITH, is a violent purgative, uſed in the dropſy, palſey, and apoplexy; being commonly ſuppoſed to take its name, turbith, from turbare, on account of the violence of its operation, as diſturbing the whole œconomy. It yields a deal of reſinous matter in a ſpirituous menſtruum, which Dr. Quincy obſerves, does not much affect the larger paſſages; but is very active in the ſmaller veſſels, and glandulous contorſions, which it wonderfully clears of all viſcid adheſions. Some apothecaries, either thro' ignorance or parſimony, ſubſtitute white thapſia, which they call grey turbith, or turbith garganicum, for the true turbith; tho', as to taſte, colour, and qualities, they are very different.

Mineral TURBITH, is a name given by the chemiſts to a yellow precipitate of mercury, which purges violently. This powder is called mineral turbith, from the reſemblance it bears to the vegetable turbith of the Arabians, in ſtrongly purging the moſt internal receſſes of the body: for, tho' it is inſipid on the tongue, yet it is poſſeſſed of conſiderable virtues. A very few grains of it will prove emetic and purgative. It is alſo accounted an excellent medicine in the venereal diſeaſe: but, as it operates with conſiderable violence, it ought not to be given, unleſs the viſcera are known to be ſound.

TURCOIS, or *Turquois*, in natural hiſtory, a precious ſtone, of a blue colour, ordinarily opake; but ſometimes a little tranſparent. There are turcoiſes both oriental and occidental; of the new rock and the old. The oriental partakes more of the blue colour than the green; and the occidental more of the green than the blue. Thoſe of the old rock are a deep blue; but thoſe of the new rock are more whitiſh, and do not keep their colour. The oriental ones come from Perſia, the Eaſt Indies, and ſome part of Turky; and ſome even ſuppoſe that it is hence they derive their modern name of *turcois*. The occidental are found in various parts of Europe, particularly Bohemia, Sileſia, Spain, and France. They all grow of a round or oval figure, and are cut eaſily; but, beſides ſeals, which are frequently engraved on them, ſome are formed into crucifixes, or other figures, near two inches high; tho' De Boot miſtakenly affirms, that none have been known to exceed the bigneſs of a walnut.

The turcois is eaſily counterfeited, and ſo perfectly, that it is impoſſible to diſcover the deceit, without taking it out of the collet. In the memoirs of the academy of ſciences, there is a very curious account of the formation of the turcois; where it is obſerved to be one of the ſofteſt of precious ſtones; its hardneſs ſcarce exceeding that of chryſtal, or a tranſparent pebble; tho' ſome are much harder than others: and ſtill the harder, the more valuable, by reaſon of the vivacity of the poliſh, which is always proportionable to the hardneſs.

Roſnel, a jeweller, and the author of a ſcarce treatiſe, called Mercure Indien, eſtimating the ſeveral precious ſtones, ſets a hard turcois, whoſe blue is neither bright nor deep, on the foot of the moſt perfect emeralds; that is, on a level with a diamond: but thoſe with any defect, he only values at about 4 s. ſterling the caract.

Tavernier aſſures us, there are but two mines of turcoiſes known in all the earth, and thoſe are both in Perſia; the one called the Old Rock, near a town called Necabourg, three days journey to the N. E. of Meſched; the other called the New Rock, is five days journey. The latter, ſays he, are but little valued; and the king of Perſia has for many years prohibited the digging in the former for any but himſelf. Mr. Reaumur takes the old rock to be now exhauſted. In effect, the common diviſion of turcoiſes into the old rock, or oriental, and new rock, or occidental, is very arbitrary and precarious. All the beſt and moſt perfect, grow they where they will, in India or Europe, are reckoned among the former; and the reſt among the latter.

Near Simore, in the Lower Languedoc, are conſiderable mines of Turcoiſes; but that fine colour admired in them, is not natural to thoſe rocks; the prevailing colour being ſometimes white, and ſometimes much like that of tripoli of Venice. Other precious ſtones are dug out of the mines with all their colour, to the force whereof nothing can be added; tho' it may frequently be diminiſhed, as we ſee fire bring down the too deep colour of the ſapphire. Theſe turcoiſes, on the contrary, are naturally whitiſh or yellowiſh; of a colour as common as that of a free ſtone; and by oppoſing them for ſome time to the action of the fire, they aſſume a blue colour. It ſeems a paradox, and yet Mr. Reaumur has made it exceeding probable, that turcoiſes are originally the bones of animals: for, in the mines of France, pieces have ſeveral times been found reſembling teeth, bones of the arms, and legs: and thoſe which are yet imperfect and half formed, are apparently compoſed of laminæ, or leaves like thoſe of bones, between which ſome petrifying juice inſinuating itſelf, binds them cloſe together; but ſtill the ſofter and more imperfect the ſtones are, the more diſtinguiſhable are the different directions of the fibres and laminæ, with their interſections; as alſo the greater reſemblance they bear to fractured bones, and the leſs to any kind of ſtones known. To give them the blue colour, they dry them a while in the air, and then heat them gradually in a furnace made after a particular manner. If they are heated too haſtily, the humidity between the laminæ, wanting time to evaporate all, will ſeparate into ſcales or flaws. Some of the ſtones require a greater degree of heat to bring them to their colour than others; and even in large pieces, ſeveral parts ordinarily require ſeveral degrees of heat. On this account, a great deal of care is to be taken in the heating them; for the fire which gives them their blue by degrees, if they are expoſed beyond a certain degree, takes it away again.

Mr. Reaumur accounts for their taking a blue colour by heat very well: when freſh cut out of the rock, it ſeems, their ſubſtance is found ſprinkled and ſtreaked all over with ſpots, veins, and little circles, of a dark blue colour; theſe he takes to be the remains of a deep bluiſh matter, which the fire rariſying, ſpreads and diffuſes throughout the whole ſubſtance of the ſtone. This matter, again, he concludes to have been either originally the juice contained in the bones, ſince mixed and coagulated with the petrifying juice, or ſome other mineral matter inſinuated into the pores of the ſtone.

The great defect of all turcoiſes is, that they loſe their blue colour, and become green, when they ceaſe to be of any value.

TURF, *Peat*. A blackiſh, ſulphurous earth, uſed in ſeveral parts of England, Holland, and Flanders, as fewel.

In Flanders, their turf is dug or pared off the ſurface of the earth, and cut in form of bricks. The gramen, a ſpecies of graſs, growing thick on the turf-earth, contributes greatly, when dry, to the maintenance of the fire. The Dutch draw their turf from the bottom of the dikes, or canals, running along moſt of their lands; whereby they not only ſupply the defect of wood, which is very great in moſt of the United Provinces, but alſo keep their dikes clear and navigable. This turf-earth is very black; and as they take it from the bottoms of the dikes, they ſpread it about the edges, of ſuch a thickneſs, as that it may be reduced to three inches when moderately dried. In this condition they cut it into pieces or turfs, ſeven or eight inches long, and three broad; and to complete the drying, lay them up in heaps, and at laſt in ſtacks.

In the north of England and Scotland, turf or peat is dug out of a ſoft, moiſt, rotten earth, called peat-moſs. They dig horizontally from the ſurface, to the depth of about four feet with a ſpade, which at once takes them out, and faſhions them in paralloelpipeds nine or ten inches long, and three ſquare; which are ſpread on the ground to drain as faſt as dug; and ſet up an end three or four againſt each other, for the wind to blow through them, and at laſt ſtacked or houſed. The pits or dikes in a few years fill up again, and afford a freſh crop.

TURIN. A city of Italy, capital of Piedmont, and of the King of Sardinia's dominions, ſituated in 7 deg. 16 min. of E. lon. and 44 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. at the confluence of the rivers Po and Doria, 100 miles S. W. of Milan, 150 S. E. of Lyons, and 100 miles N. W. of Genoa. See *Italy*.

TURKY. The Turkiſh empire extends itſelf into three parts of the world, Aſia, Africa, and Europe.

Turky in Aſia extends from the 29th deg. of N. lat. to the 45th, and from the 27th deg. of E. lon. to the 46th, taking up 19 deg. of lon. and 16 of lat. being upwards of 1000 miles in length, and 960 broad. It is bounded by the Black ſea, and Tartary, towards the north; by Perſia, towards the eaſt; by Arabia deſerta, towards the ſouth; and by the Archipelago, and the Levant, towards the weſt. It is uſually divided into Eaſtern and Weſtern Turky. Eaſtern Turky contains Eyraca Arabic or Chaldea, Diarbec or Meſopotamia, part of Curdiſtan or Aſſyria, Turcomania, the antient Armenia Major, and part of Georgia and Mingrelia. Weſtern Turky contains part of Arabia Petræa and Deſerta, Paleſtine, Syria, and Natolia, or Aſia Minor.

Turky in Africa is confined to Egypt; for the princes of the Barbary coaſt are ſo independent of the Grand Signior, that he has very little influence on them. See *Barbary*, and *Egypt*.

Turky in Europe is bounded by the river Neiſter, and the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland, towards the north; by Little Tartary, Crim, and the Euxine or Black ſea, towards the eaſt; by the Archipelago, the Ionian, Egean, and the Mediterranean ſeas, towards the ſouth; and by Hungary, Sclavonia, Croatia,

and the Adriatic ſea, towards the weſt. It comprehends the following countries: Greece, in which is contained Macedon, Theſſaly, Achaia, Epirus, Albania, Morea, and the Archipelago iſlands; Romania, Bulgaria, Servia, Boſnia, Raguſa, Walachia, Moldavia, and Beſſarabia; with Budziack, Oczacow, Little and Crim Tartary.

The ſeas of Turky are the Euxine or Black ſea, the Palus Meotis, the Propontis, or the ſea of Marmora, the Archipelago, Ionian and Egean ſeas, and the Levant, or the moſt eaſterly part of the Mediterranean ſea.

The principal rivers of Turky in Aſia are the Euphrates and Tigris; in Africa, the Nile; and in Europe, the Danube, Nieſter, Bog, and Nieper, or Boriſthenes.

The principal towns of Aſiatic Turky are as follow.

Bagdat, is a ſtrong town on the frontiers of Perſia, ſituated upon the river Tigris, in 43 deg. of E. lon. and 33 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. being the principal town of Eyraca Arabic. Its trade is not inconſiderable at preſent; being ſupplied with all the merchandiſe of the Eaſt by the way of Boſſora, which ſtands between the mouth of the united ſtreams of the Tigris and Euphrates. It is annually viſited by the caravans from Aleppo, Smyrna, and the weſtern part of the Turkiſh empire; whereby it is furniſhed with the produce of thoſe countries.

The capital city of Curdiſtan is *Sheraſoul*, which lies to the eaſtward of Nineveh, in the 36th degree of north latitude.

Amadia lies to the northward of Nineveh, in 37 deg. of N. lat. having a piazza in the middle of the town, where the merchants keep their ſhops, and is a place of pretty good trade.

The province of Curdiſtan, in general, is a very pleaſant fruitful ſoil, productive of galls, and tobacco in plenty. There are ſcarce any towns and villages; but the houſes lie diſperſed at the diſtance of a muſket ſhot from one another; though there is ſcarce a houſe which has not a vineyard: however, they make no wine, but dry their grapes.

The province of Diarbeck, or Meſopotamia, lies between the rivers Tigris and Euphrates; its chief towns being Bir, or Beer, ſituated upon the eaſtern bank of the river Euphrates, four days journey to the eaſtward of Aleppo. The next city is Orfa, ſituated in 36 deg. of N. lat. remarkable for the manufacture of yellow maroyne, or Turky leather; the red being made at Diarbeck, and the blue at Tocat.

On the weſtern bank of the river Tigris ſtands the city of *Mouſſul*; a place of good trade, being the ordinary road for the caravans from Aleppo to Perſia. It has alſo a communication with Bagdat, and the gulph of Perſia, by means of the Tigris. The neighbouring countries produce galls abundantly, which make a conſiderable part of its trade.

The city of *Diarbeck* is ſituated in 38 deg. of N. lat. on the right-ſide of the Tigris. It has a canal, cut from the ſame river, which ſupplies it with water, and in which all the red Turky leather made at Diarbeck is waſhed. This leather excells all others in colour, and employs at leaſt one-fourth of the natives, who are very numerous. The ſoil is good in the neighbouring country, and abounds in corn and wine.

To the northward of Diarbeck and Curdiſtan, lies the province of Turcomania, or Armenia Major, whoſe chief town is Erzerum, or Arzeron, ſituated in 41 deg. of E. lon. and 40 deg. of N. lat. about five days journey to the ſouth of the Black ſea. The Greeks, who live here, are for the moſt part handicrafts, and have their quarter in the ſuburbs, where they make copper-utenſils, from the ore which is in the neighbouring mountains. They have alſo a pretty briſk trade for furs, eſpecially thoſe of Jardava, where there are ſkins not unlike thoſe of martens.

Erzerum is a conſiderable thorough-fare from Perſia and India to Conſtantinople, by way of Trepeſond, and the Black ſea; which way the merchants chuſe to take, to avoid the Arabs, who lie on the road to Aleppo.

Smyrna, is ſituated on a bay of the Archipelago, in 27 deg. of E. lon. and 37 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. in the province of Ionia, 100 miles north of the iſland of Rhodes, and 200 miles ſouth-weſt of Conſtantinople; being one of the largeſt and moſt commodious harbours of the Levant; and has ſo great a foreign trade, that conſuls reſide here from moſt of the European trading nations.

Aleppo, is ſituated in 37 deg. 40 min. of E. lon. and 36 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 90 miles eaſt of the Levant, and port of Scanderoon; having conſiderable factories for the European merchants.

Tripoli, is a port-town of Syria, ſituated near the ſea, in 36 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 34 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. The port is rather a road than a harbour; but is however a little covered from the wind by two iſlands, which lie about two leagues from the ſhore. A rivulet runs through the town, and waters the gardens about it, which are full of orange-trees, and white mulberries; ſo that it has a conſiderable ſilk manufacture.

Damaſcus, otherwiſe called *Sham* by the Turks, ſtands in 37 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and in 33 deg. 51 min. of N. lat. two days journey to the eaſtward of Sidon, and the Mediterranean ſea. One of the principal manufactures here is the making of ſword-blades, knives, and other utenſils of iron; the water being eſteemed excellent for tempering their metal. The branching of damaſks is another manufacture in which they excel. Soap, raw and unwrought ſilk, wine, prunes, and roſe-water made of the damaſk-roſes, which grow plentifully here, are alſo ſome of the principal merchandiſes brought from hence.

The chief towns of *Natolia* are Sattalia, a port-town, which has a pretty good harbour, but of difficult entrance; Syda, or Candalor, a port-town, ſituated more to the eaſtward; and Aiazzo, or Lajazzo, ſituated on a bay, to which it gives its name.

Tocat, is the capital of the province of Amaſia, ſituated in 37 deg. of E. lon. and 41 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. The country is inhabited chiefly by Armenian Chriſtians, moſt of them handicrafts, particularly copperſmiths. Another great manufacture is Turky leather made of goat-ſkins. The wine of Tocat is excellent, and they have almoſt all manner of fruits in great plenty; with better accommodations for merchants and travellers in their caravanſeras, than in moſt towns of Turky. It is one of the greateſt thorough-fares of the Eaſt; for here the caravans lodge which come from Perſia, Diarbeck, Bagdat, Conſtantinople, Smyrna, Synope, and other places. There runs a fine river about a quarter of a league from the city; and no part of Aſia affords more ſaffron, which is as profitable a commodity as can be carried to the Eaſt Indies; where the natives uſe vaſt quantities of it in their food, as well as upon other occaſions. When the caravans ſet out either way from Tocat, the toll-gatherer numbers all the camels and horſes as they paſs by; where he takes for every camel loaden half a rix-dollar, and for every horſe half as much; but nothing for thoſe beaſts that carry paſſengers, or proviſions. However, theſe duties are arbitrary, being raiſed, or leſſened, as the Baſhaw pleaſes, or the exigences of the government require.

Trapeſond, or *Trepiſond*, is ſituated in 42 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 42 deg. 26 min. of N. lat. at the foot of a little ſteep hill by the ſea-ſide. The port is to the eaſtward of the city; and ſo commodious formerly, that it occaſioned a very great trade; but is now almoſt deſtroyed, and cannot be entered by veſſels larger than the Turkiſh ſaiques.

The chief cities of *Pontus* and *Paphlagonia*, are Penderachi, a ſea-port in the N. W. part of this country; Semaſtro, a ſea-port, ſituated at the mouth of the river Parthenius; and Sinope, a large town towards the S. E. ſtanding upon the iſthmus of a peninſula, about 6 miles in circumference, having a harbour on each ſide of the iſthmus.

The moſt remarkable towns of *Galatia* are, Therma, famous for its hot baths; Angoura, or Angouri, ſituated in 33 deg. of E. lon. and 41 deg. 5 min. of N. lat. on the river Melus; in which are computed about 4000 Mahometans, 4 or 5000 Armenians, and 400 Greeks. The caravans uſually make 10 days journey from hence to Pruſa, and 20 to Smyrna.

In the country about Angoura are ſaid to be the fineſt breed

breed of goats in the world; they are of a pure white; their hair, which is as fine as ſilk, being curled, and 8 or 9 inches long, which is worked up into the fineſt ſtuffs and camblets. This is the great manufacture of the country, and makes Angouri a place of good trade; but theſe kind of goats are not to be met with above 4 or 5 days journey from this city; and, if carried farther, the breed degenerates.

The principal places of European Turky are as follow.

Conſtantinople, the capital of the empire, is ſituated in 29 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 41 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. called by the Turks *Stamboul*, and frequently by European nations the *Porte*; being one of the moſt ſecure and convenient harbours in Europe.

It is of a triangular figure, two ſides of it being waſhed by the ſea. The harbour is about three miles long, and one over, and ſo deep from one end to the other, that the ſhipping may lie cloſe to the ſhore, at a little diſtance. It lies in the province of Romania, and is ſurrounded by a wall, about 12 miles in circumference; excluſive of Galata, and the other ſuburbs. There is a public market daily at Conſtantinople; where men purchaſe wives, concubines, and ſervants, at pleaſure, who have been either taken priſoners in Chriſtian countries, or purchaſed by Jew brokers in Georgia, Circaſſia, and other places.

The ſecond city in this province is *Adrianople*, ſo called from the Emperor Adrian; which is ſituated about 140 miles N. W. of Conſtantinople, and ſtands for the moſt part on a flat, in a fruitful country, being watered by ſeveral rivers; of which the chief are the Meriza, the Tungia, and the Arda, over which there are three ſtone-bridges. The circumference is computed to be about 8 miles, including the gardens; and it is ſaid to contain about 100,000 inhabitants. In this city is a noble bezeſtin, or exchange, near half a mile in length; having between 3 and 400 ſhops on the ſides, furniſhed with rich goods; and near it is a covered ſtreet, a mile in length, full of good ſhops from one end to the other; the tradeſmen having a particular quarter to themſelves in moſt of the cities of Turky, and are not diſperſed over all parts of the town.

Gallipoli, is another town of Romania, ſituated at the mouth of the Propontis, or ſea of Marmora, on the Thracian Cherſoneſe, where the ſtrait between Europe and Aſia is about 5 miles over. It is computed to ſtand about 100 miles S. W. of Conſtantinople, and 25 miles N. E. of the Dardanells; having two ports, or bays, for the reception of gallies, one to the ſouthward, and the other towards the north.

Seſtos, is about 25 miles S. W. of Gallipoli; where ſtands one of the caſtles of the Dardanells. The ſea is about two miles over at this ſtrait; on each ſide whereof theſe caſtles of the Dardanells ſtand, and take an account of all ſhips bound for Conſtantinople; but the diſtance between them ſeems to be too great to hinder ſhips paſſing on towards that city.

Heraclea, is alſo a town of Romania; being formerly a great city, ſeated upon the ſea of Marmora: the harbour is pretty ſecure, but not deep enough for large veſſels; and the entrance of it hazardous, on account of ſome rocks which lie almoſt even with the water.

Rodoſto, which ſtands but a few hours from Heraclea, on the ſame coaſt, is a large populous town, with a good harbour; and has a conſiderable trade.

Salonichi, or *Theſſalonica*, is ſituated at the bottom of a bay in the Egean ſea, to which it gives its name, lying in 24 deg. of E. lon. and 41 deg. of N. lat. It enjoys a pretty good trade, being reſorted to by the Engliſh and other weſtern nations of Europe, who import from hence raw ſilk, Turky leather, cotton, bees wax, and ſome other commodities.

Conteſſa, is a ſmall trading town, about 80 miles to the eaſtward of Theſſalonica, giving its name to a bay of the ſea on which it ſtands.

Dolcigno, or *Dulcigno*, is a port ſeated on the gulph of Venice, in 19 deg. of E. lon. and 42 deg. 5 min. of N. lat. about 40 miles to the weſtward of Aleſſo, and 50 miles S. E. of Raguſa.

Chimera, ſituated to the north part of Epirus, upon the ſea-coaſt, is a place of ſome trade; and ſo is *Lariſſa*, ſituated near Mount Olympus, upon the river Peneas.

Pegaſa, now *Volo*, 40 miles eaſt of Lariſſa, is ſaid to have a tolerable harbour.

Zeiton, gives name to a bay over againſt Negropont, and ſtands 30 miles to the weſtward of that iſland.

Lepanto, ſtill called *Epactos* by the Greeks, is ſituated in 23 deg. of E. lon. and 38 deg. of N. lat. near the mouth of the gulph, to which it has of late communicated its name. The mouth of the harbour is ſo narrow, that it may be ſecured by a chain of 50 feet long; but is too ſhallow for any veſſels to enter, except barks, or gallies. It is now the moſt conſiderable town on the gulph; having a good trade in leather, oil, tobacco, rice, corn, and wine.

Livadia, an antient town, which at preſent gives name to the country, is ſituated on the gulph of Lepanto, about 20 miles to the weſtward of the iſthmus of Corinth, in 23 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 37 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. It is populous, and has a pretty good trade in woollen ſtuffs, and rice.

Napoli di Romania, ſituated at the bottom of a gulph of the Egean ſea, ſtands on a promontory divided in two parts, one ſide whereof ſhoots into the ſea, and forms a fine harbour; whoſe entrance is ſo narrow, that more than one veſſel cannot enter it at a time; and the paſſage to it by land is almoſt inacceſſible, being a narrow ſtony ſtrait between the mountain Palimida and the ſea. The town contains about 60,000 inhabitants, and lies in 23 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 37 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

Modon, or *Mutum*, is ſituated on the ſouth-coaſt of the Morea, over againſt the little iſland of Sapienza, in 21 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 37 deg. of N. lat. It is a wealthy trading city, and a place of great ſtrength, with a commodious harbour.

But Conſtantinople, Smyrna, and Aleppo, are the moſt remarkable places of trade for the Europeans; which require a more particular repreſentation.

The commerce of Conſtantinople. The happy ſituation of this large city, joined to the beauty and ſafety of its port, might make it the moſt mercantile place in the world, if the inhabitants were not ſubject to a ſervitude which almoſt deprives them of the property of their ſubſtance; or if ſtrangers, whom commerce brings there, were treated with leſs haughtineſs and ſeverity, or were not expoſed to ſuch great and frequent extortions.

However, a great number of European ſhips arrive there; and moſt trading nations have a miniſter at the Porte, as well for protecting their merchants, as for political intereſts.

But the Engliſh and Dutch carry on moſt buſineſs at Conſtantinople, particularly upon account of the ſale of their woollen cloths. The French alſo drive on a conſiderable trade in cloth manufactured after the manner of the Engliſh and Dutch; and the Venetian cloths are much eſteemed at Conſtantinople, though little valued in all other parts of the Levant.

The woollen cloths for Conſtantinople ſhould be fine, thin, well milled, ſheared cloſe, well preſſed, of the beſt dye, and very exact in the breadth.

The ſale of cloth might amount, one year with another, to 8 or 9000 pieces; one fourth Dutch, ſomewhat more than a third of Engliſh, and the reſt of French or Venetian.

Theſe cloths are uſually ſold for a third in ready money, and the two other thirds at ſix months credit. The Engliſh and Dutch eſtabliſhed this manner of ſale, which undoubtedly is attended with its inconveniencies, upon account of the danger to be expected from the frequent fires at Conſtantinople, as theſe often conſume the warehouſes belonging to the purchaſers, and deprive the merchants of all hopes of payment; but the greateſt danger ariſes from the death of debtors, who have no inheritance in Turky, and can leave nothing to be taken hold of by the ſellers.

But the Engliſh and Dutch found that ſuch a credit facilitated their trade, and gave them an opportunity of con-

ſiderably raiſing the price of their cloths; which obliged the French, and other nations, to follow their example, to get ſome ſhare in the ſame trade.

There is alſo a conſiderable commerce in French, Italian, Dutch, and Engliſh ſtuffs, of ſilk, gold, and ſilver; the principal of which are Florence ſatins, tabbies, Venetian damaſks, flowered brocades, and Genoa flowered velvets.

The ſale of ſatins amounts, one year with another, to 5 or 600 pieces; tabbies to 3 or 400; damaſks without gold to 60 pieces, with gold to 100; and about as much of velvets.

Go'd and ſilver flowered brocades ſell beſt at Conſtantinople, but only ſuch as are purpoſely made from patterns fit for the place; for it is not the richneſs of the ſtuff which pleaſes the Turks moſt, but the luſtre and cheapneſs.

Paper is alſo a good commodity for Conſtantinople, eſpecially that of France and Venice.

The other merchandiſe proper for Conſtantinople are hard-ware, tin, braſs and iron wire, which the Engliſh and Dutch bring from Hamburg and the Baltic; Poliſh fine gold wire; as alſo falſe gold and ſilver wires of the ſame country, which the Venetians ſell to them; Marſeilles caps, or thoſe of Tunis, called Fez caps; Montpelier verdigreaſe, Marſeilles oil of aſpic, tartar; ſugar imported by the Dutch and Engliſh, when the crop in Egypt fails; as alſo ſpice, camphor, quickſilver, lead, cochineal, and Brazil ceruſe.

But few merchandiſes are exported from Conſtantinople, in compariſon to what are imported there; ſo that, to make up the balance, European traders have bills of exchange drawn upon Conſtantinople by their correſpondents in Smyrna and Aleppo; or get money remitted to theſe two towns, for purchaſing a ſufficiency to complete their cargo.

The few merchandiſes European ſhips yearly take in at Conſtantinople, are wool, to the amount of 5000 bales; buffaloes hides, about 10,000 ſent into France and Italy; ox and cow hides 50,000, whoſe conſumption is for Italy; potaſhes brought from the Black ſea, and bought up by the Engliſh and Dutch; wax; ſome goat-hair thread; and, laſtly, a great quantity of caviac, or pickled ſturgeons roes, of which the Italians are very fond; ſo that they are uſually bought up by the merchants of Venice and Leghorn.

The ſale of ſlaves, of both ſexes, in the jaſſir-bazar of Conſtantinople, or ſlave-market, may be alſo looked upon as one of the principal parts of the trade of Conſtantinople; for, beſides thoſe brought from Barbary, or taken in wars againſt the Chriſtians, great numbers are alſo brought from Georgia, Mingrelia, Circaſſia, and ſeveral parts of the Black ſea.

The ſale always begins by a prayer for the Sultan; and, when it is ended, the crier publiſhes with a loud voice the price of the ſeller, who ſtands always near his ſlave, whoſe face and body is covered with a kind of ſcarf: if a purchaſer preſents himſelf, he lifts up the covering, to ſee whether the merchandiſe is agreeable to him; and the price being ſettled, the unhappy victim of avarice and cruelty follows its new maſter to his houſe.

Commerce of Smyrna. The great number of European ſhips reſorting continually to Smyrna, and the many caravans arriving there from Aſia, make it the moſt mercantile town of the Levant, for which it is happily ſituated. The port is ſo capacious, that it may contain ſeveral fleets; and the greater part of the principal foreign merchants have handſome and commodious houſes of their own; nothing being more ſuperb and magnificent than the apartments for the conſuls, which are all near the ſea.

Private perſons, who continue there only for a certain time, or who are willing to avoid expences, have the conveniency of kans; which are like ſo many great inns, where upwards of a thouſand perſons may lodge, and where every chamber is lett only for a piaſter, or about 3 s. 7 d. ſterling a month.

There are two cuſtomhouſes at Smyrna; the one, which is the greater, called the cuſtomhouſe of commerce, where the duties are paid for ſilk, and other merchandiſe brought by the Armenians from Perſia, and for thoſe which Chriſtian nations unload or load there for their returns; the other, called the cuſtomhouſe of Stamboul, or Conſtantinople, regards only the commerce of this capital of the Ottoman empire, of Salonica, and other parts of Turky.

The caravans have fixed times for their arrival and departure; upon which European nations regulate themſelves for the cargoes of their ſhips, that the Aſiatics may take off with them the merchandiſe of the Weſt, and Europeans for their return thoſe of Aſia.

Of the Aſiatic nations, the Armenians are thoſe who trade moſt at Smyrna; the Perſian caravans being almoſt entirely compoſed of them, and upwards of 12,000 Armenians are eſtabliſhed in the town.

As to Europeans, the Engliſh are more conſidered there than any other nation, and more favourably treated. The Dutch ſend there the greateſt number of ſhipping, and the French the greateſt number of people.

The merchants of Leghorn alſo carry on a conſiderable trade at Smyrna; thoſe of Venice ſomewhat leſs: but the Genoeſe, notwithſtanding their great expences for trading under their own flag, have very little; and the merchants of Meſſina, ſince the year 1660, none at all.

The French ſhips, which, one year with another, are about ten, without reckoning other ſmall veſſels, depart uſually from Marſeilles; and their cargo conſiſts in piaſters; Carcaſſone, Sapte, and Dauphiné cloths; perpetuanas, imperial ſerges, caps, paper, cochineal, verdigreaſe, indigo, tin, wood for dying, ſpice, and ſugar.

The returns being almoſt the ſame for all European nations trading to Smyrna, one general article will be made of them, which will have its place lower down.

If the preſent trade of the French to Smyrna is compared with what they carried on formerly, a few ſlight traces of its flouriſhing condition could only be found; and ſome of their own authors ſtrive to account for its decline, by ſaying, that it was firſt owing to the frequent extortions which the indiſcretion of ſome French miniſters at the Porte, and the ill conduct of ſome French merchants, had often brought upon the nation, which amounted to incredible ſums.

Secondly, the crying down of the pieces of five ſols; the trade of which commenced in 1656, and continued for 13 years, whereby the French firſt gained *cent. per cent.* giving them upon the footing of 10 ſols: but theſe having been afterwards conſiderably altered, particularly by Italians, were at laſt diſcredited throughout all the ſtates of the Grand Signior.

Thirdly, the too great number of French merchants eſtabliſhed at Smyrna, and their mutual jealouſies of each other; of which the Engliſh and Dutch know how to make a conſiderable advantage.

Laſtly, and principally, the ill qualities of their cloths, both in dying and breadth; which were not ſo well diſcovered till the Levantines compared them with thoſe of the Engliſh and Dutch, which were by far ſuperior, both in the goodneſs of the dye, and an exact breadth.

The number of merchant-ſhips which depart from England for Smyrna, is not fixed; but are increaſed, or diminiſhed, according as the company has intelligence that the Engliſh warehouſes are full or empty.

They formerly ſent to Turky about 30,000 pieces of cloth yearly; as alſo pepper, tin, lead, and a great quantity of ſilver ſpecie, brought particularly from Spain and Italy.

The Dutch commerce to Smyrna is almoſt the only part of their Levant trade, which is very conſiderable, on account of their cloths, ſpice, and other merchandiſe; as alſo in the profits of their ſilver, which is of a bad alloy.

The Dutch ſhips freighted every year, particularly for Smyrna, are uſually 12, which go in two fleets, and depart within two months of each other. The time they take up in ſelling their merchandiſe, and loading thoſe of Aſia, is four or five months; but, in their return, they touch at ſome places of Italy, particularly at Leghorn, where they have a great trade.

The merchants of Leghorn ſend yearly four ſhips to Smyrna, the Venetians two or three, and ſometimes a few Genoeſe veſſels are ſeen there.

The

The cargo of the Leghorn ſhips conſiſts in cloths, ſatins, cochineal, lead, tin, and ſpice, which they receive from the Dutch. That of the Venetians is in cloths, which always ſell well in Conſtantinople, but not ſo in Perſia; brocades, ſatins, factitious pearls, looking-glaſſes, and glaſs for windows. But when there is a ſhip from Genoa, its cargo conſiſts only in the ſpecie current at Smyrna, and in all ſorts of ſilk ſtuffs of their own manufacture.

The merchandiſe brought from the Levant, and particularly from Smyrna, are ſilks, goat and camels hair, either ſpun or unſpun, and thoſe called torts; white and painted calicoes; muſlins, ſome of which are embroidered with gold, ſilver, and ſilk; cotton, in wool, or thread; prepared leather, either Cordovan or Morocco; leather dreſſed and undreſſed, of buffaloes, oxen, and cows; coloured camblets; wool, particularly that of Caramania; wax, alum, nut-galls, box-wood, currants; ſeveral ſorts of drugs, as galbanum, rhubarb, hippoponax, amber, muſk, ultramarine, ſal armoniac, ſcammony, opium, maſtic, ſtorax, ſaffron, ſoap; divers gums, ſuch as agaric, and adraganth; a diverſity of carpets; laſtly, pearls, diamonds, rubies, emeralds, and other precious ſtones, which are ſold privately by the Armenians, who bring them with the caravans, and often go themſelves into Europe to ſell them.

Of this great number of merchandiſe, ſcarce any but ſcammony, opium, and nut-galls, are of the growth of Smyrna, or cultivated in the neighbourhood of the town; the reſt being ſo abundantly brought there from ſeveral parts, and the ſhops are always ſo well ſtocked with them, that the whole town might be ſaid to be one entire bazar, where a continued fair is held, in which all the neceſſaries of life are to be had, and even many articles of luxury.

Some years there are purchaſed at Smyrna to the amount of 7 or 800 bales of ſilk, 30,000 of rhubarb, and between 4 and 500 bales of wool.

In general, the greateſt ſale of European merchandiſe at Smyrna is that of woollen cloth; and the greateſt purchaſe of the Levant merchandiſe that of ſilk, as alſo goat and camels hair.

Exchange is lowered or increaſed at Smyrna, as elſewhere, according to the ſituation of affairs. When merchandiſes are at an extraordinary price, there is a loſs from 15 to 20 *per cent.* and when there is a profit in merchandiſe, the exchange is ſometimes on a par, and very often at 3 or 4 *per cent.* benefit.

The maritime exchange is from 6 to 8 *per cent.* and the bearer runs the riſque.

The exchange from Smyrna to Conſtantinople loſes from 1 to 2 *per cent.*

The duties of importation and exportation, called duties of ermin, are different, purſuant to the different treaties of Chriſtian nations with the Porte; but the Engliſh, ſince 1599, have paid only 3 *per cent.*

The French, for a conſiderable time, paid upon the footing of 5 *per cent.* and it was only in purſuance of the capitulations renewed in 1673, by Mr. de Nointel, ambaſſador of France, that their tariff has been regulated purſuant to that of the Engliſh.

The Chriſtian nations which keep conſuls at Smyrna, are the Engliſh, Dutch, French, Venetians, and Genoeſe, who may ſend their ſhips there under their own flag; but others take the French flag, being under the protection and juriſdiction of the French conſul.

It is certain that foreign merchants are expoſed to great extortions from the baſhaws, governors, and other ſubaltern officers at Smyrna, as alſo in all other port-towns of the Levant; which is even very frequently authoriſed by the divan, and the orders of the Grand Signior.

However, there is ſcarce a trade carried on with greater eaſe, and leſs charged with national duties and impoſts.

Declarations, either coming ſhort of, or exceeding weight, quality, or number of merchandiſe, are neither puniſhed with confiſcation nor double duties, as in the greater part of the ſtates of Chriſtian princes; but are acquitted by paying a duty for what has not been declared.

The duties are not only very moderate, but ſometimes a diminution is obtained, particularly with regard to the merchandiſe whoſe duties are paid by eſtimation; in which the Turkiſh cuſtomhouſe-officers are never rigorous.

Laſtly, in diſputes ariſing among merchants, with regard to commercial matters, every nation has its particular judge, which protects them from the juriſdiction of the cadis.

The commerce of Aleppo; and Scanderoon, or Alexandretta. Aleppo is one of the principal cities of the Turkiſh empire, both for extent and commerce: but two things are particularly obſervable here with regard to trade; the one is, the uſe of pigeons for giving notice of the arrival of ſhips, and other important and ſecret affairs; the other is the prohibition of going from Alexandretta to Aleppo any other way than on horſeback. The reaſon for the former is evident; and that of the latter is to prevent ſuch ſailors as have brought a little ſpecie with them, from running to Aleppo, and buying up merchandiſe, either through ignorance, or the impatience of returning aboard their ſhips, for 4 or 5 *per cent.* more than they are worth.

The hiring of horſes was fixed at about 21 s. 6 d. ſterling for going, and as much for returning; which, with the other expences of the journey, amounted to about 5l. 18 s. 6 d. ſterling, whereby a ſtop was put to this unſeaſonable trade, as the beſt part of the ſailors little fund was conſumed in the expence.

All the European nations who trade to the Levant, have conſuls at Aleppo, and ſome of them vice-conſuls at Alexandretta; but, in the latter place, they ſerve ſometimes for one another: and Aleppo is one of the grand conſulſhips of Venice, which is only given to nobles.

There is ſcarce a part of the three antient diviſions of the world, but what ſends merchants to Aleppo. Beſides the Engliſh, Dutch, French, and Italians, who reſide there conſtantly, or trade there yearly, the caravanſeras are always filled with Armenians, Turks, Arabians, Perſians, and Indians, who come in ſuch great numbers, that though there are 40 of theſe public buildings, they are ſcarce ſufficient to contain thoſe who only reſort it for a ſhort time.

The Armenians eſtabliſhed there are about 12,000, who manage a great ſhare of the trade.

When European ſhips arrive at Alexandretta, they unload their cargo there, to be ſent to Aleppo in caravans; and a duty is paid of about 3l. 10s. ſterl. for each caravan.

The commodities for this port are the ſame as for Smyrna.

Thoſe which compoſe the cargoes of return are ſilk, either of Perſia, or the country; cotton cloths, of different ſorts; cotton in wool, or ſpun; nut-galls, cordovans, ſoap, ſilk ſtuffs, and beautiful camblets.

The manufacturers of theſe camblets and ſilks are the moſt numerous of all others, and poſſeſs the principal bazars at Aleppo.

All merchandiſes are uſually weighed by the rott, or rotulo, which is a common name for all Aleppo weights; though there are three kinds, and the common rott is 4 lb. 13 oz. avoirdupois.

Cottons and cordovans are ſold by the piece; but woollen cloths and ſtuffs are meaſured by the pic, or pico; 16 of the former being about 12 yards Engliſh, and 12 of the latter being about 8 yards Engliſh.

The commerce of Crim Tartary, or of Caffa, and the Black ſea. The Venetians have attempted ſeveral times to eſtabliſh a trade on the Black ſea, eſpecially at the town of Caffa, which is ſituated in 37 deg. of E. lon. and 44 deg. 55 min. of N. lat. on the S. E. part of the peninſula of Crim Tartary. They even obtained a privilege for this purpoſe in 1672, by the warm ſolicitations and great preſents made by the Chevalier Quirini. But the principal cuſtomhouſe-officer at Conſtantinople made a remonſtrance of this privilege; aſſerting that it would deprive the Grand Signior of the duties of exportation on the merchandiſe deſtined for this town, and others upon the ſame ſea; as alſo that the Chriſtians of Europe might, by this means, facilitate an intelligence with the Chriſtians inha-

biting theſe coaſts: upon which the privilege granted to the Venetians was revoked; and ſince that time no European nation could obtain another.

The road for ſhipping at Caffa is excellent, and its port is the only ſafe one upon the Black ſea; on which account a great trade is carried on at Caffa, where it is uſual to ſee 4 or 500 veſſels in a year.

There is alſo a conſiderable trade of corn, ſalt, furs, and butter; which laſt is eſteemed the beſt of all Turky: but what brings the greateſt number of ſhipping there, and what obliged the Venetian ambaſſador to purchaſe the liberty of its commerce at ſo dear a rate, was the great quantity of ſturgeons fiſhed for in the Palus Mæotis; whoſe pickled roes, called caviac, the Italians are exceeding fond of, as alſo ſome other nations of Europe and Aſia.

Perhaps there is an exaggeration in ſuch relations as aſſert, that ſome of theſe fiſh weigh 8 or 900 lb. and that 3 or 4 quintals of caviac may be had from ſome of them; for it is certain, that there are not any elſewhere, either ſo large, or in ſuch great numbers.

The commerce of furs brought from Ruſſia to Conſtantinople, or from Natolia, the Black ſea, Crim, and ſome other towns of Tartary, is very conſiderable at Caffa. The merchants of Europe have no ſhare in the purchaſe or ſale, for all is in the hands of the Greeks: but it may be ſuppoſed that they could trade here more advantageouſly than the Greeks, by bringing the furs directly from Archangel, where they can have them cheaper; and from whence the expences of tranſport by ſea would be leſs, as well as the cuſtomhouſe-duties paid at Archangel and Conſtantinople; whereas, by ſending them by land, theſe duties are paid in Muſcovy, at Megin in Moldavia, in the country of the Coſſacks, and at Conſtantinople.

The furs which the Greeks have from Ruſſia are ſables, ermins, and minevers.

The ſables are purchaſed and ſold by the cheſt; the cheſt containing 10 maſſes; and the maſs is compoſed of 20 pair of entire ſkins, that is, with the head, the feet, and the neck; the belly having no ſale at Conſtantinople.

One year with another, there might be ſold at Conſtantinople, 200 cheſts of ſables, from about 262 l. ſterling, to 330 l. the cheſt; each cheſt paying, both for the expences of carriage, and the cuſtomhouſe duties, about 52 l. ſterling.

The ermins are not eſteemed, but when extremely white; and they are ſold by the maſs, which conſiſts of 40 entire ſkins; the expences of carriage, and the cuſtomhouſe duties, amounting to about 21 s. ſterling for each maſs.

The minevers are ſold by the thouſand, from No. 1. to No. 4. and brought in ſacks, two of which make a horſe-load; the expences and duties of a thouſand to Conſtantinople being about 7 l. ſterling.

The merchandiſes which the Greeks carry into Muſcovy, and which they exchange for theſe three ſorts of ſkins, are Venetian brocades, taffeties of the country, gilt ſilver-wire, emeralds of a low price, ſapphires, red linens, ſilver in ſpecie, particularly piaſters, and ſequins of Hungary.

The other furs brought to Conſtantinople are martins, black pole-cats, lynxes, and foxes. Theſe four ſorts of ſkins come from Natolia, from whence there are brought annually to the value of about 10,500 l. ſterling.

A great quantity of black foxes ſkins are brought from Caffa and Tartary, to the yearly value of about 18,000 l. ſterling. They are much eſteemed, and more beautiful than thoſe of Natolia. Lamb-ſkins, which ſerve for furring veſts, ſell alſo pretty well, and uſually to the amount of about 1200 l. ſterling a year.

There are ſold at Caffa, one year with another, to the value of about 3000 l. ſterling in Venetian brocades. But the merchants alſo bring there another ſort of Venetian brocade, whoſe gold and ſilver are factitious, the flowers being like thoſe of damask, and of which they ſell to the amount of about 1200 l. ſterling a year.

There are alſo ſold yearly 10 or 12 bales of Engliſh woollen cloth, and to the value of about 3500 l. ſterling in damasks of Scio.

Taffeties have likewiſe ſuch a conſiderable ſale at Caffa, that to the value of 10,000 l. ſterling are annually ſold there, whoſe profit uſually amounts to 30 or 35 *per cent.*

To Caffa is alſo imported to the value of about 2400 l. ſterling in fuſtian of Scio, which brings about 50 *per cent.*

Beſides, there are brought about 4 or 5000 pieces of other fuſtians manufactured at Conſtantinople, whoſe profit is computed at 40 *per cent.*

There is the ſame profit in coffee, and Cairo flax; of the former of which there is ſold to the value of 3000 l. ſterling, of the latter to the value of 1000 l. ſterling.

At Caffa are gathered about 30,000 occos, or oaks, of wax, the oak being 2 lb. 11 oz. avoirdupois in London; a part of which goes to Smyrna, and another to Conſtantinople, which coſts about 1 s. 6 d. ſterling the occo; the duty of exportation being 5 *per cent.* and the importation at Conſtantinople 3 *per cent.*

There are 50 or 60 ſaiks, laden with wheat, ſent yearly from Caffa to Conſtantinople, where 25 occos are ſold for 1 s. 10 d. ſterling. There are alſo 15 or 20 ſaiks laden with barley, wherein the profits are conſiderable.

Great quantities of butter are bought at Caffa for 10 d. ſterling a pound, and is ſold at Conſtantinople for 1 s. 6 d. ſterling.

The profits in honey, of which Caffa furniſhes conſiderable quantities, are not leſs than thoſe of wax and butter.

Laſtly, ſome ſilk may be had from Caffa, but of an indifferent quality.

TURKISH *iſlands. Commerce of the Archipelago, or the iſlands of the Egean ſea.*

There are a great number of theſe iſlands; but only the following are remarkable for trade.

Amorgo, is ſituated in 26 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 37 deg. of N. lat. 90 miles north of Candia. The commodities brought from this iſland are oil, great quantities of corn, and ſome wine; as alſo lichen, a plant for dying red, much uſed in England. See *Lichen*.

Andros, is ſituated near the ſouth-end of Negropont; and its principal commerce conſiſts in ſilk, which is not of the beſt quality, being only fit for making tapeſtry; but it might be brought to ſome perfection, ſo as to be employed in ſtuffs, ribbons, and ſewing ſilk.

About 1000 lb. are gathered of it yearly; which, one year with another, are ſold for three half crowns *per* pound.

The other commodities are inſignificant; the wine, oil, barley, and corn produced there being ſcarce ſufficient for the conſumption of the inhabitants.

Black mulberries and ſtrawberries ſerve there for making a good kind of brandy.

The French keep a conſul at Andros.

Antiparos, is a ſmall iſland, which has ſome trade in wine and cotton.

Candia, formerly called *Crete*, is a large iſland of the Mediterranean, ſituated at the entrance of the Archipelago, between 22 and 27 deg. of E. lon. and between 35 and 36 deg. of N. lat. Its commerce is pretty conſiderable, and moſt of the Chriſtian nations trading to the Levant keep conſuls there; the towns of greateſt trade in the iſland being Canea, Retimo, Candia, and Gira-Petra.

The iſland is covered with an infinite number of olive-trees, producing good oil, which makes the principal traffic of the iſland.

The beſt oils of the iſland are thoſe of Canea, and Retimo; thoſe of Gira-Petra being black and muddy, becauſe, before the emptying of their jars, the inhabitants of this laſt place are accuſtomed to ſtir up the oil, and the lees with a ſtick, to ſell all together.

From Candia are alſo exported conſiderable quantities of Malmſey wine; but that of Retimo is moſt eſteemed.

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The other merchandiſe brought from the iſland of Candia are gum adraganth, ladanum, wool, ſilk, honey, wax, cheeſe, and cotton. Some excellent wheat alſo grows in the iſland, particularly in the neighbourhood of Candia; but its exportation is prohibited.

Chios, *Xio*, or *Scio*, is an iſland called by the Turks *Salzizadaci*, or *Sachezada*, that is, the iſland of maſtic; being one of the largeſt and moſt populous of the Egean ſea, for it is 100 miles in circumference; and it is computed that there are 10,000 Turks, 3000 Latins, and 100,000 Greeks, in this iſland.

Chios, the capital of the iſland, is ſituated in 27 deg. of E. lon. and 38 deg. of N. lat. the port being the rendezvous of the Turkiſh ſhipping, going out and returning home to Conſtantinople.

Wine, butter, ſilk, cotton, turpentine, and maſtic, are the principal productions for the European trade; and it is computed that to the amount of about 25,000 l. ſterling, are yearly exported in ſpun ſilk, beſides what is manufactured in the iſland in damasks, ſatins, and taffeties, ſent to Cairo, Conſtantinople, and all the towns of the coaſts of Barbary.

The cottons are in wool, or ſpun; of which fuſtians, and other ſtuffs, are made.

But the principal branch of trade in this iſland conſiſts in maſtic, which is found no where elſe. The beſt ſort is deſigned for the Grand Signior, or rather for the women of his ſeraglio; ſo that what the Europeans buy may be properly called the refuſe. See *Maſtic*.

The Turks and the French pay only a duty of 3 *per cent.* for all the merchandiſe of the iſland; but the Jews and Armenians pay five.

Leſbos, or *Metelin*, is an iſland ſituated in 26 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 38 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 60 miles north-weſt of Smyrna; being 50 miles long, and 25 broad.

Caſtro, the antient Metelin, is the chief town; and there are upwards of 100 villages in the iſland, which produces good wheat, excellent oil, and the beſt figs of the Archipelago. It alſo affords great quantities of rich wine; as alſo fir-trees, of which planks and maſts are made, that ſell very well in all parts of the Levant.

Milo, or *Melo*, is 60 miles north of Candia; having a pretty conſiderable trade in wine, oil, ſalt, ſulphur, alum, cotton, coloquintida, and all ſorts of legumes. The ſalt is an exceeding cheap article; and the ſulphur is found in large pieces in the earth, particularly in large veins in the quarries from whence millſtones are taken; being very beautiful, with a greeniſh and gloſſy hue.

The cotton is very good, and ſells well.

There is alſo a prodigious ſale of millſtones in this iſland, which furniſhes all the other iſlands of the Egean ſea, as alſo Conſtantinople, Cyprus, and a great part of Egypt with them; the quarries of theſe ſtones being ſo abundant, that the Grand Signior has from them a yearly revenue of 2500 l. ſterling.

It is this iſland which gives pilots to the greater part of the ſhips that ſail in this part of the Mediterranean, no others being ſo well acquainted with the Archipelago.

Micona, in the Frank language *Miconi*, has an excellent port, and its territory produces ſeveral mercantile commodities. It has about 500 ſeamen, which paſs for the beſt of the Archipelago, not excepting thoſe of Milo; with upwards of 100 ſhips for the trade of the iſlands, and 40 or 50 large galley-boats for that of Turky and the Morea.

The commerce to Turky is in leather, particularly in Morocco and Cordovans, which are laden at Siagi near Smyrna, and at Scala Nova. The commerce of the Morea conſiſts chiefly in wine; of which the inhabitants of Micona make, one year with another, from 25 to 30,000 barrels, and each galley-boat may carry 7 or 800 barrels.

The Engliſh, Dutch, and French keep conſuls in this iſland; but the two former not ſo much for any ſhips they ſend there, as to protect the trade of the Greeks.

The French ſhips deſtined for Smyrna and Conſtantinople, paſs always into the ſtrait of Tina and Micona; and, beſides the ſhips which almoſt always touch at Micona, ſeveral barks reſort it from France, which load there corn, ſilk, cotton, and other merchandiſe of the neighbouring iſlands.

Naxia, or *Nixia*, is an iſland, ſituated in 26 deg. of E. lon. and 36 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. lying S. E. of Micona, and E. of Paros. It is 100 miles in circumference, the country fruitful, and well watered, with woods, hills, and valleys, agreeably intermixed.

The greateſt part of the inhabitants are Greek Chriſtians, and the reſt Latins, each of them having their archbiſhop; and the Turks ſuffer them to be governed by their own magiſtrates.

The iſland has a good trade in barley, wine, figs, cotton, ſilk, oxen, ſheep, mules, emery, and oil.

Ladanum is alſo found there, but full of filth and goats hair. Oil of olives is ſold there very cheap, 8 oaks, of 2 lb. 11 oz. avoirdupois each, coſting but a crown; and ſalt is ſo cheap, that 12 or 15 meaſures, each meaſure weighing 120 lb. are ſold for about 4 s. 6 d. ſterling.

Emery is found in ſeveral parts of the iſland, by thoſe who till the ground. The Engliſh ballaſt their ſhips with it; and it uſually coſts them about 5 s. for 20 quintals, each weighing 140 lb. avoirdupois.

The marble of Naxia is alſo much eſteemed; and the French keep a conſul upon the iſland.

Paros, is an iſland ſituated in 25 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 36 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. almoſt in the mid-way between the Morea and the Leſſer Aſia. It was formerly very famous for its white marble, which ſculptors preferred to all others for ſtatues; and it is thought that it was of this marble moſt of the antique ſtatues were made, which have been preſerved till our times. But modern ſculptors think that the Italian marble is preferable to that of Greece, which is of a coarſer grain, and eaſily flaws in the working; whereas the other is ſofter, and ſeems to obey the chizzel.

The commerce of Paros conſiſts in wheat, barley, legumes, wine, and in cotton cloths: it abounded much formerly in oil; but the Venetian army burnt almoſt all the olive-trees during the war of Candia.

Patmos, or *Patino*, is one of the leaſt of theſe iſlands; being ſituated in 27 deg. of E. lon. and 37 deg. of N. lat. It produces ſcarce any thing fit for commerce; the wheat, barley, and figs, that grow there not being ſufficient for the inhabitants; but it has a commodious harbour, and twelve galley-boats, with ſeveral other ſmaller veſſels, which the inhabitants uſe for bringing corn from the Morea, and even as far as the coaſts of the Black ſea, for the loading of French ſhips; and the French keep a vice conſul in this iſland.

Policandro, is a ſmall iſland, being dry and rocky; ſo that the inhabitants are very poor, and trade but little, gathering wine and oil only for their own conſumption. However, they have ſome trade in cotton-cloths for napkins, a dozen of which are ſold for a crown; but they are not above a foot ſquare.

Rhodes, is the moſt conſiderable iſland in the Mediterranean, next to Candia and Cyprus; being ſituated between the 36th and 37th degree of N. lat. about 60 miles N. E. of the iſland of Candia, 250 to the W. of Cyprus, and not more than 20 S. W. of the continent of Aſia Minor. It is about 50 miles in length from N. to S. and half as much in breadth, or rather leſs.

The city of Rhodes is ſituated on the N. E. part of the iſland; having a tolerable good harbour, or, as ſome ſay, three harbours, though two of them will receive only very ſmall veſſels: the city ſtands part of it on the riſing of a hill, and is three miles in circumference,

The Rhodians ſo improved the advantage of their ſituation, that they became the moſt conſiderable maritime power in the Mediterranean, and preſcribed laws for the regulation of navigation and commerce, afterwards called the Rhodian laws; by which maritime cauſes were decided in all the provinces of the Roman empire.

Samos, is an iſland, ſituated in 27 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 37 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 30 miles S. of Smyrna, and inhabited by about 12,000 Greek Chriſtians. A conſiderable trade is carried on at Samos, where the cuſtom-

houſe is farmed only at 10 000 crowns; but the Aga, who collects the duties, gets as much more for himſelf.
Muſcadine grapes are the fineſt and beſt fruit of the iſland; but the wine made of them is not of the moſt excellent kind; which is thought to proceed from the bad manner of making it; though what is ſent to the Europeans eſtabliſhed at Smyrna, is uſually pretty good; becauſe more care is taken of it, and it is leſs adulterated with water than that which is uſed among the Greeks. About 3000 barrels are annually made, each barrel weighing about 158 lb. avoirdupois.
Such Greeks as purchaſe the wine in the iſland pay 4 or 5 *per cent.* duty of exportation, according to the will of the cuſtomhouſe-officer: but the French pay only the half; and the greater part of theſe wines are brought to Chios, Rhodes, and Napoli di Romania.
The oil of Samos is tolerably good; but there are not above 8 or 900 barrels gathered in a year, which weigh as much as the barrels of wine, and 1139 lb. of it are ſold for a crown. The Greeks pay 4 *per cent.* duty of exportation for this commodity, but the French only two.
In this iſland there are uſually laden three barks of wheat every year for France; each bark containing 8 or 900 meaſures, and each meaſure making 75 lb.
They dry figs at Samos, but only for the uſe of the country; which are very white, and three or four times larger than thoſe of Marſeilles, but leſs delicate.
Though the cheeſe of Samos is not of the beſt kind; yet a bark is laden therewith every year for France, and 100 lb. coſt about 9 s. ſterling.
This iſland may alſo furniſh to the amount of 400 quintals of peas, worth a crown *per* quintal, which pay 4 *per cent.* duty of exportation.
Laſtly, it has ſome ſilk, honey, wax, ſcammony, wool, different boles, and emery.
The ſilk is very beautiful, and is ſold for about 4 s. ſterling the pound. The trade thereof amounts to about 6000 l. ſterling a year, and the commodity pays 4 *per cent.* duty of exportation.
The honey is excellent, and 50 lb. of it ſold for 4 s. 10 d. ſterling; the wax is about 5 d. ſterling the pound, and ſcarce more than 100 quintals of it are gathered in the whole iſland.
The ſcammony is not very good, being reddiſh, hard, and tough, therefore with ſome difficulty reduced to powder. It purges too violently, and is conſumed moſtly in Natolia; being ſcarce ever ſent into the Weſt, though it pays no duties.
The French load there a bark with wool every year, giving about 2 d. ſterling for 3 lb. 2 oz.
Among the boles, that of the neighbourhood of Barvonda is in moſt eſteem; being a kind of natural Mars ſaffron, of a deep red, very fine, and dry.
Oker is very common in the iſland, and makes a pretty beautiful yellow when ſlightly tinged in the fire; but becomes of a red brown, when left there for any time.
Near Carlovaſſi is found another kind of bole, very black, and very fine; which is uſed for dying black thread for ſewing.

Santorini, is an iſland ſituated in 25 deg. 35 min. of E. lon. and 36 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. being 35 miles in circumference; but is properly a large rock of pumice-ſtone; though its inhabitants, who are about 10,000 Greeks, are very laborious, and great lovers of trade; ſending their barley, wine, cotton, and linen, to the neighbouring iſlands.
The wines have the colour of Rheniſh; but are violent, and full of ſpirits.
The cotton is dreſſed there like the vine, and the plant which produces it riſes in form of a ſhrub, much like gooſeberry-trees; however, it is the ſame ſpecies which botaniſts call cotton-herb, and which they diſtinguiſh from the ſhrub.
The linens are chiefly manufactured by the Latin and Greek nuns; being ſent to Candia, the Morea, and throughout all parts of ths Archipelago.

Sikino, has ſome trade in corn, which paſſes for the beſt in the Archipelago. The French tartanes of Provence take away with them great quantities; though the Turks are not willing that their corn ſhould be taken from them, and very often they place it among contraband merchandiſe for exportation; but, for a little money, the officers ſhut their eyes, and their cargoes are completed in the night-time.
The other commodities of Sikino are wine and ſome cottons; as alſo figs, which are excellent when freſh, but not ſo when dry, becauſe they are heated in an oven to keep them from worms.
The French have a conſul upon this iſland.

Siphanto, is about 6 miles from Milo; and the commodities brought from it are oil, capers, ſilk, cotton-cloths, figs, honey, and wax.
The iſland alſo produces cotton in great quantities; but it is entirely conſumed in their own manufactures.
The cloths are of two ſorts; the ſhamite, which is entirely plain; and the dimity, which is croſſed; but the latter is the more beautiful, and ſells beſt.
The ſilk is good, but in no great quantity.

Skiros, has ſome trade in wheat, barley, wine, and wax.
The French load ſome barks with barley and wheat; the wines are ſent to the neighbouring iſlands, and are ſold for about a crown a barrel; 100 quintals are annually gathered of wax; and it has alſo excellent cheeſe.

Syra, has ſome excellent wheat, but in no great quantity; a great deal of barley, and wine, with figs, olives, and cotton.

Thermia, has a trade in ſilk, worth about 4 s. 6 d. ſterling the pound, and ſometimes 1200 lb. are gathered in a year.
It has alſo wine, honey, wax, wool, and cotton; of which laſt ſeveral cloths are made, particularly a kind of very pretty yellow gauze, with which the women of this iſland make veils for the covering of their heads.
The French keep a conſul in this iſland.

Zia, has wheat, barley, wine, figs, and ſilk.
The ſilks of Zia are of a pretty good quality; and ſome authors aſſert, that ſilk ſtuffs were firſt invented in this iſland; though M. Tournefort, in his travels of the Levant, pretends that it is eaſy to demonſtrate that the invention is due to the inhabitants of the iſland of Cos.

Turky being thus happily ſituated in the centre of the continent, and the moſt fruitful countries, could not fail of engroſſing a conſiderable ſhare of trade, if the people were not ſo inactive and indolent, or the government not ſo arbitrary. The Grand Signior, or Emperor of the Turks, is abſolute, and his throne hereditary; at leaſt, it is confined to one family; for though the janiſſaries, who are his guards, frequently depoſe their ſovereign, when he happens to be unſucceſsful, or his adminiſtration does not pleaſe them, they uſually advance his neareſt relation to the throne.
The Grand Signior exerciſes an unlimited authority over the inhabitants of the ſeraglio, and his baſhaws, and officers, as well as over his Chriſtian ſubjects; but the Turkiſh gentlemen, who have no places or dependence at court, enjoy their liberties and properties as much as if they lived under a limited monarchy, for they pay no taxes to the government; and if the Grand Signior was to attempt to tax them, or change their cuſtoms, he would run the hazard of being depoſed.
The great officers of ſtate are the grand vizir, or prime miniſter; the mufti, or high-prieſt; the vizirs of the bench, who ſit in the divans, or courts of juſtice; the caddoliſquiers, or chief juſtices of provinces; the beglerbegs, or vice-roys; the baſhaws, or baſſas, who are governors of towns and diſtricts, under the beglerbegs; the kaimachan, or governor of Conſtantinople, who is lieutenant to the grand vizir in his abſence; the treaſurer; the chamberlain, and others officers of the houſhold; the aga, or general of the janiſſaries; and the captain-baſhaw, or high-admiral.
There are no nobility or hereditary governments in Turky; for the baſhaws, and great officers of ſtate, are all educated in the ſeraglio; being the children of Chriſtian parents, taken by the Tartars in their excurſions, or purchaſed by the merchants, many of whom deal only in

this kind of traffic. However, the renegado Chriſtians ſometimes arrive at the higheſt employments in their fleets and armies; being better skilled in the arts of war and navigation than the Turks uſually are: but, as for the native Turks, few of them are found in any great poſts; it being of the children of Chriſtians, or renegadoes, that their officers, both civil and military, are compoſed, as well as the beſt part of their forces.

The Turkiſh forces are very numerous; but the greateſt part of them conſiſt of a kind of militia; becauſe every gentleman holds his lands by military tenures, and is obliged to bring a certain number of ſoldiers into the field, in proportion to the eſtate he poſſeſſes. However, they chiefly rely on their regular ſtanding troops; which conſiſts of ſpahics and janiſaries; the former being the horſe-guards, conſiſting of about 15,000 men; and the latter are the foot-guards, conſiſting of about 20,000; who are educated in the ſeraglio, and trained up to arms from their infancy; though there are about 100,000 more, who procure themſelves to be regiſtered in this body, to enjoy the privileges of janiſaries, which are very great; being ſubject to no juriſdiction but that of their aga, or chief commander.

Their naval forces are not ſo conſiderable as might be expected in ſuch extenſive dominions, ſituated on ſeveral ſeas, and abounding in commodious harbours: but their neglecting navigation and foreign commerce, is the true reaſon why they can never find ſailors to man a great fleet, if they ſhould build one.

The Turks ſeldom ſail to diſtant countries, or viſit nations of a different faith: but the merchandiſe of the reſt of the world is carried to them in foreign bottoms; and the produce and manufactures of Turky are exported in the ſame manner. They reap little advantage by their commerce with Chriſtendom, but what they get by the duties of import and export; their home trade being carried on chiefly by their Chriſtian or Jewiſh ſubjects: for the Turks are above applying themſelves to any thing of this kind; leaving traffic, and mechanical employments, to be managed by the deſpiſed Chriſtians, who contribute much more, by their labour and induſtry, to the ſupport of that empire, than the Turks themſelves, which may be one reaſon that their government indulges them in the free exerciſe of their religion. Indeed, there ſeem to be more Chriſtians in the Turkiſh empire than Mahometans, eſpecially in their European territories; who have alſo this happineſs, that they are never preſſed or forced into their armies, but left to follow their ſeveral occupations; while the Turkiſh gentlemen take the honour of defending their country, and making foreign conqueſts, entirely on themſelves.

The eſtabliſhed religion is the Mahometan, of the ſect of Omar, and ſubdivided into 100 other ſects: but all religions are tolerated in Turky, where the Greek Chriſtians have 4 patriarchs, 19 archbiſhops, and 33 biſhops, who are allowed churches for the celebration of divine worſhip.

The revenues of the Grand Signior ariſe by the cuſtoms, the produce of the demeſne lands, and a kind of capitation-tax, impoſed on every ſubject of the empire, who is not of the Mahometan religion. Another branch of them ariſes by the annual tribute paid by the Crim Tartar, the princes of Moldavia and Walachia, the little republic of Raguſa, and part of Mingrelia; beſides half a million of money, out of a million and a half which is levied annually in Egypt, comes into the royal treaſury, the reſt being laid out in paying the forces of that province. But all theſe are a trifle, in compariſon of the great ſums which the Sultan continually extorts from his viceroys and great officers of ſtate, which paſs under the name of preſents: he is alſo heir to all his officers and miniſters; who, after plundering whole provinces, are obliged to leave all to the diſpoſal of their ſovereign when they die; though, if they happen to be immoderately rich, he ſometimes cuts them off in the prime of life, under pretence of miſconduct.

The Turks are of a Scythian or Tartarian original; being little known till the eighth century, when they came down upon Georgia, and plundered that country. In 844, they ſettled in Armenia Major: in the year 1000, the Turks, under Tangropilix, defeated the Perſian Sultan, took poſſeſſion of his country, and afterwards made a conſiderable progreſs in Leſſer Aſia; but, in 1100, another ſwarm of Scythians broke into Perſia, and reduced the Turks to a very low ebb: but Ottoman reſtored the Turkiſh nation to their former grandeur, making himſelf maſter of the beſt part of Aſia Minor; on which account the empire obtained the name of Ottoman, and the preſent Grand Signior deduces his pedigree from this prince. The ſucceeding princes extended their poſſeſſion; and Mahomet II. ſirnamed the Great, conquered the two empires of Conſtantinople and Trebiſond in 1453 and 1460, with 200 cities more, and was firſt ſtiled Emperor of the Turks; after which they extended their arms, and have been long very formidable to the European powers: but the Turkiſh empire ſeems now to be be in the decline; while the empire of Ruſſia is every day increaſing in ſtrength, ſo as to be a ſufficient check to any future attempts of the Turks againſt the Chriſtian powers.

Engliſh TURKY *company.* In 1739 and 1740, the Turky company preſented two memorials to the ſecretary of ſtate, repreſenting, that the French imported at Conſtantinople and Aleppo about 12,000 cloths yearly, about 40 yards each; and at each of theſe places there had been for ſeveral years paſt large quantities of Engliſh cloth unſold, occaſioned by ſo large an importation of French cloth; particularly in February 1739, about 5000 Engliſh cloths remained at Scanderoon, above 4000 at Conſtantinople, and at Smyrna above 3000. They alſo repreſented, that the French had obtained ſome advantages from the Porte; firſt, a reduction of their cuſtom upon cloth, from 40 to 30 dollars the bale of 20 pieces; ſecondly, a total abolition of the duty called meſſataria, which is two dollars, and 1-6th of a dollar, *per* bale of cloth, and one-half *per cent. ad valorem* upon all goods ſold by weight. Whereupon they obſerved, that thoſe advantages obtained by the French in Turky, with the great encouragement given them by their government, encreaſed their apprehenſions of not being able to cope with them in the cloth-trade, without aſſiſtance from the Britiſh government.

Theſe papers being laid before the commiſſioners of the board of trade, they reported to the lords juſtices, that the company was under great diſadvantages on account of the French trade to Turky. That it was at a very high expence, to the amount of 8000 l. a year, in maintaining the ambaſſador his Majeſty ſends to the Porte, as well as conſuls, and other public officers in that country, which, in the preſent low condition of their trade, they were not able to ſupport. That the company apprehended, if a bounty was to be allowed on the exportation of cloth to the Levant, which might include Spain and Italy, and the duty on Turky ſilks and grograms lowered, it might be a means not only of relieving them in their preſent difficulties, but might enable them to continue the expence of the public miniſters at the Porte, and to carry on this valuable branch of trade to advantage; whereas it laboured under a large debt, contracted by the company, which they had no hope of paying, while it continued in this drooping condition. But the commiſſioners obſerved, that they very much queſtioned whether the expedients the company propoſed were practicable; as alſo, that having aſked the merchants, whether it would not be for their ſervice, that his Majeſty's ambaſſador at the Porte ſhould be inſtructed to apply for the obtaining all the advantages granted to any other nation? they ſeemed to decline it, on account of the increaſe of expence ſuch application muſt be attended with.

The Engliſh commerce has been long declining in Turky, while the French have greatly advanced in this trade; which occaſioned ſome propoſals for the opening of this branch of commerce to the whole Britiſh nation: but the legiſlature thought proper to try another expedient for the revival of this ſinking branch of commerce, by paſſing an act of parliament for a new regulation of the Turky company.

The

The woollen cloths of England were better made, and cheaper, than thoſe of France; which made them in more eſteem among the Turks, to whom the Engliſh alſo carried great quantities of tin, lead, iron, pewter, logwood, pepper, dry fiſh, ſugar, watches, toys, and gold and ſilver: but this does not ſeem to be ſo much the caſe at preſent as it was formerly; though the Turky trade may always be extremely beneficial to Great Britain.

The woollen manufacture has at all times been thought the greateſt baſis of the foreign trade of England; being the firſt ſpring of its dealings abroad, and is what, by its conſumption at home, as well as exportation, gives the greateſt employment to the poor of the nation; for, in a great meaſure, it has been the foundation of the employment the people have had for ſeveral years in the ſilken manufacture; and a trade for ſilk, in exchange for the woollen manufactures of Great Britain, might be ſo happily ſettled, that one might promote the exports and vent of the other. It may be ſafely advanced, that the whole price of the encreaſe of the ſilken manufacture in England, from the worm to the mercer's ſhop, is paid to the product of the lands of England, and the labour of its people; admitting its manufacture, and native product, are only given in exchange for the raw and thrown ſilks imported from Turky, Italy, and the Eaſt Indies: therefore the Turky trade ſhould be diligently attended to, honeſtly conducted, and worthily promoted.

This company was eſtabliſhed upon the footing of the company of Engliſh merchant-adventurers; that is, it had no general fund, wherein the proprietors depoſited their ſhares, to carry on commerce; but the trade was ſo far free, that each aſſociate carried it on upon his own account; obſerving the regulations made by the company, and contributing occaſionally ſome ſums, for the expences and common intereſt of the trade.

This aſſociaiion commenced in the reign of Queen Elizabeth; which rendered the Engliſh commerce very flouriſhing in all the ſea-port towns of the Levant, eſpecially at Smyrna and Conſtantinople; though of late it has declined.

James I. confirmed the original charter in 1626, and added to it ſeveral new privileges.

The troubles of England under Cromwel hurt ſeveral perſons in the government of this company, and introduced among the members a great number of perſons who had not the qualifications ſpecified by the charters of Elizabeth and James I. or who behaved not purſuant to the antient regulations; therefore Charles II. upon his reſtoration, took upon him to re-eſtabliſh this company in its primitive reputation, by granting another charter of the 2d of April 1662, which confirmed that of James I. and added ſeveral new articles.

The number of merchants to compoſe the company was not determined; all thoſe poſſeſſed of neceſſary qualifications being permitted to be members; yet there were ſeldom leſs than 300.

One of the beſt and moſt uſeful regulations of this company was, not to allow the conſuls, nor even the ambaſſador, to lay any impoſt on the veſſels and goods, under the pretext of Turkiſh extortion, or any other extraordinary expences: for, to avoid this diſorder, ſo often deſtructive to the commerce of other nations, the Engliſh company not only allowed penſions to the ambaſſador and conſuls; but alſo to their principal officers, ſuch as the chaplain, the ſecretary, the interpreters, and the janiſaries; becauſe that theſe officers, upon no pretext whatſoever, might impoſe no new ſum upon merchants, ſhips, or goods.

The commerce carried on by the members of this company, employs yearly between 20 and 25 ſhips, of 25 or 30 guns each.

The merchandiſes exported for the Levant are woollen cloths of all colours, ſerges, tin, lead, pepper, cochineal, and a great quantity of ſilver, which the ſhipping ſometimes take in as they paſs by Cadiz.

The returns are in raw ſilks, galls, ſpun goats-hair, wool, cottons, Morocco leather, pot-aſhes, ſoap, ſeveral kinds of gums and medicinal drugs.

It was formerly thought, that the trade of this company at Smyrna, Conſtantinople, and Scanderoon, was almoſt equal to that of the Indies; and that even, in ſome reſpects, it was more to the advantage of England, becauſe it conſumed more Engliſh manufactures than the other, which are almoſt all paid for in ready money.

The parts reſerved for the company's commerce, are the ſtates of Venice, the ſtate of Raguſa, all the ſtates of the Grand Signior, and all the port-towns of the Levant and Mediterranean, except the ports upon the coaſts of France, Spain, and Italy.

The penalty enacted againſt thoſe not members of the company, detected in carrying on a trade within the extent of its conceſſion, was 20 *per cent.* of the value of the merchandiſes with which they were laden.

But ſeveral complaints being made againſt this company, an act of parliament was made in the 26th year of King George II. entitled, "An act for regulating the trade into "the Levant ſeas;" which is as follows.

Whereas King James I. by his letters-patent, bearing date the 14th day of December, in the third year of his reign, did grant to ſeveral perſons therein named, and to their ſons, and ſuch other as ſhould then after be admitted, or made free, that they ſhould be one fellowſhip, and one body corporate or politic, by the name of The governor and company of merchants of England trading into the Levant ſeas; and, by the ſame name, ſhould have perpetual ſucceſſion; and did direct, that all perſons, ſubjects of the realm, being mere merchants, which then were, or after the date of the ſaid letters-patent, ſhould happen to be under the age of 26 years, or not out of his or their apprenticeſhips, ſhould be admitted into the freedom of the ſaid company, if he or they ſhould demand the ſame within one year next after he or they ſhould attain the age of 26 years, or within one year after the end of his or their apprenticeſhips, and ſhould offer and pay to the ſaid governor and company, for his or their admittance, the ſum of 25 l.; and did further direct, that all perſons, ſubjects of this realm of England, being mere merchants, above the age of 26 years, ſhould be admitted into the freedom of the ſaid company, upon paying a fine of 50 l.; and did alſo direct, that all and every the ſons of ſuch as were, or ſhould be free of the ſaid company, and alſo all their apprentices employed in that trade for the ſpace of three years, or upwards, within the limits of the ſaid letters-patent, ſhould, after the end of their apprenticeſhips, be admitted to the freedom of the ſaid company, on payment of the ſum of 20 s. only. And whereas King Charles II. by his letters-patent, bearing date the 2d day of April, in the 13th year of his reign, did ratify and confirm the ſaid letters patent of King James I.; and did further direct, that no perſon reſiding within 20 miles of the city of London, ſhould be admitted into the freedom of the ſaid company, or have any benefit of the privileges thereof, unleſs he be made free of the ſaid city. And whereas the trade into the Levant ſeas has very much decreaſed, and the taking of leſs fines for the admiſſion of perſons into the freedom of the ſaid company, and the not reſtraining the freedom thereof to mere merchants, and to ſuch perſons as, reſiding within 20 miles of the city of London, are free of the ſaid city; and the ſecuring to all perſons admitted into the ſaid company, the liberty of exporting, at all times hereafter, all ſorts of goods and merchandiſes, not prohibited by law to be exported, to any port or place within the limits of the ſaid letters-patent, from what parts of Great Britain, and at what time, and in what quantity, and on board what ſhips, navigated according to law, they ſhall reſpectively think proper; and alſo of importing, in the like manner, from any port or place within the limits of the ſaid letters-patent, raw ſilk, or any other goods or commodities purchaſed within the ſaid limits, not prohibited by law to be imported, are the moſt probable means of recovering and extending the ſaid trade, for the benefit of this nation: it was therefore enacted, that from and after the 24th day of June 1754, every ſubject of Great Britain, deſiring admiſſion into the ſaid company of merchants

chants of England trading into the Levant ſeas, commonly called or known by the name of the Turky company, ſhall, upon requeſt for that purpoſe, made by himſelf, or any other perſon in his behalf, to the governor, or deputy-governor, of the ſaid company for the time being, be admitted into the ſaid company, within the ſpace of 30 days after ſuch requeſt ſhall be made, and ſhall have, uſe, and enjoy all the liberties, privileges, juriſdictions, franchiſes, power, and authorities, granted to the ſaid company by the ſaid letters-patent, as largely, fully, and amply, to all intents, conſtructions, and purpoſes, as any member of the ſaid company could, can, or may have, uſe, and enjoy the ſame, by virtue of the ſaid letters-patent; ſuch ſubject paying or tendering, or cauſing to be paid or tendered, for ſuch his admiſſion, for the uſe of the ſaid company, the ſum of 20l. and no more; any thing in the ſaid letters-patent, or either of them, to the contrary in any wiſe notwithſtanding.

That from and after the 24th day of June 1754, the following oath, in lieu of the oath heretofore taken by perſons, upon their admiſſions to their freedom in the ſaid company, ſhall be taken by every perſon, upon his admiſſion to his freedom, either before the governor or deputy-governor of the ſaid company, or before two of his Majeſty's juſtices of the peace, who are hereby reſpectively impowered and required to adminiſter the ſaid oath; which juſtices are hereby required to certify, under their hands and ſeals, that the ſaid oath was taken by on the day of before us, two of his Majeſty's juſtices of the peace in and for

—— "You ſwear to be good, faithful, and true, to "our ſovereign lord King George, his heirs and ſucceſ-"ſors; you ſhall be obedient and aſſiſtant to the gover-"nor, his deputy, and aſſiſtants, of the company of "merchants of England trading into the Levant ſeas, in "all lawful matters; you ſhall truly hold and keep to your "power, having no ſingular regard to yourſelf, to the "hurt and prejudice of the common weal of the ſaid "company, all ſtatutes, acts, and ordinances, which "according to have been duly made, the grant of privi-"leges granted to the ſaid company, and conſiſtent with "an act of parliament made in the 26th year of the "reign of King George II. entitled, An act for enlarging "and regulating the trade into the Levant ſeas; the ſe-"crets of the ſaid company you ſhall not diſcloſe; and, "if you ſhall know any perſon or perſons that intend "any hurt, harm, or prejudice, to our aforeſaid ſove-"reign lord the King's Majeſty, his heirs or ſucceſſors, "or to the ſaid company, or the privileges of the ſaid "company, you ſhall give knowledge thereof to the "ſaid governor, deputy, or aſſiſtants, or to ſome of "them; and you ſhall not colour or free any goods be-"longing to any one not free of the ſaid company. So "help you God."

That from and after the ſaid 24th day of June 1754, it ſhall and may be lawful to and for all and every perſon and perſons, being free of the ſaid company as aforeſaid, ſeparately or jointly, to export, or cauſe to be exported, from any port or place in Great Britain, to any port or place within the limits of the ſaid letters-patent, in any Britiſh or plantations-built ſhips, navigated according to law, at any time, and to any perſon or perſons whatſoever, being freemen of the ſaid company, or ſons or apprentices of freemen, ſuch freemen ſons or apprentices being his Majeſty's Chriſtian ſubjects, ſo long as ſuch perſon or perſons ſhall remain under, and ſubmit to, the protection and direction of the Britiſh ambaſſador and conſuls reſpectively, for the time being, any goods, wares, or merchandiſes whatſoever, not prohibited by law to be exported; and alſo to import, in like manner, from any port or place within the limits of the ſaid letters-patent, raw ſilk, or any other goods, wares, or commodities, purchaſed within the ſaid limits, not prohibited by law to be imported, upon paying or ſecuring the cuſtoms, and other duties payable for the ſame, to his Majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, by virtue of any law now in force, or hereafter to be made; and, upon paying ſuch impoſitions or ſums of money as ſhall be aſſeſſed and charged upon all goods, wares, or merchandiſes, to be exported or imported as aforeſaid, or upon any ſhips laden with the ſame, for defraying the neceſſary expences of the ſaid company; any thing in the ſaid letters patent, or either of them, or any ordinance, conſtitution, or bye-law of the ſaid company, made, or to be made, to the contrary in any wiſe notwithſtanding.

Provided always, that the exportation of gold or ſilver, either in foreign coin or bullion, ſhall remain ſubject to the bye-laws of the ſaid company, made or to be made in that behalf.

That it ſhall and may be lawful for the ſaid governor, or deputy-governor, and company, in general court aſſembled, to make ſuch rules, ordinances, or bye-laws, for the good government of the ſaid company, as the major part of the members preſent at ſuch general court ſhall think neceſſary; but no ſuch rule, ordinance, or bye-law, ſhall be valid, or of any force or effect whatſoever, unleſs the ſame be confirmed at a ſubſequent general court, to be held at leaſt one calendar month after the general court at which ſuch rule, ordinance, or bye-law, was made; and if any ſeven, or more, of the freemen of the ſaid company, ſhall think themſelves aggrieved by any rule, ordinance, or bye-law, made, or to be made, it ſhall be lawful for them to preſent an appeal, in writing, againſt the ſame, to the commiſſioners for trade and plantations, who are hereby empowered and required, with all convenient ſpeed, to hear ſuch appeal, and to approve or diſapprove ſuch rule, ordinance, or bye-law, and in ſuch manner as to them, or the major part of them preſent, ſhall appear fit and reaſonable.

Provided alſo, that in caſe any ſuch appeal ſhall be brought againſt any future rule, ordinance, or bye-law, to be made by the ſaid governor and company, ſuch appeal ſhall be brought within twelve calendar months after ſuch rule, ordinance, or bye-law, ſhall be ſo made and confirmed as aforeſaid; and if any ſuch appeal ſhall be brought againſt any rule, ordinance, or bye-law of the ſaid company now in force, ſuch appeal ſhall be brought within twelve calendar months after the ſaid 24th day of June 1754.

Provided alſo, that the perſons appealing againſt any ſuch rule, ordinance, or bye-law, ſhall, at the ſame time, give notice in writing of ſuch appeal, to the governor, deputy-governor, or ſecretary of the ſaid company for the time being.

Provided nevertheleſs, that no ſuch rule, ordinance, or bye law, ſhall be of any greater or other force or validity, than the ſame would or ought to have been if no ſuch appeal had been given by this act.

Provided always, that whenſoever any general court of the ſaid company ſhall be appointed to be held for the making of any rule, ordinance, or bye-law, public notice thereof ſhall be given in the London Gazette, at leaſt 20 days before the time appointed for the holding of ſuch general court.

Provided always, that all rules, orders, and regulations made for preventing infection, ſhall be and remain in full force and virtue, as if this act had never paſſed.

That no goods or merchandiſes liable to retain the infection of the plague, and coming from the Levant, without a clean bill of health, ſhall be landed in any part of Great Britain or Ireland, or of the iſles of Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, unleſs it ſhall appear to the ſatisfaction of his Majeſty, his heirs or ſucceſſors, or of his or their privy council, that the ſaid goods or merchandiſes have been ſufficiently opened and aired in the lazaretto of Malta, Ancona, Venice, Meſſina, Leghorn, Genoa, and Marſeilles, or one of them.

Dutch TURKY, or *Levant company*. There is properly no Dutch Turky company; but their commerce there is ſo conſiderable, and of ſuch importance to the republic, that the States-General thought it not unworthy of them to take it under their conſideration, and eſtabliſh ſome regulations, which all the Dutch traders are obliged to obſerve.

For the better obſerving theſe regulations, the ſtates have eſtabliſhed at Amſterdam a chamber of direction, compoſed of ſix deputies and a clerk, all merchants; who,

under the authority of burgo-maſters, take care of every thing that regards the navigation and commerce of the Mediterranean, eſpecially that which they carry on, with equal profit and reputation, at Smyrna and Conſtantinople.

This company nominates the conſuls for the Levant ports; though ſuch nomination muſt be confirmed by the ſtates. The company alſo aſcertains the number and force of the neceſſary convoys, for the ſecurity of the navigation of merchant-veſſels; it adjuſts the differences of traders; and it has even a right, when neceſſary, to add new regulations, but not to have any force till confirmed by the ſtates.

French TURKY, or *Levant company*, was eſtabliſhed for the commerce of the ports of the Mediterranean, the coaſts and countries ſubject to the Grand Signior, and the coaſts of Barbary and Africa.

Before this company exiſted, ſeveral mercantile aſſociations, eſpecially at Marſeilles and Toulon, were entered upon for the Mediterranean trade; and ſome even obtained letters patent for theſe ſocieties: but the moſt conſiderable of all was this company; which was eſtabliſhed in 1670, compoſed of 20 opulent merchants of Paris, Lyons, and Marſeilles.

Beſides the privileges contained in the edict of its eſtabliſhment, the King, by a new arret, of the 18th of July the ſame year, added ſeveral others; as 10 livres for each piece of cloth ſent by the company to the Levant; an exemption of the duties of importation and exportation, upon the proviſions and ammunition of its ſhips; a loan from his Majeſty to the aſſociates of 200,000 livres, without intereſt, for ſix years; as alſo, that the company's loſſes ſhould be repaired out of that ſum; laſtly, ſeveral lucrative and honourable privileges for thoſe who had actions therein.

However, this company gradually loſt its credit and privileges; ſo that an arret of the council of ſtate, dated the 17th of November 1684, revoked the excluſive privilege granted it of ſelling ſena imported from Cairo; but at laſt its conceſſion expired, which was not renewed; and the Levant commerce remained free to all the traders of France; though under ſeveral excellent regulations, made at different times from 1669 to 1749.

Genoeſe TURKY, or *Levant company*. The Genoeſe, in the year 1645, intended to trade to the Levant under their own flag; and projected a company, which was not eſtabliſhed till 20 years after.

The traffic of pieces of 5 ſols had ſo well ſucceeded with the French, that the Genoeſe endeavoured to follow their example; which occaſioned the ruin of their trade, becauſe thoſe coined in Italy were either all ſpurious, or of a baſe alloy.

To ſucceed in this project, they formed a Levant company in 1664; the Marquis Durazzo, one of the chief parties concerned in this new company, being commiſſioned to negotiate it at the Porte, where he went *incognito* with Count Leſly, ambaſſador extraordinary from the emperor.

The Grand Vizir, who was irritated at that time againſt France, on account of the affront put upon him by the French in the battle of St. Gottard, and the paſſage of Raab, gave ſuch good encouragement to the Genoeſe, that the Marquis ſoon returned with two large Genoeſe ſhips, and appeared in public with the character of the Genoeſe ambaſſador.

As long as the Turks ſeemed to be enamoured of theſe pieces of 5 ſols, which ſerved not only as money, but alſo as an ornament for the Turkiſh and Greek women of the iſlands, the Genoeſe were ſomewhat proſperous in their affairs; but, upon the crying down of this money, which happened in 1670, the company was ſo far hurt, that it has been in a languiſhing condition ever ſince; a Genoeſe ſhip being ſcarcely ſeen in the port-towns of the Levant, though exerciſing a wretched kind of commerce.

Vienna TURKY *company*. This company commenced in 1719; its object being the commerce that might be carried on in the ſtates of the Grand Signior, by the Danube, and the maritime ports of Auſtria. The ſucceſs of its trade was ſo great, and ſo ſudden, that in 1721 it was in a condition to make a dividend of 8 *per cent.* for its actioniſts. The Emperor, to continue the protection he granted it by his firſt letters patent, and to augment its privileges, granted it new ones; whereby he permitted, among other privileges, the augmentation of its fund to 1500 actions or ſhares, and each action of the value of 1000 florins, or 87 l. 10 s. ſterling.

TURMERIC. A root, uſed by the dyers, to give a yellow colour.

This drug is yellow, both within and without ſide; very hard, as if petrified; and not unlike, in figure and ſize, to ginger. The leaves it produces are like thoſe of white hellebore; its flowers riſe in form of a ſpica or ear; and its fruit rough, like new cheſnuts. It is brought chiefly from the Eaſt Indies; though the iſland of Madagaſcar alſo affords it.

But it ſhould be choſe big, hard, reſinous, hard to break, and heavy.

Some people have miſtakenly imagined there was a native red turmeric; but their error was owing to this, that the yellow root, as it grows old, turns brown, and when pulveriſed reddiſh. It is much uſed by glovers to dye their gloves, and alſo by the founders to give a gold colour to braſs. The Indians uſe it to dye their rice, and other food, of a yellow colour; from whence ſome call it Indian ſaffron; but our dyers find it does not give ſo ſteady a yellow as the luteola or weld; though it is admirable to brighten and heighten the red colours dyed with cochineal or vermillion, as ſcarlets. See *Dying*.

TURMERIC, is alſo uſed in medicine, by way of decoction, infuſion, or powder, with other ingredients, in hypochondriac, leucophlegmatic, and cachectical conſtitutions; being alſo a ſpecific in the jaundice and dropſy.

TURNADO, or *Tornado*. A wind, which, on ſome coaſts, blows all night from the ſhore.

TURNER. An artificer, who turns or makes ſeveral curioſities, with a lathe, either in metal, bone, or wood. See *Turning*.

TURNERS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 2d of James I. dated the 12th of June 1604, by the name of The maſter, wardens, and commonalty of the art or myſtery de lez turners of London.

They are governed by a maſter, 2 wardens, and 24 aſſiſtants: with a livery of 144 members, whoſe fine upon admiſſion is 8 l. They tranſact their affairs in a convenient hall on College-hill, belonging to the company.

TURNESOL, or *Torneſol*. The ſun-flower, or heliotrope; which is ſaid to follow the motion of the ſun, and to turn ſtill towards it.

Some have imagined the ſun-flower of uſe in medicine; but its reputation that way is now out of eſteem. Its principal uſe is in dying; in order to which, its juice is inſpiſſated, and prepared with calx and urine, in blue cakes; uſed alſo with ſtarch inſtead of ſmalt.

The juice likewiſe furniſhes the colour, with which the people of Languedoc, and ſome other parts of France, where it grows, prepare what they call the *tournſol en drapeux*, or turneſol in rags; the proceſs of which is as follows. The ſummits or tops of the plants being gathered in the beginning of Auguſt, are ground in mills, not unlike our oil-mills; then being put up in bags, are ſqueezed out with preſſes. When this juice has been expoſed to the ſun about an hour, they dip linen rags therein, and hang them out in the air till they are well dried again; when, moiſtening them for ſome time, over the vapour of about 10 lb. weight of quick lime ſlaked in a ſufficient quantity of urine, they lay them out again for the ſun to dry; then to be again dipped in the juice of the ricinoides. When they are dried for the laſt time, they are in their perfection, and thus ſent into many parts of Europe, where they are uſed to tinge wines and other liquors, and give them an agreeable colour.

The Dutch prepare a kind of turneſol in paſtes, cakes, or ſtones, pretended to be the juice of that plant inſpiſſated; but

but there is reaſon to think it a cheat, and to be the juice of ſome other plant prepared after this manner, the turneſol being no plant of their growth.

TURNING. A branch of ſculpture; being the art of faſhioning hard bodies, as braſs, ivory, and wood, into a round or oval form in a lathe.

Turning is performed by putting the ſubſtance to be turned upon two points, as an axis, and moving it about on that axis; while an edge-tool, ſet ſteady to the outſide of the ſubſtance, in a circumvolution thereof, cuts off all the parts that lie farther off the axis, and makes the outſide of that ſubſtance concentric to the axis. The invention of turning appears to be very antient. Some, indeed, to do honour to the age, will have it brought to perfection by moderns; but if what Pliny, and ſome other antient authors relate, be true, that the antients turned thoſe precious vaſes, enriched with figures and ornaments *in relievo*, which we ſtill ſee in the cabinets of the curious, it muſt be owned, that all which has been added in theſe ages, makes but a poor amends for the manner of turning among the antients.

TURNPIKE. A gate ſet up acroſs the road, watched by an officer for the purpoſe, in order to ſtop travellers, coaches, and waggons, to take toll of them, towards repairing or keeping the roads paſſable, and in good repair.

TURPENTINE. A tranſparent ſort of reſin, flowing either naturally or by inciſion, from ſeveral unctuous and reſinous trees; as the terebinthus, larch, pine, and fir. See *Reſin*.

We diſtinguiſh ſeveral kinds of turpentine, as that of Chio, and that of Venice; that of Bourdeaux, Cyprus, and Straſburg. The turpentine of Chio, or Scio, which is the only genuine kind, and that which gives the denomination to all the reſt, is a whitiſh reſin, bordering a little on green; very clear, and a little odoriferous, drawn by inciſion from a tree called terebinthus, very common in that iſland, as alſo in Cyprus, and ſome parts of France and Spain.

The reſin muſt be choſen of a ſolid conſiſtence, almoſt without either taſte or ſmell, and not at all tenacious; as this diſtinguiſhes it from the falſe turpentine of Venice, commonly ſubſtituted for it, which has a brisker ſmell, a bitter taſte, and ſticks much to the finger. This turpentine of Chio is indiſputably the beſt; but its ſcarcity occaſions it to be little in uſe. The turpentine of Venice is falſely ſo called; for though there was a turpentine formerly brought from Venice, yet that now ſo called comes from Dauphiné, and is liquid, of the conſiſtence of a thick ſyrup, whitiſh, and flows either ſpontaneouſly, or by inciſion, from the larch-tree, chiefly in the wood de Pilatze. That flowing naturally, called by the peaſants dijon, is a kind of balſam not inferior in virtue to that of Peru; for which it is frequently ſubſtituted. That drawn by inciſion, after the tree has ceaſed to yield ſpontaneouſly, is of conſiderable uſe in ſeveral arts; and it is even of this that varniſh is chiefly made.

It muſt be choſen white, and tranſparent, and care be taken that it has not been counterfeited with oil of turpentine.

The turpentine of Bourdeaux is white, and thick as honey; but does not ooze from the tree in the manner it is ſent to us; being properly a compoſition, wherein, among other ingredients, is a white, hard ſort of reſin called galipot.

The turpentine of Straſburgh, the produce of the abies, or ſilver fir, is that moſt commonly uſed among us, and is preferred by our people to that of Venice, from which it is diſtinguiſhed by its green hue, fragrant ſmell, and citron flavour.

The uſes of turpentine in medicine are innumerable. It is a great vulnerary, very detergent, and as ſuch is preſcribed in abſceſſes and ulcerations. It promotes expectorations, and as ſuch is preſcribed in diſeaſes of the lungs and breaſt; but it is moſt remarkable for clearing the urinary paſſages, and as ſuch preſcribed in obſtructions of the reins and gonorrhœas.

Oil of TURPENTINE. There are two kinds of oils drawn from turpentine by diſtillation, the firſt white, the ſecond red, both eſteemed as balſams proper for the cure of wounds and chilblains; but they are ſo little uſed among us, that it is difficult to procure either of them. What is commonly ſold under the name of oil of turpentine, or ethereal oil, is only a diſtillation of the reſinous juice of the tree as it is gathered, and is uſed with ſucceſs in the curing of green wounds; as alſo by the painters and farriers. To be good, it muſt be clear, and white as water, of a ſtrong penetrating ſmell, and very inflammable.

TURPETH. See *Turbith*.

TURQUOIS. See *Turcois*.

TUSCANY. See *Italy*.

TUTTY. A kind of metallic ſoot, thrown off from braſs in the furnace, and formed into concave flakes of different ſizes and thickneſs; very hard, greyiſh, and full of little protuberant grains, as big as pins heads; being found adhering to rolls of earth, ſuſpended for that purpoſe over the furnaces of the founders in braſs, to receive the fumes of the melted metal.

Tutty is now brought chiefly from Germany; though antiently it came from Alexandria. To prepare it for uſe, they heat it red hot three times in a crucible, among burning coals, and quench it as often in roſe-water; then they grind it on a porphyry ſtone, mixing it with as much roſe-water, or plantain-water, as is neceſſary, till it is brought to a very fine powder; after which they make it up into little troches, and thus dry it.

Tutty is very deſiccative, whoſe principal uſe is in diſeaſes of the eyes, particularly inflammations; in order to which it is to be diluted with roſe-water or plantain-water, and applied in form of a collyrium.

Some alſo uſe it incorporated with hog's lard, or freſh butter, in the form of an unguent.

TWEEZERS. A curious toy, in the nature of a pair of ſciſſars, or nippers.

TWINE. A particular ſort of ſmall packthread, very ſtrong, and ſmooth.

TWIST. A ſort of manufacture uſed by taylors

TYDORE. One of the Molucca iſlands. See *Molucca* iſlands.

TYLE, or *Tile*, in building. A ſort of thin, factitious, laminated ſtone, uſed in the roofs of houſes; or, more properly, a kind of fat, clayey earth, knodden, and moulded of a juſt thickneſs, dried, and burnt in a kiln, like a brick, and uſed in the covering and paving of houſes. See *Brick*.

Tyles are made of better earth than bricks, and ſomething near a-kin to the potters earth. According to the ſtatute of the 17th of Edward IV. the earth for tyles ſhould be caſt up before the 1ſt of November, ſhired and turned before the 1ſt of February, and not made into tyles before the 1ſt of March, and ſhould likewiſe be tried and ſevered from ſtones, marle, and chalk.

As to the applying of tyles, ſome lay them dry, as they come from the kiln, without mortar, or any thing elſe; others lay them in a kind of mortar, made of loam and horſe-dung; but in ſome parts, as in Kent, they lay them in moſs.

There are various kinds of tyles, for the various occaſions of building; ſuch as plain, thack, ridge, roof, creaſe, gutter, pan, crooked, Flemiſh, corner, hip, dorman, dormar, ſcallop, aſtragal, traverſe, paving, and Dutch tyles.

Plain or *thack* TYLES, are thoſe in ordinary uſe for the covering of houſes; being ſqueezed flat, while yet ſoft in a mould, and are of an oblong figure; and, by the ſtatute of the 17th Edward IV. ſhould be $10\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, $6\frac{1}{4}$ broad, and half an inch and half a quarter thick; but theſe dimenſions are not over-ſtrictly kept to.

Ridge, *roof*, or *creaſe* TYLES, are thoſe uſed to cover the ridges of houſes; being made circular, breadth-wiſe, like a half cylinder. Theſe are what Pliny calls *laterculi*, and are by ſtatute to be 13 inches long, and of the ſame thickneſs with the plain tyles.

Hip, or *corner* TYLES, are thoſe which lie on the hips or corners

corners of roofs. As to form, they are firſt made flat, like plain tyles; but of a quadrangular figure, whoſe two ſides are right lines, and two ends, arches of circles, one end being a little concave, and the other convex; the convex end to be about ſeven times as broad as the concave end; ſo that they would be triangular, but that one corner is taken off; then, before they are burnt, they are bent on a mould, breadth-wiſe, like ridgetyles, and have a hole at their narrow end, to nail them on by, being laid with the narrow end upwards. By ſtatute, they are to be 10½ inches long, and of a convenient breadth and thickneſs.

Gutter TYLES, are thoſe which lie in gutters or valleys in croſs-buildings. They are made like corner-tyles, only the corners of the broad end are turned back again with two wings; and having no holes in them, they are laid with the broad end upwards without any nailing. They are made in the ſame mould as corner-tyles, and have the ſame dimenſions on the convex ſide; their wings being 4 inches broad, and 8 long.

Pan, *crooked*, or *Flemiſh* TYLES, are uſed in covering of ſheds, lean-to's, and all kinds of flat-roofed buildings. They are in form of an oblong parallelogram, as plain tyles; but are bent breadth-wiſe forwards and backwards, in form of an S; only one of the arches is at leaſt three times bigger than the other; which biggeſt arch is always laid uppermoſt, and the leſſer arch of another tyle, lies over the edge of the great arch of the former. They have no holes for pins, but hang on the laths by a knot of their own earth. They are uſually 14½ inches long, and 10½ broad. By the 12th of George I. they are to be when burnt not leſs than 13½ inches long, 9½ wide, and ⅛ of an inch thick.

Dorman, or *dormar* TYLES, conſiſt of a plain tyle, and a triangular piece of a plain one, ſtanding up at right angles, to one ſide of the plain tyle, and ſwept with an arch of a circle from the other end, which terminates in a point. Of theſe tyles there are two kinds; the triangular piece, in ſome ſtanding on the right, in others on the left ſide of the plain tyle: and of each of theſe, again, there are two kinds; ſome having a whole plain tyle, others but half a plain tyle; but in them all the plain tyles have two holes for the pins, at that end where the broad end of the triangular piece ſtands.

Their uſe is to be laid in gutters, betwixt the roof and cheeks or ſides of the dormars, the plain part lying on the roof, and the triangular part ſtanding perpendicularly by the cheek of the dormar. They are of excellent uſe to keep out the rain in thoſe places, and yet perhaps are not any where known but in Suſſex. The dimenſions of the plain tyle part, are the ſame as thoſe of the plain tyle; and the triangular part is of the ſame length, though its breadth at one end is 7 inches, and at the other nothing.

Scallop, or *aſtragal* TYLES, are a kind of irregular plain tyles, only their lower ends are in form of an aſtragal, which is a ſemi-circle, with a ſquare on each ſide. Theſe are uſed in ſome places for weather-tyling.

Traverſe TYLES, are a kind of irregular plain tyles, having the pin-holes broke out, or one of the lower corners broke off. They are laid with the broken end upwards, upon rafters, where the pinned tyles cannot hang.

Flemiſh, or *Dutch* TYLES, are of two kinds, antient and modern. The antient were uſed for chimney-foot footpaces, painted with antique figures, and frequently with poſtures of ſoldiers; ſome with compartments, and ſometimes with moreſque devices; but came much ſhort, both as to the deſign and colours, of the modern ones. The modern Flemiſh tyles are commonly uſed plaiſtered up in the jaumbs of chimneys, inſtead of chimney corner-ſtones. Theſe are better glazed; and ſuch as are painted, for ſome are only white, much better performed than the antient ones; but both kinds ſeem to be made of the ſame whitiſh clay as our white glazed earthenware. The antient ones are five inches and a quarter ſquare, and about three quarters of an inch thick; the modern ones, ſix inches and half ſquare, and three quarters of an inch thick.

TYLER. An artificer, who covers the roofs of houſes, with tyles made of baked earth, commonly flat; but ſometimes ſquare, ſometimes parallelogrammic, and otherwiſe, for the purpoſe of pavements, or the ſides of chimneys, gutters, and ridges of houſes.

TYLERS *and bricklayers company of London*, though it appears to be of conſiderable ſtanding, yet was not incorporated till the time of Queen Elizabeth; who, by her letters-patent, dated the 3d of Auguſt 1568, incorporated them by the title of The maſter and keepers, or wardens, of the ſociety of freemen of the myſtery or art of tylers and bricklayers of London.

This company conſiſts of a maſter, 2 wardens, 38 aſſiſtants, and 103 liverymen; who, on admiſſion, pay a fine of 12 l.; and have a handſome hall in a court in Leadenhall ſtreet, where they tranſact their affairs.

TYMFE. A ſmall Poliſh coin, worth about 3d. ſterling.

TYPOGRAPHY. The art of printing.

TYRE. A port-town of Phenicia, in Aſiatic Turky, ſituated in 36 deg. of E. lon. and 32 deg. 32 min. of N. lat. on the coaſt of the Levant, 60 miles S. W. of Damaſcus; antiently the capital of Phenicia, and enjoyed the moſt extenſive traffic of any town in the world.

V.

VAL VAR

VADA. A port-town of Italy, in the dukedom of Tuſcany, lying in 10 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 17 min. of N. lat. on the Tuſcan ſea, 10 miles S. of Leghorn.

VADO. A port-town of Genoa in Italy, lying in 9 deg. 8 min. of E. lon. and 44 deg. 16 min. of N. lat. 3 miles W. of Savona, and 36 miles S. W. of Genoa city.

VAHATS. A ſhrub growing in the iſland of Madagaſcar, whoſe root is good for dying.

For uſing this root, the bark is ſtripped off, which is the only part for yielding the colour; and, after having reduced a part of it into aſhes, wherewith a kind of lixivium is made, the reſerved part of the bark is ſet to boil in this lixivium, together with the materials to be dyed; but care muſt be taken that the fire is not too briſk. The colour produced by this dye is a beautiful flame colour; or bright yellow, by adding a little citron juice.

VAKIE. The Perſian ounce, equal to the ounce avoirdupoiſe. See *Batman*.

VAL. A ſmall weight uſed in the Eaſt Indies, for weighing piaſters, of eight rials. Each rial ſhould weigh 73 vals; otherwiſe the vender muſt ſupply what is wanting. The val is alſo uſed for gold ducats, which are to weigh 9 vals, and $\frac{1}{16}$ of a caract, Indian weight: the vender being obliged to make up what is deficient.

VALERIAN. A plant, whoſe root is of conſiderable uſe in medicine; being thus called, according to ſome, from one Valerius, who firſt brought it into uſe; and, according to others, from *valere*, to be of great virtue.

There are various kinds of valerian; but thoſe chiefly in uſe, are the large garden valerian, called, by Dioſcorides, *phu, folio oluſatri*; and the *valeriana ſylveſtris*, or great wild valerian. The former is an ingredient in Venice treacle: its chief uſe is in diſorders of the nerves; in which reſpect, however, it is held inferior to the latter. The wild valerian is warm and aromatic; but ſomewhat of a fetid ſcent: its efficacy as a ſudorific, is ſupported by the teſtimony of both ancient and modern practice.

VALLERY, *St.* A port-town of France, in the province of Picardy, ſituated on the Eaſt channel, 45 miles N. of Rouen.

VALONA. A port-town of Albania, in European Turky, ſituated in 20 deg. 1 min. of E. lon. and 41 deg. 6 min. of N. lat. on a fine bay of the gulph of Venice, 40 miles S. of Durazzo.

VALPARISA. A port-town of Chili in South America, lying in 77 deg. of W. lon. and 33 deg. of S. lat. on the coaſt of the Pacific ocean, 50 miles N. of St. Jago.

VALUE, in commerce, the price or worth of any thing.

Intrinſic VALUE, denotes the proper, real, and effective worth of any thing; being uſed chiefly with regard to money; the popular value whereof may be raiſed and lowered at the pleaſure of the prince: but its real, or intrinſic value, depending wholly on its weight and fineneſs, is not at all affected by the ſtamp or impreſſion thereon. See *Money*, and *Coin*.

It is generally on the foot of this intrinſic value, that ſpecies are received in foreign countries; tho', in the places where they are coined, and where the ſovereign power makes them current, they generally paſs for much more.

It is, in good meaſure, on the difference of thoſe two values, one of which is almoſt arbitrary, and the other in ſome ſort natural, that the difference of exchanges depends; and thoſe ſtill riſing and falling, as the rate at which a ſpecies is current, comes nearer or farther off the juſt price of the metal of which it conſiſts. See *Exchange*.

VALUE, in bills of exchange, is uſed to ſignify the nature of the thing; as ready money, merchandiſes, bills, and debts; which is given in a kind of exchange from the ſum ſpecified in the bill.

From four different manners of expreſſing this value, ſome diſtinguiſh four kinds of bills of exchange. The firſt bears value received, ſimply and purely, which comprehends all kinds of value; the ſecond, value received in money, or merchandiſe; the third, value of myſelf; and the fourth, value underſtood. The firſt is dangerous, and the fourth but little uſed: accordingly, to have the value well expreſſed, and to prevent the ill conſequences of overſights therein, it is well provided by the French ordnance of 1673, that bills of exchange ſhall contain the name of the perſon to whom the contained ſum is to be paid; the time of payment; the name of him who has given the value; and whether it was received in money, merchandiſe, or other effects. See *Exchange*.

VANEERING. See *Veneering*.

VANILLA. A little black ſeed, growing in longiſh pods, in Spaniſh America, uſed in the Weſt Indies, France, and Spain, as a principal ingredient in the compoſition of chocolate; to give it ſtrength and an agreeable flavour.

The pod of the vanilla is about half a foot in length, and as thick as a child's little finger. The plant producing it has middling ſized leaves ſprouting from the knots of its ſtalk, which is weak, and about 12 or 15 feet in height; ſo that it has an occaſion for a prop like hops, or French beans. The pods are firſt green, afterwards yellow, and laſtly brown when ripe. In their perfect maturity, they are filled with a ſweet juice, of a very agreeable ſmell; in which their ſeed is almoſt imperceptible.

The pods of vanilla ſhould be choſen plump, long, odorous, heavy, without wrinkles, fat, ſupple, and the ſeed black, and gloſſy. See *Chocolate*.

VARENNE. A corn meaſure uſed in ſome parts of Savoy, weighing about 30 lb. avoirdupoiſe.

VARI. A weight uſed by the inhabitants of Madagaſcar, weighing about half a dram avoirdupoiſe.

VARIABLE *winds*. See *Wind*.

VARIATION, in geography and navigation, a term applied to the deviation of the magnetical needle, or compaſs, from the true north point, towards either eaſt or weſt; called alſo the declination.

The variation or declination of the needle, is properly defined, the angle which a magnetical needle, ſuſpended at liberty, makes with a meridian line on a horizontal plane; or an arch of the horizon, comprehended between the true and the magnetical meridian.

In the ſea-language, the variation is uſually called north-eaſting, or north-weſting. See *Compaſs*, and *Needle*.

All magnetic bodies are found to range themſelves in ſome ſort to the meridian; but it is rare they fall in preciſely with it: in one place, they decline from the north to the eaſt; and in another, on the contrary, from the north to the weſt, and from the ſouth to the eaſt; and that too differently, at different times.

Various are the hypotheſes framed to account for this extraordinary phænomenon: but it is neceſſary only to mention ſome of the later and more probable. The firſt is that of Gilbert, which is followed by Cabeus: their notion was, that it is the earth or land which draws the needle out of its meridional direction; and hence they argued, that the needle varied more or leſs, as it was more or leſs diſtant from any great continent: conſequently, that if it was placed in the middle of an ocean, equally diſtant from equal tracts of land, on each ſide, eaſtward and weſtward, it would not decline to the one or the other; but point juſtly north and ſouth. Thus, in the Azores iſlands, which are equally diſtant from Africa on the eaſt, and America on the weſt, there is, in effect, found no variation; but as from the Azores you ſail towards Africa, the needle begins to decline from the north to the eaſt; and that ſtill more and more till you reach the ſhore. If you ſtill proceed eaſtward, the declination gradually diminiſhes again, by reaſon of the land left behind on the weſt, which continues to draw the needle: the ſame holds till you arrive at a place where there are equal tracts of land on each ſide, and there, again, there is no variation. The obſervations of our mariners in their Eaſt India voyages, ſeem to confirm this ſyſtem: as they proceed towards the Cape of Good Hope, the variation is ſtill eaſtward; at length, arriving at the Cape de las Aguillas, that is, of the needles, the meridian line, then, dividing Africa into two equal parts,

there is no variation at all: but, as they proceed farther, and leave the African coaſts on the weſt, the variation becomes weſtward. However, the law does not hold univerſally; for, in effect, a great number of obſervations of variations in various parts, made and collected by Dr. Halley, overturn the whole theory. Others, therefore, have recourſe to the frame and compages of the earth, conſidered as interwoven with rocks and ſhelves; which being generally found to run towards the poles, the needle comes to have a general tendency that way; but which ſeldom going perfectly in the direction of the meridian, the needle, of conſequence, has commonly a variation.

Others hold, various parts of the earth have various degrees of the magnetic virtue; as ſome are more intermixed with heterogeneous matters, which prevent the free action, or effect thereof, than others. Others aſcribe all to magnetic rocks, and iron mines, which, affording more of the magnetic matter than other parts, draw the needle more.

Laſtly, others imagine earthquakes or high tides to have diſturbed and diſlocated ſeveral conſiderable parts of the earth, and ſo changed the magnetic axis of the globe, which originally was the ſame with the axis of the globe itſelf. But ſtill that great phænomen, the variation of the variation, that is, the continual change of the declination, in one and the ſame place, which the modern obſervations abundantly evince, is not accountable for on any of theſe foundations; nor even conſtant with them. Dr. Halley, therefore, gives us a new ſyſtem; the reſult of a great number of obſervations; and even of a great number of voyages made, at the public expence, on this very account: the light that excellent author has let into this obſcure part of natural hiſtory, is very great; and the conſequences thereof in navigation, very conſiderable. To which may be added, that he has reduced the divers variations of divers places to a preciſe rule or order, which before appeared all precarious and arbitrary. His theory, therefore, will require a more ample detail. The obſervations it is built on, as laid down in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, are as follow.

Obſervations of the Variation of the Needle, in divers Places, and at divers Times.

Names of places.	Longitude from London. Deg.	Min.		Latitude. Deg.	Min.		Year of Obſerv.	Variation obſerved. Deg.	Min.	
London	0	0		51	32	N.	1580	11	15	E.
							1622	6	0	E.
							1634	4	5	E.
							1672	2	30	W.
							1683	4	30	W.
Paris	2	25	E.	41	51	N.	1640	3	0	E.
							1666	0	0	
							1681	2	30	W.
Uraniburg	13	0	E.	55	54	N.	1672	2	35	W.
Copenhagen	12	53	E.	55	41	N.	1649	1	30	E.
Dantzick	19	0	E.	54	23	N.	1679	7	0	W.
Montpelier	4	0	E.	43	37	N.	1674	1	10	W.
Breſt	4	25	W.	48	23	N.	1680	1	45	W.
Rome	13	0	E.	41	50	N.	1681	5	0	W.
Bayonne	1	20	W.	43	30	N.	1680	1	20	W.
Hudſon's bay	79	40	W.	51	0	N.	1668	19	15	W.
In Hudſon's ſtreights	57	0	W.	61	0	N.	1668	29	30	W.
In Baffin's bay, at Sir Thomas Smith's ſound	80	0	W.	78	0	N.	1616	57	0	W.
At ſea	50	0	W.	38	40	N.	1682	5	30	W.
At ſea	31	30	W.	43	50	N.	1682	5	30	W.
At ſea	42	0	W.	21	0	N.	1678	0	40	E.
Cape St. Auguſtine	35	30	W.	8	0	S.	1670	5	10	E.
At ſea, off the mouth of R. Plata	53	0	W.	39	30	S.	1670	20	30	E.
Cape Frio	41	10	W.	22	40	S.	1670	12	10	E.
Eaſt entrance of Magellan ſtreights	68	0	W.	52	30	S.	1670	17	0	E.
Weſt entrance	75	0	W.	53	0	S.	1670	14	10	E.
Baldivia	73	0	W.	40	0	S.	1670	8	10	E.
Cape Aguillas	16	30	E.	34	50	S.	1622	2	0	W.
							1675	8	0	W.
At ſea	1	0	E.	34	30	S.	1675	0		
At ſea	20	0	W.	34	0	S.	1675	10	30	E.
At ſea	32	0	W.	24	0	S.	1675	10	30	E.
St. Helena	6	30	W.	16	0	S.	1677	0	40	E.
I. Aſcenſion	14	30	W.	7	50	S.	1678	1	0	E.
Johanna	44	0	E.	12	15	S.	1675	19	30	W.
Monbaſa	40	0	E.	4	0	S.	1675	16	0	W.
Zocatra	56	0	E.	12	30	N.	1674	17	0	W.
Aden, in the mouth of the Red ſea	47	30	E.	13	0	N.	1674	15	0	W.
Diego Roiz	61	0	E.	20	0	S.	1676	20	30	W.
At ſea	64	30	E.	0	0		1676	15	30	W.
At ſea	55	0	E.	27	0	S.	1676	14	0	W.
Bombay	72	30	E.	19	0	N.	1676	12	0	W.
C. Comorin	76	0	E.	8	15	N.	1680	8	48	W.
Ballaſore	87	0	E.	21	30	N.	1680	8	20	W.
Fort St. George	80	0	E.	13	15	N.	1680	8	10	W.
Weſt point of Java	104	0	E.	6	40	S.	1676	3	10	W.
At ſea	58	0	E.	39	0	S.	1677	27	30	W.
I. of St. Paul	72	0	E.	38	0	S.	1677	23	30	W.
At Van Diemen's	142	0	E.	42	25	S.	1642	0	0	
At New Zealand	170	0	E.	40	50	S.	1642	9	0	E.
At three King iſle in New Zealand	169	30	E.	34	35	S.	1642	8	40	E.
I. of Rotterdam, in the South ſea	184	0	E.	20	15	S.	1642	6	20	E.
On the coaſt of New Guinea	149	0	E.	4	30	S.	1643	8	45	E.
At the weſt point of New Guinea	126	0	E.	0	26	S.	1643	5	30	E.

From

From theſe obſervations, the learned author gathers, firſt, That throughout all Europe, the variation at this time is weſt; and more in the eaſtern parts thereof than the weſtern, increaſing that way. 2. That on the coaſts of America, the variation is weſterly; increaſing all the way as you go northerly along the coaſt; ſo as to be above 20 deg. at Newfoundland; nearly 30 deg. in Hudſon's ſtraits, and not leſs than 57 deg. in Baffin's bay: and that as you ſail eaſtward from this coaſt, the variation diminiſhes. Hence he argues, ſomewhere between Europe and the north part of America, there muſt be an eaſterly variation, or at leaſt no variation. 3. That on the coaſt of Brazil there is eaſt variation, increaſing as you go to the ſouthward, ſo as to be 12 degrees at Cape Frio, and 20 degrees and half over againſt R. Plata; and thence ſailing ſouth weſterly, to the ſtreights of Magellan, it decreaſes 17 degrees, and at the weſt entrance about 14. 4. That eaſtward of Brazil, this eaſterly variation decreaſes, ſo as to be very little at St. Helena and Aſcenſion, and to be quite gone, and the compaſs point true, about 18 degrees longitude from the Cape of Good Hope. 5. That to the eaſtward of the aforeſaid places, a weſtward variation begins and governs in all the Indian ſea, riſing to 18 degrees under the equator, about the meridian of the northern part of Madagaſcar; and 27 degrees and a half, in 39 degrees ſouth latitude, near the ſame meridian: eaſterly from thence, the weſt variation decreaſes, ſo as not to be much above 8 degrees at cape Comorin, about three on the coaſt of Java, and near the Molucca iſlands to be quite gone; as alſo a little to the weſtward of Van Diemen's land. 6. That to the eaſtward of the Moluccas, and Van Diemen's land in ſouth latitude, there ariſes another eaſterly variation, which ſeems not ſo great as a former, nor of ſo large extent; for that at the iſland Rotterdam, is ſenſibly leſs than upon the eaſt coaſt of New Guinea; and, at the rate it decreaſes, it may well be ſuppoſed, that about 20 degrees further to the weſtward, or 225 degrees eaſt longitude from London, in the latitude of 20 degrees ſouth, a weſterly variation begins. 7. That the variation taken at Baldivia, and at the weſt entrance of the ſtreights of Magellan, ſhew that the eaſt variation, noted in the third obſervation, is decreaſing apace; and that it cannot well deſcend many degrees into the South ſea, from the coaſt of Peru and Chili, leaving room for a ſmall weſterly variation in that tract of the unknown world, that lies in the mid-way between Chili and New Zealand, and between Hound's iſland and Peru. 8. That in ſailing north-weſt from St. Helena, by Aſcenſion, as far as the equator, the variation continues very ſmall eaſt, and, as it were, conſtantly the ſame: ſo that in this part of the world, the courſe wherein there is no variation is evidently no meridian; but rather north-weſt. 9. That the entrance of Hudſon's ſtreights, and the mouth of R. Plata, being nearly under the ſame meridian, at the one place the needle varies 29 degrees and a half weſt; at the other 20 degrees and a half eaſt.

Theory of the VARIATION *of the needle.* From the circumſtances above rehearſed, the learned author takes occaſion to aſſert, "That the whole globe of the earth, is "one great magnet; having four magnetical poles, or "points of attraction; near each pole of the equator, "two; and that, in thoſe parts of the world which lie "nearly adjacent to any one of theſe magnetical poles, "the needle is governed thereby; the neareſt pole being "always predominant over the more remote."

The pole which at preſent is neareſt to us, he conjectures to lie in or near the meridian of the land's end of England, and not above 7 degrees from the arctic pole: by this pole, the variation of all Europe and Tartary, and the North ſea, are principally governed; tho' ſtill with ſome regard to the other northern pole, whoſe ſituation is in the meridian, paſſing about the middle of California, and about 15 degrees from the north pole of the world; to which the middle has chiefly reſpect in all the north of America, and in two oceans on either ſide thereof, from the Azores, weſtwards, to Japan and farther.

The two ſouthern poles, he imagines, are rather further diſtant from the ſouth pole of the world; the one about 16 degrees therefrom, in a meridian ſome 20 degrees to the weſtward of Magellan ſtreights, or 95 degrees weſt from London: this commands the needle in all South America, in the Pacific ſea, and the greateſt part of the Ethiopic ocean. The other ſeems to have the greateſt power, and largeſt dominion of all; as it is moſt remote from the pole of the world; being little leſs than 20 degrees diſtant therefrom, in the meridian which paſſes through New Holland, and the iſland Celebes, about 120 degrees eaſt of London: this pole is predominant in the ſouth part of Africa, in Arabia, and the Red ſea, in Perſia, India, and its iſlands; and all over the Indian ſea, from the Cape of Good Hope eaſtwards, to the middle of the great South ſea that divides Aſia from America.

Such ſeems to be the preſent diſpoſition of the magnetical virtue, throughout the whole globe of the earth. It remains to ſhew how this hypotheſis accounts for all the variations that have been obſerved of late; and how it anſwers to the ſeveral remarks drawn from the table. Firſt then, it is plain, that as our European north pole is in the meridian of the land's end of England, all places more eaſterly than that will have it on the weſt ſide of their meridian; and conſequently the needle, reſpectable to its northern point, will have a weſterly variation; which will ſtill be greater as you go to the eaſtward, till you come to ſome meridian of Ruſſia, where it will be the greateſt, and from thence decreaſe again. Accordingly, in fact, we find that at Breſt the variation is but one degree three quarters; at London four degrees and a half; and at Dantzick ſeven degrees weſt, in 1683. Again, to the weſtward of the meridian of the land's end, the needle ought to have an eaſterly variation; were it not, by approaching the American northern pole, which lies on the weſt ſide of the meridian, and ſeems to be of greater force than this other, the needle is drawn thereby weſtward, ſo as to counter-balance the direction given by the European pole, and to make a ſmall weſt variation in the meridian of the land's end itſelf: yet, about the iſle Tercera, it is ſuppoſed our neareſt pole may ſo far prevail, as to give the needle a little turn to the eaſt, tho' for but a little ſpace; nor upon the weſt coaſts of England and Ireland, France, Spain, and Barbary. But, to the weſtward of the Azores, the power of the American pole overcoming that of the European, the needle has chiefly reſpect thereto; and turns ſtill more and more towards it as you approach it. Whence it comes to paſs, that on the coaſt of Virginia, Newfoundland, and in Hudſon's ſtreights, the variation is weſtward, that is, increaſes as you go from thence to Europe; and that it is leſs in Virginia and New England, than in Newfoundland and Hudſon's ſtreights.

2. This weſterly variation, again, decreaſes, as you paſs over North America; and, about the meridian of the middle of California, the needle again points due north; from thence weſtward, to Yedzo and Japan, it is ſuppoſed the variation is eaſterly; and half ſea over, not leſs than 15 degrees: but that this eaſt variation extends over Japan, Yedzo, eaſt Tartary, and part of China, till it meets with the weſterly, which is governed by the European north pole, and which is the greateſt ſomewhere in Ruſſia.

3. Towards the ſouth pole, the effect is much the ſame, only that here the ſouth point of the needle is attracted. Whence it will follow, that the variation on the coaſt of Brazil, and ſo on to the ſtreights of Magellan, ſhould be eaſterly, if we ſuppoſe a magnetical pole, ſituated about 20 degrees more weſterly than the ſtreights of Magellan. And this eaſterly variation extends eaſtward over the greateſt part of the Ethiopic ſea, till it is counterpoiſed by the virtue of the other ſouthern pole: as it is about midway between the Cape of Good Hope and the iſles of Triſtran d'Acunha.

4. From thence eaſtwards, the Aſiatic ſouth pole becoming prevalent, and the ſouth point of the needle being attracted thereby; there ariſes a weſt variation, very great in quantity and extent; becauſe of the great diſtance of the magnetical pole of the world. Hence it is, that all the Indian ſea, as far as Hollandia Nova, and

further, there is a conſtantly weſt variation; and that, under the equator itſelf, it riſes to no leſs than 18 degrees at moſt. Add, that about the meridian of the iſland of Celebes, being likewiſe that of this pole, this weſterly variation ceaſes, and the eaſterly begins, which reaches to the middle of the South ſea, between the middle of Zelandia Nova and Chili; leaving room for a ſmall weſt variation, governed by the ſouth pole.

5. From the whole it appears, that the direction of the needle, in the temperate and frigid zones, depends chiefly upon the counterpoiſe of two magnetical poles of the ſame nature; as alſo, why, under the ſame meridian, the variation ſhould be in one place 29 degrees and a half weſt, and in another 20 degrees and a half eaſt?

6. In the torrid zone, and particularly under the equinoctial, reſpect muſt be had to all four poles, and their poſitions well conſidered; otherwiſe it will not be eaſy to determine what variations ſhall be; the neareſt pole being always ſtrongeſt: yet, not ſo as ſometimes not to be counter-balanced by the united forces of two more remote. Thus, in ſailing from St. Helena by the iſland of Aſcenſion, to the equator, on the north-weſt courſe, the variation is very little eaſterly, and in that whole tract unalterable; becauſe the South American pole, which is conſiderably the neareſt in thoſe places, requiring a great eaſterly variation, is counterpoiſed by the contrary attraction of the North American, and the Aſiatic ſouth pole; each whereof, ſingly, is, in theſe parts, weaker than the American ſouth pole; and upon the north-weſt courſe, the diſtance from this latter is very little varied; though, as you recede from the Aſiatic ſouth pole, the balance is ſtill preſerved by acceſs towards the north American pole. In this caſe, no notice is taken of the European north pole; its meridian being little removed from thoſe of theſe places, and of itſelf requiring the ſame variation we find here. After the ſame manner, may the variations in other places, under and near the equator, be accounted for: ſo that the hypotheſis muſt be allowed very adequate, and ſufficient for the phænomena. See *Variation* of variation.

To obſerve the variation or declination of the needle. Draw a meridian line; then, a ſtile being erected in the middle thereof, place a needle thereon, and draw the right line it hangs over. Thus, the quantity of variation will appear. See *Compaſs*. Or thus; as the former method of finding the declination cannot be applied at ſea, others have been thought of; the principal whereof follow. Suſpend a thread and plummet over the compaſs, till the ſhadows paſs through the centre of the card; obſerve the rhumb, or point of the compaſs which the ſhadow touches when it is the ſhorteſt; for the ſhadow is then a meridian line; conſequently the variation is ſhewn. Or thus, obſerve the rhumb wherein the ſun, or ſome ſtar riſes and ſets, biſſect the arch intercepted between the riſing and ſetting; the line of biſſection will be the meridian line: conſequently the declination is had as before. The ſame may be had from two equal altitudes of the ſame ſtar, obſerved either by day or night.

Or thus; obſerve the rhumb wherein the ſun, or a ſtar riſes and ſets; and from the latitude of the place, find the eaſtern or weſtern amplitude; for the difference between the amplitude and the diſtance of the rhumb obſerved, from the eaſtern rhumb of the card, is the variation ſought.

Variation of VARIATION, is the change in the declination of the needle, obſerved at different times in the ſame place. This variation, firſt as is ſaid diſcovered by Gaſſendus, is found to obſerve the ſame law pretty regularly, and is ſuppoſed to be owing to the difference of velocity of the motions, of the internal and external parts of the globe.

Theory of Variation of VARIATION. From the obſervations above recited, under the head of variation, it ſeems to follow, that all the magnetical poles have a motion weſtward: but, if it be ſo, it is evident, that it is not a rotation about the axis of the earth; for then the variations would continue the ſame, in the parallel of latitude, the longitude being only changed, as much as the motion of the magnetical poles: but the contrary is found by experience; for there is no where, in the latitude of 51 and a half north, between England and America, a variation of 11 degrees eaſt, at this time, as it was once here at London. Wherefore, it ſeems that our European pole, is grown nearer the arctic pole, than it was here before; or elſe that it has loſt part of its virtue. But whether theſe magnetic poles move altogether with one motion, or with ſeveral; whether equally or unequally; whether circular or libratory; if circular about what centre; if libratory, after what manner; are things yet unknown.

VARNISH, or *Verniſh*. A thick, viſcid, gloſſy liquor; uſed by painters, gilders, and various other artificers, to give a gloſs and luſtre to their works, as alſo to defend them from the weather and duſt. There are various kinds of varniſhes, all made of gums diſſolved in ſpirit of wine.

White VARNISH, is uſually made of gum ſandarach, and gum maſtick, diſſolved in ſpirits; left to ſettle two days; then ſtrained through a linen cloth; and, after ſtanding ſome time, the clear poured off and bottled for uſe. The moſt curious artiſts diſſolve the gums ſeparately; and, having made a ſeparate varniſh of each, mix them occaſionally, as their work requires a ſtiffer or a ſofter varniſh: but, for the beſt white varniſh, more gums are required; ſuch as Venice turpentine, gum copal, elemi, benzoin, animæ, and white roſin.

Lacc VARNISH, is made of gum lacca and ſpirit of wine, frequently ſhaken, till the gum is diſſolved; then ſtrained, and the clear decanted off, as above. The lacc ought to be of the kind called ſeed lacc; tho' for varniſhing ordinary woods, ſhell lacc is often uſed; but will not ſtand the weather.

Beſides theſe, there are hard and ſoft varniſhes, or grounds, uſed by the etchers and engravers.

VARNISH, is alſo uſed for a kind of gloſſy coat, wherewith potters ware, Delft ware, and China ware, are covered, to give them a ſmoothneſs and luſtre. Melted lead is the varniſh ordinarily uſed for the firſt; and ſmalt for the ſecond.

The true varniſh uſed by the Chineſe and Japaneſe, to give their inimitable luſtre to the porcelain, is one of the grand ſecrets of that manufacture; and almoſt the only thing wanting to make Engliſh, Delft, and French ware vye with the Chineſe: ſeveral have deſcribed the preparation thereof, particularly Kircher; but none have ever ſucceeded in the trial. See *Porcelain*.

According to father le Comte, in his memoirs of China, the Chineſe varniſh is not a compoſition, but a gum, like tar, mixed with oil; and it is very common, adds this learned Jeſuit, in all parts of China, called wone, when it aſſumes all ſorts of colours; the Chineſe mixing therewith gold and ſilver flowers, and repreſenting thereon men, mountains, palaces, beaſts, birds, and every particular amuſement of the imagination.

For common works, they place two or three lays; but, for ſuch as they are willing to make perfect, they place ſeveral lays. When the varniſh is dry, they paint thereon what they pleaſe; after which, the better to preſerve and give it more luſtre, they put on another ſlight lay.

The varniſh of Tunquin is alſo very beautiful; but that of Japan is not in the leaſt inferior to the Chineſe.

The Perſian varniſh is compoſed of ſandarach, and linſeed oil, reduced into the conſiſtence of an unguent; being diſſolved for uſe with oil of naphta, or rectified ſpirits of wine.

VARRE. A meaſure for ſtuffs uſed in Spain, at Goa, and Ormus, whoſe length is about 5 feet 5 inches.

VASE. A term of equal import with the Latin vas, whence it is formed, and the Engliſh veſſel. It is applied to the ancient veſſels dug from under ground, or otherwiſe found, and preſerved in cabinets; as veſſels of ſacrifice, or urns; and to other modern veſſels, which are rather of curioſity and ſhew, than uſe, as thoſe of cryſtal and porcelain.

VAT, or *Fat*. A kind of veſſel uſed to hold wine, ale, beer, cyder, or any other liquor, in the time of its preparation.

VAXEL. A kind of buſhel, uſed in the ſalt marſhes of Lorrain, for meaſuring ſalt, weighing 34 or 35 lb. avoirdupoiſe.

UBES, *St.* A port-town of Portugal, in the province of Eſtremadura, lying in 9 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 38 deg. 36 min. of N. lat. on a fine bay of the Atlantic ocean, 21 miles S. of Liſbon.

VECHT. A river of the United Netherlands, which runs from E. to W. croſs the province of Overyſſel, and falls into the Zuyderzee below Swartſluys.

VEER. A ſea term, variouſly uſed. Veering out a rope, denotes the letting it go by hand, or letting it run out of itſelf: thus they ſay, *veer out more cable*; that is, let more run out; but the word is not uſed for the letting out of any running rope, except the ſheet.

VEER, is alſo uſed in reference to the wind; for when it changes ſuddenly, they ſay, *the wind veers*; alſo when a ſhip under ſail has her ſheat veered out, they ſay, *ſhe goes veering*; that is, at large, neither by a wind, nor directly before it, but between both; which they alſo call quartering.

VEGETABLE, in phyſiology. A term applied to all plants, conſidered as capable of growth; that is, all natural bodies, which have parts organically formed for generation, and accretion; but not ſenſation.

Boerhaave very ſcientifically defines a vegetable to be a body generated of the earth, to which it adheres, or is connected, by parts called roots; thro' which it receives the matter of its nouriſhment, and increaſes, and conſiſts of juices and veſſels, ſenſibly diſtinct from each other: or a vegetable is an organical body compoſed of veſſels and juices, every where diſtinguiſhable from each other; to which grow roots, or parts, whereby it adheres to ſome other body, from which it derives the matter of its life, and growth: for, by its conſiſting of veſſels and juices, it is diſtinguiſhed from a foſſil; and, by its adhering to another body, and deriving its nouriſhment therefrom, it is diſtinguiſhed from an animal.

VEGETABLE *Oil.* See *Oil.*

VEIL. A piece of ſtuff, ſerving to prevent or hide the ſight of any thing.

VEIL, is alſo uſed for a large piece of crape, wore on the head by nuns, as the badge of their profeſſion.

VEIN, is applied to the ſtreakes, or waves of various colours, appearing on ſeveral ſorts of woods, ſtones, and marble, as if they were really painted; and which the painters frequently imitate, in painting wainſcots: marble being generally full of ſuch veins. See *Marble.*

Veins in ſtones are a defect, proceeding uſually from an inequality in their conſiſtence; as too hard and ſoft, which makes the ſtone crack and ſhiver in thoſe parts.

VEIN, is alſo applied, in the ſame ſenſe with ſtratum, to the various diſpoſitions and kinds of earths met with in digging. Thus, we ſay, a vein of ſand, and another of rock; a vein of ocher, vitriol, calamine, and coal. Mineral waters acquire their different qualities, by paſſing thro' veins of iron, vitriol, and ſulphur.

In the ſame ſenſe, we ſay a vein of gold, ſilver, quickſilver, and lead; meaning certain parts of the earth, wherein the ore or glebe of thoſe metals is found; and which is diſtributed into ſeveral branches, like the veins in the body.

VEISSEL. A corn meaſure uſed at Chamberry in Savoy, which weighs about 140 lb. avoirdupois.

VEIT, *St.* A city and port-town of Germany, in the circle of Auſtria, and duchy of Carniola, lying in 15 degrees of E. lon. and 45 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. on the gulph of Venice, 50 miles S. of Laubach, ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria.

VELA. A remarkable cape on the coaſt of Terra Firma, in South America, lying in 73 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 12 deg. of N. lat. 180 miles N. W. of St. Martha.

VELLON, or *Veillon*, in Spaniſh, ſignifies *billon*; that is, copper, or braſs money; being alſo uſed among the Spaniards for diſtinguiſhing ſome monies of accompt.

Thus they ſay a ducat, a rial, on a maravedis of vellon, in oppoſition to thoſe called plata; the one being almoſt double the other; as the rial of vellon worth only 18 maravedis of ſilver, and the rial of Plata worth 34 of ſilver. See *Plata*, *Ducat*, *Rial*, and *Maravedis*.

VELOM. A kind of parchment, finer, evener, and whiter than the common parchment. See *Parchment.*

VELVET. A rich kind of ſtuff, all ſilk, covered on the outſide with a cloſe, ſhort, fine, ſoft ſhag; the other ſide being a very ſtrong cloſe tiſſue.

The nap or ſhag, called alſo the velveting of this ſtuff, is formed of part of the threads of the warp, which the workman puts on a long narrow channelled ruler, or needle; and which he afterwards cuts, by drawing a ſteel tool along the channel, to the ends of the warp. The principal and beſt manufactories of velvet are in France, and Italy; particularly at Venice, Milan, Florence, Genoa, and Lucca: there are others in Holland, ſet up by the French refugees; whereof that of Haerlem is the moſt conſiderable: but theſe all come ſhort of the beauty of thoſe of France; and, accordingly, are ſold for 10 or 15 leſs *per cent.* But the velvet manufacture is now very conſiderable in England; where alſo ſtuffs of this faſhion are made to reſemble ſilk. There are even ſome brought from China, but they are the worſt of all. There are velvets of various kinds; as *plain*, that is uniform and ſmooth, without either figures or ſtripes.

Figured VELVET, that is, adorned and worked with various figures, tho' the ground is the ſame with the figures; that is the whole ſurface velveted.

Ramage, or branched VELVET, repreſenting long ſtalks, and branches, on a ſatin ground, which is ſometimes of the ſame colour with the velvet; but more uſually of a different one. Sometimes, inſtead of ſatin, they make the ground of gold, and ſilver; whence the denomination of velvets with gold ground.

Shorn VELVET, is that wherein the threads which make the velveting have been ranged in the channelled ruler; but not cut there.

Striped VELVET, is that wherein there are ſtripes of various colours, running along the warp, whether thoſe ſtripes are partly velvet, and partly ſatin, or all velveted.

Cut VELVET, is that wherein the ground is a kind of taffety, or gros de tours, and the figures velvet. Velvets are likewiſe diſtinguiſhed, with regard to their different degrees of ſtrength and goodneſs, into velvets of four threads, three threads, two threads, and a thread and half; the firſt are thoſe where there are eight threads of ſhag, or velveting, to each tooth of the reed; the ſecond have only ſix, and the reſt four. In general, all velvets both worked and cut, ſhorn and flowered, are to have their warp and ſhag of organſin, ſpun and twiſted, or thrown in the mill; and their woof of ſilk well boiled: but they are all of the ſame breadth.

VENEERING, *Vaneering*, or *Finneering*. A kind of marquetry, or inlaying, whereby ſeveral thin ſlices, or leaves of fine wood, of different kinds, are applied and faſtened on a ground of ſome common wood.

There are two kinds of inlaying; the one, which is the more ordinary, goes no further than the making of compartments of different woods: the other requires a deal more art, and repreſents flowers, birds, and the like figures. The firſt kind is what we properly call veneering; and the latter is already deſcribed under marquetry.

The wood intended for veneering, is firſt ſawed out into ſlices or leaves about a line thick; and, in order to ſaw them, the block or planks are placed upright, in a kind of ſawing preſs.

Theſe ſlices are afterwards cut into narrow ſlips, and faſhioned ſeveral ways, according to the deſign propoſed: then the points being carefully adjuſted, and the pieces brought down to their proper thickneſs, with ſeveral planes for the purpoſe, they are glued down on a ground, or block of dry wood, with ſtrong Engliſh glue. The pieces thus jointed and glued, the work, if ſmall, is put in a preſs; or, if large, it is laid on the bench, covered with a board, and preſſed down with poles, or pieces of wood, one end whereof reaches to the cieling of the room, and the other bears on the board.

When the glue is quite dry, they take it out of the preſs, and finiſh it; firſt with little planes, then with ſeveral ſorts of ſcrapers; ſome whereof reſemble raſps, which take off the knots, and dents made by the planes. When ſufficiently ſcraped, the work is poliſhed with theſkin of

a ſea dog, wax, and a bruſh and poliſher of ſhave-graſs, which is the laſt operation.

VENEZUELLA-*bay*, is a ſpacious gulph on the coaſt of Terra Firma, in South America, which has a communication with the lake of Marecaibo, by a narrow ſtrait.

VENICE. A republic of Italy, is bounded by the Griſons, Trent, and Tyrol, on the north; by Carniola and the gulph of Venice on the eaſt; by Romania, and the dutchy of Mantua on the ſouth; and by the dutchy of Milan on the weſt; being 180 miles long, and 100 broad. See *Italy*.

VENICE-*treacle*. See *Theriaca*.

VENISON. A fleſh of beaſts of game, or of animals to be caught in the way of game; that is, by hunting, ſhooting, netting, and the like: but it is more particularly applied to the fleſh of deer, which is ſold in London by the fiſh mongers and paſtry-cooks.

VENT, is the ſale of any commodity.

VENTJAGGERS, or *Wind-courſers*, is a term in Holland for the firſt buſſes that go to the herring-fiſhery, which have the privilege of loading and unloading at all times, even on Sundays, and before ſun-riſe, or after ſun-ſet; though it is contrary to the regulations made by the States General in the placard of 1725, for the execution of the new tariff of the duties of importation and exportation.

VENTIMIGLIA. A port-town of Italy, in the territory of Genoa, ſituated in 7 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. on the Mediterranean ſea, 16 miles E. of Nice, and 100 miles S. W. of Genoa.

VENTURE. See *Adventure*.

VENTURINE, or *Adventurine*, is ſometimes uſed for the fineſt and ſlendereſt gold wire, uſed by embroiderers.

When reduced into powder, as fine as it can be clipped, or filed, this powder may be ſtrewed on the firſt layer of pure varniſh, made uſe of in japanning, after the varniſh is dry, in order to lay any colour over it.

VENUS, in chemiſtry, is a term for copper. See *Copper*.

Chryſtals of VENUS. See *Chryſtal*.

VERA. A port-town of Spain, in the province of Granada, near the frontiers of Murcia, lying in 1 deg. 45 min. of W. lon. and 37 deg. 16 min. of N. lat. on the coaſt of the Mediterranean, 44 miles S. W. of Carthagena.

VERA CRUZ. A port-town of Mexico, in America, in the province of Tlaſcala, lying in 100 deg. of W. lon. and 18 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the gulph of Mexico, 200 miles S. E. of Mexico city, having a very ſecure and commodious harbour, well defended by forts at the entrance. See *Spaniſh* America.

VERAS. A kind of ell, uſed in Portugal for cloths and ſtuffs; being ſomewhat leſs than the Engliſh ell, ſo that 106 veras of Liſbon make but 100 of London.

VERD *Cape*, or *Cape Verd*. A promontory on the weſt coaſt of Africa, ſituated in 18 deg. of W. lon. and 15 deg. of N. lat. 40 miles N. W. of the mouth of the river Gambia.

Cape VERD *Iſlands*. The iſlands of Cape Verd are ſituated between 23 and 27 deg. of W. lon. and between 15 and 18 deg. of N. lat. upwards of 300 miles W. of Cape Verd in Africa: but many of them are only barren rocks. Theſe iſlands were diſcovered in 1460, by Antonio Noel, a Genoeſe, in the ſervice of Portugal; and they have ever ſince been ſubject to that crown; being inhabited by Portugueſe and Negroes: but the latter are the moſt numerous.

The principal iſlands are St. Jago, Bravo, Fogo, Mayo, Bonaviſta, Sal, St. Nicholas, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Santa Cruz, and St. Antonio.

St. Jago is the largeſt of all, being the reſidence of the governor, who is a kind of a viceroy, inveſted with the command over all the poſſeſſions of the crown of Portugal, from Cape Verd to the cape of Good Hope. It is ſituated in 24 deg. of W. lon. and 15 deg. of N. lat. 30 miles W. of Cape Verd, being about 150 miles in circumference. It is a mountainous and rocky country: but has ſome fruitful vallies in it productive of Indian corn, cocoa-nuts, oranges, and other tropical fruits: with plenty of roots and garden-ſtuffs, hogs, and poultry; as alſo ſome of the prettieſt kind of green monkies, with black faces: ſo that Eaſt Indiamen outward-bound frequently furniſh themſelves with water and proviſions at this iſland.

The iſland of Fogo is a volcano; and great quantities of ſalt are made in ſome of the other iſlands, but particularly in Sal.

Raw hides, eſpecially goats ſkins, are one of the beſt branches of trade in theſe iſlands; all of them being well ſtocked with theſe animals; but particularly the iſland of Mayo, wherein are yearly killed to the amount of 6000 beaſts.

Some wild bull and cow-hides are alſo brought from theſe iſlands to Portugal, where they are uſed in their manufactures, or are ſold to ſtrangers.

Tame cattle are alſo fed there in abundance, whoſe fleſh is ſalted and ſent to the Brazils, together with the fiſh, of which there are great numbers caught on the coaſts of theſe iſlands, and cured with their ſalt.

The iſlands of St. Vincent and Antonio alſo carry on a trade which is pretty lucrative, in the oil they extract from the tortoiſes, or turtles, that reſort theſe parts in a certain time of the year; as likewiſe in buck-ſkins, which they dreſs after the manner of Spain and Portugal.

Laſtly, rice, millet, Turkey corn, oranges, citrons, ananas, and ſeveral other delicious fruits; as alſo a great number of tame and wild fowl, ſerve the inhabitants for food; and the ſhips that touch there for refreſhments.

VERDEGREASE, or *Verdegris*. A kind of ruſt of copper; of great uſe among painters, for a green colour.

VERDEGREASE is prepared from copper plates, and rape or huſks of grapes well ſaturated with wine, put up in earthen pots, and then ranged *ſtratum ſuper ſtratum*; that is, firſt rape, then copper, and ſo alternately. When the pots are filled, they are ſet in a cellar; whence, after ſome time, they are taken out, to gather the verdegreaſe, which is a green ruſt covering the plates all over.

Some talk of verdegreaſe made with vinegar, and other corroſive ſalts; but it is a miſtake; the beſt wine being nothing too good for the purpoſe. Accordingly, the greateſt part of the verdegreaſe conſumed in Europe, is made in Languedoc, of the wines of that country; and is exported in cakes of about 25 pounds weight each. There is but little quite pure: to be good, it muſt be very dry, of a deep green, and pretty clear of white ſpots.

The apothecaries uſe to diſſolve verdegreaſe in diſtilled vinegar, and then filtrate and evaporate it in the cellar; when it ſhoots into cryſtals, which are uſed among ſurgeons, to cleanſe old ulcers, and eat off fungous fleſh.

VERDITER. A kind of mineral ſubſtance, ſometimes uſed by painters, for a blue; but more uſually mixed with yellow, for a green colour.

Verditer ought to be made of the *lapis armenus*, or, at leaſt, of an earthy ſubſtance much like it, brought from the mountains of Hungary, only prepared by powdering it and cleanſing it by lotion. See *Armenian* Stone.

But this ſtone and earth are very rare; and the verditer commonly uſed is only a factitious ſubſtance. The proper way of preparing it we are told, is by caſting wine or water upon new copper, juſt as it comes red hot out of the furnace, and catching the ſteams which riſe from it upon copper plates: though others ſay, it is prepared by diſſolving copper plates in wine, much after the manner of verdegreaſe.

The method of practice in England is ſaid to be as follows: into a hundred pounds weight of whiting, the refiners pour their copper water, and ſtir them together every day for ſome hours, till the water grows pale; then they pour that away, and ſet it by for farther uſe; pouring on more of the green water, and ſo till the verditer is made; which being taken out, is laid on large pieces of chalk in the ſun, till it is dry for the market. The water mentioned to be poured off from the verditer, which remains at the bottom of the tub, is put into a copper, and boiled till it comes to the thickneſs of water-gruel; when it conſiſts principally of ſalt-petre reduced, moſt of the ſpirit of vitriol being gone with the copper into the verditer; and a diſh full of this being put into the other materials for *aqua fortis*, is re-diſtilled, which makes what they call

call a double water, and is near twice as good as that made without it.

VERDUN. A city of Germany, in the duchy of Lorrain, ſituated on the river Maes, 40 miles N. W. of Nancy; ſubject to France.

VERJUICE. A juice, or liquor drawn from ſour grapes, or apples, unfit for wine, or cyder; or from ſweet ones, while yet acid, and unripe. See *Cyder*.

Its chief uſe is in ſauces, and ragouts; tho' it is alſo an ingredient in ſome medicinal compoſitions; and is uſed by wax-chandlers to purify their wax. It has its name from a large ſort of grape called verjus, or bourdelas; which is ſaid never to grow perfectly ripe; or rather, which, in its utmoſt maturity, is too auſtere and ſour to be uſed in wine: whence it is commonly turned into verjuice; tho' in France all unripe grapes are denominated verjus. There is alſo a tolerable verjuice made of crabs, gathered and laid into a heap to ſweat; when ſeparated from the ſtalks and filth, and then ſtamped, or ground; after which, the crab-maſh is put into a hair-bag, and ſqueezed in a preſs, the juice barelled up cloſe, and ſet in a warm place to work for 10 or 12 days.

VERMICELLI, or *Vermichelly*. A kind of meſs, prepared of flour, cheeſe, yolks of eggs, ſugar, and ſaffron; reduced into little long ſlices, in threads, like worms, by forcing it with a piſton, thro' a number of little holes in the end of a pipe, made for that purpoſe; being firſt brought from Italy, where it is in ſuch great vogue, that it is in effect the great regale of the Italians. Other nations are not ſo eaſily brought into the taſte of it; but it is chiefly uſed in ſoups and pottages, to warm the ſtomach and provoke venery.

VERMILLION. A bright, clear, red colour, in great eſteem among the ancients, under the denomination of minium. There are two kinds of vermillion; the one natural, the other factitious. The natural is found in ſome ſilver mines, in form of a ruddy ſand; which they prepare and purify by ſeveral lotions and coctions. The factitious is made of artificial cinnabar, ground up with white wine, and afterwards with the whites of eggs: in which ſtate it is made into cakes, and left to dry. To fit it for uſe, they grind it up a ſecond time with water and whites of eggs. To purify and heighten its colour, ſome grind it up with urine, or ſpirits of wine, to which a little ſaffron is added. See *Cinnabar*.

Some alſo pretend to make vermillion of lead, burnt and waſhed; or of ceruſſe, rubified by fire: tho' theſe are not properly denominated vermillion, but red lead. See *Lead*.

This laſt, however, ſeems to be the artificial minium of the ancients; and, accordingly, apothecaries, and painters, ſtill give it the name to enhance the price.

We have two kinds of vermillion from Holland; the one of a deep red, the other pale; but it is the ſame matter at bottom; the difference of colour only proceeding from the cinnabar being more or leſs ground: when the vermillion is pale, it is fine ground, and this is preferred to the coarſer and redder. It is of conſiderable uſe among painters in oil and miniature; and likewiſe among the ladies, as a fucus, or paint, to heighten the complexion of ſuch as are too pale.

VERMILLION, is ſometimes alſo, tho' improperly, uſed for what we otherwiſe call kermes, or ſcarlet grain. See *Kermes*.

VERNISH. See *Varniſh*.

VERSSINE. A corn meaſure, uſed in ſome parts of Savoy, weighing about 42 lb. avoirdupois.

VERTEL, is a term at Heidelberg for the liquid meaſure, which is called *fertel* in all other parts of Germany. See *Fertel*.

VERTICAL *circle*, in aſtronomy, is a great circle of the ſphere, paſſing through the zenith, and nadir; and any other given point on the ſurface of the ſphere: the vertical circles being alſo called azimuths. The meridian of any place is a vertical circle; and all the vertical circles interſect each other in the zenith and nadir.

The uſe of the vertical circles, is to meaſure the height of the ſtars, and their diſtances from the zenith, which is reckoned on theſe circles; and to find their eaſtern and weſtern amplitude, by obſerving how many degrees the vertical, wherein the ſtar riſes or ſets, is diſtant from the meridian.

VERTICITY, is that property of the loadſtone, whereby it turns or directs itſelf to ſome peculiar point: but the attraction of the magnet was known long before its verticity.

VERTILLAGE, in agriculture, the tilling, or preparing of ground to receive the ſeed; by turning, ſtirring, or toſſing it.

VESSEL, in navigation, is a name common to all ſorts of ſhipping; that is, all floating machines, or vehicles that move in the water. See *Ship*.

VESSELS are frequently diſtinguiſhed in two general claſſes; firſt high-bottomed or decked veſſels; which are thoſe that move wholly with wind and ſail, and live in all ſeas, as pinks, galleons, and ſhips. See *Sailing*.

2. And flat-bottomed veſſels, which go both by oars and ſails; as boats, galleys, praams, wherries, and the like.

Floating VESSELS, are uſually diſtinguiſhed into boats, lighters, barges, barks, fiſhing-veſſels, ſhips of trade, and veſſels of war; of each whereof there are various kinds and denominations.

VESSELS *of war*, are a three decked ſhip, firſt and ſecond rate; a frigate, or two-decked ſhip, third, fourth, and fifth rate; a one decked ſhip, ſixth rate; a bomb-veſſel, a fire-ſhip, a ketch, and a machine-veſſel, or ſmoaker.

A veſſel is ſaid to be of three or four hundred ton, meaning that it will carry 3 or 400 times 2000 lb. wt: or, that when immerged in water, it poſſeſſes the ſpace of 3 or 400 ton of water, which is equal to the weight of the veſſel, and all the loading it can carry.

A veſſel is ſaid to draw 10 or 15 feet of water; meaning, that when loaden it ſinks ſo deep under water.

The figure of veſſels is a thing of great importance, with regard to their motion, and ſailing. In determining what form is moſt commodious, the new doctrine of infinites becomes of apparent ſervice to navigation and commerce. A body moving in an immoveable fluid, is obliged to ſever the parts thereof; and they reſiſt ſuch ſeparation. Now ſetting aſide a certain tenacity, whereby they are, as it were, glued together, and which is different in different fluids, the whole force of the reſiſtance depends on that of the ſhock, or impulſe: for a body that is ſtruck, ſtrikes at the ſame time; but a perpendicular ſtroke is that a liquid reſiſts the moſt, as being the greateſt; and for a body to move freely therein, it muſt be of ſuch a figure, as to preſent itſelf as obliquely as poſſible. If it was triangular, and moved with the point foremoſt, it is certain all its parts would ſtrike the fluid obliquely; but they would all ſtrike with the ſame obliquity: and it were more advantageous, that each ſhould ſtrike more obliquely than its neighbour. Now ſuch a perpetual augmentation of obliquity, can no where be had in a curve line; each point whereof is conſidered as an infinitely ſmall right line, always inclined to the other little right lines contiguous to it. To find what curve it is whoſe perpetual change of obliquity, or inclination in all its parts, renders it, of all others, the fitteſt to divide the fluid eaſily; is a problem much more difficult than it appears to be; and, in effect, only to be ſolved by the new geometry; the ſolution being firſt given by Sir Iſaac Newton, in his inveſtigation of the ſolid of the leaſt reſiſtance.

That author, however, did not publiſh his analyſis; yet the Marquis d'Hopital hit upon it; and afterwards M. Fatio reſolved the ſame problem, tho' by a much longer and more perplexed way.

Book of VESSELS. See *Book*-keeping.

VESSEL, is alſo a thing proper to hold or contain liquor: thus, a ton and hogſhead are veſſels, fit to contain ale, wine, or other liquids.

The chemiſts uſe a great variety of veſſels in their operations, as matraſſes, pelicans, retorts, and receivers.

VETCHES. A particular ſort of pulſe, commonly called chick-peaſe. See *Corn*.

VEZ-CABOULI. A ſort of medicinal root, which has alſo ſome uſe in painting; and is brought from Surat in the Eaſt Indies.

VIANA. A port-town of Portugal, ſituated in 9 deg. 15 min. of W. lon. and 41 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. 36 miles N. of Oporto.

VICE, in ſmithery, and other arts employed in metals, is a machine, or inſtrument, ſerving to hold faſt any thing they are at work upon; whether it is to be filed, bent, or rivetted. To file ſquare, it is abſolutely neceſſary the vice be placed perpendicular, with its chaps parallel to the work bench.

The parts of the vice are, the face or plane, which is its uppermoſt part; the chaps, which are cut with a baſtard cut, and well tempered; the ſcrew-pin, cut with a ſquare ſtrong worm; the nut or ſcrew box, which has a ſquare worm, and is brazed into the round box; the ſpring which throws the chaps open; and the foot on which the whole is mounted.

Hand-VICE, is a ſmall kind of vice, ſerving to hold the leſſer works in, that require often turning about. Of this there are two kinds, the broad chapt hand-vice, which is that commonly uſed, and the ſquare-noſed hand-vice, ſeldom uſed but for filing ſmall round work.

VICE, is alſo a machine uſed by the glaziers, to turn, or draw lead into flat rods, with grooves on each ſide, to receive the edges of the glaſs.

There are ſome of theſe vices double, and that will draw two leads at once; which have three wheels. Some glaziers will turn lead of different ſizes in the ſame vice, by changing their cheeks for each ſize. With another pair of ſpindles, whoſe nuts almoſt meet, they turn lead for tiers; which, when it comes out of the vice, is almoſt cut aſunder, in two thickneſſes, eaſily to be parted. Before the invention of this vice, which is but of late, they uſed a plane; accordingly, in all the ancient windows, we find the lead planed and grooved that way.

VICE, is alſo uſed in the compoſition of ſeveral ſorts of words, to denote the relation of ſomething which comes inſtead, or in the place of another: in this ſenſe the word is Latin, *vice*, ſtead, place, or turn.

VICE *admiral*, is one of the three principal officers of the royal navy, who commands the ſecond ſquadron, and has his flag ſet up in the fore-top of his ſhip. See *Admiral*, and *Navy*.

VICE-*conſul*. An officer who exerciſes the functions of conſul, either with his orders, or in his abſence.

There are ſeveral port-towns of the Levant, and ſome maritime parts of Europe, where European nations keep vice-conſuls; which depend uſually on the importance of the place, and the commerce carried on there.

VICE-*doge*, is a counſellor of Venice, who repreſents the doge when ſick or abſent; that the ſeignory may never be without a chief.

VICE-*roy*. A governor of a kingdom, who commands therein, in the name and ſtead of a king, with full and ſovereign authority.

VICTUALLER. One who contracts or undertakes to provide food and other neceſſaries for a fleet: alſo one that keeps an ale-houſe, or public-houſe.

VICTUALLING-*Office*, is an office on the eaſt-ſide of little Tower-hill, London, and is under the management of ſeven commiſſioners, who tranſact all affairs belonging to the victualling of the royal navy: in which is the biſcuit bake-houſe, and ſtore-rooms of very large dimenſions; the ſlaughter-houſe for oxen and hogs; and the coopery, wherein the caſks for ſea-ſtores are made.

VIGO. A port-town of Spain, in the province of Galicia, ſituated in 9 deg. 18 min. of W. lon. and 42 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. on a fine bay of the Atlantic ocean, which forms a capacious harbour, 70 miles S. E. of Cape Finiſterre, and 50 S. of Compoſtella. See *Spain*.

VIGONE, or *Vigogne*, called by the Spaniards *Vicunna*, is an animal of the ſize of a goat, and figure of a ſheep, found in the mountains of Peru, from Arica to Lima.

The largeſt of them are uſed by the Spaniards for beaſts of burden, and each may carry to the amount of 125 lb. Their wool is brown, or aſh-coloured, ſometimes intermixed with white ſpots; being uſed by the American and European Spaniards for the manufacture of ſeveral woollen ſtuffs; and ſometimes by the French for the making of hats.

Beſides their wool, a much eſteemed bezoar is found in their ſtomach.

VIKIL. A name given by the Perſians to the agents which they employ in foreign countries, for the facilitating of trade.

VILLA-FRANCA. A port-town of Italy, in the province of Piedmont, and county of Nice, ſituated in 7 deg. 8 min. of E. lon. and 43 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. 3 miles E. of Nice, and 40 S. of Coni, ſubject to the king of Sardinia.

VILLAGE, or *Vill*. An aſſemblage of houſes, inhabited chiefly by peaſants and farmers; having uſually a church, but no market. The want of a market diſtinguiſhes a village from a town, as the church does from a green or ſtreet. See *Town*.

VILLAN. A ſort of cotton, brought from the Levant, particularly from Aleppo.

VILLA-RICA. A port-town of Mexico in America, ſituated in 100 deg. of W. lon. and 20 deg. of N. lat. on the gulph of Mexico, 200 miles E. of the city of Mexico.

VILLA-VICIOSA. A port-town of Spain, in the province of Aſturia, ſituated in 6 deg. 6 min. of W. lon. and 43 deg. of N. lat. on the bay of Biſcay, 22 miles N. E. of Oviedo.

VINCENT *Cape*, or *Cape Vincent*. The moſt S. W. promontory of Portugal, ſituated in 10 deg. of W. lon. and 36 deg. 55 min. of N. lat. 25 miles W. of the port town of Lagos.

VINCENT, *St*. One of the neutral Caribbee iſlands, ſituated in 61 deg. of W. lon. and 13 deg. of N. lat.

VINCENT, *St*. is alſo one of the Cape Verd iſlands. See Cape *Verd* Iſlands.

VINDEMIATING. The gathering of grapes, or other ripe fruits, as apples, pears, and cherries.

VINE. A noble plant, or ſhrub, of the reptile kind, famous for its fruit, or grapes, and for the liquor they afford. See *Wine*.

The kinds of vines are almoſt infinite; denominated either from the ſoil, and place where they grow; as the Bourgignon, Bourdelas, Italian, Mantua vine, and the like; or from the form, colour, and taſte of their grapes; as the acorn, apricot, damaſk, birds-bill, and muſcadine vine. Gardeners find that vines are capable of being cultivated in England, ſo as to produce great quantities of grapes; and thoſe ripened to ſuch a degree, as may afford a good ſubſtantial vinous juice. Witneſs the vineyards in Somerſetſhire; particularly that famous one at Bath. In effect, it does not ſeem ſo much owing to the inclemency of our Engliſh air, that our grapes are generally inferior to thoſe of France, as to the want of a juſt culture. Thoſe fitted to the Engliſh climate, Mr. Mortimer finds to be the ſmall black grape, the white muſcadine, parſley-grape, muſcadilla, white and red Frontigniac. Mr. Bradley recommends the July grape, the early ſweet water grape, lately brought from the Canaries, and the arbois, or French ſweet water grape: all which, if well managed, and the weather favourable, are ripe by the middle of Auguſt. He alſo recommends the claret and Burgundy grapes.

The beſt ſoil for wines, according to Mortimer, is the hotteſt gravel, ſand, or dry rocky ground; provided it be well ſhaded and watered. But at firſt planting, Mr. Bradley recommends chalky hills as proper for vines.

To mend the ſoil that wants theſe qualities, it is good to throw in the rubbiſh of old buildings, well mixed with twice as much earth, and ſifted about the roots of the vines.

Vines are propagated either by layers or cuttings; that is, either by laying down the young branches, as ſoon as the fruit is gathered, or by making plantations of ſlips and cuttings at the ſame time. Mr. Mortimer ſays, this may be done any time in the winter before January; tho' Bradley ſays he has done it with ſucceſs in March and April.

VINEGAR. An agreeable, acid, penetrating liquor, prepared from wine, cyder, beer, and other liquors; of conſiderable uſe, both as a medicine and a ſauce.

Wine, and other vinous liquors, are ſaid to gain a grateful ſharpneſs, that is, to become vinegar, by having their ſalts

ſalts exalted by inſolation, or other means; and their ſulphurs weakened and depreſſed. Others aſcribe the converſion of vinous liquors into vinegar, by grinding or ſharpening the longitudinal particles thereof; by which means, they become more ſharp and pungent.

Method of making cyder VINEGAR. The cyder, the meaneſt of which will ſerve the purpoſe, is firſt to be drawn off fine into another veſſel, and a quantity of the muſt, or pouz of apples to be added; the whole is ſet in the ſun, if there be a conveniency for the purpoſe; and at a week or nine days end it may be drawn off.

Method of making beer VINEGAR. Take a middling ſort of beer, indifferently well hopped; into which, when it has worked well, and is grown fine, put ſome rape, or huſks of grapes uſually brought home for that purpoſe; maſh them together in a tub; then letting the rape ſettle, draw off the liquid part, put it into a caſk, and ſet it in the ſun as hot as may be; the bung being only covered with a tile, or ſlate ſtone: and in about 30 or 40 days it will become a good vinegar, which may paſs in uſe as well as that made of wine, if it be refined and kept from turning muſty. Or thus; to every gallon of ſpring water, add three pounds of Malaga raiſins; which put into an earthen jar, and place them where they may have the hotteſt ſun from May to Michaelmas: then preſſing all well, turn the liquor up in a very ſtrong iron-hooped veſſel, to prevent its burſting: it will appear very thick and muddy, when newly preſſed; but will refine in the veſſel, and be as clear as wine. Thus, let it remain untouched for three months, before it is drawn off, and it will prove excellent vinegar.

To make wine VINEGAR. Any ſort of vinous liquor mixed with its own fæces, flowers, or ferment, and its tartar firſt reduced into powder; or elſe the acid and auſtere ſtalks of the vegetable from whence the wine was obtained, which hold a large proportion of tartar; and the whole being kept frequently ſtirring in a veſſel which has formerly held vinegar, or ſet in a warm place full of the ſteams of the ſame, will begin to ferment a-new conceive heat, grow ſour by degrees, and ſoon after turn into vinegar. The remote ſubjects of acetous fermentation, are the ſame with thoſe of the vinous; but the immediate ſubjects of it, are all kinds of vegetable juices, after they have once undergone that fermentation which reduces them into wine: for it is abſolutely impoſſible to make vinegar of muſt, the crude juice of grapes, or other ripe fruits, without the previous aſſiſtance of vinous fermentation.

The proper ferments for this operation, whereby vinegar is prepared, are, 1. The fæces of acid wines. 2. The lees of vinegar. 3. Pulveriſed tartar; eſpecially that of Rheniſh wine, or the cream or cryſtals thereof. 4. Vinegar itſelf. 5. A wooden veſſel, well drenched with vinegar, or one that has been long employed to contain it. 6. Wine that has often been mixed with its own fæces. 7. The twigs of vines, and the ſtalks of grapes, currants, cherries, or other vegetables of an acid, auſtere taſte. 8. Bakers leaven, after it is turned acid. 9. All manner of ferments, compounded of thoſe already mentioned.

VINEGAR is no production of nature, but a creature of art; for verjuice, the juices of citrons, lemons, and the like native acids, are improperly ſaid to be natural vinegar; becauſe, when diſtilled, they afford nothing but vapid water: whereas it is the property of vinegar to yield an acid ſpirit by diſtillation.

Method of making VINEGAR *in France.* The French uſe a method of making vinegar different from that above deſcribed. They take two very large oaken veſſels, the larger the better, open at the top; in each whereof they place a wooden grate within a foot of the bottom: upon theſe grates, they firſt lay twigs, or cuttings of vines, and afterwards the ſtalks of the branches, without the grapes themſelves, or their ſtones; till the whole pile reaches within a foot of the brim of the veſſels: after which they fill one of theſe veſſels with wine to the very top, and half fill the other; then, with liquor drawn out of the full veſſel, fill up that which was only half full before; daily repeating the ſame operation, and pouring the liquor back from one veſſel to the other; ſo that each of them is full, and half full by turns. When this proceſs has been continued for two or three days, a degree of heat will ariſe in the veſſel which is then but half full, and increaſe for ſeveral days ſucceſſively, without any appearance of the like in the veſſel which happens to be full during thoſe days; the liquor whereof will ſtill remain cool: and as ſoon as the heat ceaſes in the veſſel that is half full, the vinegar is prepared; which in the ſummer happens on the fourteenth or fifteenth day from the beginning: but in winter, the fermentation proceeds much ſlower; ſo that they are obliged to forward it by artificial warmth, or the uſe of ſtoves. When the weather is exceeding hot, the liquor ought to be poured off from the full veſſel into the other twice a day; otherwiſe the liquor would be overheated, and the fermentation prove too ſtrong; whence the ſpirituous parts would fly away, and leave a vapid wine, inſtead of vinegar, behind. The full veſſel is always to be left open at the top: but the mouth of the other muſt be cloſed with a cover of wood, the better to keep down and fix the ſpirit in the body of the liquor; for otherwiſe it might eaſily fly off in the heat of fermentation. The veſſel that is only half full ſeems to grow hot, rather than the other, becauſe it contains a much greater quantity of the vine-twigs and ſtalks than that, in proportion to the liquor; above which the pile riſing to a conſiderable height, conceives heat the more, and ſo conveys it to the wine below.

French vinegar, imported to London by the Engliſh, pays 27 l. 10 s. 11 d. and into the other ports 26 l. 4 s. 6 d. *per* ton, but imported by foreigners into London, they pay 28 l. 17 s. 3 d.; and in the other ports, 27 l. 10 s. 11 d. Spaniſh and Portugal vinegars, imported to London by Engliſh veſſels, pay 12 l. 10 s. 11 d. and in the other ports 11 l. 4 s. 6 d. *per* ton, but the ſame vinegars imported to London by foreign veſſels, pay 13 l. 17 s. 3 d. and in the other ports 12 l. 10 s. 11 d. Though as to cyder and perries the importation is not conſiderable.

VINEGAR *of antimony*, is an acid ſpirit, drawn by diſtillation from the marcaſite of antimony. See *Antimony*.

Its uſe is commended in continued and malignant fevers: the apothecaries have likewiſe a kind of theriacal vinegar, *acetum theriacale*, made of Venice treacle digeſted in wine vinegar.

VINEYARD. A plantation of vines; for which the beſt ſituation is on the declivity of a hill, lying to the ſouth.

The vine is propagated by ſlips, layers, or ſuckers, planted in a nurſery, and thence tranſplanted, about February, into the vineyard. As to the ſoil, it is agreed nothing can be too dry for them: and as to the ſorts of vines, none but the forward ones ought to be planted in England. Theſe are found to ripen very well in open borders, without walls. See *Vine*.

VINTAGE. A crop of wine, or what is got from the vines each ſeaſon. See *Wine*.

The word is alſo uſed for the time or ſeaſon of gathering or preſſing the grapes. In France a decree or ordinance of a proper judge, and a ſolemn publication thereof, are required, before the vintage can be begun.

VINTIN. A ſmall ſilver coin, or rather of billon, ſtruck and current in Portugal, and worth 20 reis, whence its name of vintin; being equal to $\frac{17}{20}$ d. ſterling.

VINTIN, is alſo a money of accompt, uſed in ſeveral parts of the Eaſt Indies, and of two ſorts; the one of good, and the other of bad alloy, which latter is by one fifth leſs than the former. Four of good alloy, or five of bad make the tanga. Fifteen good baſarucos, or 18 of bad make the vintin, taking the good baſaruco on the footing of 2 Portugueſe reis.

VINTNER, or *Taverner*. A retailer of wine; or one who keeps a tavern, or houſe for perſons to drink wine in.

VINTNERS *company of London*, was anciently called merchant-wine-tunners of Gaſcoyne, and conſiſted of two ſorts of dealers; the Veneatrii, and the Tabernarii; the former whereof were merchant-importers, and the latter retailers, who either kept taverns or cellars. Several authors have vainly imagined, that the craft of vintners was incorporated by Edward III. which miſtake ariſes

from his charter granted them in the 38th of his reign, dated the 15th of July 1365, for their carrying on an exclusive trade to Gascoyne, for the importation of wines.

This company was incorporated by letters-patent of the 15th of Henry VI. in 1437, by the name of The master, wardens, freemen, and commonalty of the mystery of vintners of the city of London; but without a power of making by-laws: however, they had a coat of arms granted them by Clarencieux king at arms, in the year 1442.

They consist of a master, three wardens, 28 assistants, and a livery of 194 members, whose fine is 31 l. 13 s. 4 d. to whom belongs a stately hall in Thames-street, to transact their affairs in. They are likewise possessed of a very considerable estate, out of which is annually paid to charitable uses about 600 l.

VINUM, in medicine, is particularly applied to medicated wines; that is, medicinal preparations, whereof wine is the basis; such as the

VINUM ABSYNTHITES, or *Wormwood-wine*, made of the great or little absynthium, by taking the apices, or tops of the flowers, putting them in a sacculus or bag, and suspending it in the middle of a vessel of wine; which fermenting extracts the taste, smell, and virtues of the wormwood.

VINUM *aromaticum*, made by infusing aromatics, or spices, in new wine, or must.

VINUM *Cydonites*. Quince wine, made of slices of that fruit, steeped in must, or new wine.

VINUM *Emeticum*. Emetic wine, is wine wherein the glass, or regulus of antimony, or *crocus metallorum*, has been steeped.

It only takes a certain degree of efficacy from the matter, nor is it found any stronger at three months end, than at the end of eight days; tho' it purges both upwards and downwards.

VINUM *Hippocraticum*, or *Hippocras*, so called of *manica Hippocratis*, or Hippocrates's sleeve, thro' which it is strained, is a sort of spiced wine, wherein sugar and spices have been steeped for some time.

VINUM *Marinum*. Sea-wine, made by casting sea-water on the grapes in the vat.

VINUM *Picatum*. Pitched wine, made of pitch infused in must.

VINUM *Rosatum*. Rose-wine, made by steeping roses for three months in wine.

VINUM *Strobilites*, or pine-apple wine.

VINUM *Hyssopites*. Hyssop wine.

VIOL. A musical instrument, of the same form with the violin; and struck like that with a bow. See *Violin*.

There are viols of various kinds; the first and principal is the bass-viol, called by the Italians, *viola di gamba*, or the leg-viol, because held between the legs; which is the largest of all; and mounted with six strings. Its neck is divided into half notes, by seven frets fixed thereon: its sound being very deep, soft, and agreeable.

VIOL, is also a term among mariners; when a hawser, or strand-rope, is bound fast with nippers to the cable, and brought to the jeer-capstan, for the better weighing of the anchor, where the main capstan proves insufficient.

VIOLET. A small flower of a very agreeable smell, cultivated in gardens, or found without culture in groves and meadows, and too well known to require a description. Druggists and apothecaries use it for the composition of conserves and syrops.

VIOLET is also a colour, mixed with blue and red, much resembling the flower.

VIOLIN, or *Fiddle*. A musical instrument, mounted with four strings, or guts; and struck, or played with a bow. It consists, like other instruments, of three parts; the neck, the table, and the sound-board.

VIPER, in natural history. A kind of serpent, famed not only for the exceeding venomousness of its bite, which is one of the most dangerous poisons in the animal kingdom; but also for the great usefulness of the flesh in medicine; whence vipers come to make a considerable article in several arts.

This remarkable reptile has the biggest and fattest head of all the serpent kind. Its usual length is about half an ell, and its thickness an inch: its snout being not unlike that of a hog. It has sixteen small immoveable teeth in each jaw; besides two other large, sharp, hooked, hollow, transparent, canine teeth, situated at each side of the upper jaw, which are those that do the mischief. These are flexible in their articulation; and are ordinarily laid flat along the jaw, the animal never raising them but when it would bite. Dr. Mead, in his essay on the poison of the viper, says, that the poison in the viper's bag is separated from the blood, by a conglomerate gland, lying in the lateral anterior part of the os sincipitis, behind the orbit of the eye; from which gland is a duct, that conveys the poison to the bags at the teeth, which, he adds, are tubulated for the conveyance and emission of the poison into the wound: though their hollowness does not reach to the apex, or tip of the tooth; but ends in a long slit below the point, out of which the poison is emitted.

Vipers make a considerable article in medicine; for most authors agree, that there is no part, humour, or excrement, not even the gall itself, of a viper, but what may be swallowed without any harm. Accordingly, the antients, and several modern authors, assure us the Indians, at this very day, both of the East and West, eat them as Europeans do eels.

Caro viperina, viper's flesh, either roasted or boiled, the physicians unanimously prescribe as an excellent restorative, particularly in the elephantiasis, incurable consumptions, and leprosy. Dr. Mead thinks they might be a little less sparing in the quantity; and recommends the broth, or the vinum viperinum, that is, wine wherein they have been long infused.

VIPER's *flesh*, is an ingredient in several of the best antidotes, as well as the theriaca andromachi.

The apothecaries also sell the pulvis viperinus, which is only dried vipers reduced into powder, heart, liver, and all, and passed through a sieve. This, we suppose, to heighten the price, they call animal bezoard. See *Bezoard*.

The salts of vipers, whether volatile or fixed, also their fat, or axungia, and their oil chemically drawn, are drugs in good repute.

VIPER-*wine*. See *Wine*.

VIRGIN, is applied, figuratively, to several things that retain their absolute purity, and have never been made use of: thus, virgin-wax, is that which has never been wrought; but remains as it came out of the hive.

VIRGIN-*oil*, is what oozes spontaneously from the olive, without pressing. See *Oil*.

VIRGIN *gold*, is that metal as it is got out of the ore, without any mixture or alloy; in which state it is sometimes so soft, that it will take the impression of a seal. See Virgin *Gold*.

VIRGIN-*copper*, is a native copper found in the mine, and which has never been melted down. See *Copper*.

VIRGIN-*honey*. See *Honey*.

VIRGIN-*quicksilver*, is that found perfectly formed, and fluid, in the veins of the mines, or at least is got through the mineral earth by mere lotion, without fire.

VIRGIN *islands*. Very small islands of the Caribbees, situated in the Atlantic or American ocean, a little to the eastward of Porto Rico, subject to Spain.

VIRGIN-*parchment*, is that made of the skin of an abortive lamb or calf.

VIRGIN-*sulphur*. See *Sulphur*.

VIRIDE *æris*. The same as ærugo. See *Verdegrease*.

VITRIFICATION, or *Vitrifaction*. The art of converting a body into glass; but, of all bodies, fern-ashes, sand, bricks, and pebbles, vitrify the most easily: accordingly it is of these that glass is principally made.

VITRIOL. A mineral substance, composed of an acid salt, intermixed with something metallic; being usually considered as a salt; but is more properly ranked in the class of semi-metals, as having a metallic matter mixed or combined with its salt.

Vitriol is defined by Boerhaave, a saline, metallic, transparent glebe, dissoluble in water, and fusible, and calcinable by fire. It acquires different names, according to

to the different places where it is dug: and the vitriols of thoſe alſo differ from each other in denomination and colour; ſome being white, others blue, and others green. Roman and Cyprus vitriol, for inſtance, are blue, and that of Sweden and Germany greeniſh; beſides which, there is alſo a white kind. White vitriol partakes but little of any metal, blue partakes of copper, and green of iron.

According to Boerhaave, vitriols conſiſt of a metallic part, with a ſulphur adhering, a menſtruous acid, and water. In blue vitriol, the metal wherewith the acid is joined, is copper. In white vitriol, called alſo white copperas, it is mixed with lapis calaminaris, or ſome ferruginous earth, whether intermixed with lead or tin. In green vitriol, the acid is joined with iron.

The antients gave the name calcitis, or calcanthum, to native vitriol; or that which acquires its full perfection in the entrails of the earth, and which is a kind of mineral ſtone, of a reddiſh colour. Of this they obſerved three different ſtates, or transformations; calcitis, in its firſt ſtate, they called miſi; this afterwards turned into melanteria; and that into ſori.

Some moderns take this calcitis to be the ſame with the colcothar brought from Sweden and Germany; the beſt whereof is of a browniſh red colour, and a vitriolic taſte, diſſolves eaſily in water, and, when broke, is the colour of a ſhining copper. See *Colcothar*.

All the other vitriols above named, are really factitious, being only a kind of chryſtals, drawn, by means of water, from a ſort of marcaſite ordinarily found in mines, and called by naturaliſts pyrites, or quis.

Roman vitriol is made by expoſing theſe pyrites to air, till ſuch time as they calcine, and change into a greeniſh acid vitriolic calx or duſt; in which ſtate they are thrown into the water, and are afterwards, by boiling and evaporation, reduced into that kind of chryſtals ſent from Italy.

All the other vitriols are made after the ſame manner, that is, much after the manner as alum is made in England, or ſalt-petre in France.

For green vitriol, they add a great number of pieces of iron to the liquor in boiling, which raiſe a great ebullition. As ſoon as the iron is diſſolved, they evaporate the diſſolution to a certain degree, and ſo let it chryſtallize; the chryſtals being formed, there remains a thick, reddiſh, unctuous ſtyptic, and aſtringent liquor, which M. Geoffroy calls eau mere de vitriol, as containing all the principles of the mineral, though diſunited. The powder of this vitriol is exceeding ſtyptic; being excellent for the cure of wounds, and the ſtopping of blood. Its effects this way have been raiſed by the knavery of ſome, and credulity of others, to a kind of miracle; it being this that makes the baſis of the ſympathetic powder.

The medicinal virtues of vitriol are very great; but all owing to the iron, or other metallic parts mixed with it, and therefore follow the kind of metal: thus, thoſe of green vitriol depend on the ſtypticity or aſtringency of iron, or Mars.

The eau-mere drawn from green vitriol, Mr. Geoffroy obſerves, does not differ any way eſſentially from a great number of preparations, which the chemiſts have given us of vitriol, iron, and the lapis hæmatites, as the fixed and anodyne ſulphurs of vitriol, Mars, and the like; the common baſis of all which is iron exceeding ſubtiliſed and attenuated.

A ſolution of vitriol, mixed with a tincture of galls, becomes inſtantly exceeding black, and this is the common writing ink.

Some naturaliſts hold vitriol to be the root, or matrix of copper; becauſe, in the copper mines, they never dig deeper than the glebe, out of which the copper is drawn.

Vitriol affords ſeveral chemical preparations; as, ſpirit of vitriol, procured by firſt calcining, and then diſtilling it; oil of vitriol, which comes out after the ſpirit, by heightening the fire, whereby that had been raiſed; and what remains after both, is colcothar of vitriol. Tartar of vitriol is had by mixing oil of vitriol with oil of tartar *per deliquium*; a ſalt precipitating at the bottom, which, being ſet to exhale and chryſtallize, is the tartar of vitriol. From the colcothar of vitriol is prepared the ens veneris.

Metallic VITRIOLS. All metals, it is to be obſerved, may be converted into vitriols, by diſſolving them with acid ſpirits, and letting them ſtand to chryſtallize.

Factitious vitriols being only metals diſſolved and chryſtallized in ſaline menſtruums, are frequently called, by way of diſtinction, metallic vitriols, and metallic ſalts.

VITRIOL *of iron*, is a preparation made by diſſolving iron, or ſteel in oil, or ſpirit of vitriol; then evaporating, or drawing off the moiſture, and bringing the matter to chryſtallize, by ſetting it in a cold place; which is alſo called ſal martis, or ſalt of ſteel.

VITRIOL *of Luna*, or *the moon*, is the body of ſilver chemically opened, and reduced into the form of ſalt, by the ſharp points of ſpirit of nitre.

VITRIOL *of Venus*, is a ſolution of copper in ſpirit of nitre, evaporated and chryſtallized, to gain the ſalt, called alſo vitriol of copper.

VITRIOLIC. Something that has the quality of vitriol, or partakes of its nature. In this ſenſe they ſay, vitriolic ſpring, vitriolic ſtone, and vitriolic ſpirits. If iron is thrown into a vitriolic water, and the red ruſt ariſing on the ſurface of the iron is melted down, it will be found real copper: which is an inſtance of the tranſmutation of one metal into another.

VIZIER, or *Vizir*. A prime miniſter to the Eaſtern princes.

VIZAGAPATAN. A Britiſh factory, in India. See *India*.

VIZIR-KAN, is a term at Conſtantinople for a large ſquare building, where cotton cloths are painted and ſold.

ULLAGE, of a cask, is ſo much as a veſſel wants of being full. See *Gauging*.

ULNA. An ell, in meaſure. See *Meaſure*.

ULNA *ferrea*, denotes the ſtandard iron ell, kept in the exchequer. See *Standard*.

ULTRAMARINE. A beautiful blue colour, uſed by painters, and prepared from lapis lazuli; this blue being one of the richeſt and moſt valuable colours uſed in painting. The preparation conſiſts in firſt calcining the lapis in an iron pot or crucible; then grinding it very fine, on a porphyry ſtone; afterwards mixing it up with a paſte made of wax, pitch, maſtic, turpentine, and oil; and at laſt, waſhing the paſte well in clear water, to ſeparate the colouring part from the reſt, which precipitates to the bottom, in form of a ſubtile, beautiful, white powder. The water is then poured off, and the powder at bottom dried in the ſun, which is the true ultramarine.

Thoſe who prepare this colour have uſually four kinds, which they procure by ſo many different lotions; the firſt is ſtill the beſt, and the reſt worſe and worſe to the laſt. There is ultramarine of the firſt kind ſold for 11 l. ſterling an ounce, and of the laſt for about 12 or 15 s. The common opinion concerning its origin is, that the method of making it was firſt diſcovered in England; and that a member of the Eaſt India company having a quarrel with his aſſociates, to be revenged of them, made the ſecret public.

Ultramarine muſt be choſen of a high colour, and well ground, which is known by putting it between the teeth; where if it feels gritty, it is a ſign that the triture is not ſufficient. To know whether it is pure and unmixed, put a litttle of it in a crucible, and heat it red hot; if the powder has not changed its colour after this trial, it is certainly pure: on the contrary, if you perceive any change, or any black ſpecks in it, it is falſified.

Beſide this, there is another kind, called common or Dutch ultramarine; which is only lapis, or ſmalt, well ground, and pulveriſed; the colour whereof, when uſed by the painters, being like that of the true ultramarine, though much leſs valued.

UMBER, among painters. A dry, dusky-coloured earth; which, diluted with water, ſerves to make a dark brown colour, uſually called a hair-colour. It is alſo called umber, from *umbra*, a ſhadow, as ſerving chiefly for the ſhadowing of objects: or rather from Umbria, a country of Italy; whence it is uſed to be brought.

UMPIRE. A third perſon, choſen to decide a controverſy, left to an arbitration, in caſe the arbitrators cannot agree. See *Arbitration*.

UNDER *the ſea*, in the ſea-language. A ſhip is ſaid to be ſo, when ſhe lies ſtill, or waits for ſome other ſhips, with her helm laſhed, or tied up a lee.

UNDER-*currents*, diſtinct from the upper or apparent currents of the ſeas. Some naturaliſts conclude there are in many places under-currents, which ſet or drive a contrary way. See *Current*.

Dr. Smith, in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, brings the hypotheſis of the under-currents, to ſolve that remarkable phenomenon of the ſeas ſetting ſtrongly through the Streights into the Mediterranean, with a conſtant current 20 leagues broad. What ſhould become of the vaſt quantity of water poured in this way, as alſo of that coming from the Euxine, through the Boſphorus into the Helleſpont, and thence into the Archipelago, is a ſpeculation that has long employed the philoſophers. This author's conjecture is, that there is an under-current, whereby a great quantity of water is carried out, as it comes in. To confirm which, he obſerves, that between the north and ſouth foreland, it is either high or low water on the ſhore, three hours before it is ſo at ſea; a certain ſign, that though the tide of flood runs aloft, yet the tide of ebb runs under-foot, or cloſe by the ground. He adds an account from an able ſailor in the Baltic ſound, that going with their pinnace into the middle ſtream, they were carried violently back by the current; but that ſinking a bucket, with a large cannon-bullet, to a certain depth of water, it gave a check to the boat's motion; and, ſinking it ſtill lower, the boat was driven a-head to the windward againſt the upper current, which was not above four or five fathom deep. Though Dr. Halley ſolves the currents ſetting in at the ſtreights, without overflowing the banks, from the great evaporation, without ſuppoſing any under-current.

UNDER-*chamberlains of the exchequer*, are two officers there, who cleave the tallies, and read the ſame; ſo that the clerk of the pell, and the comptrollers thereof, may ſee that the entries are true. See *Exchequer*.

They alſo make ſearches for all records in the treaſury, and have the cuſtody of doomſday-book.

UNDERTAKERS, were antiently ſuch perſons as were employed by the king's purveyors, and acted as their deputies.

But at preſent the name is chiefly uſed for upholders, or perſons who furniſh out funerals; as alſo for ſuch as undertake any great work, as the draining of fens, building of palaces, and the like.

UNDER-TREASURER *of England*, was an officer mentioned in the ſtatute of the 39th of Elizabeth, and whom ſeveral other ſtatutes confound with the treaſurer of the exchequer. See *Exchequer*.

He cheſted up the king's money at the end of every term, noted the content of money in each cheſt, and ſaw it carried into the king's treaſury in the Tower, for eaſe of the lord treaſurer. He alſo, in the vacancy of the lord treaſurer's office, did every thing in the receipt which the lord treaſurer himſelf does. See *Treaſurer*.

UNDERWOOD, is coppice, or any wood that is not accounted timber. See *Timber*.

UNGUENT, or *Ointment*, in chirurgery. A topical remedy or compoſition, chiefly uſed in the dreſſing of wounds and ulcers.

Unguents, liniments, and cerats, are external forms, applied on various parts of the body, both to cure, and to eaſe and relieve them. They only differ from each other in conſiſtence; with regard to which, unguents hold the medium, being ſtiffer than liniments, but ſofter than cerats.

Oils are ordinarily the baſis of all three; to which are added wax, axungia, and ſeveral parts of plants, animals, and minerals; both on account of the virtues they furniſh, and to give a conſiſtence to oils, as alſo to keep them longer on the part, that they may have more time to act. The principal unguents, or ointments, are unguentum roſatum; unguentum album, or white unguent of ceruſs; populneum, made of the buds of the poplar-tree; unguentum apoſtolorum, ſo called from the twelve drugs it conſiſts of, a cleanſer; unguentum baſilicum, a ſuppurative; unguentum ægyptiacum, cauſtic; unguentum aureum, incarnative and cicatriſing; unguentum de apio, mundificative; and unguentum Agrippæ, ſaid to be diſcovered by King Agrippa.

Pomatums are alſo ranked in the number of the unguents. See *Pomatum*.

UNGUIS-*odoratus*. A ſort of ſhell, uſed in medicine, called otherwiſe blata Bizantia.

UNION *fire-office*. See *Inſurance*.

UNITED PROVINCES. The ſeven United Provinces of the Netherlands, conſiſting of Holland, Zeland, Frieſland, Groningen, Overyſſel, Gelderland, with Zutphen, and Utrecht, are bounded by the German ocean, on the north and weſt; by the circle of Weſtphalia, on the eaſt; and by Flanders, Brabant, and the duchy of Cleve, towards the ſouth; lying between 3 deg. 20 min. and 7 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and between 51 deg. 35 min. and 52 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. being about 150 miles in length, and as many in breadth: but then the Zuyder ſea, which ſeparates North Holland from Frieſland and Overyſſel, takes up a great part of this ſpace; and perhaps, if all their ſeas and lakes within the limits above deſcribed were excluded, the whole country would not appear to be above 100 miles over either way. However, thoſe parts of Flanders and Brabant, which the Dutch have made themſelves maſters of, and lie contiguous to theſe provinces, are a conſiderable enlargement of their dominion.

The rivers which water this country are the Rhine, Leck, Waal, Maes, Iſſel, Leſſer Iſſel, Scheld, and Hont.

The ſeas are either the German or Britiſh ocean, which waſh the Northern and Weſtern ſhores. The Zuyder ſea, encloſed almoſt on every ſide, having the iſlands of Schelling, Ameland, and others, on the north; the provinces of Frieſland and Gelderland, on the eaſt; Utrecht, and part of Holland, on the ſouth; with another part of Holland, and the iſlands of Texel, and Flie, upon the weſt; being about 70 miles in length, and half as much in breadth, exceeding ſhallow, and full of ſands; ſo that the entrance of it at the Texel, and the paſſage over it, is more dangerous than a voyage to Spain. And ſuch is the violence and rage of the ſea, when the wind blows a ſtorm at N. W. if it happens to be a ſpring-tide, that their ſtrongeſt dikes ſometimes give way, and threaten the deſtruction of all the maritime provinces; for the land lies ſo exceeding low and flat, that the flood often appears above it; and were it not for the iſlands of the Flie, the Texel, and Schelling, and ſome ſand-hills, which break the force of the ſea, inundations would be much more frequent than they are. Their dikes, to keep out the ſea, are generally about 27 yards at bottom, and 12 high, made as ſtrong to the landward as wood and ſtone can make them; and, towards the water, they cover them with mats, ruſhes, ſea-weed, and ſometimes with ſail-cloth; but the raging waves often force their way through all.

Their lakes are only leſſer ſeas, ſurrounded by land; of which there are a great many in the United Provinces; the chief whereof is Haerlem Meer, extending almoſt from Amſterdam to Leyden, being 16 or 18 miles long, and about half as broad; but it grows larger every day, by encroaching on the lands contiguous to it.

Their ſeas, rivers, and canals, afford them plenty of fiſh; but there are ſome kinds for which they are obliged chiefly to the coaſt of Britain, particularly herrings, oyſters, and many other kinds of ſhell-fiſh.

Notwithſtanding this country is ſo famous for its multitude of ſhipping, there is ſcarce a good harbour on the coaſt: the beſt is ſaid to be Fluſhing, Helvoetſluys, and Rotterdam. As for Amſterdam, there cannot be a more incommodious haven; being ſtationed in ſo ſhallow a water, that ordinary ſhips cannot come near it unleſs at high-water, nor veſſels of burden without unlading.

Holland

Holland is computed 80 miles long, and 40 broad, making	-	5200 ſquare miles.
Zeland, 30 long, 17 broad	-	510
Utrecht, 30 long, 25 broad	-	750
Gelderland and Zutphen, 50 long, 48 broad	- -	2400
Overyſſel, 60 long, 40 broad		2400
Groningen, 46 long, 24 broad	-	1104
Weſt Frieſland, 40 long, 25 broad		1000
Dutch Brabant, 55 long, 31 broad		1705
Dutch Flanders, 31 long, 13 broad		403
	In all	13472

The moſt conſiderable of the ſeven provinces is that of Holland, which gives its name to the country and the republic.

It is well known, that ſome provinces of the Low Countries, equally affected by the love of their new religion, and that of their antient liberty, united in 1566, for the preſervation of both, and ſoon afterwards reſcued themſelves from the Spaniſh yoke, with the aſſiſtance of England, and the Proteſtant princes of Germany.

From the beginning of the revolt, Philip II. interdicted the confederate-ſtates all ſorts of commerce: but the want he was in of the commodities of the north, for the uſe of his fleets, obliged him to pretend, for a conſiderable time, that he was ignorant of the trade, which the Dutch carried on under the flags of his allies.

But, ſome years before his death, this prince altered his politics; and, after him, Philip III. his ſon and ſucceſſor, purſuant to the laſt views of his father, publiſhed in the month of February, an interdiction of all commerce, under rigorous penalties; which were executed with the greateſt ſeverity.

From hence may be dated the birth of the Dutch commerce, and the moſt ſolid foundation of their power; that is, about the end of the reign of Philip II. and the beginning of that of Philip III. from the year 1594, wherein the firſt aſſociations of the Zeland traders were made, till the year 1602, wherein all thoſe already made incorporated themſelves into one company.

There is ſcarce a mercantile place, ſince that time, to which the Dutch have not extended their commerce, eſpecially ſince the twelve years truce concluded between Spain and them in 1609; as alſo ſince the peace of Munſter, ſigned in 1648, whereby they were acknowledged as free ſtates, and obtained great privileges for their trade from their former maſters.

Three things contribute, in a great meaſure, to maintain the Dutch trade. The firſt is the great credit of the bank of Amſterdam, whoſe fund amounts to upwards of 3000 tons of gold; and whoſe notes and bills are always eſtimated at 1-4th *per cent.* and ſometimes higher, more than the payments in ready money. See *Bank*.

The ſecond thing ſo uſeful to the Dutch trade, is the great number of ſhips which depart every day from all the ports of this ſtate, and which carry ſuch great quantities of merchandiſe to almoſt all parts of the world.

The third is the ſafety wherewith this commerce is carried on, by the convoys the ſtate grants to the merchant-ſhips, which make them reſpected by corſairs and privateers.

A fourth reaſon may be added for the ſucceſs of the Dutch trade, which is, the probity and upright dealing they hold with all their correſpondents, of what nation ſoever. It is true, however, that if this be a praiſe which their traders deſerve in particular; yet their Eaſt India company have ſometimes followed other maxims, and, for the ſake of deſpotiſm, have infringed the moſt ſacred rights of juſtice.

Amſterdam, the capital city of Holland, and of the whole United Provinces, is ſituated in 4 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. on the river Amſtel, and an arm of the ſea called the Wye, a little to the eaſtward of the Zuyder ſea, about 200 miles eaſt of London, 230 N. E. of Paris, and about 400 W. of Vienna.

There is no port in the world where a greater trade is driven on, or where more ſhips enter, and go out, than that of Amſterdam; which is in the form of a creſcent, and may contain about 4000 ſhips, both large and ſmall; the ſmall ones lying along the quays, and the large ones between the piles, which keep them from ſtriking againſt each other in ſtormy weather.

Theſe piles are open in ſeveral parts for the paſſage of veſſels which go to or come from the city; and theſe openings are called *booms*, ſerving as gates to the city on the ſea-ſide, and are barricaded every night with two large poles pointed with iron, to obſtruct the entrance of any thing. In the day-time there are ſome admiralty-officers at the booms, for viſiting all that enters, and goes out.

The commerce of the merchandiſe of the growth of Holland, is but inconſiderable in itſelf; for, excepting its butter, cheeſe, and earthen-ware, few others paſs to ſtrangers.

Before the revocation of the edict of Nantz, and the eſtabliſhment of ſome of the French refugees in the ſeveral towns of the United Provinces, their manufactures conſiſted chiefly in their cloths and linens; but, ſince that time, by the help of theſe refugees, they learned all the French manufactures of gold, ſilver, and ſilk ſtuffs, and others, which they brought to a great degree of perfection; the following being a ſtate of the manufactures eſtabliſhed at Amſterdam, and in its neighbourhood.

At Amſterdam are manfactured gold and ſilver ſtuffs, damasks, brocades, taffeties, mohairs, ſilk ſhaloons, velvets, armoiſins, plain and flowered gauzes; laſtly, all ſorts of other ſilk ſtuffs, formerly for the moſt part manufactured in France and in Italy.

Stockings and caps of ſilk, thread, and wool.

Cloths, ſerges, calimancoes, ſtamines, and camblets; beſides ſeveral other ſtuffs of wool, goat, and camels hair.

Gold, ſilver, ſilk, thread, cotton, and ferret ribbonds.

Hats of all ſorts.

Tapeſtries of moſt kinds.

Printing-houſes for cotton cloths; where the printers boaſt of the ſecret of making as beautiful, and as laſting colours as in the Eaſt Indies and Perſia.

Printing-houſes for books and copper-plates.

All ſorts of dying ſtuffs, particularly for black and ſcarlet.

Gilt leather.

Sixty refining houſes for ſugar.

Other refining houſes for camphor, vermilion, ſulphur, azure, ſalt, borax, and reſin.

Excellent civet; and ſeveral perſons keep the animals there which produce it.

Several manufactures for ſoap, and the bleaching of wax.

Brew-houſes for beer, and other houſes for the preparing of vinegar.

Cord-yards, both for large cables, and other ſorts of cordage.

Several mills for gun-powder, dying ſtuffs, tobacco, bark-liquorice ſtick, corn, fullers work, the ſawing of planks, the ſawing and poliſhing of marble, and the extracting of oil from grain.

An abundance of anchors for the marine are alſo made there; and an incredible number of ſhips of all ſorts and ſizes are built in its docks.

The foundations of Amſterdam are laid upon vaſt piles of timber drove into the moraſs on which it ſtands, at a prodigious expence; the ſtadthouſe alone having about 13,000 piles of wood, to bear up the foundation. The firſt mention of this town in hiſtory is about the year 1500, when it was a poor fiſhing-town: but, in 1585, it appears to have been the chief town of trade in theſe provinces. The houſes are built with brick or ſtones, the ſtreets ſpacious, and well-paved, and through moſt of them run canals planted with trees. The city is computed to be half as large as London, including the fortifications: it contains people of almoſt every nation, and every religion in Europe, who are all tolerated in their reſpective perſuaſions; but only the Calviniſts or Preſbyterians are admitted to any ſhare in the government.

Haerlem, is another large city in the province of Holland, ſituated in 4 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 30 min.

of N. lat. 4 miles eaſt of the ocean, and 12 weſt of Amſterdam, near the lake, which from this town is called Haerlem-Meer.

At Haerlem are manuafctured a great number of velvets of all ſorts, pluſh, and ſeveral ſorts of woollen ſtuffs; beſides ribbonds of thread, cotton, ferret, and tapes of all kinds.

This town is in ſome reputation for the bleaching of linen, particularly of ſuch as are diſtinguiſhed by the name of Holland; and its threads are likewiſe in great eſteem for their goodneſs and whiteneſs.

The *Hague*, or *Graven Hague*, that is, Earl's grove, is a town in the province of Holland, ſituated in 4 deg. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 10 min. of N. lat. 2 miles caſt of the ſea, 14 miles north-weſt of Rotterdam, and 9 ſouth-weſt of Leyden; encompaſſed with fine meadows and groves, but no walls, and therefore eſteemed a village; though one of the largeſt and moſt elegant in Europe, enjoying all the privileges of a city of Holland, except that of ſending repreſentatives to the ſtates. It is here that the ſtates of the province of Holland, and the States-General, aſſemble; as well as the council of ſtate, and their ſupreme courts of juſtice. All public affairs are tranſacted here, and foreign miniſters admitted to audience; but it is no ways conſiderable for trade.

Enchuyſen, is a city and port-town of North Holland, ſituated in 5 deg. 10 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. on the Zuyder ſea, 8 miles north-eaſt of Hoorn, and 25 north-eaſt of Amſterdam.

Maeſland-Sluice, is ſituated in 4 deg. of E. lon. and 52 deg. of N. lat. 5 miles ſouth of Delft.

Sluys, is a port-town of Dutch Flanders, oppoſite to the iſland of Cadſant, 10 miles north-eaſt of Bruges, and 21 miles north-weſt of Ghent.

Middleburg, the capital city of the iſland of Walcheren, and of the province of Zeland, ſituated in 3 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. 26 miles north-eaſt of Bruges. It is a large well built city; and, having a communication with the ſea by a navigable canal, has a great foreign trade.

Dort, or *Dordrecht*, is a city in the province of Holland, ſituated on an iſland in the river Maes, 10 miles eaſt of Rotterdam.

Fluſhing, or *Vliſſingen*, is a port-town of the province of Zeland, ſituated on the coaſt of the iſland of Walcheren, 5 miles ſouth of Middleburg, and 14 north-eaſt of Sluys; being a good ſecure harbour, and a city of great foreign trade.

Tervere. A port-town in the province of Zeland, ſituated on the north-eaſt coaſt of the iſland of Walcheren.

Leyden, a city in the province of Holland, is ſituated on the old channel of the Rhine, in 4 degrees of E. lon. and 52 deg. 12 min. of N. lat. 4 miles eaſt of the ocean, and 20 miles ſouth of Amſterdam, It is one of the moſt elegant cities of Holland, having a conſiderable woollen manufacture. There are in it 30 iſlands, 24 canals, 180 ſtreets, and 95 bridges, with an univerſity conſiſting of 2000 ſtudents.

Delft, the capital of Delft-land, in the province of Holland, is ſituated in 4 deg. 5 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 6 min. of N. lat. 8 miles north-eaſt of Rotterdam, and 30 ſouth-weſt of Amſterdam. It is about 2 miles in circumference; and the beſt earthen ware is made here, from hence called Delft ware. It has no other conſiderable trade at preſent, but is the retirement of the wealthieſt merchants.

Edam, a town of Holland, ſituated on the weſt-ſhore of the Zuyder ſea, 12 miles N. E. of Amſterdam.

Briel, the capital of the iſland of Voorn, is ſituated in 4 deg. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. 5 miles north of Helvoetſluys; which is one of the beſt harbours in Holland, and where the Engliſh packet-boat always goes.

Hoorn, is a port-town on the Zuyder ſea, 19 miles north of Amſterdam.

Rotterdam, is a city in the province of Holland, ſituated in 4 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. of N. lat. on the north-bank of the river Maes, 30 miles eaſt of Amſterdam, and 13 ſouth-eaſt of the Hague. It is a large populous city, and much better ſituated for trade than Amſterdam; for the canals, which run through the city, bring up ſhips to the doors of the merchants; and the Maes is much ſooner free from ice, than the Wye at Amſterdam; on which account the Britiſh merchants reſort to this port more than to the other. There are four Dutch churches in this town, and two others for the Engliſh and Scotch.

The city of Rotterdam has ſcarce any manufactures of its own; but its commerce extends into all the parts of the world, particularly into Normandy in France, England, Scotland, Ireland, Brabant, Flanders, and ſeveral towns of Germany; not to mention the number of herring-buſſes it fits out yearly.

It appears, from what has been ſaid of the natural productions of Holland, and the ſtate of its manufactures, that the Dutch commerce would be inconſiderable, if theſe were the only commodities to keep it on footing. But it may be alledged, that all the commercial parts of the world contribute to the promotion of their trade, and make it in ſome reſpects univerſal.

Their ports, in reality, contain an almoſt incredible number of veſſels; and Sir William Temple, in his curious and exact obſervations on the ſtate of Holland, computes that there are a greater number of ſhipping here than in all the reſt of Europe beſides. However, the ſame author ſpeaks with ſome contempt of all the ports of the four maritime provinces of this republic; in the moſt conſiderable whereof, and the moſt frequented, which is that of Amſterdam, the leaſt ſhips cannot enter but in high water, nor the largeſt without being firſt unloaded, to clear with ſafety the entrance of the Texel, and the paſſage of the Zuyder ſea.

However, this difficulty does not obſtruct the going out from all the ports of theſe provinces, particularly that of Amſterdam; from whence ſhips go in particular for Spain, England, France, Portugal, the Mediterranean, the ports of the Levant, the North, the Baltic ſea, the coaſts of Africa, the iſles and continent of America; and, laſtly, the Eaſt Indies; where being arrived at Batavia, the capital of their commerce in the Eaſt, they divide themſelves on one ſide in the Red ſea, the Perſian gulph, the coaſts of Arabia, and thoſe of the Mogul; and, on the other, towards Japan, China, and all the iſlands of the Indian ocean, where they have factories.

To give ſome idea of the number of ſhips which depart from Holland for all the above mentioned places, it will be ſufficient to obſerve, that from the port of Amſterdam alone upwards of 1500 veſſels ſet ſail, freighted for the North and the Baltic ſea, and that all other foreign trades employ a proportionable number; for a Dutch author aſſerts, that ſometimes more than 1500 buſſes have been ſeen to go out of the ports of Holland in three days; and that the herring-fiſhery uſually employs upwards of 3000 yearly.

Amſterdam is the general ſtaple of all merchandiſes, particularly of thoſe of the Eaſt Indies, Spain, the Mediterranean, and the Baltic.

The navigation of Greenland, and the Frozen ſea, for the fiſhery of whales, and other ſea-monſters found in theſe ſeas, is performed by the inhabitants of Frieſland.

Enchuyſen and Maeſland-Sluice poſſeſs the herring-fiſhery.

Middleburg is the ſtaple for a part of the French wines; as Dordrecht is for that of Rheniſh wine, Engliſh cloths, and other merchandiſe.

The commerce of the Weſt Indies is occupied by the ſhips of Fluſhing.

The commerce of England flouriſhes moſt at Rotterdam; and there is alſo a conſiderable ſtaple of French wines.

Tervere in Zeland is a ſtaple for Scotch merchandiſe.

Several manufactures of wool, ſilk, hair, and even gold and ſilver, make the principal trade of Leyden.

Linens, and ſilk ſtuffs, either plain or flowered, occupy the greater part of the inhabitants of Haerlem.

Delft is noted for its beer, and earthen ware.

Laſtly, Sardam has the greateſt magazines of ſhip-timber and naval ſtores in the world; though a great number of

of veſſels are alſo built in the docks of Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Edam, Briel, Enchuyſen, and Hoorn, not only for the uſe of the country, but alſo to be ſold to ſtrangers.

The moſt neighbouring commerce, and at the ſame time the ſafeſt and moſt commodious for the carriages of the United Provinces, is that carried on with a part of Germany by the Rhine and Meuſe, which waſh their ſtates; as alſo by the Weſer, Ems, and Elbe, not far from the German ocean.

The traffic of the Rhine, alſo including that of the Moſelle and the Maine, by which this great river is increaſed in its courſe, is very conſiderable; Cologne being properly the center of the commerce, and the principal ſtaple of the Rheniſh and Moſelle wines; as alſo of the merchandiſes of Lorrain, and the archbiſhopric of Triers, which the Moſelle croſſes, ſuch as wood, iron-bars, cannons, and cannon-balls.

It is alſo by the Rhine, that the merchandiſe of Mentz and Franconia are carried to be ſold afterwards in the famous fairs held twice a year at Francfort, or which are brought from Nuremberg.

Laſtly, it is by the Rhine that the Dutch have flax, thread, and linens, from the duchies of Juliers and Bergue.

The Meuſe facilitates the commerce of Holland to Liege, which is ſituated on this river; and even to Aix-la-Chapelle, not far diſtant from it. The Dutch have from Liege, ſerges, ſlates, coals, lead, iron, bullets, and cauldrons made at Aix-la-Chapelle out of the copper brought by them to Liege.

Bremen, ſituated 15 leagues from the mouth of the Weſer, is the ſtaple of all the commodities belonging to Heſſe and Brunſwick. It is alſo in this town that the Dutch get carpenters timber, wheat, wool, metals, and beer, which are ſent there from Lower Saxony, Heſſe, Brunſwick, and other parts.

Emdem, the capital of Eaſt Frieſland, ſituated at the mouth of the Ems, is the ſtaple of all the trade of this part of Germany; and the Dutch have from it all the commodities of Weſtphalia, particularly of the biſhopric of Paderborn and Munſter, which conſiſt principally in carpenters timber, wool, linen, oxen, horſes, and the hams which have acquired ſo great a reputation in Europe.

Laſtly, the commerce of the Elbe is one of the moſt conſiderable which the Dutch have in the German ocean.

It is uſually by the way of Hamburg that the Dutch carry on the commerce of Lower Germany; but very often they aſcend as far as Harburg and Magdeburg for wine and wood; purchaſing even in theſe quarters entire foreſts, which they ſell, and with which they ſtock large warehouſes, to uſe them upon occaſion, or as they judge convenient.

Silk and woollen manufactures, haberdaſhery wares, ſpice, drugs, wood for dying, ſugar, cheeſe, herrings, copper, and ribbonds, are the merchandiſe which the Dutch bring to Germany by the five rivers already mentioned.

Antwerp, Bruſſels, and Mechlin, furniſh the Dutch with thread and lace, Ghent and Bruges with linens and hemp, Bruſſels and Oudenarde with tapeſtry, and Liſle with cambricks and barracans. The Dutch give in exchange ſilk, and woollen ſtuffs, drugs, ſpice, and other things.

The commerce of the Dutch to France was formerly very conſiderable, that is, before the two nations were at variance with each other upon account of the triple alliance; and it appears, from the memoir of a Dutch ambaſſador, that they exported yearly from France to the amount of about 1,600,000l. ſterling in French commodities, excluſive of corn; as alſo ſalt, with which they loaded between 5 and 600 ſhips.

See the commerce of Spain *and* Portugal *for that of the Dutch to theſe countries.*

The neighbourhood of England and Holland has always facilitated a conſiderable commerce between the two nations.

The merchandiſe exported from England to Holland are woollen cloths, and ſtuffs; ſilk ſtuffs, and ſtockings both of ſilk and worſted, hats, tin, lead, coal, vitriol, and tobacco; ſugar, clock-work, and other things. Thoſe which paſs from Holland into England are fine linens, ſail-cloth, paper, and ſilk.

The commerce of the North and the Baltic is one of the moſt important the Dutch are engaged in. In other commercial intereſts, they labour only for the reſt of Europe: but in this almoſt every thing regards them; it being from thence that they have corn for their food, and neceſſaries for their navigation; without which neither the ſtate nor private perſons could ſubſiſt.

Before the year 1553, the commerce of Muſcovy was carried on by the way of Narva and Revel, towns of Livonia, ſituated in the lower part of the Baltic. The port of Archangel having been diſcovered by the Engliſh, all the trade of this vaſt empire paſſed into this new port; which had ſeveral conveniencies not found in the two others, particularly upon account of the paſſage of the Sound.

The Dutch being delivered from the expences of a ruinous war, by a twelve years truce with Spain, haſtened to eſtabliſh a commerce with Archangel; and having for ſome time divided it with the Engliſh, who before were the ſole maſters thereof, they concerted matters ſo well, that at preſent they have the beſt part of it in their hands.

About forty ſhips, from 200 to 400 ton, depart annually for Archangel from the ports of Holland, and particularly Amſterdam, to which this trade ſeems more peculiarly appropriated. They are always divided into two fleets; the one, only of 6 or 7 ſhips, which ſet ſail in the month of June, and return in the month of December; and the other of 30 or 32 ſhips, whoſe departure is fixed for the month of July, and their return for the end of October.

Theſe fleets have always a convoy, which the city of Amſterdam gives them, even in the midſt of the moſt profound peace.

The merchandiſes compoſing the cargo of the two fleets are woollen and ſilk ſtuffs, linens, Canada caſtors, paper, hard and haberdaſhery wares, cannons, and other arms, powder, ſulphur, copper, lead, tin, brandy, wine, oil, vinegar, confects, dry fruits, ſaffron, ſugar, ſpice, pepper, herrings of the firſt fiſhing, frankincenſe, copperas, ceruſs, indigo, wood for dying, Ruſſia leather, lace, gold and ſilver thread, and ſilver ſpecie.

The commerce of Norway employs every year upwards of 300 Dutch ſhips, from 4 to 500 tons, but manned only with 10 or 12 men each. The merchandiſe they export for Norway, are ſpice, ſalt, Spaniſh wine, vinegar, brandy, cheeſe, tobacco in rolls, and ſome cloths.

As timber for the building of ſhips makes the moſt conſiderable part of their cargo, they have therefore made ſeveral treaties with the kings of Denmark relative to the commerce of wood; among others that of Chriſtianople, of the 13th Auguſt 1645; and another of the Hague, of the 12th April 1669.

The merchandiſe brought from the Baltic being of a large bulk, the Dutch are obliged to ſend there a great number of ſhips, which depart leſs than half loaded, but return always with a full cargo.

The number of Dutch ſhips employed in this commerce, amount one year with another to about 1000 or 1200.

Several kinds of merchandiſe are proper for this commerce; but as the balance is not equal between the imports and exports, and the conſumption not conſiderable, except that of Dantzick, the ſtaple for the Poliſh commerce, the Dutch are obliged to import a great number of rixdollars for the payment of the overplus.

Next to the commerce of the Eaſt Indies, there is none the Dutch have ſo much at heart as that of the Baltic; and for this reaſon they are very attentive to its preſervation, either by hindering the too firm eſtabliſhment of other nations; or by taking care that the Swedes and Danes, who in ſome reſpects are maſters of the important ſtrait, whereby the Baltic muſt be entered, may blockade it againſt ſtrangers, or impoſe new duties upon the ſhips

trading there; or, laſtly, that the northern nations, who have ports on this ſea, may not themſelves export their merchandiſe to others.

The merchandiſe which the Dutch import to Sweden and Denmark, are ſpice, drugs, Spaniſh and Portugueſe ſalt, ſugar, wine, brandy, linen, woollen and ſilk ſtuffs.

To Pomerania, cloths, wine, cheeſe, ſalt, tobacco, iron, lead, tin, and old rixdollars.

To Dantzick, ſilk ſtuffs of all faſhions, cloths, wood for dying, great quantities of ſpice, drugs, Italian cream of tartar, ſugar, oil, paper, wines of different ſorts, brandy, and French ſalt for Pruſſia.

Laſtly, to Riga, Revel, Narva, and Pernaw, all towns of Livonia, ſalt, ſpice, ſugar, tobacco, French glaſs, and eſpecially a great number of old rixdollars, wherewith they pay for the merchandiſe, not only of this province, but alſo thoſe brought there from Muſcovy, Poland, and Lithuania.

It was only ſince the beginning of the 17th century, that the Dutch traded to the Levant under their own flag; being before obliged to come under thoſe of the French, purſuant to the antient capitulations of that crown with the Grand Signior.

The republic having made particular ones for itſelf with the Porte in 1612, ſet immediately upon improving this branch of trade, which ſeemed ſo important, that the States-General eſtabliſhed a chamber at Amſterdam, to take care of every thing relating to it.

This chamber is compoſed of ſix deputies, and a ſecretary, who are all merchants, and regulate all that concerns the navigation and trade of the Mediterranean; but under the authority of the burgo-maſters.

The republic, which has few other connections with the Porte, than thoſe of its commerce, keeps a miniſter there under the title of reſident, who not only maintains the capitulations of the nation, but alſo decides the differences ariſing among private perſons, and the appeals of the conſuls.

The ſhips which trade directly to the ſtates of the Grand Signior, are uſually 30 or 35 in number; which depart at different times, and in different ſquadrons; but generally with convoys, upon account of the Barbary corſairs.

However, there are ſeveral others freighted for different ports of France, Italy, and Barbary; where they take in the merchandiſe proper for them, and continue their courſe to the Levant, where they ſell them, either upon their own account, or that of French and Italian merchants, for whom they have freighted, and with whom they afterwards divide the returns belonging to each perſon.

The ſhips fitted out in Holland for the Mediterranean, have not leſs than 20 or 26 pieces of cannon, and 60 or 70 men to each ſhip; and the convoys are uſually ſhips of 50 or 60 guns, each manned with 100 or 170 men.

The fleets for the port-towns of the Levant, uſually touch at Leghorn for refreſhments, and piaſters, which are furniſhed by the Genoeſe; but they go alſo pretty often for that coin to Cadiz.

The Dutch trade at Smyrna is more conſiderable than that of any other European nation; but elſewhere it is little or nothing. One of their greateſt profits conſiſts in the ſilver they bring there, as crowns, half-crowns, teſtons, and pieces of 15 ſols Dutch coin; in which their gain is great, becauſe the metal is of baſe allay, and the ſpecie mixed with falſe pieces. The Turks call them aſſani, which ſignifies a lion; becauſe a lion, which is the arms of the republic, is impreſſed on both ſides.

Another great profit is the freightage of their ſhips with Armenians, and their merchandiſe for Europe.

The Dutch cloths, which are ſent from Smyrna to Conſtantinople and Perſia, are the principal object of their trade. However, they ſell there alſo ſpice, cochineal, indigo, tin, lead, and ſteel.

The Dutch have had no large eſtabliſhments in the Weſt Indies, ſince they were obliged to quit their conqueſts in Brazil; yet their trade there is very conſiderable; and their new Weſt India company, eſtabliſhed in 1674, has always maintained itſelf with reputation.

The Dutch alſo, or rather their Weſt India company, keep on footing a pretty good trade on all the coaſts of Africa. Their principal eſtabliſhment is at the Cape of Good Hope; and they have likewiſe ſeveral others in Guinea, Cape Verd, and the gold coaſt; particularly in the laſt, where they have the forts St. George and Naſſau: the others are, Anamabo, Acaro, Achim, Sama, and Bouten. Their greateſt traffic is in negroes; though their trade is alſo very conſiderable in gold duſt, elephants teeth, leather, gums, oſtriches feathers, wax, and ſome drugs for dying.

However opulent the Dutch commerce is in all the ſtates of the three above mentioned parts of the world, it is certain that the trade which their Eaſt India company has carried on upwards of a century in all the kingdoms of Aſia, is of a much greater conſequence.

The Dutch Eaſt India companies, formed before the union of 1602, ſatisfied with a peaceable poſſeſſion of their commerce, undertook nothing againſt the vaſt dominion of the Portugueſe, who had almoſt ſubjected all the coaſts and iſlands of Aſia, ſince they diſcovered the route by the Cape of Good Hope.

The general company formed out of all theſe, was for ſome time of the ſame diſpoſition; but at laſt it ventured to attack that formidable power, and found little difficulty in conquering it.

The firſt fruits of its conqueſts over the Portugueſe were the fort of the iſland of Amboina, which it took in 1605, near 100 years after the Portugueſe had taken it from the king of Ternate; and this afterwards facilitated for the Dutch the taking of the other Moluccas, ſo famous for their ſpice.

The company's fleet failed in the important fortreſs of Malacca in 1606, and could not conquer it till the year 1640: but this fatal event was followed by ſuch ſucceſs, that in 1663 the Portugueſe had ſcarce ſo much remaining as the celebrated city of Goa, and the important fortreſs of Diu, out of ſo many towns, forts, iſlands, and eſtabliſhments, they before poſſeſſed, from Ormus in the Perſian gulph to Macao, an iſland and city of China, upon the coaſt of the province of Kantung, and even as far as Japan.

The United Provinces are a confederacy of ſeveral independent ſtates; for every province, and every city almoſt, is a ſeparate ſtate, and not bound by the determination of the States-General, till their conſent is had. As the States-General cannot make war, peace, or alliance, or levy taxes, without the conſent of every province; neither can the ſtates of any province determine any thing of this kind, without the conſent of every city and petty republic in it.

The ſtates of Holland conſiſt of the deputies or repreſentatives of the nobility, and of 18 cities, making in all 19 voices, of which the nobility have only one.

In the city of Amſterdam, the ſovereign power is lodged in 36 ſenators, who continue members of the ſenate for life; and when one dies, the ſurviving ſenators elect another in his room: the people have nothing to do in the choice; and the ſenate elects the deputies to be ſent to the ſtates of Holland, and appoints the burgo-maſters and eſchevins, who may be reſembled to the mayor and aldermen. The penſioner may be reſembled to the recorder, who is always a perſon well verſed in the civil law and cuſtoms of the country; and, though he is inferior to the ſenators, has a very great influence on the ſtate, and is uſually applied to by foreign miniſters.

The conſtitution of the governments in other cities does not differ much from that of Amſterdam: the power is lodged in the principal magiſtrates, and the people have no ſhare in it, or in the election of their governors.

The States-General conſiſt of the repreſentatives of the ſeven United Provinces, who ſit conſtantly at the Hague; and no ſtadtholder, governor, or military officer, can ſit and vote in the aſſembly of the States-General. Each province appoints a preſident of this aſſembly in their turns,

turns, who is changed once a week. He ſits in the middle of a long table, which will hold about 30 perſons, the uſual number of which the States-General are compoſed; every province deputing what number of repreſentatives they pleaſe, though all that are deputed by a ſingle province have but one voice; and when the States-General have reſolved on any thing relating to peace or war, alliances or taxes, it muſt be ſent to every province and city, which is a ſovereign ſtate, to be approved and ratified.

The Dutch uſually raiſe annually between two and three millions ſterling in time of peace, out of which are paid their land-forces, conſiſting of 25,000 men, foreigners as well as national troops, particularly Switzers and Scotch; and they have ſeldom leſs than 50 men of war in commiſſion. Beſides the troops already mentioned, the Dutch keep 15 or 20,000 more in the barrier-towns; for maintaining of which they receive the ſum of 500,000 crowns *per annum*, out of the revenues of the Auſtrian Netherlands. Their taxes are raiſed by an almoſt general exciſe; and in time of war there is uſually a poll tax, a land-tax, and chimney or hearth money, levied. But every province and city vary their taxes as they ſee fit: if they provide the quota demanded of them, the States-General give no directions as to the method of raiſing it: but though the Dutch tax every thing that is conſumed at home, by eating, drinking, cloathing &c. they take care that the duties on merchandiſe ſhall be extremely low, both on importation and exportation, which makes their country a free port in a manner, and draws moſt of the traffic of Europe thither.

Dutch America.

The Dutch have four colonies in Guiana, a large country of the Terra Firma of South America, extending from the river of the Amazons, to that of Oronoko, which makes upwards of 1200 miles of coaſt; with immenſe tracts up the country, as far as Brazil on one ſide, and on the other as far as New Andaluſia.

Theſe four colonies of the Terra Firma have their name from four rivers of the province of Guiana, along which they are eſtabliſhed; of which Boron, Berbice, and Surinam, are to the north of Cayenne; and the other called Approwacq, to the ſouth; the French colony ſeparating it from the three others.

Surinam, is the moſt conſiderable of the four, yet of no great conſequence: however, the Dutch have a very good fort there, which they ſeem to have a great occaſion for; becauſe the Indians, who have been irritated by them, give no quarter when they find them at any diſtance fr[illegible] their fort.

The E[illegible]h were formerly maſters of Surinam; but the Dutch ſeized upon it in the wars between the two nations, and the Engliſh ceded it to them, in exchange for New York, by the peace of Breda.

Sugar grows there in abundance, and makes the principal object of its commerce: but indigo, tobacco, ginger, and cotton, are alſo cultivated there; and it is for this purpoſe that the Dutch eſtabliſhed at Fort Mina, on the African gold coaſt, ſend there yearly ſeveral negroes, as alſo ſeveral commodities of this coaſt, and even a conſiderable quantity of gold.

However, the Amſterdam merchants are thoſe who carry on the greateſt trade; keeping warehouſes ſtored with all kinds of merchandiſe which Europeans uſually import to America.

Boron, *Berbice*, and *Approwacq*, afford the ſame commodities, and carry on the ſame trade, as Surinam: but Berbice has this peculiar to itſelf, that, beſides the culture of cotton, which is there more abundant than in the three other colonies, it produces an excellent dying ſtuff called orellane, extracted from a plant of the ſame name, by cultivating and preparing it much after the manner of indigo.

It has alſo the advantage of having very tractable and peaceable Indians for its neighbours, who render them great ſervices in their colonies, and with whom they treat for proviſions, ſome hides, and other commodities.

Dutch American iſlands.

Euſtace, or *Euſtatia* commonly called *Statia*, is one of the leaſt of the Caribbees, ſituated in 63 deg. of W. lon. and 17 deg. 32 min. of N. lat. being about 15 miles in circumference.

The merchants of Fluſhing obtained its conceſſion from the States General; and, notwithſtanding the ſterility of the ſoil, made ſeveral plantations of tobacco on it, which conſtitutes almoſt the whole commerce of the iſland.

Saba, is ſtill ſmaller than St. Euſtace; and though almoſt entirely a rock, the inhabitants have found ſoil enough for the culture of tobacco, and the ſupport of ſeveral Dutch families, who live there at their eaſe.

St. Martin, is the laſt of the Antilles, wherein the Dutch have colonies eſtabliſhed in 1633; but they poſſeſs only the one half of the iſland, the other belonging to the French.

Its tobacco and ſalt-marſhes make all its riches and trade. The ſalt-marſhes are in the Dutch diviſion; but the French have the uſe of them.

Curaçao, or *Curraſſau*, is properly the only iſland of conſequence poſſeſſed by the Dutch in the Weſt Indies; not for its extent, or commercial productions, having but 9 or 10 leagues in length, and 5 in breadth; and affording only ſome ſugar, wool, and leather; but for the conſiderable trade, which its ſituation gives it with the Spaniards of the continent, from which it is only 7 or 8 leagues diſtant.

The port, the town, and the fort, which defends them both, are 4 or 5 leagues from the point, in the ſouth part of the iſland; where the ſhips of Carthagena and Porto-Bello came formerly to treat for negroes for Peru, whom they often bought up to the amount of 1500 at once.

This commerce is much dwindled away ſince the Engliſh of Jamaica have undertaken it: but the Dutch have ſucceeded in that of European merchandiſe; and, though contraband, it cannot be ſaid how much theſe two cities export yearly from Curacao, or how much the Dutch diſperſe throughout the whole coaſt of Venezuella, which is oppoſite, as alſo to the river De la Hache, and New Andaluſia, which are not far diſtant.

Bonaire, and *Aruba*, one of which is ten leagues from Curacoa to the eaſt, and the other only 7 to the weſt, are two iſlands belonging alſo to the Dutch; where they have ſome plantations, particularly in that of Bonaire, which is almoſt as big again as Curacao, but much leſs inhabited.

From theſe two iſlands, Curacao has almoſt all its ſubſiſtence; the Dutch ſending there ſeveral barks daily, which return loaded with maize, Guinea corn, potatoes, and the ſalted fleſh of goats, for the nouriſhment of their troops and negroes.

Bonaire furniſhes alſo ſeveral hides; for the inhabitants employ themſelves much in the grazing of horſes, bulls, and cows. There is likewiſe a ſalt marſh, which ſerves for the loading of ſome Dutch ſhips that reſort it.

Though the ſugar and tobacco cultivated at Curacao, as well as the wool, hides, and ſome other merchandiſe, make a part of the cargoes of the ſhips which return to Europe; yet this object would be too inconſiderable to attract them there, in ſuch numbers as they come yearly; and the trade of Curacao would ſoon fall, had not the richeſt merchandiſe of Spaniſh America paid them with intereſt for the care they take in keeping the warehouſes of this iſland always ſtored with European goods.

Five or ſix large ſhips uſually carry on this trade; which is ſo ſafe and rich, that they remain loaded for returning no longer than is neceſſary to clear out the effects they bring there, and to ſend thoſe aboard which they always find ready to their hands.

The Dutch have been maſters of Curacao, and theſe two other iſlands, ſince the year 1632, when they took them from the Spaniards.

UNMOOR. A term at ſea, when a veſſel that before rid, or was held by two anchors, is begun to be diſengaged, and prepared to weigh. See *Anchor*, and *Mooring*.

UNREEVING a rope. See *Reeving*.

UNRIGGING of a ſhip, is the taking away the rigging or cordage. See *Rigging*.

VOCATION, is uſed for a deſtination to any ſtate, or profeſſion.

VOLANO, or *Valona*. A port-town of Italy, in the Pope's territory, and duchy of Ferrara; lying in 13 deg. of E. lon. and 44 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. on one of the mouths of the Po, in the gulph of Venice, 40 miles eaſt of Ferrara.

VOLTA. A river on the Guinea coaſt, in Africa, which runs from north to ſouth, and falls into the ocean eaſt of Acra.

VOLTURNO. A river of Naples, which riſes in the province of Moliſe; and, paſſing by Benevento, runs eaſt by Capua; falling into the gulph of Gaieta, a bay of the Tuſcan ſea.

VOLUME. A book, or writing, of a juſt bulk to be bound by itſelf. See *Book*.

Nux VOMICA, *Vomic-nut*. A little, round, flat, woody fruit, or ſeed; hard as a horn, of a mouſe-colour without, but of different colours within, ſometimes yellow, ſometimes white, and ſometimes brown.

It is not known what the plant is that bears it; but it is a poiſon for dogs, and other quadrupeds, which it kills preſently through exceſſive vomiting.

VORTEX, *Whirlwind*, in meteorology; being a ſudden, rapid, violent motion of the air, in gyres, or circles. See *Whirlwind*.

VORTEX, is alſo uſed for an eddy, or whirlpool; being a body of water, in certain ſeas and rivers, which runs rapidly round, forming a ſort of cavity in the middle. The ordinary cauſe of theſe vortices, is a gulph, or outlet, whereby the water of ſuch ſea or river is abſorbed, or precipitates itſelf into ſome other receptacle; ſometimes to ſome other communicant ſea or river, and ſometimes perhaps into the vaſt abyſs of central water.

VOUA. A long meaſure, uſed in the kingdom of Siam; 2 kens make 1 voua, 2 ſoks 1 ken, 2 keubs 1 ſok, and 12 nious 1 keub; the niou being 3-4ths of an inch.

VOUCHER, ſignifies a ledger-book, or book of accompts, wherein are entered the warrants for the accomptant's diſcharge. See *Book*-keeping.

But voucher alſo ſignifies any writing, or proof, for buſineſs done among tradeſmen; which they are often obliged to produce and prove, before they are paid.

VOUL. A ſmall meaſure, uſed by the inhabitants of Madagaſcar, for clean rice, containing about half a pound.

UPHOLDER, or *Upholſterer*. A tradeſman, who makes beds, and other ſorts of houſhold-furniture.

UPHOLDERS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 2d of Charles I. dated the 14th of June 1627, by the name of The maſter, wardens, and commonalty of the myſtery or art of the upholders of the city of London; being governed by a maſter, 2 wardens, and 28 aſſiſtants, with a livery of 131 members; who, upon their being admitted, pay a fine of 4 l. 10 s. but have no hall.

URINE, in agriculture, is of excellent uſe as a manure.

Experienced perſons in agriculture and gardening, prefer urine for land and trees before dung; as penetrating better to the roots, and removing ſeveral infirmities of plants: ſo that in Holland, and many other countries, they preſerve the urine of their beaſts, with as much care as their dung.

URUS. A ſort of buffalo, found in the foreſts of Lithuania, in Poland. It is a very furious animal, with round and ſhort horns; having a beard reſembling that of a goat, with long and blackiſh hair.

The ſkin of this animal is ſaid to have a ſpecific quality, with regard to pregnant women, by keeping them from abortion; which makes its value conſiderable, eſpecially among the Poliſh ladies, who ſeem perſuaded of its virtue.

USALTON. A ſilver coin current in Aſiatic Georgia, worth about 10 d. ſterling.

USANCE, in commerce, is a determinate time for the payment of bills of exchange, reckoned either from the day of the bills being accepted, or from the day of the date; and thus called, becauſe regulated by the uſage and cuſtom of the places whereon they are drawn. See *Bill*, and *Exchange*.

Bills of exchange are either drawn at one or more uſances, either from ſight, or from date. The Italians ſay, *uſo doppio*, for double uſance, or two uſances; but this term is longer or ſhorter, according to the different countries. In France, uſance is fixed at 30 days. At London, uſance is a common month, and double uſance two months. In Spain, uſance is two months, or 60 days. At Venice, Genoa, and Leghorn, 3 months. At Hamburgh, uſance of bills drawn from England, France, and Venice, is two months after date. From Antwerp and Nuremberg, 15 days after ſight.

At Venice, uſance of bills drawn at Ferrara, Bologna, Florence, Lucca, and Leghorn, is five days after ſight. From Naples, Auſbourg, Genoa, and Vienna 15 days after ſight. From Mantua, Modena, and Milan, 20 days after date. From Amſterdam, Antwerp, and Hamburgh, two months after date; and from London, three months after date.

At Milan, uſance of bills from Genoa is 8 days after ſight, from Rome 10 days after ſight, and from Venice 20 days after date.

At Florence, uſance of bills drawn from Bologna, is 3 days after ſight; from Rome, 10 days after ſight; from Venice and Naples, 20 days after date.

At Rome, uſance of bills of exchange drawn in Italy, was originally 10 days after ſight; but, by an abuſe, this term has been extended to 15. At Leghorn, uſance of bills drawn from Genoa, is 8 days after ſight; from Rome, 10 days; from Naples, 3 weeks; from Venice, 3 weeks; from London, 3 weeks; and from Amſterdam, 40 days.

At Amſterdam, uſance of bills drawn from England and France, is a month after date; from Venice, Madrid, Cadiz, and Seville, 2 months.

At Genoa, uſance of bills from Milan, Florence, Leghorn, and Lucca, is 8 days after ſight; from Venice, Rome, and Bologna, 15 days; from Naples, 22 days; from Sicily, a month after ſight, or 2 months after date; from Sardinia, a month after ſight; from Antwerp, Amſterdam, and other places in the Low Countries, 3 months after date.

USAGES and cuſtoms of the ſea, are certain maxims, rules, or uſages, which make the baſe or ground-work of maritime juriſprudence, whereby the policy of navigation, and commerce of the ſea, are regulated. See *Navigation*, and *Commerce*.

Theſe uſages and cuſtoms conſiſt in three kinds of regulations. The firſt, called laws or judgments of Oleron, were made by order of Queen Eleanor, ducheſs of Guienne, at her return from the holy war; chiefly from memoirs which ſhe had gathered in the Levant, where commerce was then in a very flouriſhing condition. She called them laws of Oleron, by reaſon ſhe then reſided in an iſland of that name, in the bay of Aquitaine. They were much augmented about the year 1266, by her ſon Richard, king of England, on his return from the holy land.

The ſecond regulations were made by the merchants of Wiſby, a city in the iſland of Gothland, in the Baltic ſea, antiently much famed for commerce, as moſt of the nations of Europe had their magazines, quarters, and ſhops, therein. Theſe cuſtoms were compiled in the Teutonic language, and are ſtill the rule in the northern countries. Their date does not appear; but it is probable they were made ſince the year 1288, when the city of Wiſby was deſtroyed the firſt time; which was afterwards reſtored by Magnus, king of Sweden.

The third ſett of regulations were made at Lubec, about the year 1597, by the deputies of the hanſe towns. See *Hanſe*.

USQUEBAUGH. A ſtrong, rich, compound liquor, chiefly taken by way of dram; its baſis being brandy, or rectified ſpirits of wine.

The proceſs is ſomewhat various, and the ingredients numerous; but the following was much commended formerly as a ſpecimen.

To two gallons of brandy, or ſpirits, put a pound of Spaniſh liquorice, half a pound of raiſins of the ſun, four

four ounces of currants, and three of dates ſliced; tops of thyme, bawn, ſavory, mint, and tops of flowers of roſemary, of each two ounces; cinnamon and mace bruiſed, nutmegs, anis and coriander ſeeds, bruiſed likewiſe, of each four ounces; citron, or lemon and orange peel, ſcraped, of each an ounce. All which muſt be left to infuſe 48 hours in a warm place, often ſhaking them together: then ſet them in a cool place for a week; after which the clear liquor is to be decanted off; and an equal quantity of neat white port wine, and a gallon of canary, are to be added: the whole to be ſweetened with a proper quantity of double refined ſugar.

USURER. A perſon charged with a habit or act of uſury. The laws of our antient Saxon and Norman kings are very ſevere upon uſurers, or letters out of money upon intereſt; who were indeed allowed to diſpoſe of their goods before conviction, and whilſt they were living; but, after their death, they were confiſcated, if it could be proved they lent money to uſe within a year before their death.

USURIOUS *contract*, is any bargain or contract, whereby a man is obliged to pay more intereſt for money than the ſtatute allows. See *Intereſt*.

USURY, in the general, denotes a gain or profit, which a perſon makes of his money, by lending the ſame; or it is an increaſe of the principal exacted for the loan thereof, or the price a borrower gives for the uſe of a ſum credited to him by the lender; called alſo intereſt, and in ſome antient ſtatutes dry exchange. See *Exchange*.

The word *uſury* is uſually taken in an evil ſenſe, that is, for an unlawful profit, which a perſon makes of his money; in which ſenſe it is that uſury is forbidden by the

civil and eccleſiaſtical law, as well as by the law of nature. In this ſenſe it alſo is, that it is held uſury to lend money upon pawns, to exact intereſt for money without ſurrendering the principal, and to ſtipulate intereſt for money which is not employed in trade, nor brings any profit to the perſon who receives it. But as the Latin word *uſura*, at leaſt the plural *uſuræ*, may be underſtood of a lawful intereſt, we do not ſee why uſury may not be uſed in Engliſh in the ſame harmleſs ſenſe. By the antient Roman law, people were allowed to lend out their money at 1 *per cent. per* month, which was 12 *per cent. per annum.* If they received more, they incurred the note of infamy, and the overplus was charged on the principal. This rate of uſury was allowed of as low as the time of Juſtinian, who moderated it a little by the 26th law in the code *de uſuris*; and, not long after, the canon law forbid all uſury whatſoever. In compliance with this prohibition, the cuſtomary laws allow no intereſt to be exacted for money lent on a ſimple obligation; but only by contract, and upon alienating the principal, which the debtor is to reimburſe at pleaſure; being a kind of buying an annuity, or annual revenue. So that, in propriety, unlawful uſury conſiſts, in extorting an exceſſive rate for money, beyond what is preſcribed by law.

By the ſtatute of Charles I. no man is allowed to take above 6 l. for the forbearance of 100 l. for one year, under certain penalties therein enjoined. And by a later ſtatute, of the 12th of Anne, no man may take above 5 l. for the like, and in proportion for any other ſum.

UZIFIR, *Uzufar*, or *Uzifur*, in chemiſtry. A name which ſome authors give to cinnabar. See *Cinnabar*.

W.

WAAG. A river of Hungary, riſing in the Carpathian mountains, on the confines of Poland; and, running firſt from E. to W. turns S. then paſſes by Leopoldſtadt, and falls into the Danube, oppoſite the iſland of Schut.

WAAL. A river of the United Netherlands, being one of the branches of the Rhine, which runs from E. to W. through the Betue, in the province of Guelderland, paſſing by Nimeguen, Tiel, Bommel, and Gorcum; and continuing its courſe eaſtward, unites its waters with the Maes; then paſſing by Dort, falls into the German ſea below the Briel.

WAD. A term among the miners, near Penrith in Cumberland, for the black lead of that country. See Black *Lead.*

WADDING. A thin coarſe woollen manufacture, made to line mens morning gowns, and the plaits of their coats.

WAFER. A thin cake, or paſte dried; generally uſed for ſealing of letters.

WAFT. To waft a ſhip is to convoy her ſafe, as men of war do by merchant-ſhips. See *Convoy.*

It alſo ſignifies a ſignal intended to ſhew that a ſhip is in diſtreſs, by a leak, or the like; and therefore wants help from the ſhore, or from other ſhips.

To make a WAFT, is to hang out ſome coat, ſea-gown, or ſuch like, in the main ſhrouds of the ſhip; as a ſign for the men to come on board.

WAFTERS. Conductors of veſſels at ſea. See *Convoy.*

King Edward IV. inſtituted a triumvirate of officers with naval power, whom the patent ſtiles, cuſtodes, conductores, and waftores. Their buſineſs chiefly was to guard fiſhermen on the coaſts of Norfolk and Suffolk.

WAGE. A weight uſed at Amiens, a town of Picardy in France, where it weighs 165 lb. and makes 134 lb. 3 oz. avoirdupois. See *Weight.*

WAGGON. A kind of vehicle, or carriage, in common uſe.

The larger the wheels of a waggon, and their circumference are, the eaſier is the motion; and the leſs, the heavier, and more jogging they go. The only reaſon the fore-wheels of waggons and coaches are made leſs than the hind wheels, is for the convenieney of turning. The more upright or ſquare the ſpokes of the wheel are from the box, or center, the weaker they are, when they come to bear on either ſide: on which account, as alſo to ſecure a wheel from breaking in a fall, they are made concave or diſhing. See *Carriage.*

WAGGONER, is uſed for a routier, or book of charts, deſcribing the ſeas, and their coaſts. See *Chart.*

WAIGATS, or *Weygats Straits*, are ſituated between Nova Zembla and Ruſſia, in 6 deg. of E. lon. and 70 deg. of N. lat. thro' which the Dutch ſailed to the north as high as 75, to diſcover a north-eaſt paſſage to China and the Eaſt Indies.

WAINSCOT, in building, the timber-work ſerving to line the walls of a room; being uſually in pannels, and painted, to ſerve inſtead of hangings.

According to Neve, wainſcotting with Norway-oak, the workman finding ſtuff, is valued at 6 or 7 s. *per* yard ſquare. Plain ſquare wainſcotting, the workman finding deal, is valued at 3 s. 6 d. *per* yard. Large biſſection wainſcotting, with Dantzick ſtuff, is valued at 6 or 7 s. *per* yard; and ordinary biſſection work, at 3 s. 6 d. *per* yard. In taking dimenſions they uſe a ſtring, which they preſs into all the mouldings; it being a rule that they are to be paid for all where the plane goes.

WAKE *of a ſhip*, is the ſmooth water a-ſtern, when ſhe is under ſail: by which a gueſs may be made of what ſpeed ſhe makes. They alſo judge from this, whether the ſhip goes as ſhe looks; that is, whether ſhe makes her way right a-head, as ſhe lies, as ſhe does when her wake is right a-ſtern; but if this wake is a point or two to leeward, they judge that ſhe falls to the leeward of her courſe. When, in a ſhips ſtaying, ſhe is ſo quick, that ſhe does not fall to leeward upon a tack; but that, when tacked, her wake is to the leeward; they ſay ſhe ſtays to the weather of her wake; which is a ſign, ſhe feels her helm well, and is nimble of ſteerage. Alſo, when one ſhip giving chaſe to another, is got as far into the wind as ſhe, and ſails directly after her; they ſay, ſhe is got into her wake.

WALES-*New*, or *New Wales*, is a name given to the S. W. coaſt of Hudſon's bay, in North America, now poſſeſſed by the Engliſh Hudſon's bay company.

WALES, in a ſhip, are the ribs or bends of planks, that lie ſome beyond others, for the men to clamber up the ſides, by putting their feet thereon.

WALLOON, or *Waloon*. A kind of old French, being the language ſpoke by the Walloons, or the inhabitants of a conſiderable part of the French and Auſtrian low countries, namely, thoſe of Artois, Hainault, Namur, Luxemburg, and part of Flanders and Brabant.

WALNUT. A large nut, whoſe kernel is pleaſant to eat; and the wood of the tree was eſteemed the fineſt in the world for making beautiful cabinets, tables, writing-deſks, and other furniture, before mahogony came in faſhion. See *Mahogony.*

WALRUS, or *Narhval*; called alſo, tho' improperly, *Sea Horſe*. A kind of fiſh frequent in the North ſea, and remarkable for its long horn, which has made it paſs in Europe, in the cabinets of the curious, for the unicorn's horn.

This fiſh, which, next to the whale, is the moſt enormous of the ſpecies, is taken after the ſame manner; but, as the body ſerves neither for food nor oil, the head is cut off as ſoon as the fiſh is caught.

The walrus, then, is only fiſhed for upon account of its horn, and its teeth, which ſerve for the making of all ſorts of work in the manner of ivory; and which are ſold much dearer, not only as they ſurpaſs ivory in whiteneſs; but alſo as the works made from it never yellow, nor redden ſo readily.

The horn of this fiſh is very weighty, being moſt commonly very ſtrait, and ending in a point. It is upwards of 15 feet in length, and turned like a ſnail towards the root, where it is 3 or 4 inches in diameter, diminiſhing to the point.

The larger teeth weigh ſometimes four pounds.

The broken ſcraps of the horn are ſold uſually for that of the unicorn; the ſame virtues againſt poiſons, perhaps with the ſame foundation and ſucceſs, being attributed to them.

Man of WAR. See *Ship* and *Rate.*

WARD. A word uſed in law books, in different ſignifications. Thus, a ward in London is a part of the city, committed to the ſpecial charge of one of the aldermen of the city; where there are 26 wards, which are as hundreds, and the pariſhes thereof as towns.

WARDE. See *Denmark.*

WARDEN, or *Lord Warden of the cinque ports*, is the governor of thoſe noted havens; who has the authority of an admiral, and ſends out writs in his own name. See *Cinque* Ports.

WARDEN *of the mint*, is an officer, whoſe buſineſs is to receive the gold and ſilver bullion brought in by the merchants, to pay them for it, and overſee the other officers. He is alſo called keeper of the exchange and mint. See *Mint.*

WARDHUYS. A port-town of Norwegian Lapland, lying in 28 deg. of E. lon. and 71 deg. of N. lat. 120 miles S. E. of the North cape, on a very ſmall iſland near the continent; ſubject to Denmark.

WARDMOTE, in London. A court ſo called, which is kept in every ward of the city, anſwering to the *curiata comitia* in ancient Rome.

WARE. Any ſort of goods or merchandiſe fit for ſale: alſo a ſtoppage or dam in a river. See *Wear*.

WARIENBURG. See *Denmark*.

WARP, in the manufactures, is the threads, whether of ſilk, wool, linen, hemp, cotton, or the like, that are extended length-wiſe on the weaver's loom; and a-croſs which the workman, by means of his ſhuttle, paſſes the threads of the woof, to form a cloth, ribband, fuſtian, or other matter. For a woollen ſtuff to have the neceſſary qualities, it is required that the threads of the warp be of the ſame kind of wool, and of the ſame fineneſs throughout; that they are ſized with Flanders or parchment ſize, well prepared; and that they are in ſufficient number, with regard to the breadth of the ſtuff to be wrought. See *Cloth* and *Woof*.

To WARP *a ſhip*, is to hale her to a place, when the wind is wanting, by means of a hawſer, a cable, and an anchor fixed thereto.

WARRANT. An act, inſtrument, or obligation, whereby a perſon promiſes another to do ſomething, which he had not otherwiſe a right to do.

WARSAW. The capital city of Poland, ſituated on the river Viſtula, in 21 deg. 5 min. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 15 min. of N. lat. 150 miles N. of Cracow, and 140 S. of Dantzick. See *Poland*.

WARTA. A river of Poland, riſing in the province of little Poland; then paſſing by the city of Poſna, and having entered Brandenburg, falls into the river Oder at Kuſtrin.

WASHING *a ſhip*, in the ſea language, is when all the guns are brought to one ſide; and the men, getting upon the yards, waſh her other ſide, and ſcrape her as far as they can reach.

WASHINGS, or *Waſhes*, among goldſmiths and coiners, are the lotions whereby they recover the particles of gold and ſilver out of the ſweep; that is, aſhes, earths, and ſweepings: which is either performed by ſimply waſhing them again, or by putting them in the waſhing mill.

WASTE. The loſs or ſpoil of goods.

WASTE-*book*. See *Book*-keeping.

WASTE *of a ſhip*, is that part of her between the main-maſt, and the fore-maſt.

WASTE-*boards*. Are boards ſometimes ſet upon the ſide of a boat, or other veſſel, to keep the ſea from breaking in her.

WATCH, at ſea, ſignifies a meaſure, or ſpace of four hours; becauſe half the ſhip's crew watch, and perform duty in their turns during that time. Thus, the ſhip's company is divided into two parts, the larboard-watch, and the ſtar-board watch: the maſter of the ſhip commanding the latter, and the chief mate the former. Sometimes, when a ſhip is in harbour, they watch but a quarter watch, as they call it; that is, but a quarter of the company watch at a time.

The WATCH-*glaſs*, being four hours, is uſed at ſea to ſhift or change their watches. There are alſo half-watch hour-glaſſes; minute and half minute glaſſes; by which laſt they count the knots when they heave the log, in order to find the ſhip's way.

WATCH, is alſo uſed for a ſmall portable movement, or machine, for the meaſuring of time; having its motion regulated by a ſpiral ſpring. See *Watch*-work.

WATCHES, ſtrictly taken, are all ſuch movements as ſhew the parts of time; as clocks are ſuch as publiſh it, by ſtriking on a bell: but commonly, the name watch is appropriated to ſuch as are carried in the pocket; and that of clock to the large movements, whether they ſtrike the hour or not.

Spring, or pendulum WATCHES, ſtand pretty much on the ſame principle with pendulum clocks; whence their denomination. If a pendulum deſcribing little arches of a circle, make vibrations of unequal length in equal times; it is by reaſon it deſcribes the greater with a greater velocity. For the ſame reaſon, a ſpring put in motion, and making greater or leſs vibrations, as it is more or leſs ſtiff, and as it has a greater or leſs degree of motion given it, performs them nearly in equal times. Hence, as the vibration of pendulums had been applied to large clocks, to rectify the inequality of their motions; ſo, to correct the unequal motions of the balance of watches, a ſpring is added; by the iſochroniſm of whoſe vibrations, the correction is to be effected.

The invention of ſpring, or pocket WATCHES, is owing to the felicity of the preſent age. It is true, mention is made of a watch preſented to Charles V. in the hiſtory of that prince: but this, in all probability, was no more than a kind of clock to be ſet upon a table; ſome reſemblance whereof is ſtill remaining in the ancient pieces made before the year 1610.

In effect, it is between Dr. Hooke and Mr. Huygns, that the glory of this excellent invention lies; but to which of them it properly belongs, is greatly diſputed; the Engliſh aſcribing it to the former; the French and Dutch to the latter.

Mr. Derham, in his Artificial Clockmaker, aſſerts that Dr. Hooke was the inventor; and adds that he contrived various ways of regulation; but ſays, that the way that prevailed, and which continues in mode, was with one balance, and one ſpring running the upper part of the verge thereof.

The time of theſe inventions was about the year 1658, as appears, among other evidences, from an inſcription on one of the double balance watches, preſented to King Charles II. namely, Robert Hooke inven. 1658, T. Tompion fecit, 1675. The invention preſently got into reputation, both at home and abroad; and two of them were ſent for by the dauphin of France. Soon after this, Mr. Huygen's watch, with a ſpiral ſpring, got abroad, and made a great noiſe in England, as if the longitude could be found by it. It is certain, however, that his invention was later than the year 1673, when his book de Horol. Oſcillat. was publiſhed; wherein he has not one word of this, tho' he has of ſeveral other contrivances in the ſame way.

M. Savary, pretending to match the French watchmakers with the Engliſh, "aſſerts, that if the Engliſh "are in any condition to diſpute it with them, they owe "it entirely to the great number of French workmen, "who took ſhelter in England upon the revocation of "the edict of Nantz. He adds, that three-fourths of the "watches made in England, are the work of French-"men."

It is unknown from what authorities he ſays this; but it need not be told Engliſhmen that it is falſe; there not being one Frenchman, as we know of, among all our famed watchmakers; nor, in the body of watches, is there one-eighth part French. It is certain the French people prefer Engliſh watches vaſtly to their own; inſomuch, that to have them with the more eaſe, a number of Engliſh workmen were invited over in 1719, and eſtabliſhed with great countenance at Verſailles, under the direction of the famous Mr. Law: but the eſtabliſhment, tho' every thing promiſed well for it, and the French watch and clock-makers ſeemed undone by it, fell to the ground in leſs than a year's time. M. Savary imputes its fall entirely to that ſtrong prejudice of the French people, in behalf of the Engliſh workmen, and to the opinion that the watches did not come from England. The truth is, the workmen ſent over, being moſt of them of looſe characters, grew diſſolute, quarrelled with the prieſts, inſulted the magiſtrates, and were diſmiſſed of neceſſity.

Striking WATCHES, are ſuch, as beſides the proper watch-part, for meaſuring of time, have a clock-part, for ſtriking the hour; which are real clocks, only moved by a ſpring inſtead of a weight; and, properly ſpeaking, they are called pocket-clocks.

Repeating WATCHES, are ſuch as by pulling a ſtring repeat the hour, quarter, or minute, at any time of the day or night.

This repetition, was the invention of Mr. Barlow, and

first put in practice by him, in larger movements, or clocks, about 1676. The contrivance ſet other artiſts to work, who ſoon found various ways of effecting the ſame. But, its application to pocket watches was not known before the reign of king James II. when the ingenious inventor above mentioned, having directed Mr. Thompſon to make a repeating watch, was ſolliciting a patent for the ſame.

The talk of a patent engaged Mr. Quare, to reſume the thoughts of a like contrivance, which he had in view ſome years before. He now effected it: and being preſſed to prevent Mr. Barlow's patent, a watch of each kind was produced before the king and council, upon trial of which, the preference was given to that made by Mr. Quare. The difference between them was, that Mr. Barlow's was made to repeat by puſhing in two pieces on each ſide the watch-box, one of which repeated the hour, and the other the quarter: whereas Mr. Quare's was made to repeat by a pin, which ſtuck out near the pendant; and being thruſt in, as it is now done by thruſting in the pendant itſelf, repeated both the hour and the quarter with the ſame thruſt.

Great quantities of watches are exported to Aſia, particularly to Turky; where they ſerve more for ornaments like pictures in rooms, than for uſe in the pockets.

Watches are not to be exported without being allowed by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms. See *Silver*.

WATCH-*maker*. A perſon whoſe employment conſiſts in watch-making, which is thrown into many branches.

WATCH-*work*, is that part of the movement of a clock, or watch, which is deſigned to meaſure and exhibit the time on the dial-plate; in contradiſtinction to the part that contributes to the ſtriking of the hour, which is called clock-work.

The ſeveral members of the watch-part are, firſt, the balance, conſiſting of the rim, which is its circular part; and the verge, which is its ſpindle; to which belong the two pallets, or leves, that play in the teeth of the crown-wheel. 2. The potance, or pottance, which is the ſtrong ſtud in pocket-watches, whereon the lower pivot of the verge plays, and in the middle of which, one pivot of the balance-wheel plays; the bottom of the potance is called the foot; the middle, the noſe; and the upper part, the ſhoulder. 3. The cock, which is the piece covering the balance. 4. The regulator, or pendulum ſpring, which is the ſmall ſpring in the new pocket-watches, underneath the balance. 5. The pendulum, whoſe parts are, the verge, the pallets, cocks, and the bob. 6. The wheels, which are, the crown-wheel, in pocket pieces, and ſwing-wheel in pendulums, ſerving to drive the balance or pendulum. 7. The contrate-wheel, which is that next the crown-wheel, and whoſe teeth and hoop lie contrary to thoſe of other wheels, whence the name. The great, or firſt wheel, being what the fuſee immediately drives: after which are the ſecond, third, and the reſt of the wheels. Laſtly, between the frame and the dial-plate, is the pinion of report, which is that fixed on the arbor of the great wheel, and ſerves to drive the dial wheel, as that ſerves to carry the hand.

WATER, in geography and hydrography, is a common or general name applied to all liquid tranſparent bodies, gliding or flowing on the earth: in which ſenſe, water and earth are ſaid to conſtitute the terraqueous globe.

Some authors have raſhly and injuriouſly taxed the diſtributions of water and earth in the globe as unartful, and not well proportioned; ſuppoſing that the water takes up too much room.

Sea-WATER, is an aſſemblage of bodies, wherein water can ſcarce be ſaid to have the principal part: it being an univerſal colluvies of all the bodies in nature ſuſtained and kept ſwimming in water, as a vehicle; which is liable to ſeveral periodical changes. See *Ocean* and *Tides*.

High-WATER. }
Low-WATER. } See *Flux*, *Ebb*, and *Tide*.
Ebb-WATER. }

Rain-WATER, is the water of the ſea, purified by a ſort of diſtillation; or, rather, it is the watery vehicle ſeparated from the ſaline, and other matters reſiding therein, by evaporation.

Spring-WATER, is the next in point of purity. This, according to Dr. Halley, is collected from the air itſelf, which, being ſaturated with water, and coming to be condenſed by the evenings cold, is driven againſt the cold tops of the mountains; where being further condenſed and collected, it gleets down, or diſtils, much as in an alembic.

This water, which before floated in the atmoſphere in form of a vapour, being thus brought together, at firſt forms little ſtreams, ſeveral of which meeting together, form rivulets; and theſe, at length rivers.

River-WATER, is eſteemed purer than that of ſprings, on ſome occaſions. If the ſtream deſcending from its ſpring, chance to flow over ſtrata or beds, wherein there are ſalt, ſulphur, vitriol, iron, or the like, it diſſolves and imbibes part thereof: otherwiſe, ſpring water becomes purer and better; for while the river drives on its water in an uninterrupted ſtream, all its ſalts, with the vegetable and animal matter, from exhalations, or from the ground it waſhes, either gradually ſink to the bottom, or are driven on the ſhore: and, hence, the ancient poets and painters repreſent the deities of ſprings and rivers, as combing and carding their waters.

With regard to the qualities of water, it is further diſtinguiſhed into ſalt-water and freſh-water.

Salt-WATER. See *Salt*, and *Sea* water.

Freſh-WATER. It is generally granted, that thoſe waters are the beſt, both for wholſomeneſs, and for various other œconomical uſes, that are freeſt from ſaltneſs; which, in moſt caſes, is a hurtful quality in waters.

Uſes of WATER. The uſes of water are infinite, in food, in medicine, in agriculture, in navigation, and in many arts.

WATER-*mill*. See *Mill*.

WATER-*ſpout*. See *Spout*.

WATER, in natural hiſtory, is diſtinguiſhed into pure, called alſo elemental, mineral, and artificial, or factitious.

As to the pure, it has been already obſerved, that there is, perhaps, none abſolutely ſo; all water containing more or leſs particles, ſuch as thoſe in terreſtrial bodies, though not earthy particles, but oils, ſalts, and the like.

Mineral-WATERS, are thoſe which contain many particles of different nature from water, deriving from thence ſome particular quality, which is not in common water: or mineral waters are thoſe which have contracted ſome virtue extraordinary, by paſſing thro' beds of minerals, as alum, vitriol, ſulphur, and the like; or by receiving the fumes thereof.

The kinds of mineral waters are various, as are the kinds of compoſitions of the minerals with which they are impregnated.

Some are ſimple, as only containing mineral particles of one ſort; others mixed, of two, three, four, or more ſorts. Hence, there are, 1. Metallic waters in different parts; golden, ſilver, copper, tin, and iron waters. 2. Saline waters, as nitrous, aluminous, vitriolate, and thoſe of common ſalt. 3. Bituminous, ſulphurous, antimonial, carbonaceous, and amber-waters. 4. Earthy, and ſtony waters, as lime, chalk, oker, cinnabar, marble, and alabaſter waters: to which ſome add mercurial waters.

This diviſion of mineral waters is taken from their eſſences; that is, from the mineral particles they contain: but the moſt uſual, and moſt celebrated diviſion, is borrowed from the manner wherein they affect our ſenſes; with regard to which, there are ſeveral kinds; namely, the acid, bitter, hot, cold, oily and fat, poiſonous, coloured, boiling, petrifying, incruſtating, and ſaline.

Acid-WATERS, ariſe from the admixture of vitriol, nitre, alum, and ſalt. Theſe are cold, and very frequent; there being reckoned no leſs than 1000 in Germany alone: ſome of which are ſaid to be as ſour as vinegar, and uſed inſtead thereof; others vinous, ſerving for wine; and others aſtringent.

Hot WATERS, ariſe from the admixture of ſulphurous particles and fumes: of theſe, the hotteſt is that in Japan, which, it is ſaid, no fire can bring water to equal; and which keeps its heat thrice as long as our boiled water.

Oily and Fat WATERS, ariſe from a bituminous and ſulphurous matter; ſuch as amber, petroleum, pitch, and naphtha.

Bitter WATERS, are produced from an impure ſulphur, bitumen, nitre, and copper: ſuch is the lake Aſphaltites.

Very cold WATERS, have their riſe from a mixture of nitre and alum; or of mercury and iron: the depth of the ſource of the ſpring alſo, has in this caſe ſome effect.

WATERS, in medicine, pharmacy, and chemiſtry, are a kind of liquors procured or prepared by art from divers bodies, principally of the vegetable tribe; having various properties, and ſerving various purpoſes. Theſe waters are either ſimple or compound.

Simple WATERS, are thoſe procured from ſome one vegetable body. The vegetable ſubjects beſt fitted for diſtillation, are the ſapid and odorous; or thoſe of the aromatic tribe, as angelica, aniſeed, baum, carraway, coriander, cumin, dittany, fennel, hyſſop, marjoram, mint, roſes, roſemary, ſage, ſcurvy-graſs, thyme, cinnamon, citron, juniper, lime, myrtle, orange, peach, and ſuch like.

The ſimple waters of chief virtue in medicine are; dill-water, aqua anethi; baum-water, aqua meliſſæ; angelica-water, aqua angelicæ; mint-water, aqua menthæ; roſemary-water, aqua anthos; orange-flower-water, aqua naphæ; black-cherry-water, aqua ceraſor. nig. parſly-water, aqua petroſelini; camomile, chamom. penny-royal, pulegii; fennel-water, aqua fæniculi; damaſk-roſe-water, aqua roſarum dam; hyſſop-water, aqua hyſſopi; rue-water, aqua rutæ; juniper-water, aqua juniperi bacc. elder-water, aqua ſambuci flor. lovage-water, aqua leviſtici; and carminative-water, aqua carminativa.

Compound WATERS, or thoſe wherein ſeveral ingredients are uſed, are very numerous, and make a large article in commerce; ſome of which are prepared by the apothecaries, according to the diſpenſatory preſcripts for medicinal uſes; others by the diſtillers to be drank by way of dram; and others by the perfumers. They are diſtinguiſhed by different epithets, taken from the Latin, Greek, Arabic, and Engliſh languages; in reſpect either of the ſpecific virtues of the waters, or the parts of the body, for the cure whereof they are intended; or the diſeaſes they are good againſt; or the ingredients they are compounded of; or their different uſes. The moſt conſiderable among this claſs, have been endeavoured to be enumerated as follows: but the manner of making them is not always the ſame, eſpecially thoſe intended for drinking, for which every one follows his own method: however, thoſe delivered here, were taken from ſuch as have the greateſt reputation in preparing things of this nature, or from thoſe who have wrote the beſt concerning them. There are only three general remarks to add, with regard to thoſe intended for drinking. Firſt, that ſuch wherein any thing is infuſed, as bruiſed fruits, pounded herbs, or ground ſpices, are always paſſed thro' a ſtrainer, to make them finer and purer. 2. That thoſe made with brandy, or ſpirit of wine, are uſually diſtilled after mixing their ingredients, which renders thoſe liquors exceedingly ſtrong and dangerous. In effect, ſome of them are ſo penetrating that they burn the tongue when taken. 3. That the waters which take their name from any particular thing, as cinnamon, citron, or the like, have always ſome other ingredients joined with them, according to the taſte or ſmell required.

Alexipharmic, or *Alexiterial* WATERS, are waters that reſiſt poiſon or the plague; ſuch are thoſe of angelica, ſcorzonera, citron, orange, ſcordium, and rue. Such alſo are treacle water, plague-water, milk-water, poppy water, and others.

Alum-WATER, is a vulnerary water, thus called, becauſe the baſis, or principal ingredient thereof is alum.

Angelica-WATER, is uſually prepared of brandy, angelica roots and ſeeds, carduus, baum, and fennel-ſeeds: the whole, beat together in a mortar, infuſed for a night in French brandy, and then diſtilled, is reputed a good carminative, cordial, and cephalic.

Aromatic-WATERS, are already ſpoke of among the ſimple waters.

Arthritic-WATERS, are waters good againſt the gout, palſy, tremors, pains in the joints, and the like. Such are thoſe of piony, chamæpitys, betony, and roſemary.

Bryony-WATER, is one of the compound waters, preſcribed in the college diſpenſatory; prepared from bryony-roots, rue, mugwort, ſavin, feverfew, dittany, and other herbs: it is a very good hyſteric, and opens menſtrual obſtructions.

Carduus WATER, is made from carduus benedictus pounded in a mortar, and put in an alembic. This water is ſudorific, being good againſt the plague, and malignant fevers.

WATER *of ſeparation and depart*, is only aqua fortis; thus called, becauſe ſerving to ſeparate gold from ſilver. It is alſo called *cauſtic water*, being prepared of a mixture of ſpirit of nitre and vitriol, drawn by force of fire; to which are ſometimes added alum. It diſſolves all metals, gold only excepted.

Cephalic WATERS, are waters proper to ſtrengthen or comfort the brain; ſuch are thoſe of roſemary, baum, ſage, marjoram, and betony.

Chalybeat-WATER, is that wherein hot ſteel has been quenched, which is aſtringent, and good for diarrhœas.

Cinnamon-WATER. In a quart of water, boil an ounce of broken cinnamon; take it off the fire, and add a quarter of a pound of ſugar; then let it cool and ſtrain it. Or thus; take a pound of cinnamon, three pounds of roſe-water, and as much white-wine: bruiſe the cinnamon, infuſe it 14 days, and then diſtil it. The firſt water that riſes is the beſt; then the ſecond, and then the third.

Clary-WATER, is compoſed of brandy, ſugar, and cinnamon, with a little ambergreaſe diſſolved in it. This helps digeſtion, and is cardiac; it may be rendered either purgative or emetic, by adding reſins of jallop and ſcammony, or crocus metallorum. Some make clary-water of brandy, juice of cherries, ſtrawberries, and gooſeberries, ſugar, cloves, white-pepper, and coriander-ſeeds; infuſed and ſtrained.

Clove-WATER, is prepared of brandy, and cloves bruiſed therein and diſtilled.

Cordial, or *Cardiac*-WATERS, are waters proper to ſtrengthen and comfort the heart. Such are thoſe of endive, chicory, bugloſe, burrage, and marygolds.

Coſmetic-WATERS, are waters proper to cleanſe, ſmooth, and beautify the ſkin.

Gentian-WATER, is frequently uſed as a ſtomachic, and alſo commended for a detergent; ſerving in dropſies, the jaundice, and obſtructions of the viſcera.

Gum-WATER, is that made by letting gum-arabic, incloſed in a linen bag infuſe in common water. The ladies alſo make water to gum their hair, of quince kernels ſteeped in water.

Hepatic-WATERS, are thoſe uſed to cleanſe, ſtrengthen, and refreſh the liver. Such are thoſe of chicory, capillaries, purſlain, agrimony, and fumitory.

Honey-WATER, is a water prepared in places where much honey is made, by waſhing out the honey-combs, and the veſſels they have been in, with common water; which gives it a honey taſte, and afterwards, becoming clear, people uſe it as their common drink.

Horſe-radiſh-WATER, is prepared of the juices of ſcurvy-graſs, brook lime, water-creſſes, white-wine, lemon-juice, bryony-root, horſe-radiſh, winter's bark, and nutmeg, digeſted and diſtilled. It is a good diuretic; cleanſing and removing obſtructions of the viſcera, and promoting perſpiration.

Hungary-WATER, is a liquor diſtilled in balneo mariæ, from roſemary-flowers, and ſpirit of wine well rectified. It has its name from the wonderful effects it is ſaid to have had on a queen of Hungary at the age of 72 years; being good againſt faintings, palſies, lethargies, apoplexies, and hyſterical diſeaſes: but there are ſeveral ways of preparing it.

Hyſteric-WATERS, are thoſe proper to ſtrengthen the matrix, or the womb, and remedy the diſorders that befal it. Such are thoſe of bryony, matricary, or motherwort, hyſſop, fennel, mugwort, baum, and ſmallage.

Iced, or *Frozen*-WATERS, are certain agreeable and wholſome waters, as orange-water, or the like, artificially froze in ſummer-time, particularly in hot countries, to be uſed in collations, as coolers.

Imperial-WATER, is a water diſtilled from cinnamon, nutmeg, citron-bark, cloves, calamus aromaticus, ſantal, and

and many other ſimples, infuſed in white-wine, and baum-water. This is a pleaſant cordial dram; being good againſt diſeaſes of the brain, ſtomach, and womb.

Juniper-WATER, is a compound water, made of brandy and juniper-berries beaten therein, and diſtilled.

Lime-WATER, is common water, wherein quick-lime has been ſlaked, and then filtered.

Milk-WATER, is prepared of mint, wormwood, carduus benedictus, goat's rue, and meadow-ſweet, bruiſed, infuſed in milk, and drawn off by infuſion; being held alexipharmic and cephalic.

Aqua Mirabilis, or the *wonderful* WATER, is prepared of cloves, galangals, cubebs, mace, cardomums, nutmeg, ginger, and ſpirit of wine, digeſted 24 hours, and then diſtilled; being a good carminative, and an agreeable cordial.

Nephritic-WATERS, are ſuch as ſtrengthen the reins, and help them to diſcharge by urine any impurities therein. Such are thoſe of honey-ſuckle, pellitory, radiſh, beans, mallows, and the like.

Ophthalmick, or *Eye*-WATERS, are thoſe which are good in diſorders of the eyes; as thoſe of eye-bright, vervain, fennel, plantain, celandine, and cyanus.

Plague-WATER, is prepared from the roots of angelica, maſterwort, pyony, and butter-bur; viper-graſs, water-germander, virginia ſnake-root, rue, roſemary, baum, carduus, marigold, dragon, goat's rue, and mint; the whole infuſed in ſpirit of wine, and diſtilled.

It is of frequent uſe as an alexipharmic; revives the ſpirits, and promotes a diaphoreſis; being the baſis of moſt juleps now preſcribed, eſpecially in feveriſh caſes.

Poppy-WATER, is prepared from the flowers of wild poppies, infuſed in white-wine, or brandy, and drawn off in a cold ſtill. It is a cordial, good againſt the colic, and by ſome called red plague water.

Pyony-WATER, is made of pyony, lime flowers, and lilly of the valley, ſteeped in canary and diſtilled.

Roſe-WATER, is compounded of roſes three parts, and of fennel and rue each one part; being excellent for the eyes.

Scordium-WATER, is prepared from the juices of goat's-rue, ſorrel, ſcordium, and citron, with a little Venice treacle, digeſted and diſtilled; being an alexipharmic.

Specific-WATERS, are ſuch as have ſome peculiar virtue, appropriate to certain diſeaſes. Thus, purſlain-water, wherein mercury has been infuſed, is a ſpecific againſt worms in young children.

Splenetic-WATERS, are thoſe proper againſt diſeaſes of the ſpleen; which are thoſe of tamariſk, cuſcuta, hart's-tongue, and hops.

Stephen's-WATER, is made from cinnamon, ginger, galangals, cloves, nutmegs, paradiſe-grains, aniſeeds, ſweet fennel, carraway, thyme, mint, ſage, penny-royal, pellitory, roſemary, red roſes, camomile, origany, and lavender, ſteeped in French brandy, or ſpirit of wine, and diſtilled; being a good cephalic and cardiac, and alſo reputed hyſterical.

Stomachic-WATERS, are ſuch as have the virtue to cleanſe, ſtrengthen, and confirm the ſtomach.

Styptic-WATERS, whoſe uſe is to ſtop bleeding.

Surfeit-WATER, is a water diſtilled from poppies, and other herbs, proper to cure indigeſtions.

Treacle-WATER, is directed by the college diſpenſatory to be made of green walnuts, rue, carduus, marigold, baum, butter-bur-roots, burdock, angelica, maſter-wort, water-germander, Venice-treacle, mithridate, canary-vinegar, and lemon-juice, ſteeped and diſtilled. This water is the moſt uſed of any in the ſhops; notwithſtanding Dr. Quincy decries it, as of all the worſt concerted. It is an alexipharmic and ſudorific. Other diſpenſatories give a more ſimple treacle-water, made from Venice-treacle, with an equal quantity of brandy and vinegar; which is good for ulcers, and eroſions of the mouth; eſpecially if a little Armenian bole is diſſolved therein. See *Theriaca*.

Vulnerary-WATER, is a water proper for healing of wounds, prepared from the juice of vulnerary plants.

WATER, among jewellers, is properly the colour or luſtre of diamonds and pearls; thus called, becauſe theſe were anciently ſuppoſed to be formed, or concreted of water. Thus, they ſay ſuch a pearl is of a fine water; or, the water of ſuch a diamond is muddy. The term is ſometimes alſo uſed, tho' leſs properly, for the colour or hue of other precious ſtones.

WATER-*bailiff*, is an officer anciently eſtabliſhed in all port-towns, for the ſearching of ſhips; as appears from the 28th of Henry IV. There is ſuch an officer ſtill ſubſiſting in the city of London, who ſuperviſes and ſearches all fiſh brought thither; and gathers the toll ariſing from the river Thames: he attends alſo on the Lord Mayor in his expeditions by water, and has the principal care of marſhalling the gueſts at the table. He alſo arreſts men for debt, or other perſonal or criminal matters on the river Thames, by warrant from his ſuperiors.

WATER-*born*, in the ſea-language. A ſhip is ſaid to be water-born, when ſhe lies where there is no more water than will barely keep her from the ground; or when, lying even with the ground, ſhe firſt begins to float or ſwim.

WATER-*camblets*. See *Camblet*.

WATER-*colours*, in painting, are ſuch colours as are only diluted, and mixed up with gum-water; in contradiſtinction to oil colours.

The uſe of water-colours, makes what is called limning; as that of oil-colours does painting, properly ſo called.

Cut-WATER. See *Cut*-water.

Dead-WATER, in the ſea-language, is the eddy-water that follows the ſtern of the ſhip, not paſſing away ſo faſt as that which ſlides by her ſides.

WATERFORD. A city and port-town in Ireland, ſituated on the river Sure, 8 miles N. of the ſea, and 25 miles S. of Kilkenny, in 7 deg. of W. lon. and 52 deg. 12 min. of N. lat. being one of the largeſt cities of the kingdom, and has a good foreign trade. See *Ireland*.

WATER-*gang*. A channel cut to drain a place, by carrying off a ſtream of water.

WATER-*gilding*. See *Gilding*.

WATER-*line*, of a ſhip, is a line which diſtinguiſhes that part of her under water, from that above, when ſhe is duly laden.

WATER-*man*. A perſon who plies at the ſides of rivers, particularly near the river Thames, to carry perſons going by water, to places by them appointed, for pay, in boats or wherries.

WATERMENS *company of London*. The wherrymen and lightermen of this city, and neighbouring parts, were, by an act of parliament of the 11th and 12th of William III. in 1700 and 1701, conſtituted a ſociety, or company, to be under the direction of the court of Lord Mayor and Aldermen of London, who were thereby empowered yearly to appoint eight perſons, of the beſt ſort of watermen, and three perſons out of twelve to be yearly appointed by the lightermen; which eleven perſons were to be ſtiled, "The overſeers and rulers of all the wherrymen, watermen, and lightermen, that ſhould uſe, occupy, or exerciſe any rowing upon the river of Thames, between Graveſend and Windſor, who ſhould keep good orders and obedience among the ſaid watermen and lightermen."

And by the ſaid act, the rulers and aſſiſtants of the company were likewiſe enabled yearly, in the month of June, to appoint and direct the watermen of the principal towns, ſtairs, and plying-places, between Graveſend and Windſor, to chuſe a free waterman, being a houſeholder, for each of the ſaid places, to be of their aſſiſtants, ſo that they did not exceed the number of 60, nor be leſs than 40; to whom ſhould be added 9 lightermen; who together ſhould compoſe the number of aſſiſtants of the ſaid company.

And by the ſaid act, the ſaid overſeers and rulers were impowered to appoint any number of watermen, not exceeding 40, to ply and work on Sundays between Vauxhall and Limehouſe, at ſuch ſtairs, and plying places, being 17 in number, beſides the two at Weſtminſter, as they ſhould judge convenient for carrying paſſengers acroſs the river Thames for one penny each: that the money ariſing thereby, amounting in the whole to upwards of 1450 l. *per annum*, including that of Weſtminſter

minſter, ſhould, by each of the working watermen, be paid every Monday to the order of the ſaid rulers; who, after having paid the ſaid watermen their proper wages, ſhould apply the ſurplus to the uſe of the poor of the company. And that every perſon employed in the Sunday's work, that ſhould neglect to pay in the money ſo earned by him, ſhould, for every ſuch offence, forfeit and pay the ſum of 40 s.

The watermen of the city of Weſtminſter, being exempt from the immediate direction of the company of watermen in this affair, annually appoint their own watermen, to ply and work on Sundays, for carrying paſſengers acroſs the river Thames, from and to Weſtminſter-bridge and Stangate, and the horſe-ferry at Lambeth; which money, ſo earned, is applied to the uſe of the poor watermen, or their widows, of the pariſh of St. Margaret in the ſaid city.

It is alſo declared by the ſaid act, that if the Lord High Admiral, or commiſſioners of the admiralty, ſhould at any time give notice to the company of watermen, that there is occaſion for a certain number of the ſaid company to ſerve on board the royal navy; then all ſuch perſons as ſhould be duly ſummoned for that purpoſe, that ſhould not appear before the overſeers and rulers aforeſaid, ſhould not only ſuffer impriſonment for one month, but likewiſe be rendered incapable of enjoying any privilege belonging to the company for two years.

By the conſtitutions of this company, all boats and barges belonging to the ſeveral members thereof, are obliged to be numbered and entered into the company's regiſter. The number of the former amount to about 6000, and of the latter to between 7 and 800. But as many watermen keep a plurality of boats, to let to their poor brethren, all of the ſame number, the number total employed upon the river Thames cannot be aſcertained, tho' it is very probable, they amount to above 1000 more than are regiſtered, which makes the whole about 7000; and the barges of the ſame number, being much more numerous than thoſe of the wherries, amount to upwards of 1700.

The wherries and boats are employed in carrying the citizens to and from the ſeveral parts of the city and ſuburbs; therefore, to prevent their being impoſed upon by the watermen in any ſort, their boats, as already mentioned, are not only numbered; but the rates and prices are fixed, as they were appointed by the Lord Mayor and court of Aldermen of the city of London, which are to be taken by the reſpective watermen, rowing upon the river Thames between Graveſend and Windſor.

WATER-*meaſure*. Salt, ſea-coal, and other merchandiſe, while aboard veſſels in the pool, are meaſured with the corn-buſhel heaped up; or elſe five ſtriked pecks are allowed to the buſhel; which is called water-meaſure, and exceeds Wincheſter meaſure by about 3 gallons in a buſhel. See *Chaldron*, and *Meaſure*.

WATER-*ſhot*, in the ſea language, a ſort of riding at anchor, when a ſhip is moored neither croſs the tide, nor right up and down, but quartering betwixt both.

WATER-*way*, in a ſhip, is a ſmall ledge of timber, lying fore and aft on the deck, cloſe by her ſides, to keep the water from running down there.

WATER-*work companies of London*. In the year 1236, the merchants of Amiens, Nele, and Corby, gave to the mayor and citizens of London the ſum of 100 l. for certain privileges to them before granted, towards the bringing of water to the city from Tyburn; which the citizens were impowered to do, by virtue of a grant from Gilbert de Sandford, to the mayor and commonalty of the city; and which the citizens at this time began to put in execution; by bringing water from 6 fountains, or wells, in that neighbourhood, through a leaden pipe of 6 inches bore, to the city: to which chargeable undertaking many of the citizens contributed very largely.

In the year 1439, the abbot of Weſtminſter granted to Robert Large, the mayor, and citizens of London, and their ſucceſſors, one head of water containing 26 perches in length, and one in breadth, together with all its ſprings, in the manor of Paddington: in conſideration of which grant, the city was for ever to pay to the ſaid abbot and his ſucceſſors, at the feaſt of St. Peter, two pepper corns: but, if the intended work ſhould happen to draw the water from the ancient wells in the manor of Hida, then the aforeſaid grant ſhould ceaſe, and become entirely void. Henry VI. not only confirmed this grant to the mayor and citizens; but likewiſe, by a writ of privy ſeal, granted them a power to purchaſe 200 fodders of lead, for the intended works of pipes and conduits, and to impreſs plumbers and labourers, for carrying on the ſame; always provided, that their wages ſhould be punctually paid.

In the year 1535, two fifteenths were granted by the common council of the city for defraying the expence of bringing water from Hackney to Aldgate, where a convenient conduit was erected for it on the ſouth-ſide the ſtreet, juſt without the gate, which proved very uſeful to the inhabitants in the eaſtern parts of the city.

But, notwithſtanding the great expence the citizens of London had been at, to bring water to, and erect conduits in the city, it was now found by experience, that there was not near a ſufficient quantity to ſupply the common demands; therefore, upon application to parliament, an act was paſſed, whereby the mayor and citizens were impowered to bring water to the city from Hamſtead-heath, St. Mary-le-bon, Hackney, and Muſwell-hill, upon their indemnifying the owners of all lands.

The New-river company. Various were the projects in the reigns of Queen Elizabeth and King James I. for ſupplying the city of London with a ſufficient quantity of water, for domeſtic uſes: but all remained unattempted, till Sir Hugh Middleton, citizen and goldſmith of London, who had conſiderably enriched himſelf by a copper or ſilver mine in Cardiganſhire, propoſed to the Lord Mayor, and commonalty, to undertake the ſame on his own account, to be begun within the term of two months, and by his beſt endeavours finiſhed in four years.

Some time after, thoſe that ſhared in the New River water, being 29 in number, were incorporated by letters-patent of the 21ſt of June 1619; and tho' King James was a proprietor of one half of the whole work, Middleton, to prevent the direction of the affairs from falling into the hands of courtiers, precluded him from having any ſhare in the management thereof; only allowing him a perſon to be preſent at the ſeveral courts and meetings of the company, to prevent injuſtice to his royal principal.

Sir Hugh Middleton afterwards became in poſſeſſion of the royal moiety; when he divided the ſame into 36 ſhares, anſwerable to thoſe of the other half, called the adventurers, which he not only diſcretionally burdened with the aforeſaid fee farm rent of 500 pounds *per annum*, but he likewiſe ſubjected two of the adventurers ſhares for the payment of the ſaid annuity.

The ſhares belonging to this company being 72 in number, one half thereof are denominated the *Adventurers*, and the other the King's. The proprietors of the former, as above mentioned, being originally 29 in number, the government of the company's affairs was lodged in their hands: but many of the adventurers ſhares being, by alienation, divided into fractional parts, the Lord Chancellor Cowper, in 1711, decreed in favour of their ſeveral proprietors, that the poſſeſſors of two or more fractional parts of a ſhare, may jointly depute a perſon to repreſent them in the government of the company. Whereupon every perſon ſo deputed, becomes capable of being elected one of the 29 repreſentatives of the whole, who are entruſted with the direction of the companies affairs as aforeſaid.

As, by what has been ſaid, it appears, that the holders of the King's ſhares are precluded the government of the company, their ſhares excluſive of their being burdened with the aforeſaid annuity, are not quite ſo valuable as thoſe adventurers, which at preſent are worth 5000 guineas, or 5250 l. each.

By an exact menſuration of the courſe of the New River, taken by Henry Mill, ſurveyor to the company in 1723, it appeared to be 38 miles, three quarters, and 16 poles in length.

Over this river are 43 ſluices, and 215 bridges. It is carried over two vales in wooden frames lined with lead;

that at Bushill being 660 feet in length, and 30 in height; and the other at Highbury 462 feet in length, and 17 in height. In the neighbourhood of Islington it is ingulphed by 58 main pipes of a bore of 7 inches; whereby it is conveyed to the city, and suburbs of London, and is taken in to upwards of 30,000 houses.

This corporation consists of a governor, deputy-governor, treasurer, and 26 directors. The officers and servants belonging to the company, besides the above mentioned, are a clerk and his assistant, a surveyor and his deputy, 14 collectors, who after deducting 5 *per cent.* for collecting the companies rents, pay their money every Thursday to the treasurer; 14 walksmen, who have their several walks along the river, to prevent throwing in filth or infectious matter; 16 turn-cocks, 12 paviours, and 20 borers of pipes; besides horse engines for boring of others, together with a great number of inferior servants and labourers.

London-bridge WATER-*works*. This scheme being approved of, the Lord Mayor and common-council, as an encouragement of the ingenious engineer to proceed in so useful an undertaking, granted him the use of one of the arches of London-bridge to place his engine in, for the better working thereof: but, one machine not proving sufficient for raising the quantity of water required, his successors have been allowed two other arches, wherein to erect more engines, which now are five in number; and from which run 8 main pipes of a 7 inch bore, to supply a great part of the city with water.

Hamstead-WATER-*works*. To this office, which is kept in Denmark-street, St. Giles's, belong two main pipes of a 7 inch bore, which bring water into the ponds of Highgate and Hampstead to supply the neighbourhood.

Merchants-WATER-*works*. There are three engines belonging to this office for raising water: first, a windmill in Tottenham-court-road fields, and two others, wrought by the common shewer at Tom's coffee-house in St. Martin's, and Hart's-lanes in the Strand; whence issue 3 main pipes of 6 and 7 inch bores, whereby those neighbourhoods are supplied with water. This company, like others, after the defraying all charges, divide the profit half yearly.

Shadwell-WATER-*works*. This office is kept in Shadwell, and its engine is wrought by horses, who supply 2 main pipes of a 6 and 7 inch bore with Thames water, wherewith that neighbourhood is plentifully furnished.

Rotherhithe-WATER-*works*. This office is kept at the upper end of Rotherhithe-wall, and lower end of Mill-street, where the water-engine belonging to the same is wrought by water from the river Thames, which being brought in by the tide, is contained in canals in the streets adjacent. By this engine a sufficient quantity of water is raised to supply two main pipes of a 6 inch bore each, whereby the neighbourhood is plentifully supplied with Thames water.

York-buildings-WATER-*works*. This company was incorporated by act of parliament, in 1691, for raising Thames water in York-buildings, to supply that neighbourhood. But the directors of the same, by purchasing estates, erecting new water-works, and other pernicious projects, have almost ruined the corporation. However, their chargeable engine for raising water by fire, being laid aside, they continue to work that of horses, which together with their estates in England and Scotland may in time restore the company's affairs.

Chelsea-WATER-*works*. This society was incorporated by act of parliament, in the year 1722, by the name of The governor and company of Chelsea water-works; by which name they are to have perpetual succession, and a common seal; with a power to purchase in mortmain, lands and tenements to the amount of 1000 l. a year, with a right to alienate and dispose of the same, as they should see convenient. By virtue of this act of incorporation, they made canals and basons, erected dams and mills for raising water to supply the city of Westminster and parts contiguous, and divided the works into 2000 shares, which are under the management of a governor, deputy, and 13 directors.

WATERING, in the manufactures. To water a stuff, is to give it a lustre, by wetting it lightly, and then passing it through the press, or the calender, whether hot or cold. See *Calender*, *Tabby*, and *Pressing*.

WAVE, in physicks, a cavity in the surface of the water, or other fluid, with an elevation on the side. The origin of waves may be thus conceived. The surface of a standing water being naturally plain, and parallel to the horizon; if by any means it is rendered hollow, its cavity will be surrounded with an elevation; this raised water will descend by its gravity; and, with the celerity acquired in descending, form a new cavity, while there is a new elevation; and, when this last is depressed, the water rises anew towards the same part. Thus arises a successive motion in the surface of the water, and a cavity; which cavity, with the elevation next to it, is called a wave; and the space taken up by the wave on the surface of the water, and measured according to the direction of the wave's motion, is called the breadth of the wave.

WAVE-*camblets*. See *Camblet*.

To WAVE, is used in the sea-language, for the making signs for a vessel to come near, or keep off. See *Signal*.

WAVESON, in the admiralty law. A term used for such goods as, after shipwreck, appear swimming upon the waves. See *Flotson*.

WAX. A yellowish matter, of which the bees form cells to receive their honey. See *Honey*.

WAX, is not the excrement of this laborious insect, as the ancients, and after them, many of the moderns imagined; but is properly a juice, exuding out of the leaves of plants, and adhering to the surface thereof; from which it is scraped off by the bees, with their rough thighs, to build their combs. It is chiefly afforded by lavender and rosemary; from which last any person may gather wax; and, with the assistance of the microscope, the wax may be plainly seen sticking on the leaves of the plant: so that wax is not an animal, but a vegetable substance.

Wax makes a very considerable article in commerce; the consumption thereof, throughout the several parts of Europe, being incredible. There are two kinds, white and yellow: the yellow is the native wax, just as it comes out of the hive, after expressing the honey: the white is the same wax, only purified, washed, and exposed to the air. The preparation of each is as follows.

Yellow-WAX. To procure the wax from the combs for use: after separating the honey from them, they put all the matter remaining into a large kettle, with a sufficient quantity of water, where, with a moderate fire, they melt it, and then strain it thro' a linen cloth, by a press: before it is cold they scum it with a tile, or piece of wet wood, and cast it, while yet warm, in wooden, earthen, or metalline moulds; having first anointed them with honey, oil, or water, to prevent sticking. Some purify it with Roman vitriol, or copperas; but the true secret is to melt, and scum it properly without any ingredient at all. The best is that of a high colour, an agreeable smell, brittle, and that does not stick to the teeth when chewed. It is often sophisticated with rosin, or pitch, coloured with rocou, or turmeric. By chemistry, wax yields a white thick oil, resembling butter; whence the chemists call it butter of wax. From this oil is drawn a second, as clear as water: both the one and the other being excellent for chilbains. The fæces remaining in the bag after expressing the wax, is used by surgeons and farriers with success against strains.

White-WAX. The whitening or blanching of wax is performed by reducing the yellow sort, first into little bits, or grains, by melting and throwing it, when hot, into cold water, or else by spreading it into very thin leaves, or skins. This wax, thus granulated or flatted, is exposed to the air on linen cloths; where it rests night and day, having equally need of sun, and dew. Then they melt and granulate it over several times, still laying it out to the air, in the intervals, between the melting. When the sun and dew have at length perfectly blanched it, they melt it for the last time, in a large kettle; out of which, they cast it, with a ladle, upon a table covered over with little round dents or cavities, of a form of the cakes of white wax sold by the apothecaries; having first wet those moulds

moulds with cold water, that the wax may be the eaſier got out. Laſtly, they lay out theſe cakes to the air for two days and two nights, to render it drier and more tranſparent. This wax is uſed in the making of torches, tapers, flambeaux, figures, and other wax-works. It is alſo an ingredient in plaiſters, cerats, and divers pomatums; likewiſe in unguents for the complexion.

Yellow wax is made ſoft with turpentine; yet retains its natural colour. Red wax is only the white melted with turpentine, and reddened with vermillion, or orcanette. Verdegreaſe makes it green; and burnt paper, or lamp-black, make it black. Some travellers tell us of a natural black wax; aſſuring us there are bees, both in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, that make an excellent honey included in black ſhells; of which wax the Indians make thoſe little vaſes, wherein they gather their balſam of Tolu.

Virgin-WAX, is a ſort of reddiſh wax, uſed by the bees to ſtop up the clefts or holes of the hive. It is applied juſt as taken out of the hive, without any art or preparation of boiling; which is the moſt tenacious of any, and eſteemed good for the nerves.

Several ſorts of wax are ſold at Amſterdam, valued according to the places they are brought from. Yellow Poliſh wax coſts uſually about 6 s. ſterling the 100 lb. and the deduction for prompt payment is one *per cent.*

The price of Ruſſia wax is much the ſame.

The conſumption of wax is very great in Spain, and the Weſt Indies; ſo that, as moſt part of it comes from abroad, foreigners drain the Spaniards of conſiderable ſums by means of this commodity.

The Spaniards conſider white wax as a manufacture, and as ſuch they ſhould diſcourage its importation by advanced duties; as the king of France did, at the ſame time he gave leave to export it free.

By the ſtatute of the 23d of Elizabeth it was enacted, That every perſon who ſhould, in the making and melting of wax, uſe any deceit, by mingling the ſame with roſin, tallow, turpentine, or other deceitful thing, to ſell the ſame, or offer the ſame to be ſold for wax, ſhould forfeit the corrupted wax; and if the ſame was ſold before ſuch fault was found, the melter or procurer thereof ſhould forfeit for every pound 2 s.

Sealing-WAX, or *Spaniſh Wax*, is a compoſition of gum-lacca, melted and prepared with roſin and chalk, and coloured red with ground cinnabar. See *Lacca*.

WAX-*Candles*. See *Candle*.

WAX-*Chandlers*. Tradeſmen who make candles of bees wax.

WAX-*chandlers company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the firſt of Richard III. dated the 16th of February 1483, by the appellation of The maſter, wardens, and commonalty of the art or myſtery of wax-chandlers of London; who are governed by a maſter, two wardens, and 20 aſſiſtants, with 113 liverymen; whoſe fine of admiſſion is 5 l. and they have a handſome hall in Maiden-lane where they manage their affairs.

WAY *of a ſhip*, is ſometimes uſed for the ſame with the rake, or run of her, forward and aftward on: but the term is more commonly underſtood in reſpect of her ſailing. When ſhe goes apace, they ſay ſhe has a good way; and they call the account how faſt ſhe ſails by the log, keeping an account of her way; but, becauſe moſt ſhips are apt to fall a little to the leeward of their true courſe; they always, in caſting up the log-board, allow ſomething for her leeward way; which is one point or more according to her way of ſailing.

Gang-WAY. See *Gang* way.

Hatch-WAY. See *Hatch* way.

WAYWODE, is properly a title given the governors of the chief places in the dominions of the Czar of Muſcovy.

The palatines, or governors of provinces in Poland, alſo bear the quality of waywodes, or waiwodes.

The Poles likewiſe call the princes of Walachia and Molvia waywodes; as eſteeming them no other, than on the foot of governors; pretending that Walachia and Moldavia are provinces of Poland, which have withdrawn themſelves from the allegiance of the republic.

Du Cange ſays, that the name waywode is uſed in Dalmatia, Croatia, and Hungary, for a general of an army; and Leunclavius, in his pandects of Tartary, tells us, it uſually ſignifies captain, or commander.

WEALD, or *Weld*. The woody part of a country, as the weald of Kent: which, miſprinted in ſome books and maps, is called the Wilds of Kent, Suſſex, and Surry.

WEANEL. A country word, for a young beaſt newly weaned, or taken from ſucking its dam.

WEAR, or *Weer*. A great ſtank, or dam in a river, fitted for the taking of fiſh, or for conveying the ſtream to the mill.

WEATHER-*glaſſes*. Are inſtruments contrived to indicate the ſtate or diſpoſition of the atmoſphere, as to heat, cold, gravity, and moiſture; to meaſure the changes befalling in thoſe reſpects; and by ſuch means to predict the alteration of weather, as rain, winds, and ſnow. Under the claſs of weather-glaſſes, are comprehended barometers, thermometers, hygrometers, manometers, anemometers; of each whereof there are various kinds.

WEATHER-*board*, in the ſea-language, that ſide of a ſhip which is to the windward.

WEATHER-*gage*, at ſea. A ſhip is ſaid to have the weather-gage of another, when ſhe is to windward of her.

WEATHERING. A doubling, or ſailing by a point or place: and to weather a ſhip is to get to the windward of her.

WEAVER. An artificer whoſe employment is weaving. See *Weaving*.

WEAVERS *company of London*, which was denominated Telarii, ſeems to be the moſt ancient guild of this city; for it appears, that in the reign of Henry I. they paid an annual rent of 16 l. for their immunities. Their privileges were confirmed at Winchester, by letters-patent of Henry II. ſtill in the company's poſſeſſion, but without date, wherein the annual ſum payable to the crown is fixed to two marks of gold, to be paid yearly at Michaelmas, upon a penalty of 10 l.

This company originally conſiſted of the cloth and tapeſtry weavers, who appear to be a very turbulent and litigious people; inſomuch, that the mayor and citizens of London, to quit themſelves of thoſe troubleſome gueſts, offered King John the ſum of 60 marks, as a full ſatisfaction for the annual ſum of 12 l. which he received of them, to diſſolve their ſociety; which in ſome meaſure ſhews the exceſſive intereſt of money, and ſmall value of land at that time. However, tho' the money offered had not the deſired effect; yet it ſo intimidated the weavers, that they became ſo jealous of the mayor and citizens, as to remove their charter from the city to the Exchequer, where they depoſited the ſame for ſecurity: and though the king would not aboliſh the company, he took the advantage of raiſing their rent from 12 l. to 20 marks *per annum*.

The company, perceiving they were not a match for the mayor and citizens, began to vent their ſpleen upon the linen weavers, whom they intended intirely to ſuppreſs: but how the conteſt te minated is not mentioned, no more than whether the charter granted them by Henry II. was the firſt, or only a renewal of former privileges. Be that as it will, they were, by act of parliament of the 7th of Henry IV. put under the government and correction of the court of Lord Mayor and Aldermen of the city of London.

They conſiſt of 2 bailiffs, 2 wardens, and 16 aſſiſtants, with a livery of 279 members; whoſe fine on admiſſion is 6 l. and they have a handſome hall in Baſinghall-ſtreet, where they manage their buſineſs.

WEAVING. The art, or act of working a web of cloth, ſilk, linen, or other ſtuff, on a loom, with a ſhuttle.

It is difficult to ſay, with any aſſurance, who it is we owe this admirable invention to; unleſs we chuſe to aſcribe it to the ſpider, that ingenious little inſect, which draws certain infinitely fine threads, from its own ſubſtance, thro' papillæ near its anus.

WEAVING *of cloth*. See *Cloth*.

WEAVING *of Tapeſtry*. See *Tapeſtry*.

Stocking-WEAVING. See *Stocking*.

WEB. A ſort of tiſſue, or texture, formed of threads interwoven

terwoven with each other; ſome of which are extended in length, and called the warp; and others drawn acroſs them, called the woof.

WEED. A common name for all rank and wild herbs that grow of themſelves, to the detriment of other uſeful herbs they grow among.

Dyers-WEED, or *Wood-wax*. See *Dying*.

Fullers-WEED. See *Thiſtle*.

WEED, in the miners language, denotes the degeneracy of a load, or vein of fine metal, into a uſeleſs marcaſite.

WEEK, or *Wyck*. A borough and port-town of Scotland, in the ſhire of Cathneſs, ſituated on the German ſea, 20 miles S. of Dungſbyhead, in 2 deg. of W. lon. and 48 deg. 40 min. of N. lat.

WEEN, or *Huen*. A little iſland in the Sound, lying in 13 deg. 15 min. of E. lon. and 55 deg. 49 min. of N. lat. being the entrance to the Baltic ſea, ſituated 16 miles N. of Copenhagen, and ſubject to Denmark.

WEFT. A kind of web, or thing woven: as a weft, or treſs of hair.

WEIGH, *Way*, or *Wey*. A weight of cheeſe, wool, or the like, containing 256 pounds avoirdupois. Of corn, the weigh contains 40 buſhels; of barley, or malt, 6 quarters. In ſome places, particularly in Eſſex, the weigh of cheeſe is 300 pounds. See *Meaſure*, and *Weight*.

WEIGHER. An officer in ſeveral cities, appointed to weigh the commodities bought or ſold, in a public balance. Theſe weighers are generally obliged by oath, to do juſtice to both parties; and to keep a regiſter of the things they weigh. In Amſterdam there are twelve weighers, eſtabliſhed into a kind of office. As it was formerly allowed them to touch the ſtrings of the balance of weighing, it was eaſy for them to favour either the buyer or ſeller, according as the one gave them more money than the other. To prevent which abuſe, it was charged on them, by an ordinance of the burgo-maſters in 1719, not to touch the balance in any manner whatever.

WEIGHING. The act of examining a body in the balance to find its weight. The diſtillers in London weigh their veſſels when full, and for half a hogſhead, which is 31 gallons and a half, allow two hundreds, one quarter, and eleven pounds, for the caſk and liquor: for a puncheon, they allow ſix hundred, one quarter, and two pounds: for a canary pipe eight hundred, a half, and ſeventeen pounds.

WEIGHING-*anchor*, in the ſea-language, is the drawing up the anchor out of the ground it had been caſt into; in order to ſet ſail, or quit a port, road, or the like. The anchor is ordinarily weighed or recovered, by means of the capſtan, and ſometimes by a windlaſs.

WEIGHT, in commerce, denotes a body of a known weight, appointed to be put in the balance againſt other bodies whoſe weight is required. Theſe weights are uſually of lead, iron, or braſs; tho', in many parts of the Eaſt Indies, they are common flints, and in ſome places a ſort of little beans. The ſecurity of commerce depending in a good meaſure on the juſtneſs of theſe weights, there is ſcarce any nation but has taken proper means to prevent the falſification thereof. The ſureſt way is the ſtamping or marking them by proper officers, from ſome original or ſtandard, depoſited where recourſe may be had to them. This expedient is very ancient, and many authors are of opinion, that, what among the Jews was called ſhekel of the ſanctuary, was not any particular kind of weight, different from the common one; but a ſtandard or original weight, preſerved by the prieſts in the ſanctuary. Thus alſo, in England, the ſtandard of weights is kept in the exchequer, by a particular officer called the clerk, or comptroller of the market. In France, the ſtandard weight is kept under ſeveral keys, in the cabinet of the Cour des Monnoyes.

Moſt nations wherein there is any thing of commerce flouriſhing, have their particular weights; and even ſometimes different weights, in the different provinces, and for the different kinds of commodities. This diverſity of weights makes one of the moſt perplexing articles in commerce; but it is irremediable. The reducing the weights of different nations to one, is not only impracticable, but even the reduction of thoſe of the ſame nation: witneſs thoſe vain attempts made for reducing the weights in France, by ſo many of their kings as Charlemaign, Philip the long, Louis XI. Francis I. Henry II. Charles IX. Henry III. and Louis XIV. Weights may be diſtinguiſhed into ancient and modern, foreign and domeſtic. Modern weights uſed in ſeveral parts of Europe, and the Levant.

Engliſh-WEIGHTS. By the 27th chapter of Magna Charta, the weights are to be the ſame all over England; and the people having been grievouſly impoſed upon by falſe weights and meaſures in moſt parts of the kingdom; for the redreſſing thereof, the parliament in 1496 enacted, that the knights, citizens, barons of the cinque ports, and burgeſſes in parliament, ſhould receive proper ſetts of the ſundry ſorts of weights and meaſures, the king had ordered to be made in braſs, according to the original ſtandards in the exchequer, to be depoſited in ſuch places as were mentioned in the ſaid act, where they were to remain as perpetual patterns for the inhabitants of the ſeveral counties, cities, and towns, to make their reſpective weights and meaſures by, for the eaſe and ſafety of the ſubjects in all parts of the kingdom. Nevertheleſs, there are ſor different commodities, two different ſorts, namely, troy weight, and avoirdupois weight: the origin from which they are both raiſed, being the grain of wheat gathered in the middle of the ear. See *Meaſure*.

The troy weight contains 24 grains to a penny weight, 20 dwts. to an ounce, and 12 ounces to a pound; being uſed only in weighing bread, gold, ſilver, and by the apothecaries in their medicines. 8 lb. troy is a gallon, 16 lb. a peck, and 64 lb. a buſhel; whereby weight and meaſure are reduced into one another.

Wet meaſure is alſo derived from this pound troy, both on land and on ſhipboard, as alſo grain and corn; for firſt, theſe 12 ounces, made into a concave meaſure, is named a pint, 8 of theſe pints make a gallon, containing 231 cubical inches, of wine, brandy, cyder, &c. according to the ſtandard of the exchequer. From hence is alſo drawn the aſſize meaſure of all vendible caſks: a hogſhead is to contain 63 gallons, a tierce 42 gallons, a pipe 126 gallons, and a ton 252 gallons, which weighs 1890 lb. avoirdupois, or 2016 lb. troy.

The refiners weights are ſtill a part of the troy, the leaſt of which is the blank; whereof 24 make a periot, 20 periots make a mite, 20 mites a grain, &c. and what they call caracts, are the $\frac{1}{24}$ part of a pound, an ounce, or any other weight.

The jewellers weights, made uſe of in weighing of jewels and other precious ſtones, are the parts of an ounce troy; which they divide into 152 parts, called caracts; and theſe caracts are again divided into grains, or $\frac{1}{4}$, and into $\frac{1}{8}$, $\frac{1}{16}$, $\frac{1}{32}$, $\frac{1}{64}$, &c. parts.

Table of Troy weight as uſed by the Goldſmiths.

Grains.				
24	Dwt.			
480	20	Oz.		
5760	240	12	lb.	

Apothecaries.

Grains.				
20	Scruple.			
60	3	Drachm.		
480	24	8	Ounce.	
5760	288	96	12	lb.

The Engliſh weights of Gold and Silver compared with thoſe of other countries.

	Grains.
An Engliſh lb. troy weight of gold and ſilver contains - - - - -	5760
The ounce - - - -	480
The Roman pound contains of the ſaid weight -	5256

The

WEI

	Grains.
The Roman ounce - - -	438
The Paris pound, or ſtandard for gold and ſilver, contains - - -	7560
The Paris ounce - -	472½
The Spaniſh pound, or ſtandard for ditto at Gibraltar - - -	7090
The Spaniſh ounce - -	443½
Ditto pound of Vitalpondus, contains	7035
The Venetian pound, or ſtandard -	5528
The Venetian ounce - -	460⅔
The pound or ſtandard of Naples -	4950
The Neapolitan ounce -	412½
The Florence, Piſa, and Leghorn pound or ſtandard - - -	5286
The ounce - - -	440½
The pound, or ſtandard at Sienna -	5178
The ounce - - -	431⅓
The ounce of Genoa for gold and ſilver -	405½
The oak of Conſtantinople, conſiſting of 400 ſilver drams - - -	19,128
The ſilver dram generally uſed in the Turks dominions, as alſo in Perſia, and in the Mogul's countries, is taken to be - -	47$\frac{42}{50}$
The Turkiſh ſultani, or Egyptian xeriff, being a gold coin, with which the Barbary and Venetian chequeens, and Marienberg ducat very near agree - - -	53½
The rotulo of 144 drams at Cairo for gold and and ſilver, weighs - -	6886⅔
Ditto of Damaſcus of 720 drams	3443⅓

In avoirdupois weight 16 drams is one ounce, 16 ounces is one lb. and 28 lb. make a quarter of a hundred weight, or 112 lb. and 20 hundred weight, or 2240 lb. weight avoirdupois is a ton weight. This weight is in uſe for weighing all groſs goods, ſuch as ſugars, hemp, flax, butter, cheeſe, &c. of which there are three quintals.

1. Of 100 lb. by which ſugars, &c. are bought and ſold in the Engliſh ſettlements in America.
2. Of 112 lb. by which all groſs goods are weighed throughout England.
3. Of 120 lb. called the ſtannary hundred, by which tin, &c. is weighed.

Wool is commonly bought by the tod: 7 lb. avoirdupois makes a clove, 14 lb. a ſtone, 28 lb. a tod, 182 lb. a wey, 364 lb. a ſack, 436 lb. a laſt; that is, 2 cloves is 1 ſtone, 2 ſtone is one tod, 6½ tod one wey, 2 weys one ſack, and 12 ſacks is a laſt. But when it is ſtapled or ſorted, it is ſold by the pack containing 6 ſcore, or 120 lb.

Lead is ſold by the fodder, and a load is 175 lb.

A fodder at London weighs 19½ C. wt.
at Newcaſtle 21 -
at Stockholm - 22 - } 112 lb. to the C.
at Hull - 19½ C. ſtannery weight of 120 lb. to the C.

From this lb. avoirdupois of 16 ounces, there are formed ſeveral other weights: a ſtone of 7 lb. 8 lb. 10 lb. 14 lb. 16 lb. 20 lb. and ſometimes a clove of 7 lb. 8 lb. and 10 lb. and ſometimes a tod of 20 lb. 28 lb. 32 lb. &c.

Raw ſilk from Perſia and Turkey is ſold by this lb. but a lb. is accounted 24 ounces, or 1½ lb. Of gun-powder, 100 lb. avoirdupois is a barrel, and 24 barrels a laſt.

Cheeſe and butter from Eſſex are weighed by the clove, or ½ ſtone, 8 lb. a clove, 2 clove, or 16 lb. a ſtone; 16 ſtone, or 32 clove, or 256 lb. a wey: but in Suffolk they allow 42 clove, or 336 lb. to the wey.

A firkin of butter ſhould weigh 56 lb. and a firkin of ſoap 60 lb. 4 firkins of either making a barrel.

Biſhop Cumberland ſays, that the Engliſh avoirdupois ounce, is the ſame as the Roman ounce, and was probably introduced into this kingdom by the Romans, when they gave laws and planted colonies here, and hath thence continued unchanged to this day; which is not commonly obſerved, becauſe we uſe the avoirdupois weights only about heavier commodities; not in weighing ſilver and gold, which are weighed by the troy ounce; which the biſhop ſuppoſes was introduced by the Normans, becauſe it takes its name from a French town, Troys in Champagne.

Flanders.

Antwerp. Their common weight is a quintal, or 100 lb. and they reckon 16 ounces to the pound; and 100 lb. of their weight has been found to make 103½ lb. avoirdupois in London, 94⅘ in Amſterdam, 110 in Lions, 96½ in Hamburgh, 99½ in Leipſick, and 137½ in Leghorn. But their weights for their monies, gold and ſilver, are reckoned as follow; 32 grains is one penny weight; 20 denier-weights, or penny-weights, is 1 ounce; and 8 ounces make 1 mark or pound; and 100 lb. troy weight of London makes about 112 of thoſe marks.

Holland.

Twenty four grains is one dram; 3 drams, or 72 grains, is a groſs; 30 grains is one engel; 10 engels, or 4 groſs and 2 grains, is one loot; 16 loots, or 8 ounces, is one mark; 2 marks is one pound; 8 pounds is one ſtone; 165 lb. is one waggon, or wage; 400 pound is one load; 15 lb. is one liſpond; and 20 liſponds is one ſchippond. Thirty-two aces is an engel; 20 engels is one ounce; and 8 ounces is a mark. The above weights are uſed among them in weighing groſs gold; but in weighing or fining of gold, 24 parts are reckoned to a grain, 12 grains to a caract, and 24 caracts to a mark; the mark weights being about 1 *per cent.* lighter than the troy weight of London. Salt is ſold in Amſterdam by a great hundred of 404 ſcheppels, which is reckoned 7 laſts, or 14 ton, or 28,000 lb. weight; which is alſo counted 208 ſacks; and is ſold by the pound Flemiſh; 11½ laſts of Amſterdam making about the great hundred in the iſle of Rhe in France.

Geneva.

100 lb. of Geneva makes 112½ lb. in Amſterdam, 128 lb. in Marſeilles, 123 lb. in London, 114½ lb. in Hamburg, and 130 lb. in Lions.

Germany.

Hamburgh. 2 loodt is 1 ounce, 16 ounces is 1 pound, 10 lb. is a ſtone of wool or feathers, 14 lb. is a liſpound, 20 lb. is a ſtone of flax, 8 liſpounds is 1 centner, and makes about 120 lb. avoirdupois in London; 16 lb. is a liſpound, 20 liſpounds is a ſchippound of feathers or wool, and 16 liſpounds is a tun of butter or tallow.

100 lb. of Hamburgh makes 98 lb. in Amſterdam, 103½ lb. in Antwerp, and 107¼ lb. in London.

Franckfort. 100 lb. in Frankfort makes in Hamburgh 104 lb. in Amſterdam 102 lb. in Lions 108 lb. in London 112 lb. and in Leipſick 107 lb.

Nuremburg. 100 lb. makes 107 lb. in Hamburgh. Their weights for gold and ſilver are reckoned as follows; 4 feſtercias is one penny, or numile; 4 numiles is one quint; 4 quints is one loat; and 16 loats, or loots, is one mark; 116 marks making 100 lb. troy weight of London.

Vienna. Their weight is a pound, which in ſome commodities is divided into 32 loots; and in others, into 28 pints. Their 100 lb. makes in London about 123 lb.

Leipſick. 100 lb. weight of Leipſick makes 95 lb. in Amſterdam, 110½ lb. in Lions, 104 lb. in London, 96 lb. in Hamburgh, 93 lb. in Frankfort, and 138 lb. in Leghorn.

Breſlaw. 100 lb. of their weight makes 100 lb. in Hamburgh.

Bremen. The Bremen weight is about 3 *per cent.* lighter than that of Amſterdam; ſo that 100 lb. in Amſterdam makes 103 lb. in Bremen, and 100 lb. of Bremen 97 lb. of Amſterdam.

Denmark and Norway.

10 lb. is a ſtone, and 12 ſtone is a canter, or 120 lb. 32 ſtone, or 320 lb. is a ſhippound: and 100 lb. in London makes in theſe countries about 92 lb.

Poland, Pruſſia, and Dantzick.

The common weight of Poland is the pound, of which 136 lb. is a quintar, and makes in London about 114 lb.

Pruſſia. Their weights for fine goods are of the ſmall ſtone of 24 lb.; 16 lb. is a liſpound, and 20 liſpounds is a ſhippond of 320 lb. But their groſs or bulky goods are weighed by the ſtone of 34 lb. 10 whereof go to a ſhippond of 340 lb. and 116 lb. of their weight makes about 100 lb. in London.

Dantzick. 34 lb. is a ſtone, 10 ſtone a ſhippond, and 6

ſhippond, or 60 ſtone, is a laſt of hemp, flax, and ſuch light goods; which makes in London about 17 C. and 7 lb. avoirdupois, and 100 lb. Dantzick wt. makes 90 lb. in Hamburgh. But for pot-aſhes the laſtage is reckoned double; as 12 ſhipponds of pot-aſhes take up no more room in a ſhip than 6 ſhipponds of hemp or flax.

There is likewiſe uſed in Dantzick a weight called a ſmall ſtone, for pepper, ſpices, grocery, and ſome other commodities; which ſmall ſtone weighs but 24 lb. Dantzick-weight.

Tin is ſold here by the the centner of 120 lb. which makes in London about 112 lb.

The hundred of Brouage ſalt in France renders here 11½ or 12 laſts; and 7⅛ or 7½ of theſe laſts make the great hundred in Amſterdam.

Strangers may ſell ſalt to the inhabitants, but they are not ſuffered to ſell to any elſe; nor will they permit ſtrangers to tranſport it through their town, to ſell to the other people in the country in any other place.

Oaken planks, wainſcot, and pipe-wood, are all ſold by the ſhock.

Clap boards, and fat-wood, are ſold by the great hundred, which is 48 ſhocks.

Koninſburg. 40 lb. is a ſtone, 10 ſtone is a ſhippond, and 6 ſhippond or 60 ſtone is a laſt for hemp, flax, and ſuch light goods; making in London ſomewhat above 18 C. wt.

Tin is ſold by the centner of 128 lb. which makes in London 112 lb.

The hundred of Brouage ſalt in France makes 10 laſts of this place; but ſtrangers are not allowed here to keep ſalt in ſtorehouſes for ſale.

Sweden.

20 lb. is a liſpound, 20 liſpound is a ſhippond, and 7½ ſhippond is reckoned to make about one tun, or 20 C. wt. avoirdupois in London.

6 Shippond is a laſt of flax, hemp, cordage, and tallow.

1 center of gun-powder is 120 lb.

Ruſſia.

Riga. 20 pounds is a liſpound, and 20 liſpounds is a ſhippond; ſo that a ſhippond is 400 lb. in Riga, and 6 ſhipponds is a laſt, making in London about nineteen hundred and a half.

Revel. 20 lb. is a liſpound, 20 liſpounds is a ſhippond, and 6 ſhippond is a laſt, making about 20 C. wt. 4 lb. in London.

Narva. Their weights; 20 lb. is a liſpound, 20 liſpound is a ſhippond, and 6 ſhippond is a laſt, which makes in London about 21 C. 3 quarters, 24 lb. avoirdupois. Their weights are reckoned heavier than thoſe of Revel about 9 *per cent.*

In *Peterſburgh*, *Moſcow*, and other parts of Ruſſia, their weights are zollotnicks, pounds, poods, and barquits: 96 zollotnicks make their pound, which is equal to 13 oz. 3 dwts. 6 grains troy weight; 40 pounds is one pood; 10 pood is a barquit; and a pood of 40 lb. Ruſſia weight will render in England 35½ or 36 lb. avoirdupois.

Portugal.

Their weights are but of one ſort, and they are divided as follows: 2 drams is one octavo, 8 octavos is one oz. 16 ounces is one arrata or pound; 32 pound is an arob, or rove; and 4 roves is a quintal, or 128 lb. They alſo divide the ounce into penny-weights and grains; being the ſame parts the ounce troy is divided into at London.

The above weights are between 3 and 4 *per cent* heavier than the London avoirdupois.

Spain.

Their weights for grocery, &c. are as follow: 2 ſemi-drams is one dram, 8 drams is one ounce, 8 ounces is one mark, 2 marks is one pound, 25 pounds is one arobe, and 4 arobes is one quintal; being between 3 and 4 *per cent.* heavier than London avoirdupois weight.

Their weight for gold and ſilver in duſt, or in bars, in the Indies are theſe: one tomine is worth 2 rials, and the tomine weighs 16 grains; a caſtillian is 16 tomines, 4 grains; 6 caſtillians and 2 tomines make one ounce mark weight; and the piaſtre ſhould weigh one ounce.

Their common weights for gold are reckoned 12 grains to a tomine, 8 tomines to one caſtillian, 6¼ caſtillians to one ounce, and 8 ounces to one mark.

Their ſilver weights are 75 grains to one dram, 8 drams is an ounce, and 8 ounces is a mark.

Caſtile. They reckon 28 grains to a dram, 16 drams to an ounce, 16 ounces to the pound, 25 lb. to a rove, and 4 roves to a kintal, which is about 103½ lb. in London.

Granada. Their common weight is the kintal of 4 roves of 25 lb. to a rove, and makes in London about 96 lb.

Valencia. Their weights are the rove, kintal, and cargo; 24 lb. being a rove, 4 roves a kintal, and 2½ kintals a cargo. The kintal of 96 pounds, of 18 ounces to the pound, makes in London about 108 lb. avoirdupois.

All pepper and valuable commodities are ſold by the kintal of 120 lb. which is accounted about 18 or 20 *per cent.* leſs than 112 lb. avoirdupois.

Biſcany. They have 2 ſorts of kintals; the one is 100 lb. and makes in London about 111 lb. avoirdupois; the other is for iron, and makes 128 lb. avoirdupois.

Catalonia. Their weight is a kintal of 100 lb. 3 of which is a cargo.

Wool is ſold by the rove of 30 lb. and 100 lb. of London makes about 92 lb. here.

France.

Paris. Two ſeconds is one prime, 2 primes is one grain, 24 grains is one penny weight, 3 penny weights is one dram, 8 drams is one ounce, 8 ounces is one mark, 2 marks is one pound, 100 lb. is one quintal, and 10 quintals is one millier; 112 lb. avoirdupois in London being a little more than 100½ lb. of Paris; and the weights of Paris are 1⅓ *per cent.* heavier than thoſe of Amſterdam; or 100 lb. of Amſterdam weighs 98⅔ lb. of Paris, and 100 lb. of Paris weighs 101⅓ lb. of Amſterdam.

The muid of *Orleans* ought to weigh 600 lb. and is compoſed of 12 mines, equal to 2½ ſextiers of Paris, or 5 buſhels of Bourdeaux.

The ſextier of *Arles* weighs only 93 lb. mark weight, and the load 360 lb. of that country.

The load of *Beaucaire* is 2 *per cent.* greater than that of Arles.

The load of St. *Giles*'s is 18 or 20 *per cent.* greater than that of Arles.

The load of *Tarſcon* is 2 *per cent.* leſs than that of Arles.

The ton of *Auray* in Britany is reckoned 2200 lb. of Audierne 2300 lb. of Breſt 2240 lb. and of port Lewis the ſame.

At Nantz it is compoſed of 10 ſextiers, and the ſextier of 10 buſhels; the meaſure being heaped, it weighs between 2200 lb. and 2250 lb.; but when it is ſtriked, it weighs 18 or 20 *per cent.* leſs.

Tholouſe. Brandy is ſold here by the quintal, or 100 lb. weight, with the caſk.

Bourdeaux. Their weights agree within a trifle with thoſe of Amſterdam; and 92 lb. of this place make about 100 lb. avoirdupois in London.

Rochelle and *Cogniac.* Their weight is the quintal of 100 lb. which makes in London about 109½ lb. avoirdupois.

Lyons. Their weights are of two ſorts; the city weight, which weighs 14 ounces of the pound de marc, for common uſe; and the other of 15 ounces for ſilk. 100 lb. ſilk weight makes 108 of their city weight, and 100 lb. of the city weight is about 94 lb. avoirdupois in London.

Roan. They have two ſorts of weight; pounds de vicompt, and pounds of mark. 108 lb. vicompt weight makes 100 lb. of mark weight, or 110 lb. of Paris weight. This laſt is only to be underſtood in the weighing of wool, or elſe 100 lb. mark weight weighs but 104 lb. vicompt weight; and they weigh with no leſs than the 52, 26, and 13 lb. of the vicompt weights, all leſſer quantities are weighed by the mark-weight: 100 lb. vicompt is about 113¾ lb. avoirdupois in London.

Toloun, and *Provence.* Their weight is the quintal of 100 lb. of 16 ounces, and 3 quintals is a cargo: 100 lb. avoirdupois of London makes 113 lb. of their weight.

Marſeilles. In their weights they reckon 16 ounces to the lb. and it has been found that 113 lb. Marſeilles weight makes in London 100 lb. avoirdupois.

Calais. They have three ſorts of weights.

The firſt is the town weight, 100 lb. of which makes about 92 lb. in London.

The

The ſecond is called the merchants weight, of which 100 lb. makes 113 lb. in London.
The third is called the Engliſh wool weight, and is about 3 *per cent.* lighter than the town weight.

Of the French weights in general.

The pound of mark is well known to the goldſmiths in France, it being uſed in weighing gold, ſilver, and other fine goods. The pound of table is uſed in weighing of groſs goods, and is found to differ in ſeveral parts in France from the mark weight, 18, 20, or 25 *per cent.* or it is ſo much lighter than a pound of mark, eſpecially in Provence, and in upper or lower Languedoc; for 16 ounces of the pound de table, makes but 14 ounces of the pounds of mark: and the Marſeilles weight is lighter than thoſe of Rochelle, between 23 and 25 *per cent.*
What they call a quintal in France muſt be underſtood the hundred weight of 104 lb. the half 52, the quarter 26, and the half quarter 13 lb. In ſome places a difference is made between 100 lb. weight and a quintal; therefore the buyer and ſeller muſt explain themſelves upon this head in making of bargains. At Roan they have another ſort of weight, called the pounds de vicompt, or vicount; and 100 lb. of this vicount is reckoned to make about 108 lb. or 110 lb. mark, or Paris weight, eſpecially in weighing of wool; but in weighing other things this 100 lb. is reckoned 104 lb. mark weight; they have no leſs weight of the vicompt weight than 13 lb. ſo that all goods, weighing under that weight, are weighed by the mark weight. They have another ſort of weight uſed in France, called the Roman or ſtatera weight; uſed moſtly in Languedoc, which is much the ſame for weight as the table weight.

Italy.

Milan. Their weight is a quintal of 100 lb. of 12 ounces to the lb. and 100 lb. avoirdupois in London has been found to weigh 137 lb. of their weight.

Genoa. 12 ounces is a pound, 18 ounces a rottello, 25 lb. a rove, and 6 roves a quintal.
100 lb. of Genoa makes in Holland $66\frac{2}{3}$ lb. in Lyons $77\frac{1}{4}$ lb. in London 73 lb. in Hamburgh 68 lb. in Frankfort $64\frac{1}{2}$ lb. in Leipſick 70 lb. in Leghorn $96\frac{3}{4}$ lb. and in Venice $110\frac{3}{4}$ lb.
The Genoa weights for gold are reckoned thus: 24 grains to a denier, 24 deniers to an ounce, 8 ounces to a mark, of which 130 make about 100 lb. troy weight.
And 100 lb. troy weight is equal to $86\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of their weight for ſilver, wherein they reckon 12 ounces to the pound.

Venice. Their weights are diſtinguiſhed in groſs and ſuttle weights.
Their groſs quintal, by which they weigh braſs, metal, feathers, and other lumbering commodities, is 100 lb. groſs.
The other, by which they weigh ſilk, ſpices, and drugs, is 100 lb. ſuttle.
Now 100 lb. groſs weight makes 158 lb. ſuttle weight, or 106 lb. in London avoirdupois.
And 100 lb. ſuttle weight makes about $63\frac{2}{7}$ lb. of their groſs weight, or about $65\frac{3}{4}$ lb. in London.
And 100 lb. ſuttle of Venice has been found to make about $61\frac{3}{4}$ lb. in Hamburgh, $65\frac{3}{4}$ lb. in London, 60 lb. in Amſterdam, and 59 lb. in Frankfort.
Their gold and ſilver weights are as follow; 4 grains is one caract, 9 carats, or ſaliques, is one quarta, 4 quartas one ounce, and 8 ounces is one mark. 100 lb. troy weight has been found to make about $116\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of the above marks; and the ſame in Verona.

Bologna. Their weights are 12 ounces to a pound, and 100 lb. to the quintal, which makes in London about 80 lb. after which rate an ordinary bale of Bologna ſilk, which weighs of their weight 270 lb. makes in London about 216 lb. avoirdupois.

Florence. Their weight is the quintal, or 100 lb. of 12 ounces, which makes in London about 72 lb. avoirdupois.
The following weights are for gold and ſilver; 24 grains is one denier, 3 deniers is one groſs, 8 groſſes one ounce, 8 ounces is one mark, and $158\frac{1}{2}$ marks is about 100 lb. troy weight.
Wrought ſilks are ſold by weight, and not by meaſure: ſalt is ſold by the ſtaro of 72 lb.
Corn or grain is ſold by the moggio, of 24 ſtaros of 50 lb. each.

Leghorn. Their weights are the ſame as they have at Florence; but they have 4 ſorts of quintals.
A quintal for common uſe is 100 lb. for allom 150 lb. for ſugar 151 lb. for fiſh 160 lb. and the quintal for wool is the ſame.
And 100 lb. of Leghorn has been found to make $75\frac{1}{2}$ lb. in London, $85\frac{1}{4}$ lb. in Marſeilles, 69 lb. in Amſterdam, $70\frac{1}{2}$ lb. in Hamburgh, and $72\frac{1}{2}$ lb. in Leipſick.

Ferrara. Their weight is the quintal of 100 lb. which makes in London about 75 lb.

Ancona. Their weight is a quintal of 100 lb. and makes in London about 73 lb.

Mantua. Their weight is a quintal of 100 lb. which makes about 72 lb. in London.

Modena. Their quintal is 100 lb. and makes in London about 72 lb.

Naples. Their weight is the pound of 12 ounces, and makes about $10\frac{1}{3}$ ounces avoirdupois; ſo that 100 lb. of their weight is about 64 lb. 10 oz. in London.
In their weights for gold and ſilver, they reckon 8 octaves to an ounce, and 12 ounces to a lb. $86\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of which make about 100 lb. troy in London.

Sicily. 12 ounces is a lb. $2\frac{1}{2}$ lb. a rotello, and 100 rotellos the common canter, which is about 176 lb. avoirdupois in London.

Turky.

Four grains is one quirat, 16 quirats is a dram, 12 drams is an ounce, 12 ounces is a rota, 150 rotas is a canter, 400 drams is one oak, 176 drams is one loderas, and 100 loderas is 44 oaks, which is called a quintal or cantar, and makes about 120 lb. in London.
Their weights for coins is a medical, or dram, of 24 killets; and 20 medicas of gold is 3 ounces troy weight.
Silk is ſold by the batman, containing 6 oaks; if the batman be weighed by the lodera, it will weigh 13 lodera and 112 drams.

Aleppo. The weights of this place are the rotulos and the drams; but their rotulo differs in drams according to the commodities.
The common rotulo is 4 lb. 13 ounces, or 720 drams.
The rotulo for Perſian and Legee ſilks is 680 drams, or $72\frac{3}{4}$ ounces.
The ſame for Belladine ſilk is 720 drams, or $74\frac{1}{4}$ ounces; and for Tripoli ſilk the rota is the ſame.
The ſame for Caſtravan ſilk is 600 drams, or 4 lb. Engliſh.
The Aleppo wells is 120 drams, or 13 Engliſh ounces.
The cotton Cyprus kental of 100 rotulo's is 506 lb. Engliſh.
The oak contains 400 drams.
A weſno of ſilver is 100 drams; and there is another weſno of 3600 drams. They reckon 60 drams to an ounce, and 10 ounces to a rotello, which is about 4 lb. 14 oz. avoirdupois weight; ſo that 112 lb. is 22 rotellos and 8 ounces, and 100 rotellos is a cantar or kental, and makes 418 lb. avoirdupois.
Gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones, are ſold by the mitigal, which is $1\frac{1}{2}$ dram; a dram is 60 caracts, and a caract is 4 grains.

Smyrna. At this place a rotello is 180 drams, and 100 rotellos is a kintal of 45 oaks, or 119 lb. avoirdupois in London; 44 oaks is counted a kintal; 2400 drams, or 6 oaks, is a batman; 400 drams is an oak, which is 2 lb. 11 oz. avoirdupois in London; 800 drams is a chique; 250 drams is an oak of opium; 120 drams is an oak of ſaffron; and 140 drams is one pound avoirdupois.
Cotton yarn of all ſorts, gauls, allom, &c. are weighed by the kintal of 45 oaks.
Cotton wool, ſheeps wool, tin, &c. are weighed by the kintal of 44 oaks.
Several ſorts of ſilk are ſold by the batman.
Pepper, cloves, mace, benjamin, and galbanum, &c. are ſold by the oak; and goats hair, beaten and unbeaten, are ſold by the chique.
In the *Morea.* In their weights they reckon $11\frac{2}{9}$ drams to an ounce, 12 ounces to the lb. 3 lb. to an oak, 132 lb. to a quintal, which is about $117\frac{1}{2}$ lb. in London; but in weighing of raw ſilk they reckon 15 ounces to the pound.

Candia. They have two ſorts of weights, the ſuttle weight, and the groſs or great weight; the 100 lb. groſs weight makes about 118 lb. avoirdupois in London, and the 100 lb. ſuttle weight makes about 76 lb. of London.

Arabia.

Ten drams is one ounce, 24 ounces is one rottello, and 24 rotellos is one fracelbo, or 24 pound 12 ounces Engliſh.

	lb.	oz.	dr.
Mocha. One ratt'e is - -	1	10	12
2⅔ rattles, or 10 vachin, is 1 maund -	2	15	6
10 maunds one frazil, or - -	20	10	12
15 frazil, one behee, or 445 lb.			
Mocha Buttleſucke. 14½ Vachia is one rattle, or	1	0	4
29 vachios, or 2 kettles, or 1 maund	2	0	8
10 maund one frazil, or - -	20	5	3
40 frazils is one bahar, or - -	813	1	0

Perſia.

The maund or maundſhaw for ſilk is 13 lb. avoirdupois weight; 2½ maundſhaw is one maundſarrat, uſed in weighing groſs goods; and 36 maundſhaws make a load or cargo. For weighing gold they uſe a mittigal; 6½ of which make a Venetian ounce. For diamonds, pearls, &c. they uſe the rattee, which contains 20 val; 23 of which are equal to an Engliſh caract.

India.

Agra. Their weights for gold, ſilver, muſks, civets, &c. are called the troll, which is 12 maſſes; and the maſs contains 40 lb. For other commodities their common weight is the ſeer, which varies in ſeveral parts of Indoſtan: in Agra it is of two kinds, the one 26 pices, which is 26⅔ ounces; and the other is 30 pices, which is 22 lb. avoirdupois.

They have alſo hundred weights called maunds, 14 ſeers to a maund, being 33 lb. Engliſh; the man weighs 69 lb. avoirdupois; only the man they weigh their indicoes with is but 53 lb.

Goa. Their weight for ſpices is the bahar; it weighs 3½ quintals Portugal weight. Their other weights for ſugar, honey, &c. is the maund of 14 lb. Portugal weight.

Cormandel. 20 maunds is a candy, or 500 lb. Engliſh; and a maund is 40 ſeers of 22 maces, or 25 lb. Engliſh.

Bombay. Fifteen pice is one ſeer, 40 ſeers is one maund, or 28 lb. 20 maunds is one candy, and a pucca maund is 74⅔ lb.

Surat. Forty ſeer is one maund, or 37⅓ lb. and 20 maund is one candy, or 6⅔ C.

Anjengo. Eighty pullums is one telong, or 16 lb. and 35 telongs is one candy, or 560 lb.

Callicut and *Tellichery.* Twenty maunds of 29¾ lb. is one candy.

Carwar. Twenty-five pice is one ſeer, 40 ſeers is one maund, or 25¾ lb. and 20 maunds is one candy, or 515 pound.

Fort St. George. Twenty-five pound is one maund, and 20 maunds is one candy, or 500 lb.

Bengal. Twenty pice is one ſeer, 40 ſeers is one maund of 75 lb. 20 maunds of 25 lb. each one candy, 80 couries one pun, and 16 pun is one cahaun.

Bantam. A cattee is about 21$\frac{3}{25}$ ounces avoirdupois, and 100 catees is a pical, or 132 lb. Engliſh; 3 pical being a bahar, or 369 lb. Engliſh.

Siam. Their weight is the bahar, which is of 2 ſorts; the great one contains 200 cattees of 26 taels each; and the leſſer bahar 200 cattees of 22 taels; a tael being about 1⅝ lb. Liſbon weight.

Bencoolen. A bahar is 560 lb.

Sumatra. Two hundred cattees is a bahar.

China.

Ten canderine is one mace, 10 mace 1 tael, 16 tael 1 catty, and 100 catty 1 pecul of 132 lb.

They weigh all monies by dodgins, like ſtillards, and they take none but good ſilver: an Engliſh crown goes for 8 mace, and 3 rupees for one tael.

A rupee weighs 3 mace, 1 canderine, and 2 caſh; but generally 3 mace 2 canderine; ſo that if Europeans cut them they will loſe by them.

Japan.

Their weights are 20 mace to a tael, 16 tael to a cattee, and 100 cattees to a ſiakin; a cattee being about 21 oz. avoirdupois.

Africa.

The weights in uſe in Cairo, Alexandria, and generally throughout all Egypt for trade, are found to be of four ſorts.

1. The quinta of zara, which makes in London 212 lb. avoirdupois.
2. The quinta forfori, which makes 93 lb.
3. The quinta zaidin 134 lb.
4. The quinta mina 167 lb.

The three firſt quintas are reckoned by rotellos: the mina quinta in Alexandria is reckoned at 20 ounces; but in Cairo at 16 ounces.

Tunis. Their common weight is a cantar, or 100 lb. and makes in London about 114 lb. avoirdupois: they reckon 8 tomins to an ounce, and 16 ounces to a pound.

Algier. Their weight is a quinta, containing 100 rott or pound, which makes 120 lb. avoirdupois in London; or 112 lb. makes about 94 rottellos.

Their quintar is of divers ſorts: for iron, lead, yarn, and wool it is 150 rott. For raiſins, butter, figs, honey, dates, oil, and ſoap, 166 rott. For almonds, cheeſe, cottons, 110 rott. For flax, 100 rott.

Oran. They have 4 quintals in their weights. A quintal of 5 roves, of 20 lb. to a rove. 100 lb. ditto for ſpices, of 4 roves, of 25 lb. to a rove; 100 lb. ditto for corn, of 6 rottellos or pound. Ditto for cotton wool, containing 15 rottellos.

A hundred pound in London makes in the firſt 90 rottellos, in the ſecond 133 rottellos, in the third for corn 48 rottellos, and in the laſt 58⅓ rottelos.

Una. In their weights they differ; having three ſorts of quintals. One is compoſed of the pound or rottello, one for wool, another for ſpices, and a third for corn; 100 lb. avoirdupois making 63 rottellos wool weight, 72 rottellos for ſpices, and 92 rottellos in their corn weight.

Sallee. Their weights and meaſures are moſtly the ſame as thoſe of Spain.

Fez and *Morocco.* In Fez their quintal is 100 rottellos, 64 of which make about 100 lb. avoirdupois.

In Morocco, their quintal is the ſame as in Spain.

Guinea. When the Europeans deal with the negroes, they commonly make uſe of their own weights and meaſures; unleſs it is for gold, when the Europeans make uſe of a weight called an akey, being the 24th part of an ounce. However ſome authors ſay, that the negroes have peculiar weights to themſelves, which paſs under the following denominations:

A benda, which is their largeſt weight, and weighs about 2 ounces.

A benda offa, is half a benda, and weighs one ounce.

An egebba is half an ounce.

A piſo, or euſanno, is 1-4th of ditto.

A ſeron is 1½ piſo.

A quinta is ¾ piſo.

An agiraque is ½ piſo.

A media taba is ¼ piſo.

And it is ſaid by thoſe who have made trial of the above weights, that one pound by their weight is 3 8ths of an ounce heavier than the pound troy of London.

American WEIGHTS. Little can be ſaid as to the weights of America; the ſeveral European colonies there making uſe of thoſe of the ſtates and kingdoms to which they belong. For as to the aroue of Peru, which weighs 27 pounds, it is evidently no other than the Spaniſh arroba, with a little difference in the name.

Groſs-WEIGHT. See *Groſs*.

Neat-WEIGHT. See *Neat*.

Penny-WEIGHT. See *Penny*.

Aſſay of WEIGHT. See *Aſſay*.

Auncel WEIGHTS. See *Auncel* weights.

WELD, or *Wold.* A plant uſed by dyers to give a yellow colour; which is ſowed in a light ground, in the months of March, and is ripe in June or July. In hot countries it is frequently dry enough when gathered; but, when in the colder, care muſt be taken to dry it. Great circumſpection is to be uſed that it be not gathered before thorough ripe; as alſo to prevent its getting wet when gathered.

Weld is much cultivated in Kent, for the uſe of the London dyers. With the help of pot-aſhes it yields a deep lemon colour; but, either by the ſmallneſs of the

proportion put into the liquor, or by taking from it a ſlighter tincture, it ſerves to dye all colours between white and a deep yellow. Its dye will hold well, except againſt urine and tartarous liquors.

WENER. A lake of Sweden, in the province of Gothland, 70 miles in length, and 50 in breadth.

WERST, or *Wert*. A meaſure for diſtances, uſed in Ruſſia, which, according to the calculation of captain Perry, in his hiſtory of Muſcovy, publiſhed in 1717, contains 3504 Engliſh feet, and makes about two-thirds of an Engliſh mile.

WEST, in coſmography. One of the cardinal points of the horizon, diametrically oppoſite to the eaſt; being ſtrictly defined the interſection of the prime vertical with the horizon, on that ſide where the ſun ſets.

West, in aſtronomy, is chiefly uſed for the place in, or towards which the ſun and ſtars ſink under the horizon. Thus, we ſay, the ſun, Mars, and the like, are in the weſt.

West, and *Weſtern*, in geography, are applied to certain countries, ſituated towards the point of ſun-ſetting with reſpect to certain others; thus the empire of Rome anciently, and of Germany at preſent, is called the empire of the Weſt, or the Weſtern empire, in oppoſition to that of Conſtantinople, which is called the empire of the Eaſt; and the Latin, or Roman church, is called the Weſtern-church, in oppoſition to the Greek church.

The French, Spaniards, Italians, and others, are called weſtern nations, in reſpect to the Aſiatics; and America, the Weſt Indies, in reſpect of the Eaſt Indies.

West-*India*, or the *Weſt Indies*. See *India*.

Weſt India Companies.

The Dutch West *India company*, was eſtabliſhed in 1621, with an excluſive privilege of exerciſing ſolely, during 24 years, all the commerce of the coaſt of Africa, from the tropic of Cancer to the cape of Good Hope; and for America, from the ſouthern point of Newfoundland, thro' the ſtreights of Magellan, that of Maire, or others, to that of Anian, as well in the North as the South ſea.

The directors of this company were divided into five chambers; 20 for that of Amſterdam, 12 for that of Zealand, 14 for each chamber of the Meuſe, and the north quarter, and 14 likewiſe for that of Friezland.

The general direction was put into the hands of 19 directors, choſen from out of each chamber, in proportion to what the chambers contributed towards the general capital; eight for Amſterdam, that furniſhed four ninths; four for Zealand, that put in two ninths; and two from each of the three others, who alſo contributed each a ninth. The nineteenth director was choſen by the States General, who even had a right to nominate ſeveral as they judged proper.

On the 4th June 1647, this company received its privilege for 25 years; but it could ſcarce complete the time of this laſt conceſſion, by means of the immenſe loſſes and extraordinary expences which ſeveral enterprizes had occaſioned.

The feeble diſpoſition of this company, cauſed its diſſolution upon the expiration of its privilege; and, on the 20th of September, a new company, compoſed of the ancient members and their creditors, obtained letters-patent from the ſtates, and entered upon the ſame rights and eſtabliſhments of the firſt, which it enjoyed with ſome happineſs, ſupporting itſelf always with honour.

Its firſt fund was about 525,000 l. ſterling, and its principal eſtabliſhments were, one at Cape Verd, and the other upon the Gold coaſt in Guinea, for the African coaſt; the reſt for America, being at Tobago, Curaſſao, and the new Low Countries, ſituated between Virginia and New England, afterwards called New York, and given to the Engliſh in exchange for Surinam.

In 1720 the company obtained permiſſion from the States-General, to make new ſubſcriptions, upon the footing of 250 *per cent.* but theſe ſubſcriptions proved unſucceſsful, and fell into diſcredit.

It may be proper to add here the ſtate of all the dividends which this company made from the time of its new eſtabliſhment, till 1721.

In	1679	2 *per cent.* in money.
	1682	8
	1684	6
	1687	10 *per cent.* in bonds.
	1691	5
	1692	8 *per cent.* in money.
	1693	5 *per cent.* in bonds.
	1695	4
	1697	5
	1699	5
	1700	5
	1702	4
	1704	5 *per cent.* in money.
	1705	4
	1708	5
	1710	4
	1712	5
	1714	4
	1716	6
	1717	4
	1721	4

Total of the dividends 108 *per cent.*

Dutch Surinam company. The Zealanders took from the Engliſh the colony of Surinam, during the wars of the ſeventeenth century between England and Holland. The ſtates of Zealand ceded in 1682 what belonged to them of this conqueſt, to the Dutch Weſt India company, which, the 23d of December of the ſame year, obtained letters patent from the ſtates for this acquiſition: the colony being ever ſince divided into three parts, whereof one belongs to Amſterdam, another to the Weſt India company, and the third to the family of Somelſdiik.

This company makes a part of the Weſt India company: and the privilege granted it by the States General of the United Provinces, is of the 23d of September 1682.

By this privilege, compoſed of 32 articles, the duties due to the company, the immunities of the planters, the number of military and municipal magiſtrates, the ſovereign council, the criminal and civil juriſdictions, and the police of the old and new inhabitants are regulated.

The duties reſerved to the Weſt India company are the duties of laſtage for ſhips going to, or coming from Surinam, at 3 livres *per* laſt; the duty of weight for merchandiſes upon the footing of two and a half *per cent.* at arriving and departing, and the capitation payable in ſugar, both for Blacks and Whites, at 50 lb. of ſugar *per annum*: beſides theſe three duties, the company enjoys alſo the excluſive privilege of the Negro trade; by which they are obliged to ſupply the colony yearly with ſuch a complement of ſlaves as it ſhall have an occaſion for; which ſlaves are to be ſold publickly, and preſented two by two to the purchaſers, without any preference of the rich before the poor: the payment whereof is to be made in three terms, from ſix months to ſix months, purſuant to the clauſes and conditions agreed upon between the company's commiſſioners and the inhabitants.

The immunities of the planters conſiſt, firſt, in eſtabliſhing themſelves freely in the colony with their family, cattle, and merchandiſe; provided that they are ſubjects of the States-General; and in freely departing therefrom when they think proper, to return to Holland, or eſtabliſh themſelves in any other place.

2. In not being liable to any other duty but thoſe before ſpecified; the caſe of extreme neceſſity excepted, either for the good of the ſtate in general, or that of the colony in particular.

3. In not paying for their expences and paſſage from Europe to America, above the ſum of 30 florins for each perſon above the age of twelve years, including their board; and 15 florins only for thoſe not arrived at that age.

4. That they ſhall be at liberty to ſet their effects aboard whatever ſhips they pleaſe, without any compulſion of uſing others than their own, and thoſe they have freighted.

5. That the companies ſhips employed in the Negro trade, ſhall load no merchandiſes for their return, to the prejudice of other ſhips; but ſhall only have their freight conſiſting of their own effects, or accruing from the negroe trade, or peculiar duties and impoſts.

6. That the merchants being arrived there with their ſhips and merchandiſe, may reſort to the moſt commodious places for their commerce; provided that they incommode not the inhabitants thereby, nor prejudice the rights of the company.

7. And laſtly, that the governor and council ſhall be upon their oath, to maintain all the planters and merchants in all the ſaid privileges.

As to the government, it is veſted in the hands of the council of ſtate, compoſed of a governor and ten council; which council, according as the colony is fortified, may be augmented to the number of forty; the governor to be elected by the company, but with the approbation of their High Mightineſſes; and the council by a plurality of votes among the inhabitants.

Tho' the governor ſhould have the chief authority in political and military affairs; yet they are to be decided in the council by a plurality of voices, and conformable to the orders of the company.

Neither the governor nor his council are to charge the colony with any other impoſts and duties but thoſe above mentioned, without the company's approbation. Yet, purſuant to the ſame obſervation, they may exact ſome moderate ſums for the maintenance of miniſters, the ſervice of the church, ſchool-maſters, &c.

Laſtly, as it may happen that the colony may become chargeable to the Weſt India company, the directors of the ſaid company are authoriſed, at all times, to make it ceaſe; in which caſe the ſtate ſhall interfere, and give neceſſary orders. See Dutch Weſt Indies, under *United* Provinces.

The French WEST-*India company*, was eſtabliſhed in 1664, their charter giving them the property and ſeignory of Canada, Acadia, the Antilles iſlands, Iſle of Cayenne, and the Terra Firma of America from the river of the Amazons to that of Oronoko; with an excluſive privilege for the commerce of thoſe places, as alſo of Senegal and the coaſts of Guinea, for 40 years, paying only half the duties.

The ſtock of the company was ſo conſiderable, that in leſs than ſix months, 45 veſſels were equipped; wherewith they took poſſeſſion of all the places in their grant, and ſettled a commerce which ſubſiſted only nine years. In 1674, the grant was revoked, and the ſaid countries united with the royal dominions; his Majeſty reimburſing the actions of the adventurers.

This revocation was not only owing partly to the poverty of the company, occaſioned by its loſſes in the wars with England, which had neceſſitated it to borrow above a million, and even to alienate its excluſive privilege for the coaſts of Guinea; but alſo to its having in good meaſure anſwered its end; which was to recover the commerce of the Weſt Indies from the Dutch, who had taken it from them; for the French merchants, being now accuſtomed to traffic to the Antilles, by permiſſion of the company, were ſo attached to it, that it was not doubted they would ſupport the commerce after the diſſolution of the company.

The French company of Miſſiſſippi, or company of the Weſt, was formed in 1669 by Monſieur de la Sale, and eſtabliſhed in 1712: but was afterwards united to the India company.

French St. Domingo company, was the laſt of all thoſe eſtabliſhed in France, during the reign of Lewis XIV. which received its letters-patent in the month of September 1698.

The time of its conceſſion was for 50 years; its extent being, that part of the iſland ſituated from, and comprehending therein Cape Tiberon to the river of Naybe incluſively, 3 leagues up the country, beginning from the ſea ſhore.

The privileges granted the company conſiſt in the excluſive right of all the eſtabliſhments and commerce throughout the extent of its conceſſion; beſides a permiſſion to trade, and even to eſtabliſh themſelves in all the iſlands, countries, and lands of the weſtern coaſts of America, not poſſeſſed by other European powers.

Scarce any French company commenced more happily, and continued with greater hopes of ſucceſs: but the genera good of the iſland of St. Domingo requiring a liberty of commerce, the company, as appears by the letters-patent ordaining the revocation thereof, were the firſt to wiſh for, and require this liberty of trade, wherein they found their advantage.

Some time after the revoking and diſſolution of the company of St. Domingo, a ſociety was formed, which made an offer to the king of ſix millions, to be eſtabliſhed in the rights of this company, upon the conditions ſpecified in a long memoir, preſented by this ſociety to the council of Marine; but the royal India company, having requeſted the king for the preference, offering to execute all the clauſes and conditions propoſed by the ſaid ſociety, his Majeſty, by an arret of his council of ſtate, of the 10th of September 1720, granted its requeſt; and in conſequence eſtabliſhed it in all the privileges of the St. Domingo company, as well in France as America.

WESTERN *Iſles*. See *Azores*, and *Hebrides*.

WESTERN *Ocean*. See *Ocean*.

WESTERWICK. A port of Sweden, in the province of Smaland, lying in 16 deg. of E. lon. and 58 deg. of N. lat. on the Baltic ſea, 100 miles S. of Stockholm.

WESTMINSTER *Fire-office*. See *Inſurance*.

WESTPHALIA *Ham*. See *Ham*.

WET-*dock*. See *Dock*.

WETER. A lake in the province of Gothland in Sweden, 90 miles long.

WET-*glover*. A dreſſer of the ſkins of ſheep, lambs, and goats, which are ſlender, thin, and gentle.

WEY. See *Weigh*.

WEYGATS *Streights*. See *Waigatz*.

WEYMOUTH. A port-town of Dorſetſhire, lying in 7 min. of W. lon. and 54 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on a fine bay of the Engliſh channel, 7 miles S. of Dorcheſter.

WHALE. The largeſt of all fiſh which are found in different parts of the world; having no teeth, but only beards, or whiſkers, on the throat, about 9 inches broad, and 15 feet long, which end in fringes like hog briſtles, are ſet in the palate, and ranged in order, according to the different magnitudes, extending or contracting the cheeks of the creature. The female always keeps its young under its fins, and never leaves it till it is weaned; ſhe has no udder, but nipples and teats, which contain ſo great a quantity of milk, that there has been drawn from them two hogſheads at one time. Different ſeas have different ſorts of whales; thoſe of Japan having two great holes over their muzzles, thro' which they take in, and ſquirt out a great quantity of water, and theſe are generally larger ſized than the others: ſome have teeth and no beards; and thoſe of Greenland have black heads and white-bellies. See Whale-*Fiſhery*.

WHALE-*bone*. A commodity procured from the whale, uſed as ſtiffening in ſtays, fans, buſks, ſcreens, and hoops. By the ſtatute of the 9th and 10th of Will. III. whalebone cut, except in fins, may not be imported, upon forfeiture, and double the value. Maſters of ſhips knowing thereof, forfeit 50 l.

And, by the ſtatute of the 5th of Q. Anne, the perſons in whoſe cuſtody found, forfeit 30 l. beſides the goods, and double the value.

The hundred weight of whalebone is ſold at Amſterdam for 182 florins; the deductions for good weight and prompt payment being each one *per cent*.

WHALE-*fins*. See *Fin*.

WHALE-*fiſhery*. See *Fiſhery*.

WHALE-*oil*. See *Oil*.

WHARF. A ſpace on the banks of a haven, creek, or hithe, provided for the convenient loading and unloading of veſſels upon. See *Haven*, and *Hithe*.

The fee paid for the landing of goods on a wharf, or for ſhipping them off, is called wharfage: and the perſon who has the overſight, or direction of the wharf, and receives wharfage, is called the wharfinger.

In regard that when ſhips came up to the port of London, there uſed to be very great frauds committed, by a promiſcuous kind of ſhipping and landing of goods and merchandiſe,

chandiſes, at ſeveral blind or unknown wharfs and keys, by reaſon of which the king was often defeated of his cuſtoms; therefore, the ſtatute of the 13th and 14th of Char. II. ordained, that a commiſſion ſhould iſſue out of the exchequer to aſcertain all ſuch keys, wharfs, or other places, as his Majeſty ſhould appoint and allow of, for prevention thereof.

In purſuance of which, the keys, wharfs, and places hereafter named, were aſſigned, appointed, and allowed, to be lawful keys and wharfs, for the ſhipping, lading, or landing of goods.

Brewer's key.
Cheſter's key.
Galley key.
Wool dock.
Cuſtom-houſe key.

Cuſtom-houſe key, which is much the largeſt of any, hath ſome ſtairs on the weſt ſide thereof declared not to be a place for ſhipping or landing of goods, but for boats only.

Porter's key.
Bear key.
Sab's key.
Wiggon's key.
Young's key.
Ralph's key.
Dice key.

The ſtairs of Sab's dock, and Dice key, are excluded from being places of ſhipping, or landing of goods and merchandiſe.

Smart's key.
Somer's key.
Lyon key.
Buttolph wharf.
Hammond's key.
Gaunt's key.

The ſtairs belonging to Somer's key, and on the eaſt-ſide of Gaunt's key, are declared to be no lawful places for landing or ſhipping of goods.

Cock's key.
Freſh wharf.

One place betwixt this key and wharf, is alſo declared unlawful for ſhipping goods.

Billingſgate,

To be a common open place, for the landing or bringing in of fiſh, ſalt, victuals, or fuel of all ſorts; and all native materials for buildings, and for fruit, grocery excepted, and for carrying out the ſame.

Bridge-houſe in Southwark,

Is allowed a place convenient for landing of any kind of corn, bought or provided for victualling the city of London, and not upon any private account, or other wares or merchandiſe.

It is declared lawful for any perſon to ſhip or lade into any ſhip or veſſel on the river Thames bound over ſeas, and lying between London and Woolwich, any horſes, coals, beer, ordinary ſtones for building, fiſh taken by his Majeſty's ſubjects, corn or grain; the owners of ſuch goods firſt paying the duties thereon charged, and having warrants duly paſſed for the ſame, &c. Alſo any perſons may unſhip and lay on land, deal-boards, balks, and all ſorts of maſts, and great timber, at any place between Lime-houſe dock and Weſtminſter; provided the owners thereof firſt pay or compound for the cuſtoms and other duties, and declare the place at which they will land them before they unſhip any of the goods, and unlade them in the preſence of an officer of the cuſtoms, having a licence ſo to do; otherwiſe the ſaid goods to be forfeited.

If at any time it ſhall ſeem reaſonable to the principal officers of the cuſtoms, and conſiſtent with his Majeſty's ſervice, to give permiſſion for the ſhipping, lading, or landing of any goods or merchandiſe, at any other places, than is before mentioned and aſſigned to be lawful keys and wharfs; it ſhall be lawful for them to do it, and ſuch permiſſion ſhall be good and warrantable, without any forfeiture or advantage to be taken againſt the goods ſo landed.

The ſeveral keys and wharfs deſcribed and allowed to be free places for ſhipping and landing of goods and merchandiſes as aforeſaid, according to the act of parliament, are and ought to be left open at the diſtance of forty feet from the water ſide; and ſhall not be ſeparated or divided, one from another by any houſe, wall, pales, rails, or other impediment whatſoever, but only by mere ſtones or marks in the pavement, for the diſtinction of property, and not otherwiſe: and all the paſſages, lanes, or cartways leading to the ſaid keys or wharfs, from Thames-ſtreet, ſhall be of the breadth of eleven feet at the leaſt; and if of larger breadth or dimenſion heretofore, ſo they ſhall continue.

Where cranes are ſet up on the ſaid wharfs, by the owners or poſſeſſors of the ground, they ſhall not exceed the following dimenſions; a ſingle crane with one wheel, to be twelve feet in breadth, and a double crane with two wheels twenty feet, and each of them in depth or length from the wall or campſhot 21 feet at moſt: and the ſaid cranes, as well ſingle as double, ſhall be kept open and free, for common paſſage, from the ground to the floor under the wheels, without any other incloſure, partition, ſeparation or hinderance by poſts or ſpurns, than the neceſſary poſts and timber which ſupport the ſame at both ends; and the open height of the ſaid cranes, is to be at leaſt ten feet and a half from the ground to the ſaid floors under the wheels, that carts and carriages may freely paſs under them.

And it ſhall not be lawful for any perſon to build any jets, penthouſes, warehouſes, rooms, lodgings, or any manner of poſts, ſheds, or buildings, contiguous to the ſaid cranes, or on any part of the open wharf of forty feet in breadth, more than what is convenient about the cranes for the wheels to work upon, and ſufficient covering thereunto, not exceeding the height, breadth, and length aforeſaid: and as a further ornament, theſe cranes are to be laid in oil and coloured blue; and in the front thereof towards the Thames, ſhall be placed the king's arms, painted and ſet in a frame, with a decent moulding about it, of four feet and a half diameter.

If any wharfinger or owner of any of the wharfs or grounds allowed for ſhipping, lading, or landing of goods, do not conform to the rules and methods hereby preſcribed and directed for their wharfs, cranes, or buildings, or ſhall diſcontinue or alter the ſame, or make new incroachments thereupon; after public notice given by any three or more of the principal officers of his Majeſty's cuſtoms, by fixing up a writing under their hands, upon the wharf where the fault ſhall be committed, declaring the offence, and limiting a day and time for the amendment thereof; in ſuch caſe, if it be not amended or performed accordingly, then ſuch wharf and crane ſhall from thenceforward be no more reputed or taken, or have the benefit or privilege as a lawful place of ſhipping, lading, or landing of goods or merchandiſe; but be utterly debarred thereof, unleſs reſtored by his Majeſty's ſpecial warrant; and nevertheleſs the ſaid buildings and incroachments to be demoliſhed and removed.

The wharfingers or poſſeſſors of any of the keys or wharfs, or their ſervants, ſhall not ſuffer to ſtand or remain upon their wharfs, or paſſages leading to them, any more cars or carts than ſuch as ſhall be immediately called to lade or take up goods, wares, or merchandiſe there. And no further or other paſſage may be made or enlarged to the wharfs, or any part of the river Thames, within the limits aforeſaid, other than the ancient and common paſſages to the ſame.

Wharfingers commonly keep boats or lighters of their own, for the carrying out and bringing in of goods; in which, if a loſs or detriment happens, they may be made liable: and they have ſeveral managers over them; alſo a committee to redreſs grievances relating to merchants, &c. The wharfage money paid for landing of wines at a wharf, and for ſhipping or taking in goods into a boat or barge, are in general computed at the rate of 12 d. *per* ton, except for ſugars, &c. from the Weſt Indies, which

pay

pay 2 s. the ton, four hogſheads being reckoned a ton. Cranage is included in the 12 d. *per* ton wharfage; and the lighterage is half as much as the wharfage.

Wharfage of all goods not exceeding 5 s. is to be paid down on the wharf, and the wharfinger may detain the goods till payment. But wharfingers, or keepers of keys, &c. are not to ſuffer uncuſtomed or prohibited goods to be water-born or taken on land, without an officer of the cuſtoms being preſent, under the penalty of 100 l. Statute 14th Ch. II.

WHEAT. See *Corn*.

WHEELWRIGHT. An artificer, who makes wheels for all kinds of carriages.

WHEELWRIGHTS *company of London*, was incorporated by letters-patent of the 22d of Ch. II. dated the 3d of February 1670, by the name of The maſter, wardens, aſſiſtants, and commonalty, of the art and myſtery of wheelwrights of the city of London; who conſiſt of a maſter, two wardens, and 22 aſſiſtants; but have neither livery nor hall.

WHERRY. See *Veſſel*, and *Boat*.

WHETSTONE. A ſort of ſtone of a lax compoſition, and coarſe grain; ſerving for whetting or ſharpening knives, and other tools upon. See *Stone*, and *Hone*.

WHIFFLER, of a company in London. A young freeman, who goes before and waits on the company, on occaſions of public ſolemnity.

WHIP, or *Whip-ſtaff*, in a ſhip, a piece of timber in form of a ſtrong ſtaff, faſtened into the helm, for the ſteerſman, in ſmall ſhips, to hold in his hand; thereby to move the rudder, and direct the ſhip.

WHIRLWIND. A wind that riſes ſuddenly, is exceedingly rapid, and impetuous when riſen; but ſoon ſpent. There are ſeveral ſorts of whirlwinds, diſtinguiſhed by their peculiar names; as, the preſter, typho, turbo, exhydria, and ecnephias. The preſter is a violent wind, breaking forth with flaſhes of lightening: this is rarely obſerved, ſcarce ever without the ecnephias. Seneca ſays, it is a typho, or turbo, kindled or ignited in the air. The ecnephias is a ſudden and tempeſtuous wind, breaking out of ſome cloud, frequent in the Æthiopic ſea, particularly about the Cape of Good Hope, which the ſailors call travados. The exhydria is a wind burſting out of a cloud, with a great quantity of water; which only ſeems to differ in degree from the ecnephias, as this is frequently attended with ſhowers. A typho, or vortex, moſt properly called a whirlwind, or hurricane, is an impetuous wind, turning rapidly every way, and ſweeping all round the place, which frequently deſcends from on high: the Indians call it orancan; the Turks, and ſome others, oliphant: it is frequent in the eaſtern ocean, chiefly about Siam and China, and renders the navigation of thoſe parts exceeding dangerous.

WHITBY. A port-town of the north riding of Yorkſhire, lying in 7 min. of W. lon. and 45 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the German ſea, 13 miles N. W. of Scarborough, and 38 miles N. E. of York.

WHITE. One of the colours of natural bodies, which is not ſo properly ſaid to be any one colour, being a compoſition in all the colours; as is demonſtrated by Sir Iſaac Newton, who proves that thoſe bodies only appear white, which reflect all the kinds of coloured rays alike.

Hevelius affirms it as a thing moſt certain, that in the northern countries, animals, as hares, foxes, bears, and the like, become white in the winter time; and in ſummer reſume their natural colours.

Black bodies are found to take heat ſooner than white ones; becauſe the former abſorb, or imbibe rays of all colours, and the latter reflect all. Thus, black paper is ſooner put into a flame by a burning-glaſs, than white; and black cloaths hung up by the dyers in the ſun, dry ſooner than white ones.

WHITE-*arſenic*. See *Arſenic*.

WHITE-*aſhes*. See *Aſhes*.

WHITE-*cinnamon*. See *Cinnamon*.

WHITE-*copperas*. See *Copperas*.

WHITE-*cordage*. See *Cordage*.

WHITE-*diachylon*. See *Diachylon*.

WHITE-*glaſs*. See *Glaſs*.

WHITE-HAVEN. A port-town of Cumberland, lying in 3 deg. 16 min. of W. lon. and 59 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. on the Iriſh channel, 8 miles S. W. of Cockermouth, and 36 miles S. W. of Carliſle; being a port much frequented by the Iriſh, eſpecially for coals.

WHITE-*honey*. See *Honey*.

WHITE-*iſland*. See Cape *Verd* Iſlands.

WHITE-*lead*, is a ſort of ruſt of lead; or lead diſſolved with vinegar, much uſed by the painters. See *Lead*.

It is prepared two ways; either by reducing the lead into thin laminæ, ſteeping them in ſtrong vinegar, and every ten days ſcraping off the ruſt formed on the ſurface, repeating this till the lead is quite conſumed: or, by rolling the laminæ into cylinders like ſheets of paper, only ſo as there is a little ſpace left between the ſeveral folds or turns. Theſe laminæ they ſuſpend in the middle of earthen pots, at the bottom of which is vinegar. The pots being well cloſed, are buried in a dunghil for thirty days; after which, being opened, the lead is found, as it were calcined, and reduced into what they call ceruſſe, or white lead, to be broke into pieces, and dried in the ſun. It is uſed both in painting in oil and in water-colours, making a good colour in each; but is ſomewhat dangerous in the grinding and uſing it, as being a rank poiſon. Of this white lead, the paint uſed by the ladies called ceruſſe, is made.

WHITE-*linen*, is cloth of hemp, or flax, bleached by repeated lyes, and waterings on the ground. See *Bleaching*.

WHITE *Paper*, is that intended for writing, printing, and other uſes; in contra-diſtinction to brown paper, marble paper, blotting paper, and the like. See *Paper*.

WHITE *Pepper*, is black pepper blanched, or whitened, by ſhelling off its upper ſkin. See *Pepper*.

WHITE *Rent*. A rent or duty of 8 d. payable yearly, by every tinner in the county of Devon, to the duke of Cornwall.

WHITE *Salt*, is common or ſea ſalt, dried and calcined by the fire, ſo as not to leave any moiſture therein; which the chemiſts call decrepitated ſalt. There are ſome ſalts naturally white; and others that need to be whitened, either by diſſolving and purifying them in fair water, which is afterwards evaporated; or by means of fire, or by the ſun. See *Salt*.

WHITE *ſea*, is a bay of the Frozen ocean, in the north of Muſcovy, ſituated between Ruſſian Lapland and Samoieda, at the bottom of which ſea ſtands the city of Archangel. This was the only ſea the Ruſſians had any communication with till their conqueſt of Livonia.

WHITE *Soap*. See *Soap*.

Spaniſh WHITE, is a kind of fucus, uſed by the ladies to whiten the complexion, and hide the defects thereof; being made of tin glaſs diſſolved in ſpirit of nitre, and precipitated into a very fine powder, by means of ſalt water. See *Biſmuth*.

WHITE *Sugar*. See *Sugar*.

WHITE *Tartar*. See *Tartar*.

WHITE *Varniſh*. See *Varniſh*.

WHITE *Vitriol*. See *Vitriol*.

WHITE *Wax*, is yellow wax blanched, and purified by the ſun and dew. See *Wax*.

WHITE *Wine*, is that of a clear, bright, tranſparent colour, bordering on white; being ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from the red wines or clarets. The generality of white wines are made from white grapes; tho' there are ſome from black ones. See *Wine*.

WHITENING. See *Bleaching*.

WHITENING *of wax*. See *Wax*.

WHOODINGS, or *Hoodings*. A ſea term, uſed for planks, joined and faſtened along the ſhip's ſides into the ſtem.

WIBURG. A city and port-town of Ruſſian Finland, in the territory of Carelia, ſituated on the gulph of Finland, 70 miles N. W. of Peterſburgh, in 29 deg. of E. lon. and 61 deg. of N. lat.

WIC, denotes a place on the ſea ſhore, or on the bank of a river; tho' in the original Saxon it more properly ſignifies a ſtreet, village, or dwelling place, as alſo a caſtle.

WIGHT *Iſland*, or the *Iſle of Wight*. Part of the county of Southampton, ſeparated from it by a narrow channel, about 20 miles long, and 12 broad. See *Britiſh* Iſlands.

WILD *Honey*. See *Honey*.

WILOC. A kind of ſtuff or felt, prepared after the manner of hats; but ſomewhat more flexible, and of two ſorts: the one of the thickneſs of more than half an inch, and the other the double of that thickneſs. The Calmuc Tartars uſe the latter for mattraſſes; as alſo to cover their tents; and with the other they make cloaks, and houſings for their horſes.

WILLIAM's-*Fort*, or *Fort William*. A fort belonging to the Engliſh Eaſt India company, ſituated on the weſtern branch of the river Ganges, in the province of Bengal, in the Eaſt Indies, in Aſia, 130 miles N. E. of Balliſore, and 40 miles S. of Huegly, in 87 deg. of E. lon. and 22 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. See *India*.

WILLIAMSTAT. A port-town of Holland, lying in 4 deg. 20 min. of E. lon. and 51 deg. 40 min. of N. lat. on the ſea called Holland's deep, 14 miles S. of Rotterdam, and 16 N. W. of *Breda*.

WIND. A ſenſible agitation of the air, whereby a large quantity thereof flows out of one place or region into another.

The winds are divided into perennial, ſtated, and variable; they are alſo divided into general and particular.

Perennial, or *Conſtant* WINDS, are ſuch as blow the ſame way: of theſe we have a very notable one between the two tropics blowing conſtantly from eaſt to weſt, called the general trade wind.

Stated, or *Periodical* WINDS, are ſuch as conſtantly return at certain times; ſuch are the ſea and land breezes, blowing from ſea to land in the evening; and from land to ſea in the morning. Such alſo are the ſhifting, or particular trade winds, which for certain months in the year blow one way, and the reſt of the year the contrary way.

Variable, or *Erratic* WINDS, are ſuch as blow now this, now that way; are now up, now huſhed, without any rule or regularity, either as to time or place; ſuch are all the winds obſerved in the inland parts of England; tho' ſeveral of theſe claim their certain times of the day: thus, the weſt wind is moſt frequent about noon; the ſouth wind in the night; the north in the morning; and ſo of the reſt.

General WIND, is ſuch as, at the ſame time blows the ſame way, over a very large tract of ground, almoſt all the year: ſuch only is the general trade wind: but even this has its interruptions; for firſt, at land it is ſcarce ſenſible at all, as being broke by the interpoſition of mountains and valleys. 2. At ſea, near the ſhore, it is diſturbed by vapours, exhalations, and particularly winds, blowing from landward; ſo that it is chiefly conſidered as general, only at mid-ſea: where, 3dly, it is liable to be diſturbed, by clouds driving from other quarters.

Particular winds include all others, excepting the general trade winds. Thoſe peculiar to one little canton, or part, are called topical, or provincial winds: ſuch is the north-wind, on the weſtern ſide of the Alps, which does not blow above one or two leagues lengthwiſe, and much leſs in breadth: ſuch alſo is the pontias in France.

Phyſical cauſe of WINDS. Some philoſophers, as Des Cartes, and Rohault, account for the general wind, from the diurnal rotation of the earth; and from this general wind derive all the particular ones. The atmoſphere, inveſting the earth, and moving round it, that part will perform its circuit ſooneſt, which has the ſmalleſt circle to deſcribe; the air therefore near the equator will require ſomewhat a longer time to perform its courſe in, from weſt to eaſt, than that nearer the poles. Thus, as the earth turns eaſtward, the particles of the air near the equinoctial being exceeding light, are left behind; ſo that in reſpect of the earth's ſurface, they move weſtwards, and become a conſtant eaſterly wind; which opinion ſeems confirmed by this, that theſe winds are found only between the tropics, in thoſe parallels of latitude where the diurnal motion is ſwifteſt. But the conſtant calms in the Atlantic ſea, near the equator, the weſterly winds near the coaſt of Guinea, and the periodical weſterly monſoons under the equator in the Indian ſeas, declare the inſufficiency of this hypotheſis. Beſides, the air being kept cloſe to the earth by the principal of gravity, would in time acquire the ſame degree of velocity, that the ſurface of the earth moves with, as well in reſpect of the diurnal rotation, as of the annual about the ſun, which is about thirty times ſwifter. Dr. Halley, therefore, ſubſtitutes another cauſe, capable of producing a like conſtant effect, not liable to the ſame objections; but agreeable to the known properties of the elements of water and air, and the laws of the motion of fluid bodies. Such is the action of the ſun's beams upon the air and water, as he paſſes every day over the ocean, conſidered together with the quality of the ſoil, and the ſituation of the adjacent continents. According to the laws of ſtatics, the air, which is leſs rarefied or expanded by heat, and conſequently more ponderous, muſt have a motion towards thoſe parts thereof, which are more rarefied, and leſs ponderous, to bring it to an equilibrium; alſo the preſence of the ſun, continually ſhifting to the weſtward, that part towards which the air tends, by reaſon of the refraction made by his greateſt meridian heat, is with him carried weſtward; and, conſequently the tendency of the whole body of the lower air is that way. Thus, a general eaſterly wind is formed, which being impreſſed upon the air of a vaſt ocean, the parts impel each other, and ſo keep moving till the next return of the ſun, whereby ſo much of the motion as was loſt is again reſtored, and thus the eaſterly wind is made perpetual.

From the ſame principal it follows, that this eaſterly wind ſhould, on the north ſide of the equator, be to the northwards of the eaſt; and in ſouth latitudes to the ſouthwards thereof; for near the line the air is much more rarefied, than at a greater diſtance from it; becauſe the ſun is twice in a year vertical there, and at no time diſtant above 23½ degrees: at which diſtance, the heat being as the ſine of the angle of incidence, is but little ſhort of that of the perpendicular ray; whereas under the tropics, tho' the ſun ſtays longer vertical, yet he is a long time 47 degrees off; which is a kind of winter, wherein the air cools, as that the ſummer heat cannot warm it to the ſame degree with that under the equator. Wherefore, the air toward the northward and ſouthward, being leſs rarefied than that in the middle, it follows, that from both ſides it ought to tend towards the equator.

This motion, compounded with the former eaſterly wind, accounts for all the phænomena of the general trade winds; which, if the whole ſurface of the globe was ſea, would undoubtedly blow quite round the world, as they are found to do in the Atlantic, and Æthiopic oceans. But, ſeeing ſo great continents interpoſe, and break the continuity of the oceans, regard muſt be had to the nature of the ſoil, and the poſition of the high mountains, which are the two principal cauſes of the variation of the wind, from the former general rule: for if a country lying near the ſun prove to be flat, ſandy, and low land; ſuch as the deſarts of Libya are uſually reported to be; the heat occaſioned by the reflections of the ſun's beams, and the retention thereof in the ſand is incredible to thoſe who have not felt it: whereby the air is ſo much rarefied, that it is neceſſary the cooler and more denſe air ſhould run there, to reſtore the equilibrium. This is ſuppoſed to be the cauſe, why on or near the coaſt of Guinea, the wind always ſets in upon the land, blowing weſterly inſtead of eaſterly; there being ſufficient reaſon to believe, that the inland parts of Africa are prodigiouſly hot, ſince the northern borders thereof were ſo intemperate, as to give the ancients cauſe to conclude, that all beyond the tropics was uninhabitable thro' exceſs of heat.

From the ſame cauſe it happens, that there are ſuch conſtant calms in that part of the ocean called the Rains; for this tract being placed in the middle, between the weſterly winds blowing on the coaſt of Guinea, and the eaſterly trade winds, blowing to the weſtward thereof; the tendency of the air here is indifferent to either, and ſo ſtands in equilibrio between both: and the weight of the incumbent atmoſphere, being diminiſhed by the continual contrary winds blowing from hence, is the reaſon that the air here holds not the copious vapour it receives; but lets it fall in ſuch frequent rains.

But, as the cool and denſe air, on account of its greater gravity, preſſes upon the hot and rarefied, it is demonſ-

trable, that this latter muſt aſcend in a continued ſtream as faſt as it rarefies; and, that being aſcended, it muſt diſperſe itſelf, to preſerve the equilibrium; that is, by a contrary current, the upper air muſt move from thoſe parts where the greateſt heat is: ſo, by a kind of circulation, the north-eaſt trade wind below will be attended with a ſouth-weſterly wind above; and the ſouth-eaſt, with a north-weſt wind above. That this is more than a bare conjecture, the almoſt inſtantaneous change of the wind to the oppoſite point, which is frequently found in paſſing the limits of the trade-winds, ſeems to aſſure us; but that which above all confirms this hypotheſis, is the phænomenon of the monſoons, by this means moſt eaſily ſolved, and without it hardly explicable.

Suppoſing, therefore, ſuch a circulation as above, it is to be conſidered, that to the northward of the Indian ocean, there is every where land, within the uſual limits of the latitude of 30 degrees, both in Arabia, Perſia, India, and elſewhere; which, for the ſame reaſon as the Mediterranean parts of Africa, are ſubject to inſufferable heats, when the ſun is to the north, paſſing nearly vertical; but yet are temperate enough, when the ſun is removed towards the other tropic, becauſe of a ridge of mountains at ſome diſtance within the land, ſaid to be frequently in winter covered with ſnow, over which the air, as it paſſes, muſt be chilled. Hence it happens, that the air coming, according to the general rule, out of the north-eaſt, to the Indian ſea, is ſometimes hotter, ſometimes colder, than that which, by this circulation, is returned out of the ſouth-weſt; and, by conſequence, ſometimes the under current or wind is from the north-eaſt, ſometimes from the ſouth-weſt. That this has no other cauſe is clear from the times wherein theſe winds ſet, that is, in April, when the ſun begins to warm theſe countries to the north, and the ſouth-weſt monſoons begin to blow during the heats till October; then the ſun being retired, and all the things growing cooler northward, and the heat increaſing to the ſouth, the north-eaſt winds enter and blow all the winter, till April again. And it is undoubtedly from the ſame principle, that to the ſouthward of the equator, in part of the Indian ocean, the north-weſt winds ſucceed the ſouth-eaſt, when the ſun draws nearer the tropic of Capricorn. But, the induſtry of ſome late writers, has brought the theory of the production and motion of winds, to ſomewhat of a mathematical demonſtration.

Qualities and effects of WIND. Firſt, a wind blowing from the ſea is always moiſt: in ſummer it is cold, and in winter warm, unleſs the ſea is frozen up. This is demonſtrated thus: there is vapour continually riſing out of all water; as appears even hence, that a quantity of water being left a little while in an open veſſel, is found ſenſibly diminiſhed; but eſpecially if it is expoſed to the rays of the ſun, in which caſe the evaporation is beyond all expectation. By this means the air incumbent on the ſea becomes impregnated with a deal of vapour: but the winds blowing from off the ſea ſweep theſe vapours along with them, and conſequently are always moiſt. Again, water in ſummer receives leſs heat than terreſtrial bodies expoſed to the rays of the ſun; but in winter ſea water is warmer than the earth covered with froſt and ſnow: wherefore, as the air contiguous to any body, is found to partake of its heat and cold; the air contiguous to the ſea-water will be warmer in winter, and colder in ſummer, than that contiguous to the earth. Or thus, vapours raiſed from water, by the warmth of the ſun, in winter, are warmer than the air they riſe in, as appears from the vapours condenſing, and becoming viſible, almoſt as ſoon as they are got out into air. Freſh quantities of vapour, therefore, continually warming the atmoſphere over the ſea, will raiſe its heat beyond that of air over the land. Again, the rays of the ſun reflected from the earth into the air, in ſummer, are much more than thoſe from the water into air: the air, therefore, over the earth, warmed by the reflection of more rays than that over water, is warmer. Hence, ſea winds make thick, cloudy, hazy weather.

Winds blowing from the continent are always dry; in ſummer warm, and cold in winter: for there is much leſs vapours ariſing from the earth, than from water; and, therefore, the air over the continent will be impregnated with much fewer vapours. Add, that the vapours or exhalations, raiſed by a great degree of heat of the earth, are much finer and leſs ſenſible than thoſe from the water. The wind, therefore, blowing over the continent, carries but little vapour with it, and is accordingly dry. Further, the earth in ſummer is warmer than water expoſed to the rays of the ſun. Hence, as the air partakes of the heat of contiguous bodies; that over the earth in ſummer, will be warmer than that over the water.

After the like manner, it is ſhewn, that the land-winds are cold in winter. Hence, we ſee why land-winds make clear and cold weather.

The northerly and ſoutherly winds, however, which are commonly eſteemed the cauſes of cold and warm weather, Mr. Derham obſerves, are really rather the effect of the cold or warmth of the atmoſphere. Hence it is, that we frequently ſee a warm ſoutherly wind, on a ſudden changed to the north, by the fall of ſnow or hail; and that in a cold froſty morning, we ſee the wind north, which afterwards wheels about to the ſoutherly quarter, when the ſun has well warmed the air; and again, in the cold evening turns northerly or eaſterly.

WIND, in navigation, is the ſame agitation of the air, conſidered as ſerving for the motion of veſſels on the water. See *Sailing*.

The winds are divided, with reſpect to the points of the horizon from which they blow, into cardinal and collateral.

Cardinal WINDS, are thoſe blowing from the four cardinal points; eaſt, weſt, north, and ſouth.

Collateral WINDS, are the intermediate winds between two cardinal winds. The number of theſe is infinite, as the points from which they blow are; tho' only a few of them are conſidered in practice, that is, only a few of them have their diſtinguiſhed names. The ancient Greeks at firſt only uſed the four cardinal ones; at length they took in four more. Vitruvius gives us a table of 20, beſides the cardinals in uſe among the Romans. The moderns, as their navigation is much more perfect than the antients, have given names to 28 collateral winds, which they range into primary and ſecundary. And the ſecundary they ſubdivide into thoſe of the firſt and ſecond order.

The Engliſh names of the primary collateral winds and points, are compounded of the names of the cardinal ones, north and ſouth being ſtill prefixed.

The names of the ſecond collateral winds of the firſt order, are compounded of the names of the cardinals, and the adjacent primary one. Thoſe of the ſecond order are compounded of the names of the cardinal, or the next adjacent primary; and the next cardinal, or the next adjacent primary; and the next cardinal, with the addition of the word *by*. The diſtinct names for each are expreſſed in the following table.

Names of the winds, and points of the compaſs.

	Diſtances of the points from the North. Deg.	Min.
1. North	0	0
2. North by eaſt	11	15
3. North-north-eaſt	22	30
4. North-eaſt by north	33	45
5. North-eaſt	45	0
6. North-eaſt by eaſt	56	15
7. Eaſt-north-eaſt	67	30
8. Eaſt by north.	78	45
	From the Eaſt.	
9. Eaſt	0	0
10. Eaſt by ſouth	11	15
11. Eaſt ſouth-eaſt	22	30
12. South-eaſt by eaſt.	33	45
13. South eaſt	45	0
14. South-eaſt by ſouth	56	15
15. South ſouth-eaſt	67	30
16. South by eaſt	78	45
		17. South

		From the south.	
17.	South	0	0
18.	South by weſt	11	15
19.	South-ſouth-weſt	22	30
20.	South-weſt by ſouth	33	45
21.	South-weſt	45	0
22.	South-weſt by weſt	56	15
23.	Weſt-ſouth-weſt.	67	30
24.	Weſt by ſouth	78	45
		From the weſt.	
25.	Weſt	0	0
26.	Weſt by north	11	15
27.	Weſt-north-weſt	22	30
28.	North-weſt by weſt	33	45
29.	North-weſt	45	0
30.	North-weſt by north	56	15
31.	North-north-weſt	67	30
32.	North by weſt	78	45

For the uſe of the winds in navigation, ſee *Sailing*, *Rhumb*, and *Compaſs*.

Quarter-WIND. See *Quarter*-wind.

Whirl-WIND. See *Whirl*-wind.

WIND-*inſtruments*, in muſic, are ſuch inſtruments as are played by the wind, chiefly by the breath; in contradiſtinction to ſtring-inſtruments, and inſtruments of the pulſatile kind. Thoſe now in uſe are the flute, bagpipe, hautboy, trumpet, and others.

WINDLASS, or *Windlace*. A machine uſed to raiſe large weights, as guns, ſtones, timber, anchors, and the like. It is very ſimple, conſiſting only of an axis, or roller, ſupported horizontally at the two ends, by two pieces of wood, and a pulley. The two pieces of wood meet a-top, being placed diagonally, ſo as to prop each other. The axis or roller goes through the two pieces, and turns in them, the pully being faſtened a-top where the pieces join.

WINDLASS, in a ſhip, is an inſtrument in a ſmall veſſel, placed upon the deck, abaft the foremaſt, conſiſting of a piece of timber; having ſix or eight ſquares, and turned by hand-ſpikes, put into holes made for that purpoſe. This windlaſs will purchaſe more than any capſtan in the weighing of an anchor, or other heavy merchandiſe, without any danger to thoſe that heave; for if any of the handſpikes ſhould break, the windlaſs would pull of itſelf.

WINDMILL. See *Mill*.

WIND-TACKLE-*blocks*, in a ſhip, are the main double blocks, or pully; which being made faſt to the end of a ſmall cable, ſerve for the hoiſting of the goods into the ſhip.

To WIND, or *wend*, in a ſhip, ſignifies to bring her head about. How winds, or wends, the ſhip? is a queſtion aſked by mariners concerning a ſhip under ſail, ſignifying as much as, Upon what point of the compaſs does ſhe lie with her head?

WIND-*taught*. A ſea-term, implying as much as, Stiff in the wind. Too much rigging, high-maſts, or any thing catching or holding wind aloft, is ſaid to hold a ſhip wind-taught; by which they mean, that ſhe ſtops too much in her ſailing, before a ſtiff gale of wind. Again, when a ſhip rides in a main ſtreſs of wind and weather, they ſtrike down her top-maſts, and bring her yards down; otherwiſe ſhe would hold too much wind, or be too much diſtended, and wind-taught.

WINDWARD *iſlands*. See *Caribbee* iſlands.

WINDWARD *tide*, in the ſea-language. A tide which runs against the wind. See *Tide*.

WINE. A brisk, agreeable, ſpirituous, and cordial liquor, drawn from vegetable bodies, and fermented.

The character of wine, according to Boerhaave, is, that the firſt thing it affords by diſtillation ſhould be a thin, oily, inflammable fluid, called a ſpirit. This diſtinguiſhes wines from another claſs of fermented vegetable juices, called vinegar; which, inſtead of ſuch ſpirit, yield for the firſt thing an acid, inflammable matter. See *Vinegar*.

All ſorts of vegetables, fruits, ſeeds, and roots, afford wine; as grapes, currants, mulberries, elder, cherries, apples, pulſe, beans, peaſe, turnips, raddiſhes, and even graſs itſelf.

Hence, under the claſs of wines, or vinous liquors, come not only wines abſolutely ſo called; but alſo ale, cyder, and the like. See *Ale*, *Beer*, and *Cyder*.

WINE is, in a more peculiar manner, appropriated to that which is drawn from the fruit of the vine, by ſtamping its grapes in a vat, or cruſhing and expreſſing the juice out of them in a preſs, and then fermenting it. See *Vine*.

The goodneſs of wine conſiſts in its being neat, fine, bright, and briſk, without any taſte of the ſoil; of a clean, ſteady colour; having a ſtrength, without being heady; a body, without being ſour; and keeping, without growing hard or eager.

Wine being a liquor moſtly of foreign produce, the various names, forms, kinds, and diſtinctions thereof, are borrowed from the countries where they are produced; the principal of which are France, Spain, and Portugal.

Wine, in France, is diſtinguiſhed from the ſeveral degrees and ſteps of its preparation, into *mere goutte*, or mother-drop; and muſt, ſurmuſt, or ſtum.

The firſt is the *virgin wine*, or that which runs of itſelf out of a tap of the vat wherein the grapes are laid, before the vintagers enter to tread or ſtamp the grapes. The other is the wine, or liquor in the vat, after the grapes have been trod or ſtamped.

Preſſed wine, is that ſqueezed with a preſs out of the grapes, half bruiſed with treading. The huſks left of the grapes, are called rape, murk, or mark; by throwing water upon which, and preſſing them afreſh, they make a liquor for ſervants uſe, anſwerable to the Engliſh ciderkin, and called boiſſon; which is of ſome uſe in medicine, for the cure of diſorders occaſioned by viſcid humours.

Sweet wine, is that which has not yet worked, or fermented.

Bouru, is that which has been prevented from working, by caſting in cold water.

Cuvé, or worked wine, that which has been let work in the vat, to give it a colour.

Cuit, or boiled wine, that which has had a boiling before it worked, and which by that means ſtill retains its native ſweetneſs.

Paſſe, or ſtrained wine, that made by ſteeping dry grapes in water, and letting it ferment of itſelf.

Wines are alſo diſtinguiſhable with regard to their colour, into white wine, red wine, claret-wine, pale-wine, roſe or black wine; and with regard to their country, or the ſoil that produces them, into French wines, Spaniſh wines, Rheniſh wines, Hungary wines, Greek wines, Canary wines, and many other kinds; but more particularly into Port wine, Madeira wine, Burgundy wine, Champaign wine, Falernian wine, Tokay wine, Schiras wine, and the like.

Wines again are diſtinguiſhed with regard to their quality, into ſweet wines; rough, or dry wines; and rich, or luſcious wines; of which laſt ſome are exceedingly ſweet, others ſweet and poignant; all chiefly uſed by way of dram after meals. Such are French Frontigniac, the Canary, the Hungary, the Tokay, the Italian Monteſiaſcone, and the Perſian Schiras; as alſo the malmſey wines of Candia, Chio, Leſbos, Tenedos, and other iſlands of the Archipelago, which antiently belonged to the Greeks, but now to the Turks; ſo that theſe are ſometimes called Greek wines, and ſometimes Turky wines.

Wine is alſo variouſly denominated, according to its ſtate, circumſtances, and qualities.

Natural wine, is ſuch as comes from the grape, without further mixture, or ſophiſtication.

Brewed, or *adulterated wine*, is that wherein ſome drug is added, to give it ſtrength, fineneſs, flavour, briſkneſs, ſweetneſs, or ſome other good quality that is wanted.

Pricked, or *eager wine*, is that turned ſour.

Flat wine, is that fallen weak, and vappid, for want of being drank in time.

Sulphured wine, is that put in caſks where ſulphur has been burnt, to fit it for keeping, or for carriage by ſea.

Colour-wine, is ſome thick wine, of a very deep colour, ſerving to dye the wines which are too pale; as the black wine, in uſe among vintners.

Chip-wine,

Chip-wine, is that poured on chips of beech-wood, to fine or ſoften it.

There is alſo a ſort of malmſey wine made by boiling of muſcadine.

The method of making and fining wine. In the ſouthern parts of France, the way is, for red wines, to tread or ſqueeze the grapes between the hands, and to let the whole ſtand, juice and huſks, till the tincture comes to their liking; after which they preſs it: but for white wines, they preſs the grapes immediately; when preſſed, they tun the muſt, and ſtop up the veſſel; leaving only the depth of half a foot, or little more, empty, to give room for it to work. Ten days after, they fill up the veſſel with ſome other wine, that will not provoke it to work again; which they repeat from time to time, becauſe new wine ſpends itſelf a little before it comes to perfection.

About Paris, and other parts of France, they let the murk and muſt ſtand two days and nights for white wines; and at leaſt a week for claret wines before they turn it: but, while it continues working, it is kept as warm as poſſible. Some, upon ſtopping it entirely up, roll the caſk about the cellar, to mix the liquor with the lees; and, after ſettling a few days, rack it off with great improvement. To fine it down, they put ſhavings of green beech into the veſſel, having firſt taken off all the rind, and boiled them an hour in water, to extract their rankneſs, and afterwards dried them in the ſun, or in an oven. A buſhel of theſe ſhavings ſerve for a tun of wine: they put the liquor into a gentle ferment, purify it in 24 hours, and alſo give an agreeable flavour. The chips being waſhed, ſerve again and again, till almoſt quite conſumed.

Some ſweeten their wines with raiſins of the ſun trod in the vat with the grapes, having been firſt plumped by boiling; others, by boiling half the muſt, ſcumming it, and turning it up hot with the other.

For Engliſh wine, the method recommended by Mr. Mortimer is, firſt to gather the grapes when very dry, to pick them from the ſtalks, then to preſs them, and let the juice ſtand 24 hours in the vat covered: afterwards, to draw it off from the groſs lees, then put it up in a caſk; add a pint, or quart, of ſtrong red or white port to every gallon of juice; let the whole work, bunging it up cloſe; and letting it ſtand till January, then bottle it in dry weather. By this method, he aſſures us, he has made Engliſh wine as good as any the beſt and pureſt French wine, drank either in Paris or Champaign.

Mr. Bradley chuſes to have the liquor, when preſſed, ſtand with the huſks, ſtalks and all, in the vat to ferment for 15 days. He adds, that, according as the vines have been managed, the wine will be ſtronger or weaker. For example, thoſe which run at liberty up high trees, and are never pruned, make the ſmalleſt wines; thoſe kept tied to ſtakes about four feet high, and which have their branches duly pruned, ſtronger wines; and thoſe neareſt the ground the ſtrongeſt of all.

The force of the fermenting wine is very great; being able, if cloſe ſtopped, to burſt through the ſtrongeſt caſk. The readieſt and only way to abate this fermentation, is by the fume of burning ſulphur. But when wine already made is upon the fret, or, by any alteration in the affair, begins to ferment again; the way uſed by the vintners and wine-coopers to ſave it, is by the flame of common ſulphur, or a lighted match dipped in it, which, held under a caſk, juſt ready to burſt its hoops, calms its fury, and makes it immediately ſubſide. See *Sulphur*.

The age of WINE, is properly reckoned by leaves: thus they ſay, wine of two, four, ſix leaves, to ſignify a wine of two, four, or ſix years old; taking each new leaf put forth by the vine, ſince the vine was made, for a year. Among the Romans, the age of wines was, in a kind, a criterion of its goodneſs. Horace, in his odes, which may be called Bacchic ſongs, boaſts of his drinking Falernian wine born, as it were, with him, or which reckoned its age from the ſame conſuls. Pliny mentions wines kept above 100 years, and yet potable; others he ſpeaks of kept 200 years, which by that time were reduced to the conſiſtence of honey: but the moderns keep no wines to any ſuch age. Where they are kept the longeſt, as in Italy and Germany, there are ſcarce any to be found above 15 leaves. In France, the wines that keep beſt, are thoſe of Dijon, Nantz, and Orleance, which are reckoned ſuperannuated at five or ſix leaves old.

There is ſcarce a wine of the produce of France, but what the French import into foreign countries on their own bottoms; particularly to the ports of the Baltic and the North, the French Antilles iſlands, Cayenne, Quebec, and the other French colonies in North America, the coaſts of Italy, Tunis, Algiers, ſome other parts of the Mediterranean, and ſome coaſts of Africa.

What is exported by the French merchants is very conſiderable; but it comes very ſhort of thoſe exported by other nations, and brought into their own countries. The Engliſh, Iriſh, Scots, Dutch, Flemmings, and Hamburghers, are thoſe who, in time of peace, export moſt: but when the war was carried on between France, England, and Holland, in the reign of Lewis XIV. the Danes, Swedes, and Hamburghers, carried on this trade, either upon their own account, or for ſuch nations as were prohibited the French commerce.

It is moſt commonly at Bourdeaux, Rochelle, Nantz, and Rouen, that ſtrangers take in their cargoes of French wine.

Formerly, when the wine-ſeaſon proved abundant, and a commerce was open with the Engliſh and Dutch, there were frequently bought up by them to the amount of 80 and 100,000 tons; the Bourdeaux barique of wine being to contain 110 pots, comprehending the lees, to weigh 500 lb. and the the ton 2000 lb.

The Engliſh alſo exported great quantities of the wines of Lower Navarre and Bearn, with thoſe of the produce of the heart of the kingdom, as of Mantes, Burgundy, and Champaign; which latter they loaded their ſhips with at Rouen, Dunkirk, and Calais.

Middleburgh has always paſſed for the Dutch ſtaple of French wine; though Amſterdam and Rotterdam are as well, if not better ſtocked.

Hamburgh is the chief town in the North for a briſk trade of French wine; where it is computed there is ſold yearly about 3000 hogſheads, almoſt all of white wine; which the Hamburghers themſelves export from Nantz, Rochelle, and Bourdeaux.

Lubec requires about 2000 hogſheads; Koningſberg 500; Riga, Revel, and Narva, about 200 each; and Stetin only 100.

The French wines imported to Bremen ſhould be white and ſtrong; ſuch are thoſe of Anjou, Cogniac, and the upper part of Guyenne. Thoſe imported to Dantzick are for Pruſſia, being about 500 hogſheads: but French wines are little eſteemed throughout the reſt of Poland, becauſe the Poles prefer that of Hungary.

The Engliſh and Dutch, particularly the former, import conſiderable quantities of Bourdeaux and Anjou wines to Archangel; three-fourths of which is white, and the other red.

About 600 hogſheads of French wine are yearly ſold in Norway; but a leſs quantity is required for Copenhagen and Elſinor.

About 500 hogſheads are ſent to Stockholm. The French import a great part of theſe wines to the North; but the Dutch carry more.

The French carry on ſomething of a commerce in Spaniſh wines; but nothing in compariſon to that of the Engliſh and Dutch, either for their own particular uſe, or for their trade in the North; where Spaniſh wine, in ſeveral places, is preferred to French wine.

The ports of Spain, where foreigners take in their cargoes of wine, are Malaga, Alicant, Lucar, and Cadiz. In time of peace there are yearly exported from theſe ports about 4000 butts, ſometimes 5000, and before the war for the Spaniſh ſucceſſion very often 15,000.

Among Spaniſh wines may be ranked thoſe of the Canaries. See *Canary* iſlands.

The French ſay the Portugueſe wines have very unwholſome qualities: but the Engliſh politically prefer them before thoſe of France; for, by the treaty made between Queen Anne and Peter II. of Portugal, the wines of Portugal are to be admitted into Great Britain for a third part of cuſtom or duty leſs than the wine of France. Under the denomination of Portugal wines may be placed thoſe of Madeira; which are of a much more exalted quality, and delicious taſte; being principally bought up by the Engliſh and Dutch; who ſometimes export them directly from Madeira, but oftener from Portugal. See *Madeira* iſlands.

Rheniſh and Moſelle wines afford a foreign commerce; the greater part of which, beſides what is conſumed in the country, bought up by the Engliſh and Dutch. Hungary ſupplies Auſtria, and the other hereditary dominions of the Emperor, with wine, as alſo Poland; the Tokay wine of this country being much of the ſame nature as the Canary wine; but that produced in other parts retains a fumous quality, not unlike the ſtrong wines of the river of Bourdeaux.

The beſt of Italian wines are thoſe of Genſani, Albano, and Caſtello-Gandolfo in the neighbourhood of Rome; next, the Greek wine of Naples, and the Lachryma Chriſti; afterwards the different kinds of Florence wines; and, laſtly, thoſe of Piedmont and Montferrat. The Italians rather make preſents of their wines to ſtrangers, than trade in them; except in the Florence wines, which are exported to England, and other countries, in great quantities from Leghorn.

By the ſtatute of the 2d of Henry VI. &c. wine, oil, and honey, the ton is to contain 252 gallons, the pipe or butt 126 gallons, the hogſhead 63 gallons, the barrel 31½ gallons, and the rundlet 18½ gallons.

By the 12th of Charles II. wines imported, are diſcharged from the impoſition of exciſe: and, by the 1ſt of James II. wine or vinegar landed before payment and ſecurity of the impoſt duty, are forfeited, or their value, and the importers are to pay the ſaid duty notwithſtanding.

Wines, if firſt landed in the outports, and carried afterwards to London by certificate, are to pay ſo much more as they paid ſhort of the duties due in London.

No wine, exceeding the quantity of 10 gallons, imported into any of the outports, is to be brought from thence to London, or within 20 miles of the Royal Exchange, without paying the outport of London duty. But if any quantity of wine, exceeding in bottles 3 dozen, or in caſks 10 gallons, are brought in the ſame carriage to London, or within 20 miles of the Exchange, without a certificate of the reſpective duties being paid, &c. are to be forfeited.

Every hogſhead run out, and not full 7 inches, or above, and every pipe or butt not above 9 inches left therein, are to be accounted for outs, and no duty is to be paid for the ſame.

By the 1ſt of Queen Anne, wine of the growth of Hungary, may be imported from Hamburgh, paying duty as Rheniſh wines; and 12 *per cent.* to be allowed for leakage.

By the 6th and 12th of Geo. I. damaged, corrupt or unmerchantable wine, upon the importer's refuſing to pay or ſecure the duties, may, at the landing, be delivered up into the cuſtody of the officers of the cuſtoms, in order to be publickly ſold to be diſtilled into brandy, or made into vinegar; and that they ſhall not be uſed for any other purpoſe, ſecurity muſt be taken; which may be diſcharged upon a certificate, within three months after delivery, that they have been ſo uſed.

The produce of ſuch ſale is to be paid to the importer, by certificate, as a compenſation for the freight, &c. but ſuch allowance muſt not exceed 4 l. for every ton of wine of the growth of France and Germany, and 8 l. for every ton of all other wines ſo delivered up: and if there be any overplus beyond the ſaid allowance, it muſt be placed to the duties out of which the charges have been paid.

But, by the 8th and 11th of George I. no allowance may be made for ſuch wines, unleſs they are imported in caſks on board a merchant's ſhip directly from the place of their growth, or the uſual place of their firſt ſhipping.

Except ſaved from ſhips ſtranded; which are to enjoy the ſame allowances as if imported in the ſhip wherein they were firſt laden.

By the 1ſt of George II. wine, except of the growth of the dominions of the Great Duke of Tuſcany, in open flaſks, or of Turky, or any other parts of the Levant ſeas, may not be imported in flaſks or bottles, or in veſſels, or caſks, which ſhall contain leſs than 25 gallons, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value.

From the ſtate of the duties paid by wines, and other liquors brought into England, it appears, that French wines imported by Engliſhmen into the port of London pay 55 l. 16 s. 8 d. *per* ton; thoſe imported by the ſame into other ports, 51 l. 13 s. 6 d. but thoſe brought by foreigners into the port of London pay 61 l. 15 s. 10 d. and into other ports 57 l. 12 s. 8 d. Spaniſh, Italian, muſcadine, malmſey, and other Greek wines, imported by the Engliſh into the port of London, pay 27 l. 1 s. 10 d. and brought by the ſame into the other ports 23 l. 4 s. 9 d. but the ſame wines brought to London by foreigners pay 33 l. 7 s. 0¾ d. Portugal, Rheniſh, and Hungary wines brought to London by Engliſh veſſels, pay 26 l. 10 s. 3 d. into the other ports 22 l. 7 s. 2 d. but the ſame wines imported to London by foreigners, pay 32 l. 9 s. 5 d. and ino other ports 28 l. 6 s. 3 d. See *Cuſtoms*.

There were imported into the port of London in one year, from divers countries, the following quantities of wine; from Portugal 18,208 tons; from Spain 10,255; from France 1105; from Germany and Holland 476; making together 30,044; and the duties on wines and vinegar are generally about 500,000 l. a year.

Priſage of WINE. See *Priſage*.

Spirit of WINE. See *Spirit*.

Lees of WINE, are the impurities thereof, or the thick ſediment, remaining at the bottom of the caſks, when the wine is drawn out.

WINE, is alſo a denomination applied in medicine and pharmacy, to ſeveral mixtures and compoſitions, wherein the juice of the grape is a principal ingredient. The medicated wines make a conſiderable article in diſpenſatories, in quality of diet-drinks; ſome being denominated from the ingredients uſed in them, others from the intentions wherewith they they are preſcribed, and ſome from their qualities.

Bitter WINE, is an infuſion of certain bitter ſtomachic herbs, as gentian-roots, juniper berries, tops of centaury, orange and lemon peel, in white port, or other white wine, taken by way of whet in a morning, to reſtore the palled ſtomach after a debauch, and bring its fibres to their due tenſion.

Chalybeat, or *Steel* WINE, is prepared of ſteel filings and ſaffron, infuſed and filtered; being good in the chloroſis, and removes obſtructions in the viſcera.

Vinum benedictum, the *bleſſed* WINE, is made of crocus metallorum and mace, infuſed in wine; which was formerly a celebrated emetic, but now almoſt out of uſe, on account of its roughneſs.

Elecampane WINE, is an infuſion of the root of that plant, with ſugar and cinnamon, in white port; which cleanſes the viſcera, prevents diſorders and obſtructions of the lungs, and is good in aſthmatic caſes, and cachexies.

Hog-lice WINE, is prepared of hog-lice put alive in white port; and, after ſome infuſion, preſſed and ſtrained out; to which is added ſaffron, ſalt, or ſteel; being recommended againſt the jaundice, dropſy, and cachectic habits.

Pectoral WINE, is prepared of liquorice, ſaffron, coriander ſeeds, carraway, aniſe, ſalt of tartar, pennyroyal, and hyſſop-waters, digeſted with canary wine, and ſtrained; being a good expectorant, helping to deterge and cleanſe the lungs.

Viper WINE, is a preparation of female vipers, infuſed ſix months in canary wine; which is a great reſtorative, and of ſervice in cutaneous eruptions.

WINE of ſquills, is an infuſion of thoſe onions in white wine for 40 days; after which the ſquills are ſtrained out, and the liquor preſerved for uſe; being a gentle emetic, and good againſt the inundations of rheum.

WINE-*meaſure*. See *Meaſure*.

WINE-*licence office*. An office kept in Arundel-ſtreet, in the Strand, Weſtminſter; under the management of five commiſſioners; whoſe buſineſs it is to grant licences to the ſeveral retailers of wine in all parts of the kingdom, who are rated according to their reſpective returns: but the free vintners of London are not under their cogniſance.

WINTER'S *bark*. See *Cortex*, and *Cinnamon*.

WINTERTONNESS. The north cape of the county of Norfolk, 4 miles north of Yarmouth.

WIRE. A piece of metal drawn through the hole of an iron, into a thread, of a fineneſs anſwerable to the hole it is paſſed through; which is frequently drawn ſo fine, as to be wrought along with other threads of ſilk, wool, flax, or hemp; whereby they become a conſiderable article in the manufactures. The metals moſt commonly drawn into wire, are gold, ſilver, copper, and iron: hence there is gold wire, ſilver wire, and iron wire; as in the following articles.

Gold and ſilver WIRE. What is called gold wire, is made of cylindric ingots of ſilver, covered over with a ſkin of gold, and thus drawn ſucceſſively through a great number of holes, each ſmaller and ſmaller, till at laſt it is brought to a fineneſs exceeding that of a hair. That prodigious ductility which makes one of the diſtinguiſhing characters of gold, is no where more conſpicuous than in this gilt wire. A cylinder of 48 ounces of ſilver, covered with a coat of gold, only weighing 1 oz. Dr. Halley informs us, is commonly drawn into a wire, 2 yards of which only weigh 1 grain; whence 98 yards of the wire only weigh 49 grains, and one ſingle grain of gold covers the 98 yards: ſo that the ten thouſandth part of a grain is above half an inch long. The ſame author, computing the thickneſs of the ſkin of gold, found it to be only $\frac{1}{34300}$ part of an inch; ſo that even a microſcope does not diſcover any appearance of the ſilver underneath.

M. Rohault obſerves, that a like cylinder of ſilver covered with gold, 2 feet 8 inches long, and 2 inches 9 lines in circumference, is drawn into a wire 307,200 feet long, that is, into 115,200, its former length.

Mr. Boyle relates, that 8 grains of gold covering a cylinder of ſilver, is commonly drawn into wire 13,000 feet long. See *Gold* wire.

Gold and ſilver WIRE *drawers company*. See *Gold* and ſilver wire drawers company.

Silver WIRE, is the ſame with gold wire; except that the latter is gilt, or covered with gold, and the former is not. See *Silver*.

Braſs WIRE, is that drawn after the ſame manner as thoſe above mentioned; of which there are ſeveral ſizes, ſuited to the ſeveral kinds of works; the fineſt being uſed for the ſtrings of muſical inſtruments, as ſpinets, harpſichords, manichords, and the like.

The pinmakers uſe great quantities of braſs wire of various ſizes, to make their pins. See *Pin*.

Iron WIRE, is called by the French *fil d'archal*; the reaſon of which their authors are not agreed upon. That celebrated etymologiſt M. Menage, derives it from *filum* and *aurichalcum*; but others, more converſant in the commerce thereof, deduce it from one Richard Archal, the firſt inventor thereof.

There are various ſizes of this wire, from $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{10}$ of an inch diameter. The ſmalleſt ſizes are uſed to ſtring muſical inſtruments. Great quantities of iron wire are brought to England yearly from the the Baltic; which are partly ſpent at home, and partly exported to France. By acts of parliament, paſſed in 3d Edward IV. 1ſt Richard III. and 2d William and Mary, wire of iron, as card-wire, and all ſorts of iron wire ſmaller than fine wire, and ſuperfine and wool cards, or any other wares of iron wire, may not be imported, unleſs from Ireland, or wrecked, upon forfeiture thereof.

WISBY, or *Wiſbuy*. A port-town of Sweden, ſituated on the weſt-coaſt of the iſland of Gothland, in the Baltic ſea, 120 miles ſouth-eaſt of Stockholm, in 18 deg. of E. lon. and 57 deg. 30 min. of N. lat.

WISBY *laws*, or the laws of Wiſby, were a collection of maritime laws and ordinances, which the Swedes compoſed in this city, when it was one of the moſt mercantile places in Europe.

Theſe laws conſiſted of 70 articles, which are ſtill preſerved in the Teutonic language; being obſerved by the Germans, Swedes, Danes, Flemmings, and all the people of the North: but none have been ſo curious as to preſerve the date, and the remembrance of the time when they were compoſed and publiſhed.

WOAD. A drug uſed by the dyers to give a blue colour. It ariſes from a ſeed, ſown annually in the ſpring, which puts forth a plant called glaſtum ſativum, whoſe leaves reſemble thoſe of rib-wort-plantain. They have uſually three, four, or five crops of leaves every year; but only the two or three firſt are of any value; whereof the firſt are beſt, and the reſt in their order.

When the leaves are ripe, they crop or gather them; after which they carry them to a woad-mill to grind them ſmall: they are then laid 8 or 10 days in piles or heaps, and at laſt made into a kind of balls, which are laid in the ſhade on hurdles to dry. This done, they break or grind them to powder; and, when ground, ſpread it on a floor, and water it, which they call couching. Here they let it ſmoke and heat, till, by torrifying it every day, it becomes quite dry, which they call ſilvering; and, a week after this, it is in a condition to be uſed in dying. The antient Britons were accuſtomed to dye their bodies with woad: and ſome hold it was from this plant that glaſs took its denomination; though others derive both glaſs and glaſtum from the Britiſh *glas*, which to this day denotes a blue colour. See *Glaſs*, and *Paſtel*.

A WOAD *blue*, is a very deep blue, almoſt black; being the baſe of ſo many ſorts of colours, that the dyers have a ſcale, whereby they compoſe the various caſts or degrees of woad, from the brighteſt to the deepeſt. See *Dying*.

WOLFERDYKE. An iſland of the United Netherlands, in the province of Zeland, ſituated between the iſlands of North Beveland and South Beveland.

WOLGA, or *Volga*. A river of Ruſſia, which riſes in the north of that empire; runs ſouth-eaſt, paſſing the cities of Jereſlaf, Kaſan, and Bulgar; then entering Aſiatic Ruſſia, continues its courſe due ſouth to Kamiſinca; from whence it runs ſouth-eaſt; and, paſſing by Aſtracan, falls into the Caſpian ſea, 50 miles below that city, having run a courſe of between 2 and 3000 miles. It is deep enough great part of the way to carry large ſhips; but the mouth of it is ſo choaked up with ſand, that loaded ſhips cannot enter it; for which reaſon the Ruſſian ſhips lie at an iſland without the mouth of the Wolga. It was by this river that the Ruſſian merchants of England endeavoured to eſtabliſh a trade with Perſia; in which they have been unhappily circumvented. See *Ruſſia*.

WOLGAST. A city and port-town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and duchy of Pomerania, ſubject to Sweden, ſituated 30 miles ſouth-eaſt of Stralſund, in 14 deg. 5 min. of E. lon. and 54 deg. 12 min. of N. lat.

WOMBS. A ſort of tanned hides. See *Hide*.

WOOD. A ſolid ſubſtance, whereof the trunks and branches of trees conſiſt, and deriving its growth from certain juices in the earth; the wood being all that part in a tree included between the bark and the pith.

Woods are diſtinguiſhed into various kinds, with regard to their natures, properties, virtues, and uſes. Of wood, conſidered according to its qualities, whether uſeful, curious, or medicinal, the principal is that called timber, uſed in building houſes, laying floors, roofs, and making machines. See *Timber*.

Woods valued on account of their curioſity, are cedar, ebony, box, mahogony, calambo, and others; which, on account of their extraordinary hardneſs, agreeable ſmell, or beautiful poliſh, are made into tables, beds, combs, and the like.

The principal medicinal woods are guiac, which the Spaniards call ligno ſancto; aloes, or agallochum; ſaſſafras, nephriticum, ſantal, ſarſaparilla, aſpalathum, and eagle-wood.

Woods uſed in dying, are the Indian wood, Brazil, Campechy, and others.

Cord-

Cord-WOOD, denotes wood for the fire, generally made of the branches or loppings of trees, piled up in order; which is limited to be below 17 inches, and above 6 inches thick, and at leaſt 3 feet and a half long. See *Cord*-wood.

WOOD, in geography. A multitude of trees, extended over a large tract of land, and propagated without culture. See *Foreſt*.

The generality of woods conſiſt of trees of one kind. At Cape Verd, in Africa, are woods of orange and lemon trees; at Ceylon, are woods of cinnamon-trees; in the Molucca iſlands, are woods of caraway-trees; in the iſlands of Nero, Lontour, and Loſgain, are woods of nutmeg-trees; in Brazil, are woods of Brazil-trees; in Numidia, woods of date-trees; and in Madagaſcar, woods of tamarind-trees. See *Lumber*.

WOOD *and wood*, in the ſea-language, is when two pieces of timber are ſo let into each other, that the wood of the one joins cloſe to the other.

WOOD-*meaſure*. See *Meaſure*.

WOODMONGER. A perſon who ſells billeting for fires; and alſo one who deals in timber.

WOODMONGERS *company of London*, was incorporated with that of the carmen of the city of London, by letters-patent of the 3d of James I. dated the 8th of Auguſt 1605; with whom they continued united till the year 1668; when, for their mal-practices, they judged it convenient, to avoid a greater puniſhment, to ſurrender their charter. However, by an act of common council in the year 1694, they obtained a privilege for keeping 120 carts, excluſive of the 420 public ones kept by the carmen, for the more effectual carrying on their buſineſs.

WOOF, among manufacturers, are the threads which the weavers ſhoot acroſs, with an inſtrument called the ſhuttle, between the threads of the warp, which form the web.

The woof is of a different matter, according to the piece to be wrought: though, in taffety, both woof and warp are ſilk. In mohair, the woof is uſually wool, and the warp ſilk. In ſatins, the warp is frequently flax, and the woof ſilk.

WOOL. The hair or covering of ſheep; which, when waſhed, ſhorn, dreſſed, combed, ſpun, and wove, makes ſeveral kinds of cloths and ſtuffs, for apparel and furniture.

While the wool remains in the ſtate it was firſt ſhorn off the ſheep's back, and not ſorted into its different kinds, it is called fleece; each fleece conſiſting of wool of various qualities, and degrees of fineneſs, which the dealers therein take care to ſeparate. The French and Engliſh uſually ſeparate each fleece into three ſorts. 1. Mother-wool, which is that of the back and neck: 2. The wool of the tails and legs: 3. That of the breaſt, and under the belly. The Spaniards make the like diviſion into the three ſorts; which they call prime, ſecond, and third; and, for the greater eaſe, denote each pack, or bale, with a capital letter, intimating the ſort. If the triage, or ſeparation, is well made, in 15 bales, there will be 12 marked with R, that is, refine, or prime; 2 marked F, for fine, or ſecond; and one T for thirds. The wools moſt eſteemed are the Engliſh, chiefly thoſe about Leominſter, Cotſwold, and the iſle of Wight; the Spaniſh, principally thoſe about Segovia; and the French, about Berry; which laſt are ſaid to have this peculiar property, that they will knot or bind with any other ſort; whereas the reſt will only knot with their own kind.

Among the antients, the wools of Attica, Megara, Laodicea, Apulia, and eſpecially thoſe of Tarentum, Parma, and Altino, were moſt valued. Columella ſets the two laſt even above that of Tarentum. And Varro aſſures us, the people there uſed to clothe their ſheep with ſkins, to ſecure the wool from being damaged. De re ruſt. lib. ii. c. 2.

Tavernier affirms, that the wools in Aſia are incomparably better than thoſe of Europe; and that there is no doubt, but wool was the golden fleece ſought for at Colchis.

The art of preparing and working wool, is attributed by the antients to Minerva; who, accordingly, is made the genius and protectreſs thereof.

Engliſh WOOL. The wools of England have always been in the higheſt repute, and more abroad than at home. Some manufactured by Britiſh clothiers, Chamberlayne obſerves, vies, both for ſoftneſs and fineneſs, with the choiceſt ſilks.

Spaniſh wools bear a great price in England; but it is certain much the greateſt part of that, which, when manufactured, the Engliſh clothiers call Spaniſh cloth, grows in England. But the French can make no good cloth of their own wool, without at leaſt one-third of Engliſh or Iriſh wool mixed with it. It is allowed the goodneſs of the Spaniſh wool is owing to a few Engliſh ſheep ſent over into Spain, as a preſent, by Henry II. of England; or, as others will have it, by Edward IV. in 1465.

The fineneſs and plenty of Engliſh wools, is owing, in ſome meaſure, to the ſweet, ſhort graſs, in many paſtures and downs: though the advantage of theſe ſheep feeding on this graſs all the year, without being obliged to be ſhut up in folds during the winter, or to ſecure them from wolves at other times, contributes not a little thereto.

The Scotch and Iriſh wools are commonly ſold abroad for Engliſh, and upon the ſame footing. But foreigners ſkilled in thoſe matters, find they come far ſhort of it in fineneſs; though, in ſome markets, the Iriſh is ſaid to be preferred even to the Engliſh.

The yearly produce of wool in England is calculated, by Dr. Davenant and Mr. King, at two millions ſterling. See *Woollen* manufactory.

Antiently the principal commerce of the Engliſh nation conſiſted in wool unmanufactured; which foreigners, eſpecially the French, Dutch, and Flemiſh, bought up; inſomuch that the cuſtoms of Engliſh wool exported in the reign of Edward III. amounted, at 50 s. a ſack, to 250,000 l. *per annum*; which was an immenſe ſum in thoſe days.

This exceſſive cuſtom on the export of unmanufactured wool ſet the inhabitants of England to the making of it into cloth themſelves: in which they ſucceeded ſo well, that, towards the cloſe of the 16th century, under the reign of Queen Elizabeth, the exportation of any wool at all was abſolutely prohibited, upon pain of having the right hand ſtruck off.

From which time England has been exceedingly jealous of its wool. To prompt their vigilance, the judges, king's council at law, and maſters in chancery, in parliament, are ſeated on wool-ſacks. Accordingly, there has been ſcarce a parliament but has renewed and reinforced the prohibition; particularly, about the middle of the 17th century, the exporting of wool was made a capital crime. But all theſe precautions are ineffectual; the Engliſh themſelves, particularly about the coaſts of Suſſex, making uſe of the long winter-nights to waft over their wools to France; being ſure of carrying them to a good market; deſpiſing the penalty, with an intrepidity which all other Europeans are amazed at.

M. Colbert, a name the French manufactures and commerce are infinitely indebted to, entertained a deſign of procuring ſome Engliſh ſheep, and propagating them in France; hoping, that, by chuſing them, in the provinces of that kingdom, ſuch paſtures, and ſuch a ſky as they had in their own iſland, they might there be perpetuated, and France be no longer obliged to depend on the clandeſtine ſupplies of wool from the Britiſh owlers. But the Count de Cominges, then ambaſſador of France to the Britiſh court, laid the impoſſibility of having ſuch an export of ſheep; and the almoſt equal impoſſibility of keeping and making them multiply there, ſo ſtrongly before him, that he abandoned the deſign.

Wool is reckoned by the ſack, containing 2 weighs, the weigh 6 tods and a half, the tod 2 ſtones, the ſtone 2 cloves, the clove 7 pounds, and 2 ſacks make a laſt, or 4368 pounds. See *Laſt*, *Sack*, *Tod*, and *Clove*.

In 1740, Mr. Webber publiſhed an account of his ſcheme, "for preventing the exportation of wool." In his

his dedication to the houſe of commons, he ſays, "That "he had invented and publiſhed a ſcheme to prevent "this fatal evil, by an *univerſal regiſtry* in charter; "which his Majeſty, above nine years ago, at the requeſt "of above 60,000 woollen traders, was pleaſed to grant "to him and company. That, by the advice of the "lord high chancellor, he had been endeavouring ever "ſince to procure an act of parliament to confirm his "Majeſty's grant, and to make the ſcheme more effec-"tual, by veſting in the patentees ſuch power as the "charter would not give them; but he had not been "able to obtain one, which he imputed to the miſrepre-"ſentations of him and his ſcheme: becauſe, of him-"ſelf, it had been ſaid, that he was no better than a "madman; and of his ſcheme, that it was calculated to "monopoliſe trade, and to enſlave the nation by an ex-"ciſe."

Mr. Webber's ſcheme was, that the charter might conſiſt of 122 perſons, anſwerable to the number of counties in Great Britain and Ireland, to remain to them, their heirs and aſſigns, for ever. *But he ſhould have conſidered that there are only* 119 *counties and ſhires in Great Britain and Ireland.* That each of the perſons, in the diſtricts which may be allotted them, ſhould have power to provide proper perſons to ſerve in the regiſters thereof; which he propoſes to be done in the manner particularly mentioned in his ſcheme, conſiſting of 42 other articles.

But as this ſcheme had been miſrepreſented, the author deſired the following principles, on which it was founded, and the propoſitions offered to ſupport them, might be fully examined.

"He propoſed, that all the wool of Great Britain and Ireland ſhould be entered in a regiſtry, to be eſtabliſhed throughout theſe kingdoms, ſo ſoon as it is ſhorn; and that it ſhould be and remain charged with 5 s. *per* pound, from thenceforth, till it appears to have been manufactured among us, ſo far as that it can never be reduced into wool, worſted, or the like, again.

If it was charged with 20 s. *per* pound, it would affect no honeſt man; no money being intended to be diſburſed, or paid by any perſons, but thoſe who export it; and they cannot be puniſhed too ſeverely.

Again, he propoſed, that all perſons who have the direction of the ſaid regiſtry ſhould be under no manner of influence; and that they ſhould be rendered incapable of ever having any thing to do in it, on their accepting any place, penſion, or the like, and on their being guilty of any wilful and notorious breach of their duty."

That officers never will ſtop wool, was the opinion of the late King James, who had been himſelf a great merchant; of King William, whoſe country ſubſiſted entirely by trade; of the honourable the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, in a report made to that prince, dated the 4th of March 1689; nay, even of the parliament themſelves; as appears by the preamble to an act made in conſequence of that report, in the 1ſt of William and Mary; in which the remiſſneſs and negligence of the officers is taken notice of to be of very bad conſequence, tending to the ruin and undoing of many of the ſubjects, and the great diminution of the trade of the kingdom; by which act letters-patents that had been granted to private perſons by King James, for preventing the exportation of wool, were revived: but the act proved ineffectual.

By acts paſſed in the 9th and 10th of William III. the owners of wool ſhorn, or lodged within 10 miles of the ſea-ſide, in the counties of Kent and Suſſex, muſt, within three days after ſheering, give an exact account in writing of the number of fleeces, and where lodged, to the officers of the next port.

The like notice muſt be given before removal, expreſſing the number of fleeces and weight, the name and abode of the buyer, and the place to which it is intended to be carried, and a certificate taken from the officer who firſt entered it, upon forfeiture, and 3 s. *per* pound.

Such certificates muſt ſpecify the names of the owners and buyers, and be limited to ſuch times and places to be removed; for which certificate the officer is to receive 6 d.

Perſons reſiding within 15 miles of the ſea, in the counties of Kent and Suſſex, may not buy wool before they have entered into a bond, with ſureties, that all the wool they buy ſhall not be ſold by them to any perſons within 15 miles of the ſea.

Wool found carrying towards the ſea-ſide in the aforeſaid counties, unleſs entered, and ſecurity be given, is forfeited, and 3 s. *per* pound weight.

If removed from the place where firſt lodged after ſheering, within 10 miles of the ſea, may not be lodged, after the firſt removal, within 15 miles of the ſea, in the aforeſaid counties, upon forfeiture thereof, if found, or of 3 s. *per* pound weight by the owners, if carried away.

If laid or hid within 15 miles of the ſea, and not entered, is forfeited.

By the 1ſt of William and Mary, wool deſigned to be carried to any place on the ſea-coaſts, with an intention to be conveyed to any other port or place on the ſea-coaſts, from whence it may be exported; muſt, before loaded, or carried within 5 miles of the place, be entered at the port from whence it is to be conveyed, mentioning the exact weight, marks, and numbers; upon forfeiture thereof, with the horſes, &c. and perſons concerned in carrying, driving, &c. are liable to the forfeiture inflicted on the exportation.

But not to hinder the conveyance of wool from the place of ſheering to the proprietor's dwelling-houſe, though within 5 miles or leſs of the ſea; provided that within 10 days after the ſheering, and before removal or diſpoſal, he certifies under his hand, to the officers of the next port, the number of fleeces, and where lodged; and does not remove or diſpoſe thereof, without certifying his intention at leaſt three days before removal; ſuch certificates being to be kept and regiſtered by the officers.

A regiſter of all wool ſent coaſtwiſe, with the particular weights and numbers, the ſhipmaſter's name, owner's name, and to whom conſigned, muſt be kept at the cuſtom-houſe, London.

By the ſtatutes of the 12th Charles II. 1ſt of William and Mary, 7th and 8th of William III. and 5th of George I. wool, woolfells, mortlings, ſhortlings, yarn made of wool, wool-flocks, fullers earth, fulling clay, and tobacco-pipe clay; the cockets for the carriage thereof coaſtwiſe, muſt be written upon paper, and not parchment, expreſſing the exact weights, marks, and numbers, and be ſigned by at leaſt three of the chief officers; in whoſe preſence they are to be weighed.

The return or certificate of landing the wool, muſt be written on paper, not parchment; the quantity not obliterated, or interlined, and muſt expreſs the exact weights, marks, and numbers, and be ſigned by at leaſt three of the chief officers; in whoſe preſence it muſt be weighed.

Officers not performing their duties, are to be deemed aiders and abettors of the tranſportation, and to be liable to all penalties accordingly.

By the ſtatutes of the 12th and 14th of Charles II. and 7th and 8th, and 9th and 10th of William III. wool, ſheep, &c. as above, may not be exported, nor packed or loaded upon any horſe. &c. nor loaden on board any ſhip, with intent to be exported, unleſs as hereafter excepted; upon forfeiture, and 20 s. for every ſheep, and 3 s. for every pound weight of the reſt.

Owners of the ſhips, knowing thereof, are to forfeit their intereſt therein.

And if they be aliens, or natural-born ſubjects not inhabiting within this kingdom, ſuch ſhips are forfeited wholly to his Majeſty.

Maſters and mariners knowing thereof, and aſſiſting therein, are to forfeit all their goods and chattels, and to ſuffer three months impriſonment.

The exporter, beſides other penalties, is diſabled to require any debt, &c.

Owners, maſters, or mariners, diſcovering upon oath, within three months after knowledge of offence, or after their return into Great Britain, the number, quantity, and quality of the goods exported, &c. are to be diſcharged of all penalties, and to have the benefit of an informer's part.

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The exportation of wool, ſheep, woolfells, mortlings, ſhortlings, yarn made of wool, wool-flocks, fullers earth, fulling clay, or tobacco-pipe clay, is declared a common and public nuſance.

Such goods ſhipped, or found on the ſhore, at or near the ſea, or any navigable river, or packed or loaded on any horſe, &c. with intent to be exported, may be ſeized by any perſons: but ſuch perſons may not be evidence againſt the offender.

But the prohibition is not to extend to

Lamb-ſkins ready dreſſed and prepared for furs or linings.

Nor to wool fells or pelts, or beds ſtuffed with flocks, or wether ſheep alive, or the wool growing thereon, taken on board for the uſe and food of the ſhip and paſſengers.

Nor to the exportation of unkembed wool, out of the port of Southampton, into the following iſlands, and not exceeding the following reſpective quantities yearly:

To Jerſey	-	4000 tods, not exceeding 32 lb.
To Guernſey	-	2000
To Alderney	- -	400
To Sark	- -	200

Provided the exporter, before ſhipping, delivers to the cuſtomer, comptroller, ſurveyor, or ſearcher, a writing under the ſeals of the reſpective governors, ſignifying that the perſon therein named, is authoriſed to export the number of tods therein mentioned; and that he has given ſufficient ſecurity for the due landing.

Governors may not grant licences for any greater quantities, upon forfeiture of 20 l. *per* tod to his Majeſty.

Such wool may not be again tranſported, or attempted to be tranſported out of the ſaid iſlands, upon forfeiture, and 20 l. *per* tod.

The cuſtomer of Southampton muſt keep a true account of the quantity of the wool ſhipped, and may not permit any greater quantities than thoſe before limited; upon forfeiture of office, and 100 l.

Packs, ſacks, bags, or caſks of wool, wool-fells, mortlings, ſhortlings, yarn made of wool, wool-flocks, fullers earth, fulling clay, or tobacco pipe clay, may not be loaded on any horſe, &c. nor carried by land within the kingdom, but in the day-time, and at ſeaſonable hours; that is to ſay, from the 1ſt of March to the 29th of September, between four in the morning and eight in the evening; and after the 29th of September to the 1ſt of March, between ſeven in the morning and five in the evening; upon forfeiture thereof, or the value.

Such goods may not be loaded upon any horſe, &c. or carried by land, within five miles of the ſea-coaſt, but between ſun-riſing and ſun-ſetting, upon forfeiture thereof, and the horſe, &c.

Such exported into parts beyond the ſeas, the penalty is forfeiture of ſhip and goods, and treble the value, with treble coſts of ſuit.

Perſons aſſiſting in the exportation, are to ſuffer three years impriſonment, without bail or mainprize.

The firſt three perſons, not being the owners, aſſiſting in the exportation, diſcovering their crime to any juſtice of the peace, are diſcharged of all penalties and puniſhments.

The inhabitants of the place out of which, or through which ſuch goods are carried or exported, are to forfeit 20 l. if they be under the value of 10 l.: but if above, treble the value, and alſo treble coſts of ſuit.

But the hundred of Winchelſea in the cinque ports, being divided by a navigable arm of the ſea, is to be deemed as two diſtinct hundreds: and the offences committed in one part, are not to be chargeable on the inhabitants of the other.

The admiralty are to appoint one ſhip of the 5th rate, and two of the 6th, and four-armed ſloops, to cruize conſtantly from off the North Foreland to the iſle of Wight; with orders for ſeizing all veſſels exporting wool, or carrying or bringing prohibited goods, or any ſuſpected perſons.

By the 10th and 11th of William III. and 5th of George II. the admiralty are to appoint three ſhips of the 6th rate, and eight or more armed ſloops, to cruize on the coaſts of Great Britain and Ireland, in ſuch ſtations as ſhall be aſſigned them by the admiralty, with orders to ſeize all veſſels in which any wool, worſted, bay or woollen yarn, cloth, ſerges, bays, kerſeys, ſays, frizes, druggets, cloth-ſerges, ſhalloons, or any other drapery, ſtuffs, or woollen manufactures whatſoever, ſhall be exported, or laden to be exported from Ireland to foreign parts. A liſt of the ſhips and ſloops, the names of the commanders, and copies of their inſtructions, are to be ſent to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in Great Britain, and commiſſioners of the revenue in Ireland, within 10 days after given. The commanders of ſuch ſhips may ſearch any veſſels within the limits of their ſtations; and if any of the above mentioned goods are found on board without a cocket or warrant licenſing the exportation thereof, may carry them, with crew and cargo, into any port in Great Britain or Ireland.

After ſeizure, the goods are to be ſecured in the King's warehouſe; and, when condemned, muſt, together with the veſſel, her guns, tackle, and furniture, be ſold by inch of candle, to the beſt bidder after 21 days public notice; 1-4th of the produce of ſuch ſale to the commander; 1-4th to the officers of the ſhip or ſloop; 1-4th to the mariners; and 1-4th to the King; out of which the charges of proſecution are to be paid, except the ſeizure be made upon information; in which caſe the informer is to be indemnified from all penalties, &c. for the exportation, and to be paid 1-5th of ſuch ſale, and the reſidue to be divided into four parts, and diſtributed as above.

Commanders neglecting their duties, compounding for, or conniving at the exportation of wool, are to forfeit all their pay due, to ſuffer ſix months impriſonment, and be rendered incapable of any ſervice in the navy.

By the 14th of Charles II. wool, yarn made of wool, and wool-flocks, may not be preſſed together with any ſcrews, preſſes, or any other engines, into any ſack, pack, bag, caſk, &c. nor carried nor laid at or near the ſhore or coaſts of the ſea, or any navigable river, or into any place adjoining, with intent to be exported; upon forfeiture thereof, or the value.

Spaniſh or foreign wool may be exported only in Britiſh ſhipping, upon pain of confiſcation.

By the 1ſt of William and Mary, and 7th and 8th of William, &c. wool, wool-fells, mortlings, ſhortlings, wool-flocks, worſted, bay or woollen yarn, cloth, ſerges, bays, kerſies, ſays, frizes, druggets, ſhalloons, ſtuffs, cloth-ſerges, or any other drapery made of or mixed with wool, or wool-flocks, and manufactured in Ireland, may not be exported out of Ireland, unleſs they be ſhipped in the ports of Cork, Drogheda, Dublin, Dundalk, Galway, Kinſale, Limerick, New Roſs, Newry, Sligo, Waterford, Wexford, Wicklow, and Youghall, in Ireland, and with intent to be imported into the ports of Barnſtaple, Biddiford, Bridgewater, Briſtol, Cheſter, Liverpool, Milford haven, and Minehead, in England and Wales; and ſo as notice be firſt given to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or to the cuſtomer or collector of the port into which they are intended to be brought, of the quantity, quality, and package; with the marks and numbers, the name of the ſhip and maſter, and the port of importation; and bond be entered into with one or more ſufficient ſureties, in treble the value of the goods, that they ſhall be landed accordingly; and a licence be alſo granted under the hands of the commiſſioners, or any three of them, or by the cuſtomer or the collector of the port where bond is given; upon forfeiture of ſhip, goods, and 500 l. by every offender.

Maſters, mariners, or others, knowing of ſuch offence, and aſſiſting therein, are to forfeit 40 l.

By the 10th and 11th of William III. wool, wool-fells, mortlings, ſhortlings, wool-flocks, worſted, bay or woollen yarn, cloth, ſerges, bays, kerſies, ſays, frizes, druggets, ſhalloons, ſtuffs, cloth-ſerges, or any other drapery made of or mixed with wool, or wool-flocks; for every ſhip ſailing from Ireland to Great Britain, with any of the aforeſaid goods, bond muſt be given before ſhipping, to the chief officers of the port, by two ſufficient perſons, in double the value of the goods, that they ſhall be all brought to Great Britain, and there landed, and the duties paid; upon forfeiture of the ſhip:

The penalties and forfeitures of ſuch bonds, may not be granted or aſſigned over to any perſon.

The cockets or warrants for carrying of ſuch goods from Ireland to Great Britain, muſt be written upon paper, and not parchment, and ſigned by at leaſt three of the chief officers; with the exact quantities, qualities, marks, and numbers, endorſed thereon.

The like endorſement muſt be upon the warrant for the landing the ſame in England; and the goods muſt be viewed and examined by the ſurveyor or land-waiter.

The certificates of landing, granted for diſcharging the bond taken in Ireland, muſt be written on paper, and not parchment, ſigned by at leaſt three of the chief officers; with the exact quantities, qualities, marks, and numbers, endorſed thereon, and not obliterated or interlined.

A regiſter of all ſuch goods, with the particular quantities, qualities, weights, and numbers, the ſhip, maſter's name, owner's name, and to whom conſigned, muſt be kept at the cuſtomhouſe, London.

The commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in Ireland muſt, every ſix months, or within 30 days after, tranſmit to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in England, duplicates of the bonds taken for the lading; and a true account of all ſuch goods exported, expreſſing the quantity, quality, and weight, by whom, and in what ſhip exported, where conſigned, the names of the officers certifying the landing in England, the dates of their certificates, where landed, and the quantity, quality, weight, marks, and numbers, contained in ſuch certificates.

By the 12th of George II. wool, wool-fells, mortlings, ſhortlings, wool-flocks, worſted, bay or woollen yarn, cloth, ſerges, bays, kerſies, ſays, frizes, druggets, ſhalloons, ſtuffs, cloth, ſerges, or any other drapery made of or mixed with wool, or wool-flocks, may not be put on board any veſſel or boat in Ireland, or imported from thence into Great Britain, but ſuch as are of the built of Great Britain or Ireland, and wholly owned and manned by the ſubjects of Great Britain or Ireland, and regiſtered; on forfeiture of the goods or value thereof, as alſo of the veſſel or boat, with her guns, tackle, apparel, and furniture.

Wool, wool-fells, mortlings, ſhortlings, wool flocks, worſted, bay or woollen yarn, may not be packed up in Great Britain or Ireland, in any other package but packs or truſſes of leather, or pack-cloth, and marked on the outſide with the reſpective words WOOL or YARN in large letters, not leſs than three inches in length; on forfeiture of the goods and package, and 3 s. for every pound weight, to be paid by the owner or packer of it.

Coverlids, waldings, or other manufactures of wool ſlightly worked, or put together ſo as they may be reduced to or made uſe of as wool again, or mattraſſes or beds ſtuffed with combed wool, or wool fit for combing, may not be exported from Great Britain or Ireland; under the like penalties and forfeitures as for being concerned in the exportation of wool.

Wool, wool-fells, mortlings, ſhortlings, combed wool, woollen or bay yarn, worſted yarn, cruels or wool ſlightly manufactured, may not be laden on any veſſel bound to parts beyond the ſeas; nor laden in order to be carried coaſtwiſe, from one port of Great Britain or Ireland to another; unleſs notice be firſt given to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or to the cuſtomer or collector and comptroller of the port, from which they are intended to be ſent or exported, of the quantity, quality, and package, with the marks and numbers, the ſhip and maſter's name, the name and place of abode of the owner of the goods, and the port into which they are intended to be imported, and to whom conſigned; and bond be entered into, in treble the value of the goods, that they ſhall be landed accordingly, notice whereof to be tranſmitted from the cuſtomer or collector of the port from whence the ſame is intended to be exported, to the cuſtomer or collector and comptroller of the port into which the ſame is intended to be imported; and unleſs a licence be taken out under the hands of three of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or from the cuſtomer or collector and comptroller, where ſuch bond is given for landing and carrying thereof as aforeſaid; on forfeiture of the goods, together with the veſſel or boat and furniture on which they are laden: the licence to be granted without any charge to the perſon demanding it.

The ſaid bond not to be diſcharged, but by a certificate under the hand and ſeal of the cuſtomer, or collector and comptroller of the port where they are landed, of the quality, quantity, and package, the marks and numbers, with the name of the ſhip and maſter. And bonds not ſo diſcharged after ſix months, are to be tranſmitted to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in Great Britain, or to the commiſſioners of the revenue in Ireland, who are to put them in ſuit immediately.

No other ſecurity now required by law, for goods carried coaſtwiſe, to be hereby leſſened; or law in force for preventing the exportation of wool, or other goods aforeſaid, to be repealed or made void hereby.

None of the goods before mentioned may be ſhipped or landed but in the preſence of the proper officers, and at the lawful keys, without leave from the commiſſioners and officers of the cuſtoms, on forfeiture of the goods or value thereof, and 3 s. for every pound weight; to be paid by the proprietor of the goods, or any perſon concerned in the ſhipping or landing thereof.

Informations of ſeizure of any of the ſaid goods, as forfeited by this or any other act, are to be entered by none but officers of the cuſtoms, exciſe, or ſalt duties; and informations againſt any perſons, for recovery of the penalties and forfeitures on account of the illegal tranſportation of the ſaid goods, to be filed, and proſecuted only in the name of the Attorney-general, or in the name of ſome officers of the cuſtoms, exciſe, or ſalt-duties.

Any officer making a colluſive ſeizure or information of the ſaid goods, or any fraudulent agreement, whereby the perſons concerned may avoid the penalties and forfeitures incurred, forfeits 200 l. and is incapable of ſerving in any office of the revenue; and the exporters, importers, and owners of the goods forfeit treble the value, to the uſe of the perſon who informs or ſues for the ſame.

If any perſon, who may become liable to the payment of the 3 s. *per* pound weight, by this or any former acts, is not able to pay it, the reſpective commiſſioners may cauſe 1 s. *per* pound weight of the goods, for which the offender is convicted, to be paid to the informer or proſecutor by their receiver-general, out of any public money in his hands.

Any maſter, mate, or mariners belonging to any ſhip concerned in the illegal exportation or importation of the goods aforeſaid, from Great Britain or Ireland, giving an account within ſix months after the ſhipping the ſame, to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in England or Scotland, or the commiſſioners of the revenues in Ireland, of the name of the ſhip, the ſpecies and quantities of the goods, the name of the owner, exporter, or perſons who act in their aid and aſſiſtance, ſo as they may be convicted, is to be indemnified, diſcharged of all penalties and forfeitures, and receive three-fourths of what is recovered, clear of all charges; the other one-fourth to be applied to the uſe of his Majeſty, after deducting the charge of proſecution and condemnation.

Every perſon appointed by deputacion, commiſſion, or other inſtrument under the hands and ſeals of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, exciſe, or ſalt, to act as an officer or ſervant under them, in putting this or any act, againſt the tranſportation of wool in execution; is to be eſteemed an officer of the cuſtoms, exciſe, or ſalt, reſpectively.

Offering to bribe an officer to connive at the ſaid illegal practices, the penalty is 300 l.

Perſons obſtructing officers, or their aſſiſtants, in making ſeizures, by virtue of this act; or who being armed or diſguiſed, attempt to refcue any of the aforeſaid goods after ſeizure, are to be tranſported for ſeven years.

Wools, wool-fells, wool-flocks, mortlings, ſhortlings, cruels, worſted, woollen and bay yarn, mattraſſes, and beds ſtuffed with combed wool, or wool fit for combing, exported from Great Britain or Ireland; and woollen manufactures exported from Ireland, inſured to parts beyond the ſeas; the perſon inſuring, his aiders, abbettors, and aſſiſtants, forfeit 500 l. over and above all other forfeitures

feitures and penalties they are liable to; and the perſon inſured forfeits 500 l. to the uſe of the informer, or perſon who ſues for the ſame.

By the 6th of Queen Anne broad cloths white exported, or ſhipped for exportation, before payment of the duty, are forfeited, or their value.

And white woollen cloths made in Great Britain, may be exported by any perſon, notwithſtanding the 14th and 15th Hen. VIII. cap. 3. or any other act.

By the 1ſt of Will. and Mary, cloths, ſtuffs, ſtockings, or other manufactures of wool made in Great Britain, may be bought and exported by any perſons without moleſtation.

By the 11th and 12th of Will. III. Britiſh woollen manufactures, as cloths, kerſies, bays, ſerges, cottons, ſtuffs, ſtockings, hats, caps, or any other manufactures made of, or mixed with ſheep or coney wool, may be exported duty free; though, by the 8th of Hen. VI. thrumbs, or woollen yarn may not be exported, upon forfeiture of double the value.

By the 3d of Edward IV. the 2d of Will. and Mary, and 6th and 7th of Will. III. woollen-caps, woollen cloths, laces, corſes, ribbons, fringes of ſilk and of thread, ſilk twined, ſilk embroidered, laces of thread, of gold, of ſilk or gold, ſaddles, ſtirrops or harneſs pertaining to ſaddles, ſpurs, boſſes for bridles, andirons, gridirons, any manner of locks, hammers, pinſons, fire-tongs, dripping-pans, dice, tennis balls, points, purſes, gloves, girdles, harneſs for girdles of iron, latten, ſteel, tin or of alkmine, any thing wrought of any tawed leather, tawed furs, buſkins, ſhoes, goloches or corks, knives, daggers, wood knives, bodkins, ſheers for taylors, ſciſſors, razors, cheſſmen, playing cards, combs, pattens, pack-needles, painted wares, except pictures, forcers, caſkets, rings of copper, or of latten gilt, chafing-diſhes, hanging candleſticks, chafing-balls, ſacring bells, rings for curtains, ladles, ſcummers, counterfeit baſons, ewers, hats, bruſhes, cards for wool, may not be imported by any perſons, to be uttered or ſold in Great Britain, upon forfeiture thereof: except made or wrought in Ireland, or taken upon the ſeas without fraud or colluſion, or wrecked.

By the ſtatute of the 12th of Geo. II. for taking off the duties of woollen and bay yarn imported from Ireland to England, and for the more effectual preventing the exportation of wool from Great Britain, and of wool and wool manufactured, from Ireland to foreign parts, it was enacted, that the ſeveral ſubſidies then payable to his Majeſty upon woollen and bay yarn, imported from Ireland ſhould ceaſe, and be no longer paid: provided nothing in this act ſhould extend to take off the duties upon worſted yarn, being of two or more threads twiſted or thrown, or cruel, imported into Great Britain from Ireland.

That all woollen or bay yarn, wooll-fels, ſhortlings, mortlings, woolflocks, worſted, yarn, cloth, ſerge, bays, kerſies, ſays, frizes, druggets, cloth-ſerges, ſhalloons, ſtuffs, and other draperies, and woollen manufactures, or mixed with wool or woollen flocks, which ſhould be exported from Ireland, into the ports of Great Britain hereafter mentioned, ſhould be ſhipped off, and entered at the ports of Dublin, Waterford, Kinſale, Youghall, Cork, Drogheda, New-Roſs, Newry, Wexford, Wicklow, Sligoe, Limerick, Galway, and Dundalk, in the ſaid kingdom of Ireland, and from no other part or place; nor ſhould the ſame be imported into any parts of Great Britain, other than the ports of Biddeford, Barnſtaple, Minehead, Bridgewater, Briſtol, Milford-haven, Cheſter, and Liverpoole, in the ſame manner as if the ſaid ports of Newry, Wexford, Wicklow, Sligoe, Limerick, Galway, and Dundalk, had been particularly named for exportation of the ſaid goods, in the act of the 10th and 11th of Will. III. entituled An act to prevent the exportation of wool out of the kingdoms of Ireland and England, and for other purpoſes therein mentioned.

That no wool, or any of the ſaid goods ſhould be loaden on board any ſhip or boat in Ireland, or imported from thence into Great Britain, but in ſuch veſſels or boats, as ſhould be of the built of Great Britain or Ireland, and wholly owned and manned by the ſubjects of Great Britain or Ireland, and duly regiſtered, under the penalty of forfeiture of the ſaid goods, or the value thereof, and of the veſſel or boat in which the ſame ſhould be laden, together with her ammunition and furniture.

That no ſhip or veſſel ſhould paſs as a ſhip of the built of Great Britain, or Ireland, ſo as to be qualified to take on board in any of the ports of Ireland appointed for that purpoſe, any wool, or other the ſpecies aforementioned, in order to import the ſame into the ports of Great Britain, in this act appointed for that purpoſe, until the perſons claiming property in the ſaid ſhip ſhould regiſter the ſame.

That all policies of inſurance on goods loaden on any veſſel, bound from Great Britain to Ireland to foreign parts, which ſhould afterwards appear to be wool, or woollen yarn, or other ſpecies of wool beforementioned, or woollen manufactures from Ireland; and all policies of inſurance on any veſſel bound from Great Britain to foreign parts, which ſhould have on board any of the ſaid goods, ſhould be void, notwithſtanding any words or agreement whatſoever, which ſhould be inſerted in any ſuch policy of inſurance; and nothing ſhould be recovered by the aſſured in either caſe, from the inſurer for damage, or for the premium given as the conſideration for inſuring ſuch goods or veſſel.

But, by a late act, all the ports of Great Britain were made open for the importation of wool, and woollen or bay yarn, from any part of Ireland, after the 5th of June 1753; under the ſame reſtrictions as in the ſtatute of the 12th of Geo. II.

It muſt be a work of great difficulty to prevent the running of wool from Ireland to France. Ireland may produce yearly about 480,000 ſtones of wool, of 16 lb. each: the medium price of theſe wools is about 12 s. the ſtone; ſo that the whole amounts to 288,000 l. But if 10 l. value in wools, when completely manufactured for ſale, is worth 50 l. the value of the yearly wools of Ireland, worked up, muſt be 1,440,000 l. ſo that the earned money of the poor of that country, in working up the yearly produce of wool, would amount to 1,152,000 l. and the number of poor that might be ſubſiſted by ſuch a manufacture would be 144,000 people.

But Ireland is crampt in her woollen manufactures by the laws of Great Britain; whereby the Iriſh are employed in little elſe than the manufacturing of Spaniſh cloths, in which they may conſume 570 bags of wool, employ only 4560 perſons, and earn no more than 45600 l. yearly. Upon this account the Iriſh people ſell their own unmanufactured wools to France; which has ſo much alarmed the manufacturers and landed gentlemen of England, that they have endeavoured to make the moſt effectual laws to prevent the exportation of wools from that country. But in vain; the wools of France are ſhort and coarſe: they are not ſo fine in the thread, or ſo long in the ſtaple as thoſe of Ireland; therefore they are obliged to get the wools of Ireland; for which they can afford to pay an extraordinary price; becauſe, by the help of one pack of Iriſh wools, France can manufacture two of her own, without which they are uſeleſs to her for foreign markets; notwithſtanding the wool ſhe procures from Germany, Portugal, Barbary and Turky.

There were imported from Ireland to Great Britain, from Lady-day 1743 to Lady-day 1744,

In raw wools, great ſtones - - -	19,993
In worſted yarn - - -	68,622
In woollen yarn - - -	15,224
Stones	103,839

There is paid for a licence, together with fees, to the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, about 23 l. ſterling for every thouſand great ſtones of wool exported to England. But France will ſtill clandeſtinely get Iriſh wools: nor can Great Britain prevent the French from ſupplying foreign countries with their Spaniſh cloths; for, by their ſituation, they will always have the Spaniſh wools cheaper than other nations; and the low price of labour, with the cheapneſs of proviſions in thoſe provinces of France where Spaniſh cloths are manufactured, will ever enable them to vie with, if not underſel Great Britain in that manufacture. See *Ireland*.

WOOL *drivers*, are thoſe who buy wool of the ſheep owners in the country, and carry it on horſeback to the clothiers, or market towns to ſell it again.

WOOLLEN-*manufactory*, includes the ſeveral ſorts of commodities into which wool is wrought; as broad cloths, long and ſhort kerſeys, bays, ſerges, flannel, perpetuanas, ſays, ſtuffs, frize, ſhags, penniſtons, ſtockings, caps, blankets, rugs, and the like. Each of which ſee under its reſpective article.

The woollen-manufactory, which now makes the principal article both in the foreign and domeſtic trade of Great Britain, being that which furniſhes the cargoes of its veſſels, and employs its people, may be ſaid to have had its riſe in the 15th century. Till that time Engliſh wool was all ſold in the fleece, to ſuch of their neighbours as came to fetch it. Among theſe cuſtomers, however, the principal were the Flemings and Brabanters, particularly the merchants of Ghent and Louvain; who took off vaſt quantities to ſupply two manufactories that had flouriſhed in thoſe two cities from the 10th century; which had furniſhed the greateſt part of Europe, and even England itſelf, with all ſorts of woollen cloths. But the richneſs of the manufactories of Ghent, and the incredible number of hands employed therein, having ſpirited up the inhabitants to revolt ſeveral times againſt their ſovereigns, on acconnt of certain taxes which they refuſed to pay; the ſeditious were at length puniſhed, and diſperſed, part of them taking refuge in Holland, and the reſt in Louvain.

Theſe laſt, together with all their art of manufacturing cloths, carried with them their ſpirit of ſedition; and it was not long before ſeveral of them, to avoid the puniſhment they had deſerved for killing ſome of the magiſtrates, removed into England, where they inſtructed the Engliſh to work their own wools.

This eſtabliſhment is referred to the year 1420; from which time no endeavours have been ſpared to keep the wools in England.

The preſident Thuanus makes this epocha 100 years later, and attributes the eſtabliſhment of the woollen manufactories in England to Q. Eliz. and the troubles about religion, which with the ſeverity of the duke of Alva, and the Spaniſh inquiſition, had occaſioned, and kept up ſo long the troubles in the Low Countries. But what that noble author ſays, is rather to be underſtood of their perfection, than their firſt eſtabliſhment; and of the ſeveral great manufactures then ſet up, at Norwich, Colcheſter, Hampton, and elſewhere: for in the Engliſh and Flemiſh hiſtorians, mention is made of the manufactures of London long before any part of the 17 provinces attempted to throw off the Spaniſh yoke.

As this manufacture now ſtands, Dr. Davenant and Mr. King, compute the produce thereof to amount to eight millions *per annum*; three fourths whereof are conſumed at home, and the reſt exported.

So jealous are the Engliſh now become of their woollens, that, beſides the precautions taken to uſe all their own wools themſelves, they have added that of ſelling them themſelves, and of carrying them to the places where they are required; not admitting ſtrangers to come and buy any in England: from whence aroſe the eſtabliſhment of thoſe famous magazines in Holland, the Levant, and the North, where Engliſh woollens are repoſited, to be vended by factors or commiſſioners. The magazine in Holland has changed place ſeveral times; having been ſucceſſively at Middleburgh, Delft, Rotterdam, and Dort, where it now remains; and where all the Germans come to furniſh themſelves. That for the Levant is at Smyrna; and that for the North at Archangel.

A pack, or 240 pounds weight of ſhort wool, it is computed employs 63 perſons a week to manufacture it into cloth. Three men to ſort, dry, mix, and make it ready for the ſtock-carder; five to ſcrible or ſtock-card it; 35 women and girls to card and ſpin it; eight men to weave it; four men and boys to ſpool it, and reed quills; eight men and boys to ſcour, burl, mill, or full it, row, ſheer, pack, and preſs it. A pack of large, long combing wool, made into ſtuffs, ſerges, ſagathies, or the like, for the Spaniſh trade, will employ for one week 202 perſons, whoſe wages amount to 43 l. 10 s. thus, 7 combers, 3 l. 10 s. dyers 5 l. 150 ſpinners, 18 l. 20 throwers and doublers, 5 l. 23 weavers and attendants, 12 l. A pack of wool, made into ſtockings, will employ for one week, 184 perſons, who will earn 56 l. thus; 10 combers 5 l. 5 s. the dyers 1 l. 6 s. 102 ſpinners 15 l. 12 s. doubles and throwers 4 l. 10 s. 60 ſtocking weavers 30 l.

Sir Walter Raleigh, who was an excellent judge of trade, gave his thoughts to King James, on the woollen manufacture, in the following manner.

May it pleaſe your moſt excellent Majeſty,

" There have been about 80,000 undreſſed and undyed " cloths yearly tranſported. It is therefore evident that " the kingdom hath been deprived of about 4,000,000 l. " within theſe 55 years; which is near twenty millions " that would have been gained by the labour of poor " workmen in that time, with the merchants gains for " bringing in dying ſtuffs, and return of cloths dreſſed " and dyed, with other benefits to the realm, beſides " exceeding enlarging of traffic, and increaſe of ſhips and " mariners.

" There would have been gained in that time three millions by increaſe of cuſtom upon commodities returned " for cloths dreſſed and dyed, and for dying ſtuffs, which " would have been more plentifully brought and uſed for " the ſame.

" There hath been alſo tranſported in that time yearly, " by bays, northern and Devonſhire kerſies, white, about " 50,000 cloths, counting three kerſies to a cloth, whereby hath been loſt above five millions by theſe ſort of " cloths within that time, which would have come to " poor workmen for their labour, with the cuſtoms for " dying ſtuffs for people's profit for bringing them in, " with returns of other commodities and freights for " ſhipping.

" Bays are tranſported white into Amſterdam, and there " being dreſſed and dyed are ſhipped into Spain, Portugal, and other kingdoms, where they are ſold in the " name of Flemiſh bays, ſetting their own town ſeal upon " them; ſo that we loſe the very name of our homebred " commodities, and other countries get the reputation " and profit of them. Lamentable is it that this land " ſhould be deprived of ſo many above mentioned millions, and that our native commodities of cloth, ordained by God for the natural ſubjects, being ſo royal " and rich itſelf, ſhould be driven to ſo ſmall advantage " of reputation and profit to your Majeſty and people, " and ſo much improved and intercepted by ſtrangers, " conſidering that God hath enabled and given your " Majeſty power to advance dreſſing and dying, and " tranſporting of all your cloths within a year or two. " I ſpeak it knowingly, to ſhew how it may be done " laudably, lawfully, and approved to be honourable, " feaſible, and profitable.

" All the companies of your land tranſport their cloths " dreſſed and dyed to the good of your kingdom, except " the merchant-adventurers, whereby the Eaſtland and " Turkey merchants, with other companies, do increaſe " your Majeſty's cuſtoms, by bringing in and ſpending " dying ſtuffs, and ſetting your people on work by dreſſing before they tranſport them; and they might increaſe far more cuſtom to your Majeſty, and make " more profit to themſelves and this realm, and ſet many " thouſands of poor people more on work for dreſſing " and dying, and likewiſe employ more ſhips and mariners, for bringing in dying ſtuffs, were it not for the " merchant adventurers, who tranſport their cloths white, " rough, and undreſſed, and undyed, into the Low " Countries, where they ſell them to the ſtrangers, who " afterwards dreſs, dye, and ſtretch them to ſuch unreaſonable lengths, contrary to our law, that they prevent " and foreſtall our markets, and croſs the juſt prohibitions of our ſtate and realm, by their agents and factors lying in divers places with our own cloths, to the " great decay of this kingdom in general, and diſcredit " of our cloths in particular.

" If this account were truly known, it would be found " that

" that they make not clear profit only by cloth tranſ-
" ported rough, undreſſed and undyed, ſixty thouſand
" pounds a year; but it is moſt apparent, your Majeſty
" in your cuſtoms, your merchants in their ſales and
" prices, your ſubjects in their labour for lack of dreſ-
" ſing and dying, your ſhips and mariners in not bring-
" ing in of dying ſtuffs and ſpending of allom, are hind-
" red yearly near a million of pounds; ſo that trade is
" driven to the hindrance of your Majeſty and people,
" by permitting your native commodities to paſs rough,
" undreſſed and undyed, by the merchant adventurers."

To this account given by Sir Walter Raleigh, may be ſubjoined the following calculation of the manufacturing of two pounds of wool, publiſhed in 1706 by Mr. Haynes.

" To form an eſtimate of the loſs accruing to the poor
" by the exportation of wool, it will be of uſe to compute
" the charges of combing, carding, ſpinning, knitting,
" dying, and preſſing two pounds or leſs of our fineſt
" combed wool, with ſome other incident charges;
" for theſe charges going out of the pocket of the under-
" taker, come into the pocket of the poor which he
" employs; and the exportation of the wool without
" this manufacture is ſo much neat loſs to the poor, and
" indeed to the whole nation.

	l.	s.	d.
" The combing oil and ſoap of 2 lb. and leſs of wool - - -	0	3	0
" This will produce 20 ounces, the ſpinning of which will coſt - - -	0	6	0
" Doubling and throwing - -	0	1	3
" The worſted thus made will make five pair of hoſe, worth 1 s. *per* pair knitting	0	5	0
" The dying the hoſe into ſcarlet -	0	6	0
" Trimming and preſſing - - -	0	1	0
" The niles combed out of this wool will be twelve ounces, which is fit to make fine druggets or milled ſtockings worth 8 d. *per* pound - -	0	0	6
" The carding and ſpinning of that into yarn	0	0	9
" Doubling and throwing it -	0	0	2
" Knitting this into a pair of hoſe - -	0	0	10
" Milling and ſhearing theſe hoſe -	0	1	0
" Dying them into a crimſon or ſcarlet colour	0	1	6
	1	7	0

" Not to reckon the profits of the wool-comber, ſtock-
" ing-ſeller, and other trades."

This ſame author ſays, that he had a certain account at that time that there were 40,000 packs of wool ſmuggled to France yearly, of which he complains very much: but, in 1715, when he writ another treatiſe, he ſays, the woollen manufactures were increaſed ſo much in France within three years, that at Amiens only the looms employed therein were increaſed in that time from 200 to 7000. How much they have increaſed ſince all over France, may be judged from the great decay of thoſe manufactures in Great Britain, and the exorbitant height of wealth and power to which France is arrived.

Sir Francis Brewſter, ſpeaking of wool and woollen manufactures, calls them, " The great ſtaple of the king-
" dom, and in truth of the world; which, by divine
" providence is ſo put into our hands, as that, without a
" turn in nature, we cannot totally loſe it; yet all that
" is poſſible for an unthinking people, as we are called
" abroad, to do, we have done, to the prejudice of thoſe
" commodities, by which means we have transferred
" great part of our woollen manufactures to other
" countries."

And, from another paſſage, concerning a project for the preventing the exportation of unmanufactured wool, we ſee his opinion of the importance of it to the nation.

" I have ſeen, ſays he, a propoſal of a gentleman that
" hath been a great dealer in this commodity to foreign
" parts, which, he affirms, would be infallible to pre-
" vent ſuch exports of wool; but he reſerves part of the
" ſecret. I would have perſuaded him to offer it to the
" houſe, but he expects a great gratification, which he
" thinks, at this time will not be given; tho' I am of
" another mind, and believe he deſerves more than he
" can aſk, if his project takes. I know a great miniſter,
" who once diſputed on that with warmth, againſt a
" care for wool, and that it was a burthen to the nation:
" it may not be foreign to this diſcourſe to give the
" heads of the diſpute, which I the rather do, that ſo it
" may ſhew the need there is for the great council of the
" nation to take it under their conſideration.
" The diſcourſe roſe on a propoſition that was brought
" to him, for ſtopping a vaſt quantity of wool that was
" then going to France; it was brought him in writing,
" and demonſtrated, that that very wool was enough to
" work up all the coarſe wool of France for ſeven years;
" and that the conſequence would be the loſs of great
" part of our manufactories to Spain and Portugal.
" The miniſter made little return to that, but brought
" his diſcourſe to the great loſs it was to men of eſtates,
" that there was not a way for ſelling twice the wool
" that now they did; that there was three years wool
" then in England, and what ſhould men do upon this
" topick of the want of a conſumption for the wool of
" England? The gentleman laid down theſe poſitions.
" Firſt, that the war was one reaſon of the decay of the
" woollen manufactories.
" Secondly, that the extraordinary eſcapes of wool to
" foreign parts, put foreigners upon making more wool-
" len manufactories than ever they did before, and that
" abated our trade abroad.
" Thirdly, that our wool going to foreign parts made
" it ſo cheap at home: this, I remember, put the mi-
" niſter into a laughter; and laying the two firſt aſide,
" he deſired him to make out the laſt poſition, that the
" eſcapes of wool to foreign parts made the wool fall in
" price; that the ſending ſo great quantities of wool out
" of the kingdom ſhould fall the price of that which was
" left, was a myſtery he could not underſtand, but
" ſeemed to him the only way to make it riſe: but the
" gentleman undertook to make out his aſſertion, that
" every pound of Engliſh wool worked up three pounds
" of foreign wool; and that as much as they manu-
" factured, ſo much was abated in our exports; for that
" they made ſuch manufactories with our wool, as they
" could not make without it; and conſequently by that
" means one pound of our wool with theirs, made four
" times as much cloths and ſtuffs as we could have made
" with it, if we had kept it at home: from which he
" inferred, that if one fourth of the wool of England
" went to foreign parts, there would be as much manu-
" factories made abroad for foreign markets, as we could
" make, if we had wrought all our own wool; and ſo
" much being made abroad, we could not have uſe for
" half our own wool that was left: this he affirmed was
" the reaſon that there lay ſo much wool unwrought in
" England; and he having brought for proof of what he
" ſaid, that which was matter of fact I thought undeniable,
" though it would not be allowed ſo by the miniſter: the
" thing was this, the year after the reſtoration, there was
" a gentleman that got a grant from the king, with a *non*
" *obſtante* to any ſtatute, for liberty to export a certain
" quantity of wool to foreign parts from Ireland; upon
" which ſome merchants in London buying the grant, ſent
" over to Ireland and bought moſt of the wool, and ſent it
" to foreign parts; this at firſt raiſed the price of wool
" both there and in England; but in ſo ſhort a time as five
" months it fell fifty *per cent.* And tho' not one fourth
" of what formerly came from Ireland into England,
" came then to England, yet there was no vent for the
" wool of England; and in Ireland it fell from 7 s. to
" 3 s. 6 d. their ſtone of ſixteen pounds, all the time
" they ſhipped it for foreign parts. This he affirmed
" he could prove by the merchants books that were
" concerned, to be literally true; and that the year
" after the ſhipping for foreign parts was over, that
" wool roſe to its former price both here and in Ireland.
" And he farther added, that the great quantities which
" by ſtealth go from England and Ireland, makes wool
" in both kingdoms fall in price, according to the quan-
" tities that are ſent out; and that if there went no wool
" from England or Ireland to foreign parts, all the wool

" of both kingdoms would not be half enough to ſupply " the manufactories that England would have markets " for abroad; for that there is now made twice as much " manufactories with the help of our wool abroad, as is " made in England; ſo that if there were an effectual " ſtop upon the wool of both kingdoms, the flocks of " both might be trebled, and yet not be ſufficient for " the manufactories England might vent. This in few " words was the beſt account I ever heard of the nature " and improvement of the wool of theſe kingdoms, and " is ſuch demonſtration of the miſchief the exports of " wool doth to the nation, that I cannot but think him " a worſe enemy to his country than a common pyrate; " for that he robs but a ſmall number, but he that ſends " out wool deſtroys thouſands, weakens the ſtrength of " the nation both at land and ſea; and if we believe the " Lord Coke's aſſertion, that nine parts of the trade of " England comes fromm the ſheeps back, there cannot " be enough done to ſecure it; but it hath ever been the " misfortune of our nation neither to puniſh or reward. " Impunity in the firſt makes us abound in criminals; " and the neglect in the latter makes us barren of great " actions for our country; I mean, in that which makes " a nation rich and wiſe: our anceſtors ſhewed more of " their good will to it in the dark of trade and naviga- " tion, than we do at noon-day. I have often thought " that it was poſſible for a monarch of theſe kingdoms to " make all Europe tributaries to him in trade, by a true " management of the natural and artificial product and " navigation of theſe kingdoms, without being obliged " to any help but what ariſeth from his own dominions, " of which wool is the chief.

" The danger that hath been impendent over us for " more than thirty years in this of our trade, is from the " French; and in truth no nation can ſo well conteſt it " with England as they can; and therefore it ſeems rea- " ſonable to conſider them in this, as much as we do in " that of their arms; and perhaps they may be found " laying a foundation in war, to inlarge their trade and " navigation, while we at the ſame time are declining in " both; and that theſe kingdoms cannot be ſafe under " the growth of France, none will deny."

The very judicious Monſieur Voltaire, in his Antimachiavel, has the following obſervation:

" As the nature of countries is very different, ſo there " are ſome whoſe riches and ſtrength depend upon " agriculture, others upon vineyards, ſome upon manu- " factures, and others upon commerce; and in ſome " few countries we ſee all theſe arts flouriſh together. " Princes therefore who chuſe this mild way of increaſing " their power, will be obliged to ſtudy the particular " nature of their country; in order to know which of " thoſe arts is moſt likely to thrive in it, and conſequently " which of them they ought moſt to encourage. The " French and Spaniards have at length perceived their " want of trade, and therefore have contrived to ruin " the trade of the Engliſh: if they ſucceed France will " increaſe its power, more conſiderable by this means " than by the conqueſt of twenty towns, and a thouſand " villages; and England and Holland, the two fineſt " and richeſt countries in the world, will dwindle away " by degrees, like a man who is dying of a conſumption."

By an act of the 12th of Charles II. there was a ſubſidy of 3 s. 4 d. by Britiſh, and 6 s. 8 d. by ſtrangers, laid upon every ſhort woollen cloth, called broad cloths exported, containing in length not above 28 yards, and in weight not above 64 lb. white or coloured; and ſo in proportion for every cloth of greater length and weight: and for all other ſorts of leſſer cloths, ſo many pieces were to be accounted to the ſhort cloth, as following:

Dorſet and Somerſet dozens, rudge waſhed Cardinals Pin whites Straits Statutes Stockbridges Taviſtocks	Seven to be accounted for a ſhort cloth.

Tauntons Bridgewaters Dunſters Devon dozens, containing 12 or 13 yards, in weight 13 lb.	Five.
Ordinary Peniſtones, or foreſt whites, containing between 12 and 13 yards, and in weight 28 lb. Sorting Peniſtones, containing 13 or 14 yards, and in weight 35 lb. unfrized.	Four.
Narrow Yorkſhire kerſies, white and red, containing not above 17 or 18 yards, and in weight 22 lb. Hampſhire ordinary kerſies Newberry whites, and other kerſies of like making, containing 24 yards, and in weight 28 lb. Sorting Hampſhire kerſies, containing 28 yards, and in weight 32 lb	Three.
Northern dozens, ſingle, ſorting Peniſtones, containing between 14 and 15 yards, and in weight 53 lb. frized	Two.
Northern dozens double	One.
Spaniſh cloth, or narrow liſt, weſtern broad cloth, not exceeding 25 yards in length, and 43 lb. in weight Cloth raſhes, or cloth ſerges, containing 30 yards, weighing 40 lb.	Two-3ds.

But, by the 11th and 12th of Will. III. the ſubſidy of woollen cloths was repealed, and they may all be exported free, except white woollen broad cloths, which, by the 6th of Queen Anne, are to pay 5 s. the piece duty. All goods exported out of the port of London, by aliens or denizens, are to pay the duty of ſcavage, &c. See *Scavage*.

Lewis XIV. cauſed great part of his kingdom to be ſurveyed, and thoſe waſte grounds which were found proper for the improvement of wool, were turned into ſheep-walks, whereby his ſubjects have reaped great advantages. Beſides, they have great ſupplies of wool from other foreign parts, as well as from Great Britain and Ireland: from Turky they bring great quantities of the middling and ordinary ſorts of wool: from the gulph of Volo and the country thereabouts in Greece, they import ſeveral ſorts of wool, from 7 to 9 l. a pack: they have alſo large parcels of the inferior ſorts from many places in Barbary: they have great quantities from Bilboa and other parts of Spain: but the Portugal wool is ſhared between them and the Dutch; the beſt of which will make cloth of 6 or 7 s. a yard.

In this manner, France is become a kind of ſtaple for wool; and her woollen manufacturers working for one half, or two thirds of the wages paid to the Engliſh workmen, they are thereby enabled to ſell their manufactures exceeding cheap, and in great quantities, at all the foreign markets: therefore, France is become the greateſt rival that Great Britain ever yet contended with in the woollen manufacture: on which account, the utmoſt care, and greateſt application, is abſolutely neceſſary to ſupport this ſtaple manufacture of Great Britain.

But, the better to judge of the importance of this trade, we are told by ſeveral authors, that the value of the wool ſhorn in England amounts annually to 2,000,000 l. and that the manufacture thereof is computed at 6,000,000 l. the total being 8,000,000 l. and in 1699, the exported woollen goods amounted to 2,932,292 l. 7 s. 6 d.

Theſe are arguments which prove the neceſſity Great Britain is under of ſecuring this invaluable treaſure, and of removing every clog that reſtrains the exportation, or the conſumption of thoſe foreign commodities which are imported in return for the Britiſh woollen goods: for, as the French have long worked up their own wool, the Britiſh merchants who trade in woollen goods to Holland, Portugal, Spain, Italy, and Turky, have felt the continued ill effects of the French interfering with them in thoſe foreign markets; and it will be in vain for Britons to flatter themſelves, that the goodneſs of their manufactures will prevent the ſale of the French goods.

Sir

Sir Joſiah Child, in his diſcourſe of trade, obſerves, "That all our laws that oblige our people to the making of ſtrong, ſubſtantial, and as we call it, loyal cloth, if they were duly put in execution, would do more hurt than good; becauſe the humours and faſhions of the world change: and in ſome places, as now in moſt, ſlight, cheap, light cloth will ſell more plentifully and better than that which is heavier, ſtronger, and truer wrought: and if we intend to have the trade of the world, we muſt imitate the Dutch, who make the worſt, as well as the beſt, of all manufactures, that we may be in a capacity of ſerving all markets, and all humours."

It would certainly be worth the while of any gentleman to underſtand the whole progreſs of a manufacture, from its commencement to its conſumption; and how much it pays to the ſubſiſtence of the people; which may be perceived in the following inſtance, of 100 broad cloths ſent to Turky, and the returns of raw ſilk that are manufactured for home conſumption.

A clothier buys at market 50 packs of wool picked and ſorted, at 10 l. *per* pack -	l. 500	0	0
With which wool he makes 100 broad cloths; and the manufacture thereof in carding, ſpinning, weaving, milling, dreſſing, &c. as they are uſually brought to and ſold white at Blackwell-hall, will amount to about the firſt coſt of the wool -	500	0	0
So that theſe 100 cloths are ſold by the clothier to the merchant at 10 l. *per* cloth	1000	0	0
And the merchants pay for dying of the ſaid 100 cloths, one third part in grain colours, at 7 l. and two thirds in ordinary colours, at 30 s. *per* cloth - -	333	6	8
Alſo for ſetting, drawing, preſſing, packing, &c. 15 s. *per* cloth - -	75	0	0
The ſaid 100 cloths will coſt the merchant 14 l. 1 s. 8 d. *per* cloth on board, which amounts to - - -	1408	6	8
And to repay him their coſt and charges here, and their charges abroad, with a bare allowance for inſurance, and the intereſt of his money, they cannot purchaſe leſs than 22 great pounds of ſherbaffee, or Perſia fine raw ſilk, for every cloth. Thus he probably receives for the ſaid 100 cloths 2200 pounds weight of the ſaid raw ſilk -			
Now if the half part of this ſilk is wrought up into plain coloured tabbies, the manufacturers will receive 13 s. 7 d. *per* lb.	747	1	8
And if the other half part is wrought up into rich flowered ſilks brocaded, the manufacturers will receive 1 l. 19 s. 9 d. *per* lb.	2186	5	0
And the additional charge of dying, ſuppoſe but of one eighth part of the ſaid ſilk into grain colours, at 9 s. *per* lb. -	123	15	0
Then the coſt and charges of 100 woollen cloths ſhipped from London to Turkey, and the manufacture of the raw ſilk brought thence in returns thereof, muſt amount to	4465	8	4
The freight of the ſaid 100 cloths, and of the ſaid 2200 lb. of raw ſilk is computed at	40	12	6
The cuſtoms on the ſaid 2200 lb. of raw ſilk is - - - - -	156	15	0
Engliſh factors commiſſions abroad on the ſale of the cloth, and on inveſting the returns in ſilk as aforeſaid, computed at	100	0	0
It is here clearly repreſented to the view of every reader, that every 2200 lb. weight of raw ſilk imported from Turky, and manufactured here for our own conſumption, without paying any thing to the merchant's or the mercer's gain, pays to the landholders, the labourers, and the crown, the ſum of - - -	4762	15	0

This account takes the returns upon the 100 cloths exported to Turky, and makes them pay 5000 l. to the ſubſiſtence of the Britiſh workmen: but there have been annually exported from Great Britain two hundred times as many cloths for Turky; and the Britiſh merchants have received for about half that quantity of cloth the ſame kind of returns in raw ſilk for their own conſumption. See *Turky*, and *Perſia*.

An account of woollen manufactures ſhipped from England to Denmark, Norway, Sweden, the Eaſt country, Germany, Flanders, Portugal, Spain, the Streights, Italy, Turky, Jamaica, New England, New York, and the Weſt Indies.

The amount of the exportation of the woollen manufactures, to the ſeveral places abovemention'd, for the years 1709, 1710, 1711, 1712, 1713, and 1714.

Species of goods.	*From* 1709 *to* 1711.	*From* 1712 *to* 1714.
Bays -	127,492½	158,903½
Cloth of all ſorts	107,888	152,642
Cottons -	273,017	525,227
Kerſies -	59,884	83,110
Perpets and ſerges	8,250,805 lb.	8,643,505 lb.
Flannel -	990,451 yds.	1,213,949 yds.
Stockings -	81,472 doz.	96,939 doz.
Stuffs -	3,186,031 lb.	5,586,968 lb.
Says -	495,457 ditto.	619,262 ditto.
Northern dozen	19,385 ditto.	52,151 ditto.
Spaniſh wool brought into England.	13,986 bags	388 bags.

WOOL-*man*. A perſon who deals in wool.

WOOL-*mens company of London*, is of great antiquity, and probably coeval with the woollen trade of England; yet it is only a community by preſcription, and not by charter: however, it has the honour of being one of the city companies, by the title of The maſter, wardens, and aſſiſtants, of the fraternity or company of woolmen of the city of London: who conſiſt of a maſter, two wardens, and eleven aſſiſtants; but have neither livery nor hall to tranſact their affairs in.

WOOL-*ſtaple*, denotes a city or town, where wool is uſed to be ſold. See *Staple*.

WOOL-*ſted*. See *Worſted*.

WOOL-*winders*, are perſons employed in winding up fleeces of wool, into bundles, to be packed and ſold by weight: being ſworn to do it truly between the owner and the merchant.

WORK-*houſe*. A place where indigent, vagrant, and idle people are ſet to work, and maintained with cloathing and diet: ſuch as Bridewell, and many other places about the city and ſuburbs of London; particularly that in Biſhopgate-ſtreet for employing the poor children of the city and liberties, who have no ſettlement; and that of the pariſh of St. Margarets Weſtminſter, called the Grey coat-hoſpital.

At Amſterdam, they have a famous work-houſe, or houſe of correction, called the Raſphuyſe, which, by a privilege granted in 1602, has alone the right of ſhaving, and cutting the dyers woods, ſuch as, ſantal, brazil, campeche, and ſaſſafras. Each perſon tolerably ſtrong, kept in the houſe, is obliged to furniſh 150 pounds of this raſped *per* day, and the weaker a certain quantity of chips.

To WORM *a cable*, or *hawſer*, in the ſea phraſe, ſignifies to ſtrengthen it, by winding a ſmall line, or rope all along between the ſtrands.

WORM-*ſeed*, *Semen contra*, *Semen Sanctum*, or *Semen Santonicum*, is a hot, bitter, drying kind of ſeed, proper to deſtroy worms generated in a human body, particularly in children.

This ſeed is ſmall, of a browniſh colour, an oblong figure, a bitter taſte, and a ſtrong ſmell; which ſhould be choſen new, greeniſh, of a ſharp bitter aromatic taſte, and not a little diſagreeable.

The place where it is produced is Perſia, about the frontiers of Muſcovy: from whence it is brought to Aleppo; and naturaliſts are not agreed about the plant that produces it. J. Bauhine has a large diſſertation on the ſubject: ſome will have it to be a ſpecies of abſynthium, or wormwood, called *marinum abſynthium*; others will have it the tanacetum; and others the abrotanum.

M. Tournefort gives the following account of this drug, in

in the ſecond volume of his travels. The ſementine, or worm-powder, is not gathered like our ſeeds: the plant growing in the meadows, muſt be ſuffered to ripen; and the miſchief is, that as it grows near to maturity, the wind ſcatters a good part of it among the graſs, where it is loſt; and this makes it ſo dear.

As they dare not touch it with the hand, for fear of making it ſpoil the ſooner; when they would gather what is left in the ear, they have recourſe to this expedient. They take two hand baſkets, and walking along the meadows ſweep the baſkets, the one from the right to the left; the other from the left to the right, as if they were mowing, by which means the ſeed is ſhook out into the baſkets.

WORMWOOD. A medicinal herb among phyſicians, called *abſynthium*.

WORSTED, or *Woolſted*, in matters of commerce and manufacture, is a kind of woollen thread. See *Wool*.

Worſted is properly a thread ſpun of wool that has been combed, and in the ſpinning is twiſted harder than ordinary: which is chiefly uſed to be knit, or wove into ſtockings, caps, gloves, or the like.

The name worſted is ſuppoſed to be borrowed from a town of that name in Norfolk, remarkable for fine ſpinning: and they who write it Woolſted, do it on ſuppoſition of the word's being formed from wool, the matter of this thread.

WOVEN. Any thing that is manufactured by a weaver.

WOULD, or *Weld*, among dyers. See *Weld*.

WOULDING. A ſea term, for the winding of ropes, firſt round about the yard, or maſt of a ſhip, after it has been ſtrengthned by ſome piece of timber nailed thereto.

WRECK, or *Sea-wreck*, in natural hiſtory, a kind of herb growing in the ſea, upon rocks, which the waves tear off and caſt upon the ſhore. In ſome places it is uſed to manure the ground: in Normandy, and other parts, they burn it; producing a kind of ſoda of the aſhes, which they uſe in the making of common green glaſs, to promote the fuſion or vitrification of the other materials. See *Glaſs*.

WRECK, called alſo *Ship-wreck*, or *Ship-wrack*, in law, is when a ſhip periſhes in the ſea, and no man eſcapes alive out of it.

In ſeveral charters and old writings, it appears that wreck anciently, not only comprehended goods which came from a periſhing ſhip; but whatever elſe the ſea caſt upon land; whether it were precious ſtones, fiſhes, ſea-weed, or the like.

Or wreck is, where a ſhip is broke to pieces, or loſt on the ſea; ſignifying in the Engliſh law, ſuch goods, as, after a ſhipwreck, are caſt upon the land by the ſea, and left there within ſome county; for they are not wrecks ſo long as they remain at ſea, in the juriſdiction of the admiralty.

It is obſerved, in matters of wreck, that there is a kind of contract between the perſons who have loſt their goods by ſuch misfortune, and the perſons upon whoſe lands the goods and merchandiſe are driven, that the ſame be reſtored to them, or thoſe that claim under them: therefore, by the civil law, no man is to meddle with ſuch goods as are wrecked, nor are they to be ſeiſed by the king, or any other, by virtue of his grant or royal privilege; for ſuch goods, being caſt on land, and recovered out of the ſea, remain ſtill his who was the firſt owner thereof, and are to go to him or his ſucceſſor; or if it is proved that any thing is ſtolen out of the wreck, the takers are to be deemed robbers.

Here we find what is worthy to be followed and imitated in all trading countries; and the reaſon why theſe laws were ſo ſtrictly declared by the Romans, was becauſe, by the Rhodian law, if any ſhip had become wreck, though all the perſons were ſaved and alive, yet the ſhip and goods became ſeiſable by the lords: but this being a barbarous and inhuman cuſtom, it was afterwards repealed and abrogated by the emperors. The ſame iniquitous cuſtom was alſo firſt aboliſhed in England by the naval laws of Oleron, which provided in ſuch misfortune, that if the merchant or mariners, or any of them come ſafe to land, it was not to be accounted wreck.

And the emperor Conſtantine the great ſays, if any ſhip, at any time, by any ſhipwreck, is driven to the ſhore, or touch at any land, let the owner have it, and let not my exchequer meddle with it; for what right have I in the calamity of another man, that I ſhould hunt after gain in ſuch a miſerable caſe?

By the laws of Oleron, a proper regulation was made for the ſafety of a ſhip or veſſel arriving at any place, and making in towards a port or harbour, if ſhe ſet out her flag, or give any other ſign to have a pilot come on board, or a boat to tow her into the harbour, the wind or tide being contrary; reciting, that it was the cauſe of an unreaſonable and accurſed cuſtom in ſome places, that the third or fourth part of the ſhips that are loſt and become wrecks, ſhall accrue to the lord of the place where ſuch ſad caſualties happen; as alſo the like proportion to the ſavers, and only the remainder to the merchant, maſter, and mariners: therefore, the perſons agreeing for the pilotage of the ſaid veſſel, to ingratiate themſelves with their lords, and gain a part of the ſhip and lading, like faithleſs and treacherous villains, ſometimes even willingly and out of deſign to ruin ſhip and goods, guide and bring her upon the rocks; and then, feigning to aid and aſſiſt the diſtreſſed mariners, are the firſt in pulling the ſhip to pieces, purloining and carrying away the lading thereof, contrary to all law and reaſon; and afterwards, that they may be the more welcome to the lord, with all ſpeed poſt to his houſe with the ſaid narrative of this unhappy diſaſter; whereupon the ſaid lord, with his retinue, appearing at the place, take their ſhare, the ſavers theirs, and what remains the merchant and mariners may have. Now ſeeeing all this is againſt the law of God, it is hereby ordained, that the ſaid lord of the place and ſalvers, and all others that take away any of the ſaid goods, ſhall be excommunicated, and puniſhed as thieves and robbers; but the falſe and treacherous pilots, ſhall be condemned to ſuffer a moſt rigorous and unmerciful death; and high gibbets ſhall be erected for them in the ſame place, or as near as may be, where they guided and brought any ſhip to ruin as aforeſaid, and thereon they ſhall with ſhame and ignominy end their days; which gibbets are to abide and remain to ſucceeding time on that place, as a caution to other ſhips that ſhall afterwards ſail thereby. And if the lord of any place be ſo barbarous, as not only to permit ſuch inhuman people, but alſo to maintain and aſſiſt them in ſuch villanies, that he may have a ſhare in ſuch wrecks, the ſaid lord ſhall be apprehended, and all his goods confiſcated and ſold, in order to make reſtitution to ſuch as of right it appertains; and himſelf ſhall be faſtened to a poſt or ſtake, in the midſt of his own manſion-houſe, which being fired at the four corners thereof, all ſhall be burnt together; and the walls ſhall be demoliſhed, the ſtones pulled down, and the place converted into a market-place, for the ſale only of hogs and ſwine to all poſterity.

Theſe two articles of the laws of Oleron are here inſerted at length, on account of the great and juſt ſpirit of them; and this barbarity is now rarely uſed in any nation in Europe, unleſs it is againſt the enemies of the ſtate, infidels, or pirates: but that which the common people practiſe upon the Engliſh coaſts, when a ſhip is unfortunately driven to land, before any aſſiſtance comes, is too much like it, and ought to be made a capital offence.

And by the ſame laws, if any ſhip ſailing to and fro, and coaſting the ſeas, as well in the way of merchandiſe, as otherwiſe, happen by misfortune, through the badneſs of the weather to ſtrike againſt any rocks, whereby ſhe is ſo broken that ſhe periſhes upon that coaſt or country; and the maſter, mariners, merchants, or any of thoſe ſhall eſcape, and come ſafe to land; in this caſe the lords of that place or country, where ſuch misfortune happens, ſhall not hinder or oppoſe ſuch that have ſo eſcaped, or them to whom the ſaid ſhip or veſſel and her lading belong, in uſing their utmoſt endeavours for preſervation of as much thereof as may poſſibly be ſaved: but, on the contrary, ſhall be aiding and aſſiſting to the diſtreſſed mariners or merchants, in ſaving their ſhipwrecked goods; and that without the leaſt embezzlement, or taking any part thereof from the right owners: and in caſe any ſhall act contrary hereunto, or take any part of the ſaid goods from the diſtreſſed, ruined, and undone ſhipwrecked perſons,

ſons, againſt their wills, except for ſalvage as juſtice ſhall appoint, they ſhall receive the puniſhment of thieves, if ſpeedy reſtitution is not made by them; nor ſhall any cuſtom protect them againſt the penalties in the twenty-ſixth article of the laws.

And where a ſhip, or other veſſel, entering into harbour, happens to be broken and periſh, and the maſter and mariners which were on board her be all drowned; if the goods belonging to the ſhip be driven aſhore, or remain floating on the ſea, without being ſought after by the owners thereof, they being ignorant of the ſad diſaſter; in this lamentable caſe, the lord of that country ought to ſend perſons to ſave the ſaid goods, which he ſhall put into ſafe cuſtody, and give notice thereof to the relations of the deceaſed perſons, and ſhall out of the goods ſatisfy for ſaving them, according to the hazards run, and the pains therein taken, and then the remainder muſt be ſecured and kept for one year or more: and if in that time they, to whom the ſaid goods appertain, do not appear and make their claims thereto, the ſaid year being fully expired, the lord may publickly ſell and diſpoſe thereof to ſuch perſons as will give moſt for the ſame; and the money ariſing from ſuch ſale he ſhall give among the poor, and to other charitable uſes: but if he aſſumes the ſaid goods, in the whole or in part to himſelf, he ſhall incur the pains and penalties aforeſaid, unleſs he make ſatisfaction.

There are ſeveral other excellent proviſions in the laws of Oleron, to ſecure ſhipwrecked goods to the diſtreſſed owners. By other ſea laws and ordinances, if any man ſhall prevent aſſiſtance to ſhipwrecked perſons, he ſhall be puniſhed as a murderer: and the like puniſhment has been ordained for thoſe who ſhall, by treachery, put forth any light, with intention to ſubject them to danger or ſhipwreck; whence it is that fiſhermen are forbidden to fiſh with lights in the night. By the laws of France, ſuch as, during the night, light falſe fires upon the ſhore in dangerous places, to decoy thither, and occaſion the loſs of ſhips, ſhall be put to death, and their bodies hung upon a maſt, which ſhall be ſet up on the place where the fires were made.

By the Rhodian laws, if a ſhip and goods periſh in the ſea, and the owners abandon her, ſo that ſhe becomes a mere derelict; in ſuch caſe, the firſt perſon that takes poſſeſſion of her, and recovers any part of her lading, gains a property therein by the laws of nations. And where any ſuch wreck happens, by any fault or negligence in the maſter or mariners, the maſter muſt make good the loſs: but if the ſame was occaſioned by the act of God, or done to avoid an enemy, or pirate, there he ſhall be excuſed. The maſter, &c. ſhall ſuſtain the damage, where he or any of his mariners lie aſhore, and the ſhip periſhes during their abſence, whether by night or by day, &c.

By the French laws, all ſhips and perſons belonging to them that ſhall be caſt aſhore by tempeſt, or otherwiſe, upon the coaſts of that kingdom, and every thing that has eſcaped ſhipwreck, is declared to be taken into the protection of the king: and all ſubjects are enjoined, not only to do their utmoſt endeavours to ſuccour all perſons in danger of ſhipwreck; but alſo, till the arrival of the officers of the admiralty, to ſave the ſhipwrecked goods, and prevent their being rifled, under pain of being anſwerable for all loſſes and damages, of which they ſhall not be excuſed, without producing thoſe that are guilty: and ſuch as make any attempt upon the lives or goods of ſhipwrecked perſons, ſhall be puniſhed with death; without any poſſibility of a pardon.

In ancient times, all wrecks in England belonged to the crown; and where a ſhip periſhes at ſea, and no man eſcapes out of it, the wrecked goods being brought to land by the waves, by the common law belong to the king by his prerogative, or to the lord of the manor: and the ſtatute *de prærogativa regis*, 17 Edw. II. ordains, that the king ſhall have wreck of the ſea, whales and great ſturgeons taken in the ſea, and elſewhere, throughout the realm, except in places privileged. But it was formerly uſual to ſeize wrecks as forfeited to the king, only when no owner could be found; for in ſuch caſe it muſt of conſequence belong to him, as lord of the narrow ſeas, which he is obliged to ſcower of pirates, &c. and the product of wrecks was ordained to contribute to the charge.

And by the ſtatute of 3d Edw. I. cap. 4. called the ſtatute of Weſtminſter the firſt, it is enacted, that where a man, dog, or cat, eſcapes alive out of the ſhip, neither the ſhip nor any thing therein ſhall be adjudged a wreck; but the goods ſhall be ſaved and kept by the ſheriff, coroners, or king's bailiffs, and delivered to the inhabitants of the town where they are found; ſo that if any perſon, within a year and a day, ſue or apply for thoſe goods, and prove that they were his property at the time of the ſhipwreck, they ſhall be reſtored to him without delay: but if not, then they ſhall be ſeized by the ſaid ſheriffs, coroners, or bailiffs, for the king's uſe, and ſhall be delivered to the inhabitants of the town or place, who ſhall anſwer before the juſtices for the wreck belonging to the king. Alſo, where the wreck belongs to another, he ſhall have the ſame in like manner; and if any one be convicted to have done otherwiſe, he ſhall ſuffer impriſonment, make fine to the king, and likewiſe yield damages: and bailiffs to lords acting contrary, ſhall anſwer for it, if they have wherewith to do it; and if they have not, the lord ſhall deliver his bailiff's body to the king to be anſwerable.

The owners claiming a wreck, muſt make ſufficient proof of their title within the year and day; and they are to do it by their marks or cockets, by the cuſtom-houſe books, or the teſtimony of reputable men; and if the wreck be taken by the king, or ſeized by perſons having no authority, the owner may have a commiſſion to inquire, and hear and determine it by the oaths of twelve men; or he may bring an action at law, and make his proof by verdict. The year and day ſhall be accounted from the ſeiſure; and if the owner of the goods dies within the year, his executors or adminiſtrators may make proof: and when ſuch goods wrecked are periſhable, the ſheriff may ſell them within the year, and the ſale ſhall be good; but he muſt diſpoſe of them to the beſt advantage, and account with the owners.

If a ſhip is ready to ſink at ſea, and all the men therein, for preſervation of their lives, quit the ſhip, and afterwards ſhe periſhes; if any of the men are ſaved, the goods ſhall not be loſt. A ſhip on the ſea was chaſed by an enemy; the men in it, for the ſecurity of their lives, quitted the ſhip, which was taken by the enemy, and ſpoiled of her goods and tackle, and then turned to ſea: after this, by ſtreſs of weather ſhe was caſt on land, where it happened her men ſafely arrived: it was reſolved that the ſhip was no wreck by the law of England.

Where goods are wrecked on ſhore, and the lord having power takes them, he ſhall not pay cuſtom, neither by the common law, nor by the ſtatute law; for, at the common law, ſhipwrecked goods could not be charged with cuſtoms, by reaſon the wreck was wholly the king's, and he could not have a cuſtom of what was all his own: and wines, or other goods, coming or brought into the kingdom by wreck, are not imported by any body, but by the wind and ſea; nor can ſuch wrecked goods ſo caſt aſhore, be ſaid to be brought into the kingdom as merchandiſe, for ſale.

If a man has a grant of wreck, and goods are wrecked upon his lands, and another takes them away before ſeizure, he ſhall have an action of treſpaſs, &c. to recover them; and before they are ſeized, there is no property gained, to make it felony. 1 Hawk. 94. In caſe a perſon loſes his goods at ſea, by piracy or tempeſt, and not by wreck; if they afterwards come to land, and he can make proof that they are his goods, they are to be reſtored by the king's officers, or the lords there.

Flotſam, jetſam, and lagan, are in general, goods on or in the ſea, and belong to the king, who by charter has granted them to the lord admiral. In particular, flotſam, is when a ſhip is ſunk or otherwiſe caſt away, and the goods float upon the ſea. Jetſam, is where the ſhip is in danger of ſinking, and for lightening the ſhip, the goods are thrown into the ſea; but notwithanding the ſhip periſhes. Lagan, is when heavy goods that ſink are caſt into the ſea, before the periſhing of the ſhip;

and the maſter and mariners, that they may find and have them again, faſten a buoy cork, or other ſea mark to them, whereby they may be more eaſily directed to the place where they lie, if they ſhall be in a condition to retake them.

A man may have flotſam and jetſam by the king's grant, and may have lagan, within the high and low water mark, by preſcription, as it appears in the weſt country, where the lords of manors preſcribe to have wreck in the ſea ſo far as they can ſee a humber barrel. And by the grant of wreck will paſs flotſam, jetſam, and lagan, when they are caſt upon land; for then they are a wreck, and belong to the lord entitled to the ſame. But if they are not caſt on the land, the admiral has the juriſdiction, and ſhall have them; for they cannot be ſaid to be a wreck.

The king, or admiral, ſhall have flotſam, jetſam, and lagan, when the ſhip periſhes, and when the owners of the goods are not known; but if the ſhip does not periſh it is otherwiſe. And it is held, that where the proprietors of the goods may be known they have a year and a day to claim flotſam.

The ſtatute of 12th Anne, cap. 18. has ordained, that the ſheriffs and juſtices of peace of every county, or of a city or town, and all mayors, bailiffs, and other head officers of corporations and port-towns near adjoining to the ſea; and all conſtables, tithingmen, and officers of the cuſtoms in all ſuch places, upon application to them made on behalf of any commander of a ſhip in danger of being ſtranded or run on ſhore, ſhall command the conſtables near the ſea-coaſt, where ſuch ſhip ſhall be in danger, to call together as many men as ſhall be neceſſary, to the aſſiſtance and for the preſervation of ſuch ſhip; and if there ſhall be any ſhips of war, or other ſhips lying at anchor near the place, the officers of the cuſtoms, and conſtables, &c. are to require the aſſiſtance of the ſuperior officers, by their boats, and what hands they can ſpare: and if ſuch officers ſhall refuſe or neglect to aſſiſt, they ſhall be liable to the penalty of 100 l. to be recovered by the chief officer of the ſhip in diſtreſs.

No perſons ſhall enter into ſuch ſhips in diſtreſs, without leave from the commander, or a conſtable, &c. And the maſters and conſtables may by force repel perſons, who ſhall preſs on board the ſaid ſhips without leave: and if any goods are carried off from any ſuch ſhip, and found on any perſon, if they are not delivered to the owner on demand, ſuch perſon ſhall pay treble the value of the goods, recoverable by the owner in an action at law. Alſo if any officer of the cuſtoms, or his deputy, abuſe the truſt repoſed in him by this act, and ſhall be convicted thereof, he ſhall forfeit treble damages to the party grieved, and be incapable of any employment in the cuſtoms.

If any perſon make holes in the bottom, ſide, or in any part of a ſhip, or ſteal any pump, or do any thing tending to the loſs of the ſhip, he ſhall be guilty of felony. And, by this ſtatute, ſhips and goods are to be preſerved for the benefit of the owners, paying the ſalvage, &c. But this act ſhall not extend to deprive the crown, or any grantee of any right or claim to any wreck or goods that ſhall be jetſam, flotſam, or lagan.

By the ſtatute of the 4th of Geo. I. it was enacted, that the act of the 12th of Queen Anne ſhould not affect the ancient juriſdiction of the admiralty court of the cinque ports; but the officers of the ſaid court ſhould put the ſaid act in execution within their juriſdiction.

But theſe acts are certainly too inefficacious for the ſuppreſſion of thoſe violences, which are ſo frequently and inhumanly perpetrated by villainous miſcreants, on ſhipwrecked mariners: they are not ſufficiently reſtrictive on the reſpective counties, hundreds, and pariſhes, which may be done in the ſame manner as the proviſions againſt highway robbers; and, in ſuch ſimilar circumſtances, ſimilar methods ought to be taken, if they have any appearance of prevention or redreſs: neither are they properly penal, ſo as to deter theſe rapacious invaders of property from plundering the cargo, and murdering the mariners; which, there is reaſon to apprehend, is too frequently the caſe.

WRIT *of aſſiſtance*, that iſſuing out of the exchequer, to authoriſe ſome perſons to take a conſtable, or other public officer; to ſeize goods or merchandiſe prohibited, or uncuſtomed.

WRITER *of the tallies*. An officer of the exchequer, who is clerk to the auditor of the receipt, and writes upon the tallies the whole letters of the tellers bills.

WYCH *houſe*. A houſe wherein ſalt is boiled. See *Salt*.

X.

XAR

XACA. A port-town of Sicily, in the province of Mazara, ſituated in 13 deg. of E. lon. and 37 deg. 37 min. of N. lat. 40 miles S. of Palermo.

XALISCO. A city of Mexico, in America, ſituated in 110 deg. of W. lon. and 22 deg. 20 min. of N. lat. near the Pacific ocean.

XAN, is a term in ſome parts of the Ottoman empire, for what is elſewhere called caravanſera.

XARAFFES, is a term at Goa, and in all the towns of trade on the Malabar-coaſt of India, for a kind of brokers, who, for a ſmall profit, examine the ſilver coins, eſpecially the pardaos xeraphins, current in trade, of which the greateſt part are ſpurious and ſophiſticated.

Theſe xaraffes are Indian chriſtians, who poſt themſelves in the corners of ſtreets, and are ſo experienced in the knowledge of theſe pardaos, that, without weighing them, without uſing the touch-ſtone, or even without ringing them as in Europe, but only by the touch, and in counting them, they diſtinguiſh a falſe piece among a thouſand; which no European, not even the Dutch, could ever do, tho' they handle and turn them a thouſand times over.

Beſides this employment of the xaraffes, they change monies, and furniſh merchants with the coins they have

XYS

an occaſion for, contenting themſelves for all profits with a few tin baſarucos, 3 of which are worth 2 Portugueſe rees; 50 rees being worth about 3½ d. ſterling.

There are alſo ſome of thoſe xaraffes at Conſtantinople, Cairo, and other towns of trade in Turky.

XOLLO. See *Philippines*.

XUKAR. A river of Spain, which riſes in New Caſtile, and having run S. E. through that province, turns due E. and croſſing the province of Valencia, falls into the Mediterranean, 20 miles S. of the city of Valencia.

XYLO-*aloe*, in medicine, the lignum aloes; called alſo *agallochum*. See *Aloes*.

XYLO-*balſamum*. A name which naturaliſts give to the wood of the tree that yields the precious gum known by the balm of Gilead, or balſam of Mecca.

There are branches of this tree brought from Cairo; being very ſtreight, unequal, and full of knots; their bark reddiſh without, and greeniſh within. The wood is whitiſh, and full of pith; and when broke yields an agreeable ſmell, reſembling that of the balm; being reputed good to ſtrengthen the brain and ſtomach; as alſo to expel poiſon. But, as it is ſcarce, yellow ſaunders, or aloes-wood, is often ſubſtituted for it by apothecaries.

XYSTOS. A precious ſtone brought from India, of the jaſper kind. See *Jaſper*.

Y.

YAR

YACHT, or *Yatcht* a kind of veſſel uſed by the Engliſh, furniſhed with maſts and ſails, fit to go to ſea; and commodiouſly adorned within-ſide and without, for the accommodation of ſtate paſſengers; having one deck, carrying from 4 to 12 guns, with from 20 to 40 men; being of burthen frnm 30 to 160 ton. They draw little water, and are uſed for expedition, or making ſhort trips: their make and form being various.

There are about ſeven or eight yachts belonging to his Britannic Majeſty; and ſeveral of the nobility alſo have their yachts: but in Ireland there is only one yacht, which generally ſails from Dublin to Parkgate with ſtate paſſengers, or other perſons of diſtinction.

The Dutch have alſo yachts, but not ſo prepared to live at ſea; being chiefly uſed for ſailing on rivers and canals.

YARD. A long meaſure in England and Spain; uſed to meaſure cloth, ſilks, and ſtuffs. See *Meaſure*.

The Engliſh yard contains three feet, and was firſt ſettled by Henry I. from the length of his own arm; being juſt 7-9ths of the Paris ell; ſo that nine yards make ſeven ells.

Yards are converted into ells Flemiſh by adding a third part; into ells Engliſh by ſubtracting a fifth part; or, multiplying by 8, and caſting off the right-hand figure. Ells are converted into yards by adding a fourth. To turn ells Flemiſh into yards, ſubtract one quarter. The Spaniſh vara, or yard, chiefly uſed at Sevil, is in ſome places called barra, containing $\frac{17}{24}$ of the Paris ell; ſo that 17 ells make 24 Spaniſh yards.

YARDS, or *Sail-yards of a ſhip*, are long pieces of timber, tapering at each end, fitted acroſs the ſeveral maſts, to carry the ſails, which are faſtened to the yards at the heads, ſo as to be hoiſted up and let down together with them, with ropes called halliards.

The main-yard is that of the main-maſt; the mizen yard, and bolt-ſprit-yard, are thoſe of the mizen and bolt-ſprit.

There are ſeveral phraſes and words of command relating to the yard; as, *brace the yard*, which ſignifies to traverſe aft the yard-arm, whoſe brace is haled; ſo that to traverſe the yard is the ſame as to ſay *brace it aft*. *Square the yard*, is as much as to ſay, ſee that it hangs right acroſs the ſhip, and one yard-arm not traverſed more than the other. *Top the yards*, that is, make them hang even.

YARD-*arm*, is that half of the yard which is on either ſide the maſt, when it lies athwart the ſhip.

YARDS alſo denote places belonging to the Britiſh navy, where the ſhips of war are laid up in harbour. See *Navy*.

The king's yards are Chatham, Deptford, Woolwich, Portſmouth, Sheerneſs, Plymouth, and Harwich; each of which is provided with ſeveral docks, wharfs, launches, and graving places, for the building, repairing and cleanſing his Majeſty's ſhips.

In theſe yards are lodged great quantities of timber, planks, anchors, and the like: here are alſo ſtorehouſes, wherein are reſerved great quantities of cables, rigging, ſails, and blocks. In theſe ſeveral yards are likewiſe rope-yards, wherein all ſorts of cordage are made.

YARE, among ſailors, implies as much as nimble, ready, quick, or expeditious. Hence, to be yare at the helm, as ſome ſay, ſignifies to ſet a freſh man at the helm.

YARE. A river of Norfolk, which runs from W. to E.

YEL

through that county, paſſing by Norwich, and falling into the German ſea at Yarmouth.

YARMOUTH. A borough and port-town of Norfolk, ſituated on the German ſea, at the mouth of the river Yare, lying in 2 deg. of E. lon. and 52 deg. 45 min. of N. lat. 20 miles E. of Norwich.

YARMOUTH, is alſo a town of the Iſle of Wight in Hampſhire, ſituated on the N.-W. coaſt of the iſland, upon a creek, the entrance of which is about a mile below the town.

YARN. Any ſort of wool ſpun into thread: though it commonly means a coarſe ſort, whoſe thread is very large, and uſed to knit ſtockings, gloves, caps, and ſuch things, for the poorer ſort of people; the finer ſort being called worſted. See *Worſted*, and *Wool*.

Rope-YARN. See *Rope*.

YARRINGLES, or *Yarringle-blades*. A kind of reel, or inſtrument, with which hanks of yarn are wound on to clues or balls.

YATCH. See *Yacht*.

YAWL. A large boat, or ſmall veſſel, which ſhips carry to ſea, to ſend on ſhore, as occaſion and buſineſs require.

YAWS, in the ſea-language. A ſhip is ſaid to make yaws when, thro' the fault of him at the helm, ſhe is not kept ſteady in her courſe, but makes angles in and out. To prevent this the conner cries to him at the helm, *ſteady, ſteady*.

YCHITZEE. A medicinal drug found in China; being ſo much eſteemed by the Japaneſe, who purchaſe it at Canton, that it produces a profit of more than 600 *per cent*.

YEAR. That ſpace of time which the ſun is ſuppoſed to take up in his paſſage thro' the ſeveral ſigns of the Zodiac; which conſiſts of 12 unequal kalendar months, containing 365 days, and once in 4 years 366. See *Stile*.

YEARLING. A beaſt of about a year old; particularly ſpoken of young cattle.

YEAST. See *Yeſt*.

YELLOW. A bright colour, reflecting the moſt light of any, after white.

There are many yellow ſubſtances which become white, upon wetting and drying them again ſeveral times in the ſun; particularly hair, wax, and linen cloth.

The ſame bodies, if they are already white, and continue a long time in the air, without being wetted, turn yellow.

Paper and ivory applied near the fire, become ſucceſſively yellow, red, and black. Silk, when turned yellow, is whitened again with the fumes of ſulphur.

YELLOW, in dying, is one of the five ſimple or mother colours. See *Colour*, and *Dying*.

For the fineſt yellows, they firſt boil the cloth, or ſtuff, in allum, and pot-aſhes; then give the colour with the weld, or would.

Turmeric likewiſe gives a good yellow, tho' not the beſt. There is alſo an Indian wood that gives the yellow colour bordering upon gold. A fourth ſort of yellow is made with ſavory; but this is inferior to them all.

Greens are uſually made of yellow and blue mixed. With yellow, madder-red, and goats hair prepared with madder, are made the golden yellow, aurora, panſy, narcarate, iſabella, and chamois-colour; which are all caſts or ſhades of yellow.

Painters

Painters and enamellers make their yellow of maſſicat, which is ceruſs raiſed by the fire; or, with yellow ochre. Limners and illuminers make it with ſaffron, French-berries, and orcanette.

YELLOW-*honey*. See *Honey*.

YEST, or *Barm*. A head, or ſcum, riſing upon beer or ale, while working or fermenting in the vat; which is uſed for a leaven, or ferment, in the baking of bread; as ſerving to ſwell, or puff it up very conſiderably in a little time, and to make it much lighter, ſofter, and more delicate; but when there is too much of it, the bread is apt to be bitter.

The uſe of yeſt in bread is but of late ſtanding in England; it not being above a century ſince the avarice of the bakers firſt introduced it; and then it was only done by ſtealth, tho' Pliny affirms it was uſed by the ancient Gauls:

The faculty of medicine of Paris, by a decree of the 24th of March 1688, ſolemnly maintained it noxious to the health of the people; yet could not prevent its progreſs.

YERKER, in the exciſe-office, is a perſon who examines the officers books.

YONNE. A river of France, which riſes in Burgundy, and runs N. through Nivernois and Champagne; then, paſſing by Auxerre and Sens, falls into the river Seyne at Monterau ſur Yonne.

New-YORK *city*, is the capital of the province of New York, in North America, ſituated in 72 deg. 30 min. of W. lon. and 41 deg. of N. lat. on an iſland in the mouth of Hudſon's river. See *Britiſh* America.

YOUNKERS, among ſailors, are younger ſailors, otherwiſe called fore-maſt-men; whoſe buſineſs is to take in the top-ſails, furl the ſails, and ſling the yards.

YQUETAYA, in natural hiſtory, a plant in Brazil, long uſed as a medicine in that country; and lately diſcovered to the Europeans by a French ſurgeon.

It has been ſince found in France, where it has been cultivated, and examined by M. Marchant, appearing to be a kind of ſcrophulary or blood-nettle.

It has this remarkable property, that it takes away from ſenna all its ill taſte and ſmell; which property of correcting the infuſion of ſenna, was unknown in the ſcrophulary.

To uſe this plant, it muſt be dried 10 or 12 days in the ſhade, and afterwards expoſed to the ſun till quite dry.

YVICA. A Spaniſh iſland, the leaſt of the Baleares, lying in the Mediterranean, between the province of Valencia in Spain, and the iſland of Majorca, in 1 deg. of E. lon. and 39 deg. of N. lat. being about 30 miles long, and 24 broad. It is a mountainous barren country; but produces great quantities of ſalt.

YUNE. A liquid meaſure uſed at Wirtemberg; 16 of which make the awm, or 1-7th of an Engliſh ton. See *Awm*.

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ZAARA, or *Sarra*. One of the diviſions of Africa, ſituated under the tropic of Capricorn; bounded by Bildulgerid on the north; by the unknown parts of Africa on the eaſt; by Nigritia, or Negroland, on the ſouth; and by the Atlantic ocean on the weſt. It is a barren deſart, as the name ſignifies; and ſo deſtitute of water, that the caravans of camels, which paſs over it from Moroeco to traffic with Negroland, are half loaded with water and proviſions. As it produces ſcarce any thing to ſuſtain life, there are no towns in it; but a ſort of people like the Arabs, who live in tents; and, being acquainted with the few ſprings there are, wander from one part of the country to the other, as they expect to meet with water and food for their cattle. They are not black, but of an olive complexion; their language is Arabic; their religion Mahometaniſm; and they are ſuppoſed to be the deſcendants of thoſe Arabs who ſubdued Africa ſoon after the death of their prophet Mahomet.

ZABAC *ſea*. See *Meotis* Palus.

ZAEJIES. A ſmall ſilver coin current in Perſia; being the half of the mamoudi, or 4 d. ſterling.

ZAFFER, *Zaffre*, *Zafara*, or *Safree*. A mineral brought from the Eaſt Indies, particularly from Surat; of which there are two ſorts, the fine and the common: the former is in a blueiſh cineritious ſtone; and the latter is in a grey powder, like aſhes.

It is much uſed in enamelling, as alſo in the making of glaſs and porcelain, to give a blue colour.

Zaffer is now thought to be of ſuch uſe in England, that the ſociety for the encouragement of arts, manufactures, and commerce, whoſe office is in Craig's court, Charing-croſs, promiſed a premium, on the 16th of July 1755, of 30 l. for making the moſt and beſt zaffer and ſmalt from Engliſh cobalt, not leſs than 5 lb. weight of zaffer, and 15 lb. of ſmalt, to be produced on or before the 2d Wedneſday in January 1756, with ſatisfactory certificates.

ZAFREN. Any thing of a yellow colour; but chiefly applied to the plant called ſaffron. See *Saffron*.

ZAIN. A ſort of mineral, ranked among half metals. See *Zinck*.

ZANQUEBAR, or *Zanguebar*, is a country on the Eaſt coaſt of Africa, ſituated in the ſouthern latitude, between the equator and the tropic of Capricorn; being bounded by the country of Anian on the north; by the Indian ocean on the eaſt; by Caffraria on the ſouth; and by the unknown parts of Africa on the weſt; comprehending the provinces of Madagaſcar, Melinda, Quiloa, Mozambique, and Sofala.

The Portugueſe have ſeveral colonies and ſettlements along this coaſt; where they pretend to have made a great many proſelytes to Chriſtianity among the Negroes, and claim a kind of dominion over the petty princes of the country. They trade with the natives for gold, ſlaves, ivory, oſtrich feathers, wax, gum, grain, civet, ambergreaſe, aloes, ſenna, and other drugs: beſides which, the country produces rice, ſugar, and ſuch fruits as are uſually found between the tropics.

Melinda is the capital city of all the Portugueſe ſettlements; being ſituated in 39 deg. of E. lon. and 3 deg. of S. lat. on the Indian ocean, 70 miles N. of Mombaza. It is a large populous city; having 17 churches, and 9 convents; with ſeveral warehouſes. It has a good harbour, defended by a citadel; and the city, with the

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little iſland on which it ſtands, is ſaid to contain 200,000 inhabitants; of whom a great part are Chriſtians, and the reſt Negroes, who have a king and a religion of their own; but all in ſome ſubjection to the Portugueſe.

The gold mines of Sofala produce annually to the amount of about 1,300,000 l. ſterling; which is divided between the Portugueſe and the Arabians.

ZANTE. An iſland of the Mediterranean, ſituated in 21 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 37 deg. 50 min. of N. lat. 12 miles W. of the Morea, and 14 S. of Cephalonia; being 12 miles long, and 24 broad. It is very conſiderable on account of the little grapes which it produces, called currants, or corinths; moſt of the countries of Europe being ſupplied with them from this iſland, which is ſubject to the Venetians, though moſt of the natives are Greeks. See Venice, under *Italy*.

ZARA. A city of Dalmatia, ſituated in 17 deg. of E. lon. and 44 deg. of N. lat. on the gulph of Venice, 60 miles N. W. of Spalatto; ſurrounded by the ſea, and ſubject to Venice.

ZATOU. A meaſure for rice, uſed by the natives of the iſland of Madagaſcar, containing about 50 lb. avoirdupois.

ZEALAND, or *Zeland*. The chief of the Daniſh iſlands, ſituated at the entrance of the Baltic ſea; being about 200 miles in circumference; and having upon it the city of Copenhagen, which is the capital of Denmark. See *Denmark*.

ZEALAND, is alſo one of the ſeven United Provinces, conſiſting of eight iſlands, that lie at the mouth of the Scheld; the chief of which is Walcheren, whereon the city of Middleburg is ſituated. See *United* Provinces.

ZEDOARY. A medicinal root, belonging to a plant growing in the Eaſt Indies, whoſe leaves are like thoſe of ginger, only longer and broader; being of an aſh-colour, with an aromatic bitteriſh taſte, and is ranked in the claſs of cephalics: but it is alſo reckoned by many among the alexipharmics, and is even ſaid to prevent infections, by holding it only in the mouth.

It is alſo preſcribed among ſtomachics, on account of its agreeable bitter; and, for its ſpicy warmth, is recommended in cholics, hyſterical affections, and for promoting the menſes.

ZENITH, in aſtronomy, the vertical point; or a point in the heavens directly over our head.

Or the zenith is a point, in the ſurface of the ſphere, from which a right line, drawn thro' the ſpectator's head, paſſes thro' the centre of the earth. Hence, there are as many zeniths as there are different places on the earth, where the heavens may be ſeen; and upon changing our place we alſo change the zenith.

The zenith is alſo called the pole of the horizon; becauſe it is 90 degrees diſtant from each point thereof.

It is alſo the pole of all the almucantars, or parallels of horizon, whereby the altitude of the ſtars is eſtimated.

Through the zenith paſs the vertical circles, or azimuths: the point diametrically oppoſite to the zenith being called the nadir, which is the point directly under our feet, and is the zenith to our antipodes, as our zenith is the nadir to them. See *Antipodes*.

ZER. A general name in Perſia for all ſorts of coins.

ZEST. The woody thick ſkin quartering the kernel of a walnut; which ſome phyſicians preſcribe, when dried, to be taken with white wine, as a remedy againſt the gravel. The word is alſo uſed for a chip of orange or lemon-

lemon-peel; ſuch as is uſually ſqueezed into ale or wine, to give it a flavour. Hence to zeſt an orange, or lemon, among confectioners, is to cut the peel from top to bottom into ſmall ſlips, as thin as poſſible.

ZIA. See *Turkiſh* Iſlands.

ZIAN. A ſilver coin of Amadabat, in India, and current in ſome other parts of the Mogul's territories; being about 2 s. 10 d. ſterling.

ZIBETHUM, in natural hiſtory, civet; being a perfume like muſk, contained in a kernelly bladder, in the groin of a civet-cat. See *Civet*.

ZIM. A Perſian word, ſignifying ſilver, conſidered as a metal.

ZIMBI. A kind of ſhell uſed for ſmall money, on ſome of the African coaſts; particularly at Angola, and in the kingdom of Congo; 2000 making what the Negroes call a macoute. See *Macoute*.

ZIMMER. A Ruſſian term, uſed in the fur-trade, ſignifying 10 pair of ſkins: thus a zimmer of ſables conſiſts of 20 ſkins.

ZINGI. A kind of almond, growing in the Eaſt Indies, and reſembling a ſtar in form; being compoſed of ſeven kinds of oblong and triangular nuts, diſpoſed circularly. Its rind is hard, rough, and black. The almonds are ſmooth and ſhining; like flax-ſeed in colour; with the ſmell and taſte of aniſeed; from whence it is ſometimes called the Indian aniſe. The Chineſe make uſe of this fruit for the preparation of their tea and ſherbet.

ZINK, or *Zinothum*. A kind of metalline ſubſtance, very hard, white, and brilliant; which is not ductile enough to denominate it a metal, but ſtretches a little under the hammer; being the ſame with what is otherwiſe called *ſpelter*, and uſed to purge and purify tin; much in the ſame manner as lead is uſed to purify gold, ſilver, and copper. See *Spelter*, and *Lead*.

Founders and toymen uſe it with turmeric, to tinge copper: for it gives a fine gold colour, though not very laſting.

M. Homberg conjectures, with a good deal of probability, that zink is no other than a natural mixture of two real metals, tin, and iron. What led him him to the opinion was, that zink yields preciſely the ſame fumes by the burning-glaſs as ſuch a mixture does. Accordingly, he aſſures us, he often ſubſtituted the one for the other, and this always with the very ſame effect.

Mr. Stahl ſays, it is extracted from a kind of the lapis calaminaris, and from the lead ore of Goſlar, in the duchy of Brunſwick in Germany.

ZINZIBER, or *Zingiber*. See *Ginger*.

ZIZYPHA, or *Zizyphus*. A name ſometimes given to a kind of fruit, more uſually called jujubs. See *Jujubs*.

ZOCOTORA, or *Socotora*. An iſland of the Indian ocean, ſituated 120 miles N. E. of cape Gardefoy in Africa, in 53 deg. of E. lon. and 11 deg. 30 min. of N. lat. being about 70 miles long, and 50 broad. The natives are a mixture of mahometans and pagans; who are ſometimes frequented by ſuch ſhips as are bound to India.

The Portugueſe were the firſt Europeans who had a knowledge of this iſland, and began to trade there in 1507; being the only nation which enjoyed this commerce for a conſiderable time: but at preſent all European nations eſtabliſhed in the Eaſt Indies, trade or touch there for refreſhments in going to or coming from Mocha.

Beſides good proviſions, the iſland alſo affords aloes, ambergreaſe, indigo, civet, frankincenſe, dragon's blood, and other medicinal gums; as alſo rice, tobacco, and dates: but the aloes, indigo, and civet, are reſerved for the king; and the trade for the reſt is free to every one.

The aloes of Zocotara have the reputation of being the moſt excellent in the world; and therefore European druggiſts give the name of aloes zocotrine to that of the beſt quality they have in their ſhops. The inhabitants of the iſland gather it in the bladders of ſeveral animals; or in goat-ſkins dried in the ſun; in which manner the real zocotrine is brought into Europe.

The dates, which are on this iſland in abundance, make one of the principal objects of its trade; and the iſlanders uſe it inſtead of bread, after having reduced it into a kind of paſte.

Commerce is apparently carried on in this iſland with much fidelity and candour; but, as the inhabitants diſtruſt all other nations with whom they trade, they ſhould have as little confidence placed in them; it being uſual with them to ſophiſticate the greater part of their merchandiſe, unleſs the Europeans are very cautious in their tranſactions.

ZODIAC, in aſtronomy, a broad circle, whoſe middle is the ecliptic, and its extremes two circles parallel thereto, at ſuch diſtance from it as to comprehend the excurſions of the ſun and planets.

The ſun never deviates from the middle of the zodiac, that is, from the ecliptic, which the planets all do more or leſs. The greateſt deviations, called latitudes, are the meaſure of the breadths of the zodiac.

The zodiac, cutting the equator obliquely, makes an angle therewith, of 23 degrees and a half; or more preciſely, of 23 deg. 29 min. which is called the obliquity of the zodiac, and is the greateſt declination of the ſun.

The zodiac is divided into twelve portions, called ſigns, and thoſe diviſions are denominated from the conſtellations which anciently poſſeſſed each part. But, the zodiac being immoveable, and the ſtars having got a motion from weſt to eaſt, thoſe conſtellations no longer correſpond to their proper ſigns; whence ariſes what is called the preceſſion of the equinoxes.

When a ſtar, therefore, is ſaid to be in ſuch a ſign of the zodiac, it is not to be underſtood of that ſign or conſtellation of the firmament, but only of that twelfth part of the zodiac, or dodecatemory thereof.

ZOLEDENIC, is the 96th part of the Ruſſian pound; uſed only by retailers.

ZONE, in geography and aſtronomy, a diviſion of the terraqueous globe, with reſpect to the different degrees of heat found in the different parts thereof; being the fifth part of the ſurface of the earth, contained between two parallels.

The zones are denominated torrid, frigid, and temperate.

Torrid-ZONE, is a faſcia, or band ſurrounding the terraqueous globe, and terminated by two tropics: its breadth being 46 deg. 58 min. The equator running through the middle of it, divides it into two equal parts, each containing 23 deg. 29 min. but the ancients imagined the torrid zone uninhabitable.

Temperate-ZONES, are two faſciæ, or bands environing the globe, and contained between the tropics and the polar circles; each being 43 deg. 2 min. in breadth.

Frigid-ZONES, are ſegments of the ſurface of the earth; the one being terminated by the antarctic, and the other by the arctic circle; the breadth of each being 46 deg. 58 min.

The difference of zone is attended with a great diverſity of phænomena. 1. In the torrid zone the ſun paſſes through the zenith twice a year; and his receſs from the equator towards the pole, which is above the horizon, is twice a year equal to the heighth of the pole. 2. In the temperate and frigid zones, the leaſt height of the pole exceeds the greateſt diſtance of the ſun from the equator; and therefore, to the inhabitants thereof, the ſun never paſſes thro' the zenith; yet, if on the ſame day the ſun riſes at the ſame time to a greater heighth, the heighth of the pole is the leſs, in regard the inclination of the circles of the diurnal revolution to the horizon is leſs. 3. In the temperate and torrid zones, the ſun riſes and ſets every natural day, by reaſon the diſtance of the ſun from the pole always exceeds the height of the pole; yet every where but under the equator, the artificial days are unequal, and the inequality is the greater, as the place is leſs diſtant from the frigid zone. 4. Where the temperate zones terminate on the frigid, the heighth of the pole is equal to the diſtance of the ſun from the pole, when in the neighbouring tropic; and, conſequently, once a year, the ſun, in its diurnal motion, performs an intire revolution, without going down under the horizon. 5. Every where in a frigid zone, the height of the pole is greater than the leaſt diſtance of the ſun from the pole,

and

and therefore, during ſome revolutions of the earth, the ſun is at a diſtance from the pole leſs than the pole's heighth; and during all that time does not ſet, nor ſo much as touch the horizon. Where the diſtance of the pole, as the ſun recedes from it, exceeds the heighth of the pole or latitude of the place, the ſun riſes or ſets every natural day.

ZONNAR. A kind of belt, or girdle, of black leather, that the Chriſtians and Jews of the Levant, particularly thoſe in the territories of the Grand Signior, are obliged to wear, to diſtinguiſh them from the Mahometans; which was enjoined them by Motavakkel X. kalif of the family of the Abaſſides, in the year of the Hegira 235. Hence, as moſt of the Chriſtians of Syria and Meſopotamia, are either Neſtorians or Jacobites, thoſe ſectaries are often called Chriſtians of the girdle.

ZOOPHYTON, in natural hiſtory, a kind of intermediate body, partaking both of the nature of a ſenſitive and vegetable; ſuch is the planta pudica commonly ſuppoſed to be, tho' with little foundation: but the ancients alſo reputed ſponges to be zoophytes.

ZOPYSA. Naval pitch; or a kind of mixture of pitch and tar, ſcraped off ſhips that have been a long time at ſea. See *Pitch*, and *Tar*.

This matter, by being gradually penetrated by the ſalt of the ſea, partakes of its qualities; and, being applied to the body externally, is found reſolutive and deſiccative.

ZURICH. A city of Switzerland, being the capital of the canton of Zurich, ſituated in 8 deg. 30 min. of E. lon. and 47 deg. 52 min. of N. lat.

ZURICH *lake*, is 24 miles long and 3 broad; by which the citizens of Zurich have an opportunity of importing and exporting their merchandiſe, becauſe the lake has a communication with the river Rhine.

ZUYDERSEE, or *Zuider ſea*, is a great bay of the German ocean, in the middle of the United Provinces; having the iſlands of Texel, Flie, and Schelling, at the entrance of it, on the north; the provinces of Frieſland, Overyſſel, and Guelderland, on the eaſt; Utrecht, and a part of Holland, on the ſouth; and another part of Holland on the weſt. There are ſeveral port-towns in this bay; but Amſterdam is the moſt conſiderable, whoſe foreign trade is equal to that of any town in the world; though the Zuider ſea is ſo ſhallow, that the Dutch flat-bottomed veſſels paſs over it with great difficulty.

ZZ. A character among the ancient phyſicians for myrrh; but uſed by the moderns for ginger.

THE END.

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